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The Effects of Dictogloss, a Collaborative Learning Procedure, on Second Year Students' Performance in English Tenses

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Thesis Submitted to the Department of Letters and English in Candidacy for the Degree Doctorat LMD in "Didactiques des Langues Etrangères"

Presented by: Meriem LEBSIR   Supervised by: Prof. Farida ABDERRAHIM

Board of Examiners:

Chairman: Prof. Ahmed MOUMENE   University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine

Supervisor: Prof. Farida Abderrahim   University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine

Member: Dr Riad Belouhaem   University "Des Frères Mentouri", Constantine

Member: Dr. Mohamed OUSKOURT   University Emir Abd-el-Kader, Constantine

Member: Dr. Sarah MERROUCHE   University Oum El Boughi

Dedication

I dedicate this work to:

- ➢ *My loving parents for their devotion to my education.*

- ➢ *My husband who was my resort whenever I had a 'research ache'.*

- ➢ *My sisters for their understanding.*

- ➢ *My brothers for their kindness and support.*

- ➢ *All my family and my friends.*

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Abstract

In spite of the fact that learning English tenses is considered essential in the process of learning English, they have been found difficult to learners of various backgrounds, including Arab learners. More strikingly, they have been proved to pose a serious problem of acquisition even to learners with advanced level. The current thesis aims at investigating the effectiveness of dictogloss, done for reinforcement and practice purposes, on Second Year students' performance while using English tenses. It is also concerned with finding out about students' motivation and attitudes towards dictogloss. we hypothesize that adopting dictogloss to teach English tenses is likely to be effective to improve the students' accuracy of the use of verb tenses. We also hypothesize that the students would have positive attitudes towards dictogloss when it is used in grammar classes. To check our hypotheses, we have relied on two research means commonly used in Second Language Acquisition studies: an experimental design and a questionnaire given to Second Year Grammar teachers and to the students with the purpose of knowing how they felt towards the dictogloss procedure. A pre-test and post-test which contain two parts, a close procedure and composition, were administered to 118 students who were randomly divided into two Experimental Groups (n: 61) and two Control Groups (n: 57). After having done the pre-test, the Experimental Groups received the instructional content concerning the English tenses coupled with five dictogloss tasks, and the Control Groups were taught the same content without being exposed to the new technique. A post-test was given to all the groups. After the experimentation, The results of the tests showed that the Experimental Groups performed better than the Control Groups in the first part of the test: the close procedure; however, there was no difference between their results in the second part: the composition. Additionally, the analysis of teachers' and students' questionnaires revealed that the students expressed positive attitudes towards dictogloss. Based on the conclusions drawn from the results, we propose some guidelines for grammar teachers to help their students understand better and use correctly the complex temporal system of English through dictogloss. Some pedagogical suggestions for future research are also recommended.

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List of Abbreviations and Symbols

C: Correct Answers

F: Frequency

CI: Comprehensible Input

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

FC: Future Continuous

FL: Foreign Language

F on F: Focus on Form

F on Fs: Focus on forms

FPerf.C: Future Perfect Continuous

FPerf.: Future Perfect

FS: Future Simple

PC: Past Continuous

PPerf.C: Past Perfect Continuous

PPerf.: Past Perfect

Pr.C: Present Continuous

Pr.Perf.C: Present Perfect Continuous

Pr.Perf.: Present Perfect

Pr.S: Present Simple

PS: Past Simple

L2: Second Language

TBLT: Task-based Language Teaching

Xc: Control Groups' mean

Xe: Experimental Groups' mean

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Introduction

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1. Statement of the Problem

Various researchers, for a long time, have sought sound teaching techniques in order to provide successful language learning, especially in the field of grammar, since it is argued that acquiring the grammar of a given language contributes to the mastery of that language. In other words, while communication remains the ultimate goal of language learning, a mastery of the grammatical system of a language is paramount and necessary for the sake of becoming fluent language users. For that reason, in search of such techniques, many integrate traditional concerns for grammar instruction with communicative techniques of pair-work and group–work because opting for either of them alone does not satisfy teachers' and learners' needs and goals. Their focus is on teaching techniques that allow learners to learn/practise grammar through working on a combination of both meaning and form.

In the field of a second/ foreign language, dictogloss, a collaborative task in which learners interact with one another to produce a written reconstructed version of a text that has been read to them by the teacher, has been found to be an appropriate teaching and learning technique. It promotes negotiation of meaning as well as negotiation of form and also gives learners a chance to reflect on their own output. The interaction between pairs or a small-group during dictogloss gives students opportunities to talk about grammar in order to complete the task. Through our experience in teaching, this type of grammar tasks has not been exploited although it could create a good environment for enhancing learners' acquisition of different grammatical aspects. In the light of this, the question that we would ask is whether integrating dictogloss in grammar classes results in enhancing students' ability to notice and focus more on grammatical forms.

In their First and Second Year at the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1, students are taught English tenses. However, they find it difficult to master the tense-aspect system in spite of all efforts on the part of teachers to facilitate its

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acquisition/learning. The complexity of this system is related to the fact that English has three time frames (present, past and future) and four aspects (simple, progressive, perfective and progressive perfective), giving twelve verb tense-aspect combinations or forms. In terms of semantics, students misunderstand the differences of meaning of each tense. Learners of English, therefore, must not only learn the markings of the tense but also distinguish between its various uses. For example, although many languages use one future tense, a student learning English has to distinguish among several different structures, each conveying a different meaning.

2. Aims of the Study

Understanding the English verb system is crucial to English learners' achievement of high levels of oral and written discourse and, as we have mentioned, learning the English verb system is very challenging because students must deal with many different structures and meanings. Accordingly, our primary concern as grammar teachers is to facilitate the acquisition/learning of the English temporal system and to eradicate as much as possible learners' errors when using English tenses, either in writing or speaking.

The main objective of the current study is to examine the effectiveness of dictogloss, used for reinforcement and practice purposes, in enhancing the students' performance in English tenses. In addition, it is concerned with determining how teachers perceive dictogloss as a technique to teach/practise English tenses, and how students feel towards dictogloss.

3. Research Questions/Hypotheses

In attempting to find out whether dictogloss affects positively the learners' performance when it comes to the use of English tenses and whether students like this technique, it is necessary to answer the following questions:

- Does dictogloss, a collaborative learning procedure, have a positive impact on students' performance when using English tenses?

- Does it have positive effects on students' attitudes and motivation?

Accordingly, we hypothesize that adopting dictogloss in grammar classes while teaching English tenses is likely to be effective to improve the students' accuracy of the use of verb tenses. We also hypothesize that students would have positive attitudes towards dictogloss when it is used in grammar classes to teach English tenses.

4. Means of Research

In order to provide an adequate evaluation of the effectiveness of dictogloss and to confirm or disconfirm the first hypothesis, we opted for an experimental design consisting of a pre-test, instruction and a post test. The pre-test is composed of two parts. Part one, is made of a text with 13 blanks representing different English tense-aspect forms; in order to evaluate students' awareness of the form and the use of the targeted grammatical aspect in the context of occurrence. Part two, composition, is set to evaluate students' ability to use English tenses in language use (communicatively). In the instruction, the Experimental Groups, along with the instructional content concerning tenses, were exposed to the new technique dictogloss. The Control groups were taught the same content, without being introduced to dictogloss tasks. At the end of tense use courses, both the Experimental and the Control groups were assigned the same test to see whether the use of the new technique, dictogloss, brought some changes in the Experimental students' performance of English tenses in comparison with the performance of the Control groups.

To check the validity of the second hypothesis, Second Year grammar teachers and learners are handed out a Questionnaire.

5. Structure of the Thesis

This dissertation comprises six chapters. The first three chapters constitute the literature survey. Chapter one presents the different interpretations of the word grammar which vary according to the views of what language is. It reviews the place and status assigned to the

teaching and learning of grammar in the most prominent approaches and methods of language teaching such as the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-Lingual Method, the Natural Method, Communicative Language Teaching, and Task-based Language Teaching and Learning. It sheds light on the various arguments in favour and against grammar teaching. It also draws up some basic principles (rules) for grammar teaching, and ways to tackle grammar items from two different perspectives: explicit teaching and implicit teaching. The arguments for the importance of approaching grammar through discourse are also highlighted

The second chapter covers the focus on form approach and its rationale. An attempt is also made to determine the rationales for implementing   form- focused collaborative output tasks use in second and foreign language classrooms. Then, attention is drawn to the definition of dictogloss as a form- focused output collaborative activity, which was introduced to develop learners' grammatical competence. It also highlights the value of dictogloss in language teaching and pedagogical arguments that provide attractive support for implementing this technique into classroom to teaching grammar. It sheds light on the empirical studies focusing on dictogloss; the studies that have been conducted to examine the effectiveness of dictogloss in enhancing students' grammatical competence. Finally, some principles underlying dictogloss as a collaborative task in nature are referred to.

The third chapter, 'English Tenses', initially clarifies the difference between tense and aspect notions with focus on various forms and uses of English tenses. It ends up by providing various sources of difficulty of the temporal system of English according to different linguists.

Chapter four explains the research methodology followed during the experimentation. It is also concerned with the quantitative analysis and interpretation of the findings based on the

pre-test and post-test administered to four groups (two Experimental groups and two Control groups).

Chapter five is devoted to the analysis of the Teachers' and Students' questionnaires in order to investigate their perceptions and attitudes towards dictogloss.

In chapter six, some suggestions are provided as guidelines to help teachers of Grammar or other disciplines who wish to adopt this technique in their classrooms. Some limitations of the current study are also highlighted.

Chapter One

Teaching Grammar

Introduction

1.1 Definition of Grammar

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Introduction

Due to the fact that it is very helpful in improving one's abilities and is the key to achieve proficiency, grammar has moved from being a topic of tedious and troublesome area of language into the centre of attention. There is still a number of controversial issues in regard to grammar instruction pedagogy. However, grammar is reconsidered to be of a colossal importance because of its role in language study. It has been the main focus of language specialists looking for the most suitable foreign language teaching and learning approaches/methods that could be efficient for speakers of other languages.

1.1 Definition of Grammar

As Swan (2005) explains, even if someone feels that s/he knows quite well what grammar is, s/he might not find it easy to define it. Grammar, according to him, "is the kind of question that seems easy to answer until somebody asks it" (p. 3). However, grammar is generally referred to as "a description of rules that govern how sentences of a given language are formed" (Thornbury, 1999:1) or "the way a language manipulates and combines words in order to form longer units of meaning" (Ur, 1988:4). In other words, grammar deals with what forms and what combination of words are possible. According to Crystal (1996: 6) grammar is referred to as "the business of taking a language into pieces to see how it works". Grammar is also looked at as a system involving language morphology and syntax which "make up the system of language" (Alexander, 1990: 379).The first subcomponent of grammar-morphology-deals with the form of words, while the other- syntax- deals with the way words combine to form sentences (Huddelston, 1988). Morphology is defined as the system which "deals with the internal form of words" (Huddleston and Pullum, 2005:6), in other words, the study of the structure of word formation. Morphology rules indicate that, for example, the word "unlikely" has the parts '*un*', '*like*',and '*ly*'. It is important to mention that morphology exhibits the change in word formation. These changes, as Thornbury (1999)

asserts, are essentially the result of word inflection(such as plural, verb tenses, aspect, possession) or derivation (as in prefixes and suffixes). Syntax, according to Crystal (1997: 9), is "the way in which words are arranged to show relationships of meanings within sentences. For example, '*I met an old friend*' is admissible, but, '*I met friend an old*' is not". Most syntactic studies focus on sentence structure, for this is where the most important grammatical relationships are expressed.

Larsen-Freeman (1993) claims that grammar represents more than combining words in the right order in sentences or the formation of words, arguing that grammar is also related to a great extent to *semantics* and *pragmatics*. In other words, grammatical structures are not only made of a morphosyntactic form or what is grammatically well formed, they are also used to express meaning in context appropriately. She strongly insists on the interdependence of grammar with these two language levels, claiming that language learners must master all the three dimensions together. The following pie chart illustrates this
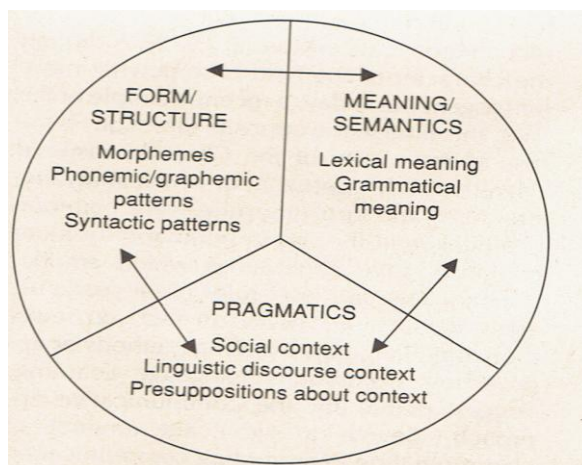
Figure 01: A Three- Dimensional Grammar Framework (Larsen-Freeman, 1993:280)

In this sense, Brown (2001:362) maintains that:

> *Grammar gives us the form or the structure of language but*
>
> *those forms are literally meaningless without a second*

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dimension, that of semantics (meaning), and a third

dimension, pragmatics.

This indicates that the study of grammar should not be divorced from the study of meaning or from the study of when grammatical constructions are used in real situation.

Palcher (1999:49) considers that "without grammar, language would be chaotic". He points out that grammar should not be regarded as a static system but rather a dynamic and changing one since language itself changes; it allows language users to produce an infinite number of sentences, exchange information, and behave appropriately in various contexts. Accordingly, Swan (2005) explains that grammar does many other things besides combining words and building sentences. He considers this as an incomplete definition because it does not indicate the function of grammar; mentioning that in order to understand grammar meaning and what grammar is for, we need to imagine language without grammar.

Moreover, Bouras (2006: 34) refers to the fact that aspects like, stress and intonation, affect sometimes grammar, pointing out that:

Putting the stress on a syllable rather than another of the same word could change this word from one category (word class) to another. For example W̲orks Verb (present simple, third person singular). Wo̲rks Noun (plural). Giving a rising intonation pattern to an affirmative declarative sentence makes it sound interrogative. For example: He has come Affirmative (neutral intonation). He has come Interrogative (rising intonation).

With regard to the previous definitions, Moumene (2004:501) states that the term grammar means:

Different things to different scholars because grammar is multidimensional in essence. [It] has been used in an all-embracing sense. Amongst its commonest definitions are the following: the ability to read and write, the complex underlying system of language, the scientific description and analysis of language, knowledge about language, a grammar book, syntax, inflection or morphology, Latin or academic courses, and the whole study of language including not only morphology and syntax but also phonology and semantics.

Grammar has also been viewed from functional versus formal perspectives. According to Lock (1996: 1), formal grammar is a "set of rules which specify all the possible grammatical structures of language". He claims that this formal analysis concerns primarily the form of grammatical structures and the relationships between these structures and what is well formed and what is not. Functional grammar, on the other hand, views grammar as a social communicative system which consists of functions and notions that need to be used in order to be learnt (Dowing and Locke, 2006). In this sense, Functional grammar "considers language primarily as a system of communication and analyzes grammar to discover how it is organized to allow speakers and writers to make and exchange meanings". It focuses on "the appropriateness of a form for a particular communicative purpose in a particular context". Such an approach is concerned with "the functions of structures and their constituents and with their meanings in context" (Lock ibid: 1).

1.2 The Place of Grammar in Language Teaching Approaches / Methods

In language teaching, there have always been changes and developments in approaches and methods of language teaching. These changes have always been justified by the change in

learners' needs and interests; for example, a move towards oral proficiency rather than reading comprehension as the goal of language study (Richards and Rodgers, 1986).

A review of the essential language teaching approaches and methods shows that the most prominent methods are the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, the Audio-lingual Approach, the Natural Approach, Communicative Language Teaching, and Task-based Language Teaching and Learning. Our analysis of these approaches /methods focuses on the status assigned to the teaching and learning of grammar in language study.

1.2.1 The Grammar-Translation Method

The Grammar-Translation Method is the most ancient method that appeared in the field of foreign language teaching. It has different names as the « Classical Method », « The Traditional Method », or « The Indirect Method ». This approach, as Kailani and Al Muttawa (1989) hold, was originally used to teach Latin and Greek, and was applied later on to teach modern languages such as French and English. It is based on the belief that knowing about language (grammatical rules) leads to knowing how to use language (communication). In other words, language was regarded as a system, and the acquisition of language could not take place without the mastery of its linguistic system. Howatt (1984: 131) provides information about the roots of the Grammar-Translation Method when he states that:

> *The grammar-translation method was an attempt to adapt*
> *[...]requirements of schools. It preserved the basic framework*
> *of grammar and translation because these were already*
> *familiar both to teachers and pupils from their classical*
> *studies. Its principal aim, ironically enough in view of what*
> *was to happen latter, was to make language learning easier.*
> *The central feature was the replacement of traditional texts by*
> *exemplificatory sentences. It was the special status accorded to*

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the sentence at the expense of the text that attracted the most

outspoken criticism of the reformers later in the century, not

the use of grammar as such.

The major characteristics of the Grammar-Translation method is, precisely as its name suggests, a focus on teaching grammar rules and practising translation as the only teaching and learning activities (Richards and Rodgers, 1986). That is to say, this language teaching method uses grammar and translation as complementary means for the teaching and learning of foreign languages. As Thornbury (1999) assumes, this method views grammar as "[the basis and] the starting point for instruction" (p.12). He shows that the typical lesson followed in the Grammar-Translation method starts by the teacher selecting the grammatical structure to be taught, presenting it and explaining the rule of its use, mostly made in students' native language, and giving various examples for illustration. After that, students practise and memorize the grammar rules that they have been exposed to with a list of vocabulary, and translate sentences and texts from and into the target language. Accordingly, "the first language is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language" (Stern, 1983:445; cited in Richards and Rodgers, 1986:03). In this respect, Richards and Rodgers (1986: 3) hold that this teaching method "is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language". Larsen- Freeman (2000) reports that, at that time, the major focus of foreign language study was to learn a language in order to be able to read what was written in the literature, and to be able to translate a language into another; if students achieve this goal, they are considered as successful language users. Hence, learners were encouraged to develop grammar, reading, writing, and translation skills. According to Moumene (2004: 57)

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> *... the Grammar-Translation method looks at the target language (TL) as a system of morph-syntactic rules to be indicated into the learners' heads and to be compared with the first language (1L) grammatical system.*

He further notes that "it generally follows an explicit deductive method based upon a traditional perspective view of language" (p. 57). Lindsay and Knight (2006) indicate the current status of this method when they point out that it is still used to some extent in more traditional schools, adding that one feature of the Grammar-Translation method which is still used is translation of words and phrases from the target language into the learners' first language. However, because of the strong stress that was assigned to forms of language and their memorization, students were unable to use a foreign language to communicate. Richards and Rogers (1986: 4-5) go as far as to say that "it may be true to say [. . .] the Grammar-Translation Method [. . .] has no advocates. It is a method for which there is no rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory". This has led to criticisms of this teaching method, as Rivers (1986:18. cited in Kailani and Al Muttawa.1989: 32), who refers to the drawbacks of this method, says:

> *There is a great deal of stress on knowing rules and exceptions, but little training is devoted to using the language actively to express one's own meaning, even in writing.*

This method has also been criticized on the fact that it influences learning which makes it, as Richards and Rodgers (1986:4) state, "a tedious experience of memorizing endless lists of unusable grammar rules and vocabulary and an attempt to produce perfect translation of stilted literacy prose".

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1.2.2 The Direct Method

The Direct Method appeared in the mid-to-late 19th century as a reaction to the previous method. It is totally different in perspective from the Grammar-Translation Method. In the Direct Method, teaching is carried out through the target language (TL) without any reference to the learner's mother tongue, and its teaching materials are not based on classical texts, as it was the case in the Grammar-Translation Method. The Direct Method is based on the idea that speaking is primary to writing and rejects the memorisation of grammatical rules on the basis that these grammatical rules are acquired unconsciously through the use of language. That is to say, learners learn a foreign language in a natural way and identical with that followed by children in acquiring their mother tongue, as Thornbury (1999: 21) posits, "Learners pick up the grammar in much the same way children pick up the grammar of their mother tongue, simply by being immersed in language." Hubbard et al (1983: 327, cited in Moumene, 2004: 54) characterize the Direct Method as:

> *A method consisting of bombarding the student with samples of the target languages, spoken by a native speaker, and encouraging him to imitate, respond and gradually participate as a speaker. This method has made the assumption that older students should learn in the same way as a child learns his mother tongue.*

In this method, learning any foreign language has to be through demonstration and action in which the teacher points to an object, then gives its name or says a statement and performs a particular action, i.e., there is a direct association of words and phrases with actions, and students are asked to repeat both the language's model and the actions. Pictures are used to illustrate the external world, while abstract words are presented through meaningful context. (Kailani and Al Muttawa, 1989). However, this method cannot be applied in all language

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contexts; for example, it was successfully applied in private schools, and not in public ones. It is also considered as time-consuming, and requires competent teachers who are native-like speakers (Richard and Rodgers, 1986).

1.2.3 The Audio-Lingual Method

The theory of Audio-lingual Approach, also named the Oral Approach, the Aural-Oral Approach or the Structural Approach, according to Thornbury (1999), is firmly based on behaviourist psychology. It claims that language is learnt through habit formation. This approach strongly emphasises sentence level practice in the form of drills, memorisation strategies and the use of dialogues. It focuses on speaking and oral proficiency in real communication situations, while reading and writing are delayed (Rivers, 1971; cited in Kailani and Al Muttawa, 1989). Contrary to the Grammar-Translations Method, the Audio-lingual method downplays the status of grammar and does not focus the learners' attention on the grammatical rules. It agrees with the Direct Method tenet that speaking takes precedence over writing. Hence, there is no place to grammar and writing in language teaching and learning, as has been pointed out by Thornbury (1999).

Nowadays, the usefulness of drills is regarded as limited, in that they do not offer learners the opportunity to interact naturally with other speakers (Lindsay and Knight, 2006). Apart from whether or not the use of drills leads to the mastery of language forms that have been targeted, Harmer (2001: 121) notes that, in the Audio-lingual Approach, "the language is de-contextualised and carries little communicative function". As its main concern is to exclude mistakes and drive learners only to use language correctly, this language teaching tenet does not tend to side with the belief which holds that "making (and learning) from errors is a key part of the process of acquisition" (Harmer ibid: 121). As a result, students are prevented from testing their ability to use the language by themselves.

1.2.4 The Natural Approach

The Natural Approach is based on Krashen's theory of acquisition/ learning (Thornbury, 1999). It believes in the principle that learners acquire the grammar of language unconsciously through instruction, the same way as children acquire the grammar of their mother tongue. This approach considers grammar instruction ineffective. It considers the explicit knowledge of grammar as unfruitful. Therefore, the focus has moved from grammar rules toward communication. Nunan (1994: 254-55) states that "exposure to natural communication in the target language is necessary for the subconscious to work well." In other words, learning a language needs a spontaneous use of the language. Hence, communication takes precedence over grammar.

1.2.5 Communicative Language Teaching

Because of the failure of the earlier methods and approaches to promote communication among learners of a foreign language, advocates of communicative language teaching (CLT), which arose in 1970s, realized the need to abandon the view that language is a linguistic system to be learned before it is used. In other words, the focus has been shifted towards creating communicative competence in foreign /second learners instead of providing them with instructions in order to master the grammatical competence. That is, CLT emphasizes the idea that "communicative competence consists of more than simply the knowledge of the rule of grammar" (Thornbury 1999:22). The role of grammar within the communicative approaches is controversial. It has to be pointed out that CLT involves two versions; the shallow-end approach and the deep- end approach or what Howatt (1986) refers respectively to as the "weak" version and the "strong" version of CLT. In the first version, grammar is not completely ignored or rejected. Hymes (1972; quoted by Richards, 1985: 145) used the term communicative competence "… to refer to knowledge both of rules of grammar, vocabulary, and semantics, and the rules of speaking – the patterns of sociolinguistic behaviour of the

speech community". Indeed, knowing a language involves much more than the mastery of its formal rules. In this respect, Wilkins (1972) reveals that, though grammar in CLT has been assigned a secondary position, it is considered as being an important component of the syllabus of CLT courses;   that is, learners need to "learn the rules and then apply them in life like communication" (Thornbury, 1999:18). This teaching methodology does not reject grammar but rather considers it as a tool for making meaning to communicate. Thornbury (1999:18-9) asserts that grammar "is one component of what is called communicative competence". Savignon (2000), on her part, explains that communicative competence contains four components: sociocultural, strategic, discourse, and grammatical competence, stressing that all these components are interrelated, and each one is essential in developing one's ability to communicate. However, the second version provides no place to grammar teaching and considers it as merely a wasting of time. Advocates of this approach argue that students are likely to acquire the grammar of a given language unconsciously if they emerge in activities that involve them in real-life communication, where they will have opportunities to absorb rules through communication; in another words, using language in order to learn it as opposed to studying language in order to use it. According to Lock, this excluding view of grammar in deep-end approaches was also strongly influenced by a rejection of traditional methodologies in which grammatical competence was acquired with the approach of the rule plus drilling methodology typical of Audio-lingual or traditional grammar methods (1997:267), because learning outcomes were not satisfactory; learners knew a lot *about* grammar but were unable to put that grammatical knowledge into practice.

Brown (2001: 43-44) summarizes the principles of CLT in the following points:

— It considers fluency and accuracy as complementary principles underlying communicative techniques; however, sometimes it gives priority to fluency rather than to accuracy with the aim of offering learners more opportunities to use language.

﹣ In communicative classroom, the focus is on developing all communicative components (grammatical, discourse, functional, sociolinguistic, and strategic).

﹣ It principally seeks more spontaneity and encourages learners to "deal with unrehearsed situations under the guidance but not the control of the teacher."

In communicative classroom, teachers and learners are assigned different roles. As Larsen- Freeman (1986) and Brown (2001) hold, because attempts to communicate are encouraged from the outset, teachers find themselves talking less and listening more, becoming active facilitators of their students' learning, and sometimes acting as monitor motivating their students to use language. Whereas students do most speaking, their participation in the classroom increases so that they may find themselves gaining confidence in using the TL and more responsible for their own learning.

1.2.6 Task-based Language Teaching and Learning

According to Harmer (2001) Task-based language teaching (TBLT) and learning emerges from the Bangalore project of Prabhu (1987). It constitutes a strong version of CLT (the deep-end approach) with no focus on grammar forms. Thornbury (1999:22) indicates that, through this project, Prabhu "attempted to replicate natural acquisition processes by having students to work through a syllabus of tasks for which no formal grammar instruction was supposedly needed or provided"; that is, the central concern of the lesson is the task not the structure. Prabhu (1987: 2; cited in Nassaji and Fotos, 2011: 01) argues that grammar teaching was not only unhelpful but was also detrimental when he pointed out that:

> *attempts to systematize input to the learners through a linguistically organized syllabus, or to maximize the practice of particular parts of language structure through activities deliberately planned for that purpose were regarded as being*

unhelpful and detrimental to the desired preoccupation with

meaning in the classroom.

Nunan (1989) and Fotos (2002) note that the term task has been used in the field of education in general; it was used as an essential instrument for various fields of research. Fotos indicates that since the 1980's, the use of tasks has become dominant in second/ foreign language learning, and that many researchers in this field called for a syllabus that consists entirely of tasks. There are several definitions devoted to the term task, but they all have one thing in common, which is the emphasis on involving activities that encourage communicative language use and focus on meaning rather than focus on grammatical forms (Fotos and Hinkel, 2002).

Hencefore, grammar was completely discarded in this approach. Samuda and Bygate (2008) use this term (TBLT) to refer to contexts in which tasks are used as a central unit of instruction, and where a syllabus is specified only in terms of tasks to be performed. In other words, the methodology centers on students performing a series of tasks without paying attention or referring to language forms.

Some scholars reconsider the crucial role of language forms, particularly grammatical structures within TBLT. Current views argue for an inclusion of a grammar focus in task-based instruction. For example, Skehan (1996), in his characterization of task-based instruction, suggested that when organizing task-based instruction, there needs to be both a focus on language forms and a focus on communication. Skehan argued that "learners do not simply acquire the language to which they are exposed, however carefully that exposure may be orchestrated by the teacher" (p.18). Skehan argues that in designing task-based instruction, there must be a balance between a focus on grammar forms and a focus on communication. To this end, he outlined three goals for second language task-based pedagogy: accuracy, complexity and fluency.

Willis (1999) also proposes a task-based model with a heavy focus on form component. His model includes four components: fluency, accuracy, analysis, and conformity. Accuracy refers to promoting accurate use of language when used for communicative purposes. Analysis concerns activities that inform learners of the patterns and regularities in language. Conformity refers to activities that are teacher controlled and are used to promote consciousness-raising such as those related to controlled repetitions of fixed phrases, various types of form-focused activities. Finally, Willis (1996) has proposed a task-based framework very similar to the grammar-based PPP model, with the difference that the order of the meaning-based and form-based activities is reversed. Her model consists of three cycles: pre-task cycle, task cycle, and language focus cycle. The aim of the pre-task phase is to expose students to the task or prepare them to carry out the task, through such activities as brainstorming, using pictures, highlighting new vocabulary. The task cycle is to give them opportunities to use the language for spontaneous communication. The language focus phase is to help them develop an awareness of how language works, which can be achieved through the use of various language-based activities and exercises such as repetition, sentence completion, matching exercises, dictionary work.

Ellis (2003) draws a distinction between 'focused tasks' where students are not informed of the specific linguistic focus; they deal with the task as the same as the unfocused tasks (with meaning as primary focus). Therefore, focused tasks have two aims: they aim at stimulating communicative use, and to target the use of a particular, predetermined target feature and 'situational grammar exercises' where students are provided with contextualized practice of specific linguistic feature. The above task-based frameworks may be different from one another in certain ways, but they share one thing, which is the focus on grammar.

TBLT has been criticized mainly on the basis that there have been not enough arguments for using a syllabus composed only of tasks. Seedhouse (1999: 156; cited in Harmer, 2001:

87) argues that 'it would be 'unsound' to make tasks the basis for an entire pedagogical methodology'. Hence, tasks are not just about getting learners to do one task rather than another one, because if that were the case, the learners would gain fluency at the expense of accuracy. In this respect, Thornbury (1999:24) states that "without some attention to form, learners run the risk of fossilization".

3.1 Methodology of Teaching Grammar

1.3.1 Rationale of Teaching Grammar

Whether grammatical instruction is necessary and effective for second language acquisition (SLA) has always been a source of debate. Those who argue against the teaching of grammar have put forward the argument that we learn our first language without learning its grammar, and if this works with the first language, so it should work with the second or foreign language. Krashen (1982; cited in Harmer, 2001) is among the theorists who discard grammar instruction and has made a distinction between *acquiring* and *learning* a language (the former is a subconscious process, whereas the latter is a conscious process), focusing on the idea that language acquisition is more successful than language learning which results from formal instruction and that is not as useful for real communication. He claims that comprehensible input (CI)is necessary and adequate for acquiring any language successfully, implying the insignificance of grammar instruction. According to Thornbury (1999), many researchers argue against grammatical knowledge as being sufficient for language users to be able to use the target language. Therefore, learners should experience a language rather than study it because "through the learning of copious of grammar rules, learners fail to translate these rules into skills" (Thornbury, 1999: 18). In this sense, Nassaji and Fotos (2004:127) posit that through the formal instruction, learners will develop only declarative knowledge of grammatical structures but not the procedural ability to use forms correctly in different contexts. Additionally, Thornbury (1999) and Ellis (2002) reveal that there are many learners

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who want to focus on communication and not on grammar, for instance, because they want to put their knowledge of language in use or because they do not like grammar very much.

Although some linguists believe that teaching grammar has only a minimal impact and doubt about the utility and efficiency of grammar instruction in language learning, many ESL/EFL professionals have come to appreciate that grammar instruction has an important role to play in helping learners use English more effectively and have stressed the critical need to it in language classrooms. Pienemann (1984: 209) points out to the danger of fossilization if grammar accuracy is not emphasised, stating that "giving up the instruction of syntax is to allow for the fossilisation of interlanguage in simplified form". Thornbury (1999) supports this when he says that "research suggests that learners who receive no instruction seem to be at risk of fossilising sooner than those who receive instruction" (p. 16). The motivation to call for grammar instruction stems from the several research findings which demonstrate that CI alone is not sufficient to successful acquisition. According to Yip (1994:224), one notable study of the French immersion programme conducted by Harley and Swain (1984) shows that despite years of exposure to input, learners showed remarkable grammatical deficiencies. He shows that some grammatical features cannot be acquired through comprehensible input, that is to say, "certain area of grammar calls for some form of grammar instruction" (p.123). According to Fotos (2002), in English as Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, it is recommended to offer learners the formal instruction and that communicative input alone is insufficient not only because of the very limited use of the target language outside the classroom, but also because, within many EFL contexts, the use of the target language is low especially during translation activities.

Kailani and Al Muttawa (1989: 69) provide an argument which represents one of the strengths of grammar instruction when they say that "a language cannot be learnt without learning its grammar because it is the element that makes meaning in language use".

Greenbaum (1991:7) states that grammatical knowledge is necessary for recognition of grammatical structures which is often essential for punctuation, and it contributes to a better understanding of discourse, since the interpretation of a passage depends crucially on grammatical knowledge. Further, grammar is thought to furnish the basis for a set of language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. In listening and speaking, grammar plays a crucial part in grasping and expressing spoken language since learning the grammar of a language is considered necessary to acquire the capability for producing grammatically acceptable utterances in the language. In reading, grammar enables learners to comprehend sentence interrelationship in a paragraph, a passage and a text. In the context of writing, grammar allows the learners to put their ideas into sentences so that they can successfully communicate in a written form. Lastly, in the case of vocabulary, grammar provides a pathway to learn how some lexical items should be combined into a good sentence so that meaningful and communicative statements or expressions can be formed (Corder, 1988). Doff (2000) reinforces this idea saying that by learning grammar, students can express meanings in the form of phrases, clauses and sentences. Accordingly, it cannot be ignored that grammar plays a central role in the four language skills and vocabulary to establish communicative tasks. More recently, Cullen (2008), building on Widdowson's (1990) conception of grammar as liberating force, argues that:

> *without any grammar, the learners is forced to rely exclusively*
>
> *on lexis and the immediate context, combined with gestures,*
>
> *intonation and other prosodic and non-verbal features, to*
>
> *communicate his/her intended meaning" (p. 221).*

In other words, grammar helps us to be free from dependency on lexis and contextual clues. For instance, the three words "dog, eat, meat" can be combined together to signal different meanings, such as:

- The dog is eating the meat.

- The dog ate the meat.

- The dog has eaten the meat.

- Dogs eat meat.

He argues that grammar alone can help us to see the difference in the above sentences through the use of articles, tenses, aspect. "[It] generally enables us to communicate with a degree of precision not available to the learner with only a minimal command of the system. In this sense, grammar is a liberating force" Cullen (2008:221).

Another argument to support formal instruction in English language classes comes from Celce-Murcia and Rilles (1988), who believe that learners need to know grammatical forms because the majority of them are expected to pass international examinations such as TOEFL and IELTS. Thornbury (1999) and Ellis (2002) argue that a strong reason for including grammar in the L2 curriculum is that many learners come to language classes with their expectations to receive formal instruction. Ellis (2002) points out to the possible reasons for learners' failure to achieve high level of grammatical competence, among these reasons: grammatical accuracy was in a state of neglect, limited opportunities for pushed output and lack of negative feedback. He explains that pedagogically both National/ functional and task-based syllabuses do not provide or ensure a systematic coverage of grammar of the L2 as it was assumed. This can only be achieved by means of a structural syllabus. However, this does not mean that he encourages to totally abandon the use of communicative activities and tasks and return to structural syllabus, but rather he insists on the incorporation of both syllabuses (communicative and structural) in order to assist learners' language acquisition. Fotos (2002) contends that researchers have demonstrated that formal instruction before meaning-focused activities can help learners to activate their previous knowledge of the target structures and

promote their attention to the target structures they will face. She notes that grammar can act as a kind of 'an advance organizer' for learners' language acquisition.

It is worth noting that language specialists who argue for the need of formal instruction do not mean that they neglect the importance of interactional activities, but they consider both of them as complementary means to reach a high level of proficiency. In other words, modern grammarians have stressed the crucial need to implement activities that encourage and force learners to pay attention to the grammatical form and the meaning.

1.3.2 Principles for Teaching Grammar

Arguments for incorporating grammar into language teaching/ learning indicate the paramount importance of grammar. For that reason, in searching for how this role can be realized in the classroom, linguists draw up some basic principles (rules) for grammar teaching. Thornbury (1991) mentions two basic principles which should be followed when teaching grammar. The principles are the E-Factor and the A-Factor. The E-Factor derives its name according to the beginning letters of the words economy, ease and efficacy. These words in fact can be included in one simple word which is efficiency. The most important question that teachers should ask themselves is whether the activity, presentation of the grammar and practising it is as efficient as possible. The teachers must consider all the steps of their lesson and decide which activity is appropriate to use and which is not. The A-Factor in teaching grammar arouse from the beginning letter of appropriacy. The teacher must consider, not only the efficiency, but also the degree of appropriateness of tasks and methods for a particular group of students. One activity may fit a certain study group but need not another.

Thornbury (1991: 27) listed the "factors to consider when determining appropriacy:

· the age of the learners;

· their level;

·   the size of the group;

·   the constitution of the group, e.g. monolingual or multilingual;

·   what their needs are, e.g. to pass a public examination;

·   the learner's interests;

·   the available materials and resources;

·   the learner's previous learning experience and hence present expectations;

·   any cultural factors that might affect attitudes, e.g. their perception of the role and status of the teacher;

·   the educational context, e.g. private school or state school, at home or abroad.

Activities that fail to take the above factors into account are unlikely to work. The age of the learners is very important. Research suggests that children are more disposed to language learning activities that incline towards acquisition rather than towards learning; they are better at picking up language implicitly, rather than learning it as a system of explicit rules. Adult learners, on the other hand, may do better at activities which involve analysis and memorisation". Accordingly, grammar activities should take into account the level of efficiency and appropriateness. The efficiency level depends on how much time it takes (economy), how easy it is (ease) and how is it consistent with learning principles (efficacy). Appropriacy considers students' needs and interests, attitudes and expectations.

Celce-Murcia (2001: 275), on her part, set of general principles for grammar teaching:

- grammar teaching should be planned and systematic, driven by a strategic vision of eventual desired outcomes;

- grammar teaching should nevertheless be 'rough tuned,' offering learners at slightly different stages a range of opportunities to add increments to their grammar understanding;

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- grammar teaching may involve acceptance of classroom code switching and mother tongue use, at least with beginners;

- grammar teaching should be 'little and often,' with much redundancy and revisiting of issues;

- text-based, problem-solving grammar activities may be needed to develop learners´ active, articulated knowledge about grammar;

- active corrective feedback and elicitation will promote learners´ active control of grammar;

- grammar teaching needs to be supported and embedded in meaning-oriented activities and tasks, which give immediate opportunities for practice and use".

Recently, Batstone and Ellis (2009) state that "a key aspect of the acquisition of grammar for second language learning involves learning how to make appropriate connections between grammatical forms and the meanings which they typically signal" (p. 194). They argue that learning form/function mappings should embody, in one way or another, three principles that can guide the selection of specific instructional procedures. The first is the Given-to-New Principle, which is designed to guide one's thinking about the learning and the teaching of new form/meaning connections. According to Batstone and Ellis: In terms of learning, it highlights two important processes: engaging with relevant meaning which the learner already knows, and using this meaning as a basis for making a new link to the grammar. In terms of teaching, it facilitates these processes by suggesting ways to establish 'given' meaning and ways of guiding learners to make connection from 'given' meaning to its 'new' meaning encoding in the grammar (p.203). The second is the Awareness Principle, which affirms the importance of consciousness in language learning. For many learners, if not all, making the connections between form and meaning explicit is an essential step in the learning process. The third is the Real-Operating Conditions Principle, which points to the need to ensure that

students have the opportunity to experience target features in language use. This requires activities that focus primarily on meaning, but that also draw learners' attention to forms.

1.3.3 Explicit versus Implicit Grammar Teaching

Linguists and language practionners who acknowledge the importance and the value of grammar in learning a given language argue about the way to tackle grammatical items, either explicitly-deductively or implicitly-inductively. In recent years, the degree of implicitness and explicitness of grammar instruction has received great attention. Dekeyzer (1995: 379) argues that the choice of the manner that will be used to teach grammar pertains to the nature of the subject.

> *Explicit deductive learning would be better than implicit inductive learning for straight forward categorical rules, and implicit inductive learning would be better that explicit deductive learning for fuzzy rules…Whereas inductive can be either implicit or explicit, deductive learning is necessarily explicit.*

In the first mode, explicit-deductive teaching of grammar, or what is also called as rule-driven learning, learners deliberately study a particular grammar rule. This kind of methodology involves teachers in presenting learners with the grammatical structure and drawing their attention to it, providing them with some kind of explanation about how it works with appropriate instances for illustration and more clarification. Macaro and Masterman (2006: 298) define explicit teaching grammar as follows:

> *Establishing as the prime objective of a lesson (or part of a lesson) the explanation of how a morphosyntactic rule or pattern works, with some reference to metalinguistic*

terminology, and providing examples of this rule in a

linguistic, though not necessarily a functional, context.

In the case of the application of the explicit/deductive approach, Swan (1995, cited in Thornbury, 1999: 32) outlines some guidelines when the rule is presented, among them:

1. the rules should be true;

2. the rules should show clearly what limits are on the use of a given form;

3. the rules need to be clear;

4. the rules ought to be simple;

5. the rules needs to make use of concepts already familiar to the learners; and

6. the rules ought to be relevant.

As far as explicit grammar teaching in L2 classroom is concerned, Fotos (2002) has come up with a three-step grammar lesson which she calls "The Three Part Grammar Lesson", which is said to increase learners' awareness and raise their consciousness to the grammar features as well as provide them with opportunities to notice how grammatical structures can be used in meaning-focused context. It contains:

- an explicit explanation of grammatical item is provided, at the beginning of the lesson;

- communicative activities designed to illustrate the different usages of the grammatical item that learners have been exposed to; and

- summary activities set up to draw learners' attention to the grammatical form which they have been taught and encountered in communicative activities.

The situation in which explicit instruction is appropriate has been a conflicting issue. Some scholars, such as Dekeyzer (1995) points out that the explicit teaching mode should be directed at simple formed grammatical rules; others claim that the rules that should be taught explicitly are the complex rule: Bouras (2006: 50) writes that "the rules that should be taught explicitly are […] those with a large scope and high reliability". However, others maintain

that that simple and complex rules are appropriately taught in an explicit way (Robinson,1995). Is explicit L2 grammar instruction effective? Lock (1996) states that there have been many attempts to determine whether explicit grammar teaching leads to the implicit knowledge of grammar or not. Terrell (1991:54-56; cited in Moumene, 2006:78) comes to the conclusions that "the preliminary findings do not support a direct link between EGI [Explicit Grammar Instruction] and the ability to use grammatical structures accurately in meaningful and spontaneous speech...the ability to demonstrate grammatical knowledge on a discrete-point grammar exam does not guarantee the ability to use that language in ordinary conversation, be it spontaneous or monitored". Ellis (1993; cited in lock, 1996) found evidence to support the value of explicit instruction; it can help learners to acquire implicit knowledge on condition that this kind of instruction is directed to grammar items that learners are ready to acquire, otherwise it will not lead them to develop the implicit knowledge. It is argued that the effect of explicit grammar instruction may not be visible immediately in the learners' writing and speech. In this respect, Ellis (2002: 175; cited in Nassaji and Fotos, 2011: 5) observed that:

> *The real stuff of language acquisition is the slow acquisition of*
>
> *form-function mappings and the regularities therein. This skill,*
>
> *like others, takes tens of thousands of hours of practice,*
>
> *practice that cannot be substituted for by provision of a few*
>
> *declarative rules.*

Moumene (2006), in his article, states that fewer studies have investigated the durability of explicit grammar instruction.

It has been found that the use of the explicit-deductive method is time and energy saving. It allows more time for practice and application, and meets many learners' expectations about classroom learning, especially those who have an analytic style of learning. However, it

encourages a teacher-fronted classroom style since teacher's explanation is often at the expense of student's involvement and interaction inside the classroom which hinders learning. It also encourages the belief that language learning is solely a case of knowing rules (Thornbury, 1999).

In the second mode, the implicit-indirect teaching of grammar, or what is known rule-discovery learning, Thornbury (1999), Larsen Freeman (2001), and Rebecca and Lee (2007) explain that the teacher does not present the rules, but instead he has to set up conditions in which the learners work out the rules for themselves. Rebecca and Lee (2007) note that rule-discovery can be approached in the classroom through input practice involving forms, metalinguistic feedback, output practice, and the garden path technique. Larsen Freeman (2001) states that in an implicit-inductive approach, students could be presented with a language sample and encouraged to make their own observation, pointing out that this approach allows teachers to evaluate their students' knowledge about a particular structure and to make any needed changes in their lesson plan. Inside the classroom, teachers induce the learners to realise grammar rules without resorting to previous explanation of the form intended to be learnt. In this respect, Dekeyzer (1995: 380) says that:

> *Implicit learning occurs without concurrent awareness of what*
>
> *is being learned, through memorisation of instances, inferring*
>
> *of rules without awareness or both.*

Lock (1996: 272) states that "learners work out the generalizations for themselves from that available in the input". This type of teaching is used to teach 'unclear' grammatical structures; for instance when there is a given rule with unlimited cases of exceptions, it needs to be presented through examples rather than direct statement of the formula (e.g. articles).

Built upon the analysis of 49 studies, Norris and Ortega (2002; cited in Cowan, 2008) assert that explicit teaching produces better and lasting learning than does implicit learning.

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3.1.4 Discourse-based Teaching Grammar

Thornbury (1999) views that deductive/explicit and inductive implicit approaches are dependent on decontextualized examples of language; and decontextualized grammar, in turn, results often in practice exercises "that are of doubtful value" (p.72). Language professionals call for the end of primarily sentence-based approaches to teaching grammar because they have been found inefficient in assisting learners to appropriately use the grammar aspect taught or practised. That is to say, learners often do not associate or make an effective connection between the grammar knowledge they have and their written production because learners are usually supplied by sentence-level exercises. Hence, in order for ESL/ EFL learners to use grammar effectively and accurately in their writing, they need to develop an awareness of English structures that go beyond the sentence level. i.e., approaching grammar in context and through discourse "where the instruction of target forms is supported by extensive use of authentic or simplified discourse [so as] to provide examples of contextualized usage of the target structure in order to establish form-meaning relationship"(Nassaji and Fotos, 2004:136). Ellis and Roberts (1987) highlight the importance of context in English language teaching and learning. They maintain that a close relationship holds between context (including texts) and the linguistic code, in that the former helps in the acquisition of the latter. Context, Walz (1989) explains, refers to the topic and situation of a communicative act that are necessary for understanding, pointing out that a number of language textbooks provide contextualized grammar exercises, however, these exercises "(…) provide thematically related sentences requiring mechanical manipulation of a grammatical form, but often do not force students to understand. Therefore, contextualization of mechanical drills in this sense is certainly not the same thing as creating a context"(Walz, 1989:162). Nunan (1998) has the same point of view; he indicates that, in textbooks, grammar aspects are often

presented out of context, and learners are expected to internalize them through sentence-based exercises involving repetition, manipulation, and grammatical transformation. This kind of practice provides learners only with formal, declarative mastery and does not prepare learners to use their grammatical resources in communicative use, because they are not provided with opportunities of seeing the systematic relationship between form, meaning, and use. For that reason, he calls for the need to go beyond linear approaches and traditional form-focused methodological practice in the grammar class toward the implication of tasks "that dramatize the relationship between grammatical items and the discourses context in which they occur" (p.102). It must be highlighted that the word discourse has been given many definitions. According to Celce- Murcia (2002), a formal definition of discourse refers "to a coherent unit of language consisting of more than one sentence" .(p.122). However, a functional definition considers discourse a language in use; it may be one word, two words or more. Celce- Murcia (2002) combines the two perspectives when she says that "discourse is an instance of spoken or written language that has describable internal relationships of form and meaning that relate coherently to an external communicative function [...] and a given audience"(p. 122).

Celce-Murcia and Rilles (1986) advocate the need for discourse-based grammar exercises and activities in all phases of grammar instruction: *presentation, focused practice, communicative activities, correction and feedback* in order to ensure that students make a match between grammar and discourse. In other words, grammar will be transferred only if it is practised at the text-level, and not simply at the sentence level. Lock (1996:275) points out the benefit of teaching/practising grammar through texts when he says that:

> *With text-level practice (...), it is easier to build and strong*
>
> *association between sentences meaning in context, which make*

it more likely than on later occasions the learners will be able to

select appropriate structure in similar context.

The most compelling argument for incorporating discourse-based approach to teaching grammar, according to Hudges and McCarthy (1998),   is that not all grammatical items can be fully explained through non-discousal approaches. Lock (1996) insists on the point that the usage of certain grammar systems such as tense, modality, and voice is impossible to be illustrated well with only sentence level examples. Celce-Murcia (2002) makes the same point of view in that and adds that very few English grammar rules can be applied and used without reference to context. Among these, we have:

- Verbs and verb phrases following prepositions must take gerund form.

- Reflexive pronoun objects must agree in person, number, and gender with their subjects.

- Determiners must agree in number and noun type (count/ mass) with their head nouns.

 However, other English rules are not free from context as with the usage of articles, choice of tense-aspect form, using past or present tense versus a modal auxiliary, choice of active versus passive voice, choice of a statement form or interrogative form, ect. Hinkle (2002), based on research findings, indicates that difficult forms such as English tenses and passive "cannot be studied in isolation from their syntactic functions and pragmatic uses" (p.235).

Thornbury (1999) and Lock (1996) posit that a text can be spoken or written and that it takes various forms such as novels, postcards, sermons, football commentaries, jokes, etc. Lock (1996) adds that texts should be comprehensible as well as unlengthy. A short story or dialogue may be useful. Instances of text level practice exercises which Lock (1996) and Celce-Murcia and Rilles (1986) suggest are text completion, text sequences, text transformation, text reconstruction, and text creation.

In summary, approaching grammar in context and through discourse aims at creating a meaningful environment for students, which helps to make grammar instruction both effective and beneficial. It is believed that presenting and practising grammar points in context of discourse facilitates the acquisition of the target language. Undoubtedly, it is the instructor's duty to provide such beneficial learning context, to show students how language functions in authentic situations, and help them learn to use language for communicative purposes.

Conclusion

Giving the word grammar a precise definition is not an easy task because of the many ways it can be understood and the many aspects to be taken into account when referring to it. For many years, language teaching was equated with grammar teaching, but this status of grammar instruction has been gradually degraded. Until now, grammar has not recuperated the place it had in the most influential language teaching methods; however, it has been acknowledged as being important to a great extent in the learning of the foreign language.

Chapter Two

Focus on Form Approach: Dictogloss

Introduction

2.1 Focus on Form

    2.1.1 Definition of Focus on Form

    2.1.2 Form-focused Collaborative Output Tasks

2.2 Dictogloss

    2.2.1 Definition of Dictogloss

    2.2.2 The Value of Dictogloss in Language Teaching and Learning

    2.2.3 Studies on Dictogloss

    2.2.4 Principles Underlying Dictogloss

Conclusion

Introduction

As we have seen in Chapter 1, grammar has been neglected under some communicative methods. In recent years, there has been a re-evaluation of the role of grammar teaching focusing on its benefits and contribution to the mastery of a language. However, among the major issues which have been raised by classroom SLA research is the question of how to include grammar in second language classroom. This question has been reexamined in terms of what has come to be known more recently as 'Focus on Form' in L2/ FL learning and teaching. Dictogloss is one of many innovative language teaching techniques that are well-suited for Focus on Form teaching and learning and that has proved to be effective in numerous empirical studies in the field.

2.1 Focus on Form

Recently, Focus on Form (F on F) has been the focus of much attention since it has been indicated that teaching grammatical structures in isolation does not lead to successful development in using grammatical forms communicatively. Equally, purely communicative syllabuses were inadequate in promoting acceptable level of accuracy, because of their neglect of grammar instruction. Therefore, now, most research support some attention to grammar within a meaningful, interactive instructional context that can raise students' learning gains and help them overcome the difficulties that they encounter in using some grammatical aspects. In the light of this, Lightbown and Spada (1993: 5; cited in Nassaji and Fotos, 2011:) said that:

> *[C]lassroom data from a number of studies offer support for*
>
> *the view that form-focused instruction and corrective feedback*
>
> *provided within the context of a communicative program are*
>
> *more effective in promoting second language learning than*

programs which are limited to an exclusive emphasis on

accuracy on the one hand or an exclusive emphasis on fluency

on the other.

2.1.1 Definition of Focus on Form

In responses to the problems presented by traditional approaches to the teaching of grammar, on the one hand, and dissastification with purely communicative approaches on the other, Long (1991; cited in Nassaji and Fotos, 2011) proposed the term F on F approach, with the focus on forms (F on Fs) and a focus on meaning. F on Fs is the traditional approach, it represents an analytic syllabus, and is based on the assumption that language consists of a series of grammatical forms that can be acquired sequentially and additively. Focus on meaning is synthetic and is based on the assumption that learners are able to analyze language inductively and arrive at its underlying grammar. Thus, it emphasizes pure meaning based activities with no attention to form.

Long (1991: 187; cited in Nassaji and Fotos, 2011:45) explains that F on F:

> *Refers to how attentional resources are allocated and involves*
>
> *briefly drawing students' attention to linguistic elements*
>
> *(words, collocations, grammatical structures, pragmatic*
>
> *patterns, ect.) in context, as they arise incidental in lessons*
>
> *whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication.*

This definition indicates that learners have to cope with language forms incidentally, i.e., an occasional attention is paid to grammar. In other words, F on F constitutes an implicit grammar instruction within communicative lessons, because there is no overt mention of the target grammatical point. However, Spada (1997:73; cited in Mayo, 2002) pointed out that:

> *Form-focused instruction will mean any pedagogical effort*
>
> *which is used to draw the learners' attention to language form*

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> *either implicitly or explicitly. This can include the direct*
>
> *teaching   of grammar language (e.g. through grammatical*
>
> *rules) and reactions to learners errors (e.g. .corrective*
>
> *feedback).*

Spada allows for the planning of the targeted form to be focused on in order to draw the students' attention, clarifying that learners benefit from some type of explicit instruction prior to the activity to help them activate their previous knowledge of the target structures or to facilitate awareness of the forms they will encounter.

Within   Fon F,   Doughty and Williams (1998) suggest that F on F can occur both reactively, by responding to errors, and proactively by addressing possible target language problems before they occur, and that both are reasonable and effective depending on the classroom context. They also argued that " some focus on form is applicable to the majority of the linguistic code features that learners must master" and that "leaving the learners to their own devices is not the best plan" (1998: 197).

Norris and Ortiga (2000; cited in Lee, 2000: 304) define F on F as that which meets the following criteria:

a) designing task to promote learners engagement with meaning prior to form;

b) seeking to attain and document task essentialness and naturalness;

c) seeking to ensure that instruction was unobstrusive;

d) documenting learner mental processes ('noticing').

Ellis (2001), on his part, divided F on F into 'planned' and 'incidental'. He argued that in both types attention to form occurs while learners' primary focus is on meaning. However, planned FonF differs from incidental FonF in that the former involves drawing learners' attention to pre-selected forms while the latter involves no pre-selection of forms. Also, in incidental Fon F, attention to form can occur either reactively, in response to errors during

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communicative activities, or preemptively, by taking time out from communicative activities to address language forms anticipated to be problematic. In a later report, Ellis (2005: 35) states that instruction can cater for a focus on form in a number of ways:

- Through intensive grammar lessons designed to teach specific grammatical features by means of input- or output processing. An inductive approach to grammar teaching is designed to encourage 'noticing' of pre-selected forms; a deductive approach seeks to establish an awareness of the grammatical rule.

- Through focused tasks, i.e. tasks that require learners to comprehend and process specific grammatical structures in the input, and/or to produce the structures in the performance of the task.

- By means of unfocused tasks that induce incidental attention to form.

According to Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001) Fon F

1. occurs in discourse that is primarily meaning centred;

2. is observable (i.e., occurs interactionally);

3. is incidental (i.e., is not preplanned);

4. is transitory;

5. is extensive (i.e., several different forms are attended to in the context of a single lesson).

Nassaji and Fotos (2002), on their part, argue that communicative activities can be designed with an advance, deliberate F on F, or by process; that is, by incorporating F on F in the process, and as it occurs naturally in classroom interaction or reactively through providing feedback on learners' errors.

It is worth noting that the concept of F on F has been defined differently by different Linguists. Some of them excluded drawing learners' attention to form in any predetermined

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manner, believing that learners can acquire the grammar of the language incidentally. However, others have expanded this concept by including both incidental and preplanned F on F.

to find out the effects of F on F and put the theory into practice and in order to make it accessible to teachers and researchers alike, some linguists identified and explored various options of integrating a focus on form and a focus on communication in classroom contexts. For example, Nassaji and Fotos (2011), in their book, pointed out six recent input- and output-based instructional options for teaching grammar communicatively: processing instruction, textual enhancement, discourse-based grammar teaching, interactional feedback, grammar-focused tasks, and collaborative output tasks. Teaching grammar through collaborative output tasks is our focus; we will describe this option, examine the theories and research that support it, and present examples of activities that can be used in the classroom.

2.1.2 Form-focused Collaborative Output Tasks

Almost all educational theorists who have carried out experiments on group work instruction and activities tend to welcome the change of classroom format that offer interactive activities and reduce dependence on teachers. In Collaborative output tasks, learners have to produce output by performing tasks which require them to pay attention to both meaning and grammatical forms. In fact, the use of such activities in the classroom is based on the claims that provide attractive support for the value of small group interaction in the classroom for language acquisition. Murray (1994) states that classroom interaction in which learners work together in small-groups has played a major role in communicative L2 teaching for over fifteen years. Indeed, a number of studies have demonstrated the potential pedagogical advantages of small-group work over whole-class instruction. For instance, Long and Porter (1985; cited in Nassaji and Fotos, 2002: 230) have listed a range of advantages of group work, among these: "(1) increasing the quantity of language opportunity; (2) improving

the quality of student talk ; (3) creating a positive affective climate in the classroom ; (4) individualizing instruction; (5) increasing students motivation". In a similar vein, Fotos and Ellis (1991:610) maintain that learners in pair/group work "use longer sentences, and do not speak any less grammatically than they do in teacher-fronted lessons. Learners also negotiate meaning more, provided that the tasks require information exchange".

In collaborative output tasks, learners are offered equal opportunities to participate and share ideas so that high-achieving students can transmit their knowledge to their group mates and shy and low-achieving students can feel can feel at ease when expressing themselves(Gillies and Ashman 2003). Further advantages of collaborative work are discussed by Pica and Doughty (1985; cited in Hedge, 2000). After they conducted a study on the role of group work in completing communicative task in comparing with the whole class work fronted and controlled by the teacher. They concluded that the study gave evidence of students negotiating meaning through *Clarification checks*, and they gave the following example:

> *S1: She is welfare S2: What do you mean by welfare? and*
>
> *Confirmation checks, such as:S1: The homemaker women*
>
> *S2: The homemaker? It has also shown the ways in which*
>
> *students helped each other through correction as in: S1: It's*
>
> *illegally for the system   S2: It's illegal for the system and*
>
> *though completion, like:*
>
> *S1: Yes, I know ....but the S2: Mentality mental.*

(Pica and Doughty, 1985: 236-7; cited in Hedge, 2000: 14)

The use of collaborative output tasks is also rationalized on the ground that the output is central to L2 learning. What lead to the claim that output plays an important role in L2 learning was the study Swain (1985) conducted with Canadian immersion students. She has

shown that even though six or seven years exposure to comprehensible input in French, students have not still acquired grammatical competence in the language. This raised considerable doubt about the validity of Krashen's input hypothesis, particularly about the argument that the CI is the only causal factor of second language acquisition, especially in the presence of non-stressful environment. It has been observed that the lack of grammatical accuracy was because learners were not pushed to produce language output. Hence, Swain (1985) introduced the comprehensible output, not as an alternative to comprehensible input but as an addition to it, holding that whereas CI is sufficient for acquiring semantic competence, comprehensible output is necessary for developing grammatical competence. Swain (1995) proposes three potential roles of output (speaking and writing) in L2 acquisition SLA.

1) Noticing: the claim, here, is that in producing the target language "learners may note between what they *want* to say and what they *can* say, leading them to recognize what they do not know, or know only partially" (Swain, 1995: 125-6). This linguistic awareness may also trigger cognitive processes in which learners either generate new linguistic knowledge or consolidate their current knowledge (Swain and Lapkin, 1995). In short, the noticing function of output can help in promoting learners' interlanguage development. Concerning this kind of noticing, Klein (1986) and Ellis (1995), as noted by Thornbury (1996), use different terms *"matching" and "cognitive comparison".*

2) Hypothesis formation and testing: language learners may use their output as a way to try out hypothesis about how the structures of second language work.

3) Metalinguistics (reflective) function: this claims that "as learners reflect upon their own target Language use, their output serves a metalinguistic function, enabling them to control and internalize linguistic knowledge" (Swain, 1995:126). Output plays a number of other roles in language acquisition, as explained by Nassaji and Fotos (2004): enhancing fluency,

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providing feedback opportunities, it helps also turn declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge.

The importance of the output in L2 learning, as well as opportunities for collaborative negotiation of meaning and language forms provide an important argument for incorporating tasks into language classroom that meets these requirements. There are a variety of collaborative output tasks for L2 classrooms which elicit output and promote discussion about language forms, including jigsaw, text reconstruction, and dictogloss. A task that has received much attention in current research is the dictogloss task.

2.2 Dictogloss

2.2.1 Definition of Dictogloss

Dictogloss, or what is known as "Grammar Dictation", is an output-oriented focus on form technique. It was at first introduced by Wajnryb (1989, 1990) as a way of dictation or a new methodology of an age-old exercise. Wajnryb (1990) explains why she chose this particular term for this type of collaborative activity, stating that:

> *Students individually try to write down as much as they can,*
>
> *and subsequently work in small groups to "reconstruct" the*
>
> *text; that is, the goal is not to reproduce the original, but to*
>
> *"gloss" it using their combined linguistic resources. (p.12)*

Hencefore, dictogloss differs from the standard dictation procedure that has been widely used in the field of education where the teacher reads a passage slowly and repeatedly, and students write exactly what they hear from their teacher. It has a different style of dictating, different objectives. It is described as a contemporary approach to teaching and learning grammar; that is "language forms, structures, and patterns are treated from the perspective of their particular contextual meaning" in the task (Wajnryb, 1990, quoted by Pica, 1997: 13). It is a type of task

designed to facilitate learners' understanding of the target forms in a meaning-focused context.

Dictogloss is an activity where the teacher reads out a short text twice at normal speed. The first reading is to get the students orientated towards the topic without writing down anything, When the text is read for the second time, students are required to write down key words, phrases; they should be encouraged to note content (information) words rather than function (grammar) words. After that, students work in small groups, the group members share their notes in order to reconstruct the text aiming at achieving grammatical accuracy and text cohesion. Then, students with their teacher's assistance, identify similarities and differences in terms of both meaning and form between their reconstructed texts and the original text, i.e. learners' errors are noticed, exposed and discussed.

The following table summarizes the main stages of dictogloss and the different roles assigned to the teacher and learners during the task.

Stages	Teachers' Role	Learners'Role
- Preparation	-Arrange pairs/ small groups. -Introduce the topic and the difficult words.	-Should be familiar with steps of the activity. -Understand the topic and the difficult words.
- Dictation	- Read the text for the first time at normal speed. - Read the text for the second time at normal speed as well.	-Listen to understand the general meaning of the text. - Listen for the second time to the text and take notes.
- Reconstruction	- Monitor the sub-groups discussion and interaction. - make sure that all the students contributing.	- Work together (in pairs or groups). - Share notes. - Reconstruct the text.
- Presentation, analysis and correction	- Assist different groups to compare their texts with the original. - Correct and explain students'mistakes.	- Take turn to present their texts. - The whole class analyses and corrects the reconstructed texts.

Table 1: The Stages of Dictogloss

Some researchers describe other variations of this procedure which teachers can employ in their classrooms, for example Jacobs and Small (2003: 09-12) suggest eight variations:

- **Dictogloss negotiation**: Instead of discussing what they heard when the teacher has finished reading, the group members discuss after each section of the text has been read. Sections can be one sentence or longer, depending on the difficulty of the text and students' proficiency level.

- **Students-controlled Dictation:** Students can ask the teacher to stop, go back, but they should bear in mind that the aim behind the dictogloss task is the creation of reconstructed text not a photocopy.

- **Student-student Dictation:** Rather than the teacher being the one who reads the text, students take turns to read to each other the text.

- **Dictogloss summaries**: While in the standard procedure, students try to reconstruct the text approximately the same length as the original, in dictogloss summaries, students focus only on the main ideas of the original text.

- **Elaboration dictogloss**: Unlike in the standard procedure, students go beyond what they hear, not just recreate a text, but also improve it.

- **Scrambled Sentences Dictogloss**: This technique can be employed to raise the difficulty level of dictogloss and to focus students' attention on how texts fit together. The teacher jumbles the sentences of the text before reading it to students. When students reconstruct the text, they first have to recreate what they heard and then put it into a logical order. When analyzing students' reconstructions, the class may decide that there is more than one possible correct order.

- **Dictogloss Opinion:** After reconstructing the text, students give their opinion on the writers' ideas. These opinions can be inserted at various points in the text or can be

written at the end of the text. If students' commentary is inserted throughout the text, it promotes a kind of dialogue with the original authors of the text.

➢ **Picture Dictation:** Dictation does not always have to involve writing sentences and paragraphs. Instead, students can do other activities based on what the teacher reads to them. For instance, they can complete a graphic organizer.

2.3.2 The Value of Dictogloss in Language Teaching and Learning

Many researchers set out various reasons for advocating the use of this new technique. Initially, it is designed specifically to assist ESL/ EFL learners in acquiring or learning English grammatical structures. According to Wajnryb (1990), it provides a context in which learners' grammatical competence is developed through the productive use of grammar. During the small group interaction, co-reconstruction of texts and the following errors analysis, students come to notice their grammatical strengths and weaknesses in English language use. In other words, they find what they know and what they do not. As such, they get involved in decision-making and hypotheses-testing procedure, and, clearly, they "refine their understanding of the language they used" (p.5). Along with learning grammar, Linden (1994) indicates that dictogloss involves learning the spelling, punctuation, and word patterns used in standard written English.

Additionally, Wajnryb (1990) argues that dictogloss constitutes a kind of compromise between contemporary and traditional approaches to teaching grammar; it is experiential, communicative, oriented towards creative learning, and at the same time, it focuses on grammatical structures. Ellis (2003) sates that dictogloss is an effective means of getting learners to talk about linguistic form, thinking that the dictogloss approach might be better suited to promote syntactic processing skills in general than as a means for drawing learners' attention to a particular grammatical point.

Jacobs and Small (2003) set out that the dictogloss procedure has been the subject of numerous studies that have largely supported its use in the classroom. According to Jacobs and Small, among the reasons given for advocating the use of dictogloss are that students are encouraged to focus some of their attention on form and that all four language skills–listening (to both the teacher reading the text and to the group mates discussing the reconstruction), speaking (to group mates during the reconstruction), reading (notes taken while listening to the teacher, the group's reconstruction), and writing (the reconstruction) – are involved. That is to say, dictogloss is a multi-skill task for accuracy. They also note that dictogloss encourages learner autonomy, cooperation among learners, curricular integration, focus on meaning, diversity, thinking skills, alternative assessment techniques and involves teachers as co-learners.

Another factor worthy of consideration is that dictogloss has been characterized as a procedure which takes the text as the unit of language teaching and learning.   Wajnryb (1990:18) explains that:

> *Text provides the point of departure from which the procedure*
>
> *begins (the dictation); it is the goal towards which the learners*
>
> *direct their energies (the reconstruction); and it is the*
>
> *framework within which their efforts are measured (the*
>
> *analysis).*

Thornbury (1999), as well, notes that, it is one way to teach grammar through texts, reporting that dictogloss is a technique which provides a useful means for guiding and directing learners' attention towards differences between their present competence (interlanguage) and the target language via the process of noticing. This implies that the "restructuring process occurs at learners' current stage of interlanguage development" (p.85).

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Lightbown and Spada (1993; cited in Nassaji and Fotos, 2011) state that a number of studies give support to the view that form-focused instruction and corrective feedback provided within a communicative context is effective in promoting second language learning. In this respect, Thornbury (2001: 73) notes that, in dictogloss, feedback and error corrections are part of an input–output cycle:

Text ⟶ Students' reconstruction ⟶ Comparison

Input ⟶ Output ⟶ Feedback
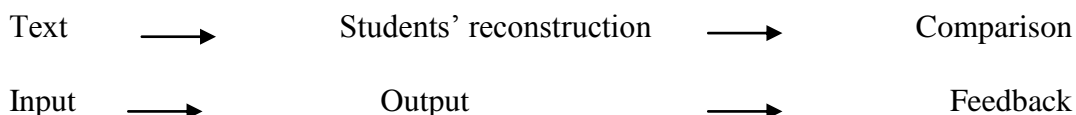
In many teaching situations, dictogloss is suitable for classes with different levels. Thornbury (1997) argues that, dictogloss allows learners with different levels and different needs to notice various language forms when he says: "because of its built-in heterogeneity; different learners, depending on the state of development of their interlanguage, as well as their interest and motivation, will notice different things" (p.332).

Because of the many pedagogical factors justifying the use of dictogloss, Read (2006) points out that a better name has not been found for this activity and she thinks that "dictogloss" is not a good one because it makes the method sound silly though the various advantages it has as a language learning task.

These various advantages as well as others strongly support the claim that dictogloss has potential value for grammar teaching and learning. In what follows, we looked at what various researches on dictogloss have shown.

2.2.3 Studies on Dictogloss

A look at recent research in the area of 2L learning reveals that the effectiveness dictogloss as a language learning task has been empirically evaluated in promoting 2L grammar as well as other language forms and skills. Swain (2001) reports that results from previous studies carried out in French immersion programs reveal that students are able to convey meaning in their second language but they do so with non-target morphology and

syntax despite of six or seven years of exposure to comprehensible input. Swain (2001) indicates that, in a 1987 investigation, Swain and Carroll searched for the explanation of why students were developing French as their second language this way. They spent time in a number of grade three and grade six immersion classrooms, observing and recording what actually went on. It has been observed that grammar was taught in the form of presenting and practicing isolated rules and manipulating form rather than relating form to function. They also observed that teachers rarely referred to what had been learned in a grammar lesson when they were involved in content teaching. Finally, there was little or no attention paid to the accuracy of students' target language use. As a result of this study and others as well, Swain and considerable number of researchers have examined the effectiveness of using tasks, such as dictogloss, which encourages students to focus on both meaning and language form. For example, in the study of Kowal and Swain (1994, cited in Swain, 2001) tried to use dictogloss tasks in grade 7 and 8 immersion classes, and found that they elicited talk about the language of the text they were reconstructing; namely, metatalk. Kowal and Swain recommend the implementation of dictogloss tasks.

Later on, Swain and Lapkin (1998) carried out research using two tasks: dictogloss and jigsaw story construction tasks. The main concern of this study was to see if one type of task led students to focus on form with greater frequency than the other, anticipating that dictogloss would elicit from their students a greater focus on form than would a jigsaw task which provides greater opportunities for meaning negotiation. The researchers found, to their surprise, that the percent of form-based language–related episodes was the same for both tasks. They explain that this happened because learners receive presentation stage of a lesson on the targeted structures before completing the tasks.

More recently, the study of Kuiken and Vedder (2002a) was intended to examine the effectiveness of interaction between ESL learners during a dictogloss task on the acquisition

of the passive form. The main focus of the researchers was to know whether learning gains would be better if students worked alone or in small-groups during the text reconstruction phase of the dictogloss procedure. The researchers state that the findings could not demonstrate that recognition and frequency of use of the passive differ depending on the degree in which learners are encouraged to interact with each other, the qualitative analysis revealed that interaction often stimulated noticing, which in turn led to the formulation of new linguistic structure. However, in a follow up study, Kuiken and Vedder (2002b) assert that the experiment did not prove to be as effective on their learners' L2 progress. Three groups of L2 learners were exposed to a dictogloss task, in which the focus of the study was on the grammatical and lexical complexity of the text produced by the learners and on the strategies they used during the text reconstruction phase. The researchers state that the findings did not show a positive effect of interaction.

Lim and Jacobs (2001) investigated the possibility of secondary school L2 students providing collaborative assistance and support for each other's learning during verbal interaction in pairs on a dictogloss task. The researchers examined the students' exchanges for the presence of discourse strategies that occur in the learners' developing interlanguage. The implications of this study make the case for the validity of student-student interaction as a tool for L2 learning, while suggesting the need for collaborative skills to be taught and for students to understand the value of cooperation.

In Mayo's study (2002), dictogloss is compared with a text reconstruction. The study describes how these two form-focused tasks were interpreted and completed by seven pairs of high–intermediate/advanced EFL learners. Through this study, the researcher aims at investigating the amount of attention each task would generate and the nature of that attention to form. The results showed that the text reconstruction task generated more attention to form than the dictogloss task in which learners seemed to be more concerned with the form and

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meaning of words and expressions. Mayo concludes that much more research is needed on the issue of the effectiveness of different tasks for different students' population and different age group.

As for Yeo's study (2002), dictogloss is compared with an input enhancement technique in which the language forms in the input are enhanced through bolding, italicizing, underlying or capitalizing. The findings of the study indicate that the dictogloss group outperformed the input enhancement group in learning English participial adjectives. Yeo asserts that output focused tasks are more effective than input focused tasks.

These empirical studies that have looked at a variety of subject populations and included tests of different kinds indicate that dictogloss has been proved to promote several aspects of L2 learning.

2.2.4 Principles Underlying Dictogloss

As previously mentioned, the dictogloss technique is a collaborative task in nature. Jacobs and young (2004) explain that collaborative learning offers opportunities for helping students work together more effectively, however, they point out that collaborative learning is much more than just putting students together in groups and asking them to work. Blumenfeld, Marx, Soloway and Krajcik (1996), in their study on collaborative peer work, strongly caution readers that learning collaboratively is not as easy as one may assume. "When practiced in an uniformed manner, it can stigmatize low achievers, exacerbate status differences, and create interactions among students" (p. 37). Furthermore, students do not automatically become more involved, attentive, open-minded, or responsible when working with others. Accordingly, Jacobs and Small (2003) argue that educators need to be familiar with collaborative learning principles in order to understand how dictogloss works and ensures or enhances its impact. The researchers discuss some of collaborative learning

principles and how they can be applied effectively in the use of various collaborative output activities, with emphasis on dictogloss.

a. Group composition: Mixed groups (heterogeneous groups) in terms of ethnicity, sex, personality, age and language proficiency are considered to work better than homogeneous groups. Thus, in forming groups for dictogloss, teachers need to make conscious decision about which students should work together, rather than leaving the matter to chance or to students' choice. The latter option always results in groups with low level of heterogeneity. Furthermore, Johnson et al (1993; cited in Ellis, 2003) insist on group permanence and cohesion because if groups are constantly changing students will not have the opportunity to develop the 'positive interdependence'. They also argue that teachers have to structure ways which help them assess each participant individually, among which keeping the group's size small.

b. Individual accountability: In a cooperative group, although the participants join their abilities to work together for the benefits of all members, each student "needs to be made accountable for his or her own contribution of the completion of the task". (Ellis, 2003: 271). Members are responsible for carrying out their part of the task and for helping their partners complete their shared work. If learners feel that their performance will affect the group's results, they will tend to produce more efforts to realize their goals. It has been proved that individual accountability increases students' academic achievement and improves their performance when they feel that their efforts are taken into consideration. Jacobs and Small (2003) indicate that techniques for encouraging individual accountability seek to avoid group problems such as social loafing, sleeping partners, and free riding. Thus, they offer some ideas relevant to dictogloss: in the last stage of dictogloss (analysis and correction), the teacher can examine randomly students by asking any of the group member to explain group's

reconstruction decisions, rather than being a volunteer of their group. This encourages all group members to be ready.

c. Positive interdependence: Positive interdependence is seen as the first and the most important element to structure cooperative learning where students work together toward a common goal and rely on each other to succeed. Each individual performs role for the end product to be positive. That is, all members' efforts are needed for the group success (Arnold, 1999). Jacobs and young (2004:118) argue that positive interdependence means that "… group members feel that what helps one group member helps them all , and what hurts one group member hurts them all". In other words, this component implies students' perception on the fact that they are related to one another in some way in which the participant in group cannot succeed unless his/ her team-mates succeed.

Jonson and Johnson (1999; cited in Jacobs and Small, 2003) describe ways to establish positive interdependence in a collaborative work in regard to dictogloss.

- *Positive reward interdependence*: group members are rewarded when their goals are reached. Participants achieve higher accomplishment when they work to obtain a reward or to avoid losing it. Rewards can take many forms: grades, sweets, positive words and besides their individual scores on an exam, students may receive a certain number of points if all group members score at or above a certain grade.

- *Positive resource interdependence*: each group member has unique resources, so that they have to combine them to reach their shared group aims. Individual members enter Step 3 with the notes they took while listening to the teacher read the text. In Step 4, one group member can be given a copy of the text read by the teacher and can lead the group in comparing their reconstruction to the original.

- *Positive environmental interdependence*: group members are needed to be seated close to each other so that they can easily talk to and hear each other.

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- *Positive role interdependence*: this exists when complementary roles needed to complete the task are assigned to group members.

Conclusion

Recent foreign language teaching/learning researches have shifted their focus towards innovative approaches/methods and techniques which encourage learners to focus on both meaning and form. Dictogloss has discarded the traditional view that learners should be provided with ample opportunities to produce the targeted structures through repetition and practice activities. Additionally, with dictogloss, most researchers agree that the dilemma resulting from the conflict between focus on form and focus on meaning is solved because equal emphasis is given to meaning and form. Moreover, teachers are finally given the chance to do a communicative activity that permits the correction of students' mistakes during the final stage of the task.

Chapter Three

English Tenses

Introduction

3.1 Definition of Tense and Aspect

3.2 The English Tense and Aspect System

3.2.1 Simple Constructions

3.2.2 Progressive Constructions

3.2.3 Perfective Constructions

3.2.4 Perfect Progressive Constructions

3.3 Difficulties in Learning/Teaching English Tenses

Conclusion

Introduction

English tenses are usually part of grammar courses in English as a second or foreign language curriculum. The English tense system can be described in mathematical terms, tense plus aspect. This means that whenever we express an event orally or in writing, we have to choose the appropriate tense and one or two aspects which signify our ideas. We have chosen to focus on this language feature in our current research because it represents a problematic and difficult area in the foreign language teaching and learning context. By and large, students find the mastery of the temporal system of English hard to achieve and teachers find it difficult to assist their students acquire/learn tenses. This chapter is mainly concerned with the grammatical presentation of time in English, tense and aspect notions, and provides an account of the results of tense and aspect. It also highlights the main reasons behind difficulty in learning/teaching this grammar subsystem.

3.1 Definition of Tense and Aspect

The notion of tense is regarded as one of the central issues of Linguistics that has recently received much attention, and its definition is a controversial issue (Declerck, 1995). . According to Strang (1974:134) the word tense means "anyone of the verb forms in the conjugation of the verb which serves to indicate the different times at which the action is viewed as happening or existing". Leech and Svartvik (1975) point out that tense refers to the "correspondence" between the form of the verb and time. Jarvie (1993) reports that "the word tense is from Latin tempus, "time" and it is used to show when the time of a verb takes place" (p. 73). Declerck (1997:58) defines tense as:

> *The grammatical category whose function is to express the temporal relationship which holds between the time of the situation that is being described and the temporal zero-point (which is usually the time of speech).*

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So, tense is a grammatical distinction of form that is used to relate the time of a described action to the moment of speaking. In this respect, Huddleston and Pullum (2002) define tense as "a system where the basic or characteristic meaning of the terms is to locate the situation, or part of it, at some point or period of time". Tense is also referred to as a deictic category that points out toward time now or time then, as Lavery (2001:01) puts it, "tense is a deictic category which places events in time, dealing with chronological order of events." Slabery and Shiray (2002:02) support this view maintaining that "tense is a deictic category which places a situation in time with respect to some other time, usually the moment of speech". Alexander (1988:159) hold that some grammarians believe that "tense must be always shown by the actual form of the verb, and in many languages present, past and future are indicated by changes in the verb forms". Consequently, they consider that English has just only two tenses, the present and past while there is no verbal inflection or apparent change in the verb form to indicate a future tense. Palmer (1965) indicates that the present and past are "comparable within the analysis, in that they exemplify the formal category of tense as established in the primary pattern" (p.36). However, the forms *I shall* and *I will* belong to "the secondary patterns". Palmer (1971:193) further clarifies that "English has two tenses only as exemplified by: he likes/ he liked, he takes/he took". He argues that we can use the present simple tense or the present progressive to express the future.According to Lock (1996), the future is expressed by means of the auxiliary "will" which is considered as a modal rather than a tense form. All occurrences of the auxiliary "will" would have to be regarded as expressing not tense but modality. In other words, tenses are a grammatical category requiring morphological marking. This implies that time references which are not morphologically marked cannot be called tense. As we notice, some grammarians exclude the future from their analysis of tense because it is usually indicated by the modals *shall* and *will*. However, Alexander (1988) considers that it is usual to have combinations of 'be' plus

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'present participle' and 'have' plus 'past participle' as tenses, so the same goes with 'will' plus 'infinitive' to refer to the future tense; thus, English verb tenses fall into three frames: present, past and future. Jespersen (1968) represents the three main divisions of time in English in a straight line as shown in the arrow bellow:

A-Past   B-Present   C- Future

Figure: Main Divisions of Time in English (Jespersen, 1968:23)

Lock (1996: 148-194), on his part, made a distinction between absolute tense and relative tense, stating that "absolute tense essentially locates a process in time relative to the here and now and relative tense further locates the process relative to absolute tense." He points out three absolute tenses:

1. Present: location at the moment of speaking or writing, or an extended period including the moment of speaking or writing.

2. Past: a time before the moment of speaking or writing.

3. Future: a time after the moment of speaking or writing."

and two relative tenses:

1. Present: at the same time as the absolute tense selection.

2. Past: before the absolute tense selection.

The following table represents the conceptualization of tense as absolute and relative

Absolute tense	Relative tense	Example	Usual name
present in	present	is walking	present continuous/progressive
past in	present	has walked	present perfect
present in	past	was walking	past continuous / progressive
past in	past	had walked	past perfect
present in	future	will be walking	future continuous/progressive
past in	future	will have walked	future perfect

Table 2: Absolute and relative tense selections (Lock, 1996: 149)

Aspect has been defined by different grammarians. For example, Hartmann and Stork (1972: 20) define aspect as "a grammatical category of the verb marked by prefixes, suffixes or internal vowel changes indicating not so much its location in the (- tense) but the duration and type of the action expressed". Comrie (1976) states that "aspects are different ways of viewing the internal temporal consistuency of a situation" (p.3). In a similar vein, Gramely and Patzold (1992) explain that "aspect is not concerned with relating the time of the situation to any other time point, but rather with the internal temporal structure of a situation" (p.22). Crystal (1991: 27) defines aspect as "a category used in the grammatical analysis of verbs (along with tense and mood) referring mainly to the way grammar marks the duration or type of temporal activity denoted by the verb". Jarvie (1993:39) points out that: "aspect is a category indicating the point from which an action is seen to take place". Greenbaum and Nelson (2002) holds that "aspect is grammatical category referring to the way that the time of a situation is viewed by the speaker or writer, the aspect is indicated by combination of auxiliary and verb form". Richards and Schmidt (2002) explain that this term is used to denote

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the activity, event, or state described by a verb, for example whether the activity is ongoing or completed. The above definitions show that aspect does not refer to when an action is done but rather to how the action is done. They emphasize the relationship between aspect and the duration of the action. However, only Hartmann and Stork (1972) refer to the form or the structure of aspect, explaining that verbs change their forms by receiving prefixes, suffixes or a change in vowels so as to denote the duration of an action.

The concept of aspect is distinguished into two types: 'grammatical' and 'lexical aspects'. Grammatical aspect is expressed explicitly through grammatical markers, linguistic devices such as the auxiliaries and verb inflections. It is represented differently in different languages. For instance, in some languages, it is realized by prefixes, suffixes or other categories of the verb. It should be noted that there are different views concerning the number of the types of grammatical aspects in English. Some grammarians distinguished two main types of aspect, for example, Comrie (1976), Richards and Schmidt (2002), Greenbaum and Nelson (2002) classify grammatical aspects into *perfective* and *imperfective*. The former indicates the situations of short duration while the latter indicates the situations of long duration. While others like Celce-Murcia and Larsen freeman (1999:110) draw a distinction between four types of grammatical aspect: *simple* (sometimes called zero aspect)*, progressive, perfect, perfect progressive* defined as follows:

- **Simple aspect:** it refers to the events which are understood to be complete. The simple aspect is not like progressive aspect which is said to be incomplete or imperfective. This simple aspect embraces three main simple tenses which are: simple present tense, simple past tense, and simple future tense with will.
- **Perfect aspect**: The meaning that this aspect covers is "prior", which implies that it is used through relating it with some other point in time. This aspect comprises the present perfect, the past perfect, and the future perfect.

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- **Progressive aspect**: This aspect is said to be imperfective because it shows an incomplete event or a limited one. This aspect consists of the present progressive or continuous, the past progressive, and the future progressive.

- **Perfect Progressive Aspect**: this aspect is a combination of perfect, i. e., prior and progressive, (incomplete). It is composed of three tenses which are: present perfectprogressive, past perfect progressive, and future perfect progressive.

3.2 The English Tense and Aspect System

As mentioned above, tense and aspect are grammatical notions that express the English temporal system. Tense refers to the time of situation while aspect indicates the duration and non duration of the action. It must be noted that aspect does not occur alone; but it always occurs with tense. In other words, tense and aspect are interrelated elements that cannot be studied separately. Accordingly, tense and aspect system in English appears in textbooks and referred to in foreign language classes as 'English tenses'. They occupy an essential position in the curricula of English grammar program; they are considered as an important feature because each time we produce a sentence, we need to choose a specific tense and a specific aspect, too.

Tense and aspect combinations result in a variety tense forms with different meanings and for appropriate situations. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 26) indicate that there are four categories: the simple forms, the progressive forms, the perfective forms, and the perfect progressive forms with reference to time: the present, the past and the future, as shown in the following table.

Time Frame	Aspects			
	Simple	**Progressive**	**Perfect**	**Perfect Progressive**
Present	Pr. S	Pr. C	Pr. Perf.	Pr. Perf. C
Past	PS	PC	P Perf.	P Perf. C
Future	FS	FC	F Perf.	F Perf. C

Table 3: Tense and Aspect Combination. Adapted from (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman, 1999: 26)

3.2.1 Simple Constructions

The simple tenses can be thought of as referring to events that are complete. No further development is anticipated.

1/ Present Simple

The basic meaning of present simple tense is the location of a situation at the present moment, i.e. the moment of speaking. It does not explicate anything about the quality of the situation; it just locates it at the present time. Aikten (1995:18) defines the present simple as "a timeless tense for actions which are always, repeatedly or generally true; or actions encapsulated in a single instant (with no reference to past or future)". Biber et al (2002:152) hold that it is commonly assumed that this tense is used only to refer to the present time, pointing out that this is not always true since it can be used to refer to a time in the past, called "*historic present tense*", commonly used in conversation with verbs expressing directional movement like *come* and *go* and with verbs that describe speaking like *say,* and it can also be employed to refer to time in the future. As far as the form of the present simple is concerned, the present is identical with the base form of the verb (stem) only for the third-person singular

subject where this verb is indicated by the "s" end form of the verb. Downing and Locke (2006:154) summarize all this saying:

> *[The simple present is] unmarked tense. Cognitively, it expresses situations which have immediate reality, that is, what is currently observed. Morphologically, it is marked only on the third person singular (with the expression of be, which has three form (am, are and is).Semantically, it covers a wider range of temporal references than the past tense, including reference to future time (Tomorrow is a holiday).*

Allsop (1983:151) says that the present simple can be used to express:

a. General, universal, true statements (including scientific statements).

E.g. The earth goes around the sun.

E.g. French people drink more wine than English people.

E.g. Most of us probably eat too much meat.

b. Describing the regular or permanent features of one' life.

E.g. I live in a small town on the south coast. I work at home, but i often go abroad business. I have two children, one is still at school and the other goes to college. I speak French and Spanish, and i know a bit German.

c. Describing an event which depends on a fixed timetable or schedule.

E.g.1: There is a train to London from here every half hour. The next train leaves at 15.40.

E.g.2: I've been accepted by Birmingham University. My course starts on Monday.

d. Describing a demonstration, events in a play etc, where time is of no interest.

E.g.1: First, I fill the beaker with 100 cc of distilled water. Then I add the crystals and the acid. I heat the beaker and in a few seconds the mixture turns deep yellow.

E.g.2: At moment, Hamlet enters. He goes over to Laertes and speaks to him.

Meanwhile, polonius decides to.

2/ Past Simple

The basic meaning of the past simple tense is that the location of a situation or an action is prior to the moment of speaking so as to express past time reference. Downing and Locke (2006:35) provide the following definition:

> *The past tense in English is the marked form. Cognitively, the situations conceptualized by the speaker as past has the status of known, but not immediate, reality; they are not currently observed. Morphologically, the vast majority of have a distinctive past form, (played, saw) and, semantically, the past tense basically refers to a situation that is prior to the present.*

Biber et al. (2002) and Aikten (1992) indicate that the simple past tense can be used to express:

a. An action with past time marker to describe historical events

E.g. I came across her in the street yesterday.

b. Hypothetical and unreal present situation

E.g. If I were rich, I would spend the rest of my life.

c. Narrations

E.g. Her father died by accident.

d. For situations at the present time to introduce polite requests and suggestion

E.g. I wonder if you wanted a cup of tea.

3/ Future Simple

As mentioned earlier, for some grammarians, English does not have a verb form specifically used to express future tense. However, as proponents of a future tense in English,

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Aikten (1992) and Biber, et al (2002) note that a variety of forms can be chosen to talk about future events, such as, "will" and "shall", 'going to', the present continuous, the present simple.

Aikten (1992), on her part, explains that each form has specific uses.

The future expressed with the modal auxiliaries "will" and "shall" plus the base form of the verb is used for:

a. **Unplanned instant decisions, i.e. when the action is decided on at the moment of speaking and there is no previous plan.**

   E.g. I will visit my friend next week.

b. **To express predictions.**

   E.g. he will be here soon.

c. **Semi modal "be going to' can be used to express intensions, general plans and predictions events basis on the concrete evidence.**

   E.g. He is going to fail in his exam.

d. **The future expressed with 'be' in present plus 'ing' verb form , or as in Aiken s' term, Diary future, is used to denote plans and decisions which are already made and which will take place in the near future.**

   E.g. I am leaving tomorrow at seven.

e. **Present simple with time marker to refer to schedules and timetables.**

   E.g. the curtain goes up at 8 am.

3.2.2 Progressive Constructions

   The progressive tenses can be thought of as referring to events or actions that are "imperfect". They are in process or incomplete, and there exists the possibility of further development or change.

1/ Present Progressive

Carter et al (2000) state that the present progressive is mainly used to describe an ongoing action that is occurring at the same time that the utterance is made. It is formed by combining the auxiliary "be" in the present simple with the verb form ending in 'ing'. Aiken (1995) explains that the present progressive is used to refer to an action that started before time of speaking, continuous during the speech time and not yet ended, such as in the sentence " I am writing a letter ". It is also used to expresses a continuous action, but it is not necessarily happening at the time of speaking. It implies temporary arrangements, such as, " *I* am looking for her children during her illness ". Future action that denotes already set arrangements and plans, for example, " I am meeting some friends after work". It is employed to formulate a more polite form in letters with the verb 'hope': " I am hoping to meet him soon".

2/ Past Progressive

The past progressive is used when it shall be expressed that a situation was in progress in the past. This action occurring while another past action took place or in relation to a point of time in the past. It is formed with "be" in the past plus verb form ending with "ing". Aikten (1992) indicates that the past progressive may refer to:

a. An action started before that time, was in process at the point of time, yet was not completed.

E.g. I was watching TV, yesterday at 8 pm.

b. An action began before another action in the past which interrupted the progressive action.

E.g. I was having a bath when the phone rang.

c. An action with specified period of duration.

E.g. I was sleeping from most of the afternoon/ 2 to 4.

3/ Future Progressive

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The future progressive is used to express an ongoing action or situation that will occur in the future. It is formed by using 'will be' or 'shall be' plus the verb form ending with 'ing'. Aikten (1992) indicates that this tense refers to:

a. An action that crosses a point of time in the future or has duration in the future.

E.g. Tomorrow morning, I will be teaching from 9 to 10.

b. An action defined by another action, in the present simple.

E.g. I will be watching film when you come back.

3.2.3 Perfective Constructions

The perfect tenses are used to refer back in time to prior events or time periods. They generally refer to actions that began in the previous time frame and continue up to or into the subsequent one.

1/ Present Perfect

The present perfect expresses past events with reference to the present. This time has reference to the present since its period continues from the past until now. Because of this, it is called present. This tense is called perfect because its action is partly achieved. The continuity or the completion depends upon whether the verb refers to a single action, repeated action, or to a state. The period of the present perfect may end at the moment of speaking or extend beyond it. This meaning is the basic meaning expressed through this time (Chalker, 1990). Aikten summarizes the definition of the present perfect when she says that "it shows the present situation in relation to past action; that is how the past is relevant to now" (1992: 23). The present perfect is formed by combining the auxiliary to have/ has plus past participle of the main verb.

Aikten (1992) identifies the use of the present perfect as:

a. An uncompleted action when the time marker refers to the past yet the results remains valid in the present.

E.g.: I have taught English since 2008.

b. An action which started in a specific period that is not finished.

E.g.: I have met my friend this morning.

c. An action which occurred in the past but has a relation with the present time.

E.g.: I have learned French.

d. With some time markers (already, just, yet, still, ever, and never)

E.g.1: She has just come.

E.g.2: They have already watched this movie.

E.g.3: They have ever gone to London.

2/ Past Perfect:

Past perfect is a tense which describes an event that happened in the past before another event and which is formed by using the auxiliary "have" in the past (had) with the past participle of the verb. The action expressed via this type of tense is used to draw attention mainly to:

a. An action in the past tense took place before a point of time.

E.g.: By 8 o'clock, I had woken up.

b. An action was completed in the past before another action (the latter in the PS)

E.g.: The students had finished translating the text before the teacher arrived.

3/ Future Perfect

Aikten (1992) posits that this tense is a kind of past in the future, it is used to denote an action that will take place before some other action in the future; a kind of prediction that an action will be completed before some other action in the future or a point of time.

E.g.1: Everybody will have gone home after three hours from now.

E.g.2: The film will have started by the time we get to the cinema.

3.2.4 Perfect Progressive Constructions

1/ Present Perfect progressive

Aikten (1992:29) states that this tense mainly "focuses on repeated activity, engaged in before the present, but relevant to it, and on the continuous duration of that action". In other words, it is employed to refer to an action that started in the past, continues in the present and may carry on into the future. This tense is formed by combining 'has/have been' with the present participle of the verb, i.e., the verb form ending in "-ing".

Aikten (1992) explains that this tense is used mainly:

a. To draw attention to the repeated action.

E.g.: She has been going to therapy since she was two.

b. To focus on the continuous nature of an action (duration).

E.g.: I have been teaching English for five years.

c. To give explanation for the present situation or appearance.

E.g.: I am wet. I have been cleaning the windows.

2/ Past Perfect Progressive

As it can be inferred from the name of the tense, it is mainly used express an action that happened in the past, but the emphasis is put on the durative quality of the action; it is completed before some other action that took place in the past or before a point of time in the past. The past perfect progressive is formed with the auxiliary "had" plus "been" plus the present participle of the verb (with an *-ing* ending). Actions expressed via this type of tense are used to express mainly a past action in relation to other past time as well as emphasis its ongoing nature.

E.g1: I had been waiting for hours when the train finally arrived.

E.g.2: We have been walking down the streets of London before lunch time.

3/ Future Perfect Progressive

Aikten (1992) explains that this tense is used to express "predicated duration of an event, viewed from a future time." The future perfect progressive is used to indicate a future continuous action that is expected to occur prior to a specified future time.It is formed through a combination of the expression "will have been" and the present participle of the verb (-ing).

E.g.: By the time you get here, I will have been working for an hour.

3.3 Difficulties in Learning and Teaching English Tenses

As with other areas of grammar, learners have great difficulty with the English tense system. Lock (1996) holds that these difficulties may stem from the system itself or from differences between English and learners' mother tongue. Accordingly, Aitken (1992:9) considers that native language (L1) interference represents the principal difficulty learners face in learning English tenses when she says that:

> *[students'] errors are caused by 'mother tongue interference';*
>
> *the native language behaves in ways which are not applicable*
>
> *to English, but learners treat them as equivalents.*

In other words, tenses vary from one language to another either in number or the way they reflect time, and cannot always be translated from one language to another. In this respect, Downing and Locke (1992: 352; cited in Bouras, 2006: 61) state that:

> *Tense systems are language specific and vary from one*
>
> *language to another, both in the number of tenses they*
>
> *distinguish and in the way in which these reflect temporal*
>
> *reference.*

Therefore, it is not necessarily straight-forwardly related to what time the event presented; for example, the present tense, in addition to referring to an action in the present, can be used to talk about historic events in literary texts or to report planned actions in the future.

Peterson (2000) claims that the English tense system is considered problematic for learners, not because of the form of tenses, but their uses in given situations. In this sense, Larsen - freeman (1991:289) considers that:

> *It is neither the form nor the meaning of the English tenses that represents the greatest long-term challenge to ESL/EFL students; rather it is when /why to use one tense and not the other. In other words, it is the pragmatics usages of the tenses that are the major obstacle to their mastery.*

She suggests that it would be beneficial for learners to practise two tenses in a situation that contrasts them in order to notice the difference in using them, like for example when to use the present perfect versus when to use the past tense.

More importantly, this language feature which represents a challenge area in foreign language teaching/learning is affected by the difficulty of rule presentation and explanation. Close (1981:19-21) points out that a simple rule for using of the present progressive says that it is used for "an action performed at the time of speaking." He illustrates the rule as follows: "Now we are going to the University, if the statement was made while we were actually on our way there". However, the previous rule does not apply for this example: "John is already eighteen: he is going to the University now, when the information was imparted at a moment when John was at home oversleeping after a late night". He adds that learners are provided with unnatural examples when they learn the present progressive, such as "I'm opening my book, now I'm closing it, I'm switching on the light, I' m putting my pen on the desk". To explain the present progressive, according to Close (1981), "it would be more realistic to choose a verb referring to an activity having duration as in "*Please be quiet for a minute or two, I' m writing an important letter",* or a verb referring to a series of momentary acts, as In "Hurry up or we'll be shut in. The caretaker is locking all the door" (close, 1981: 21). Aikten

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(1992:05), on her side, considers that many teachers find English tenses difficult to teach, saying that:

> *Some of the mistakes [foreign language learners commit] are*
>
> *undoubtedly caused by the teacher, sometimes by his failure to*
>
> *understand fully the nature of the tense he is teaching, where*
>
> *the pitfalls are how it differs from the mother tongue, why an*
>
> *English speaker selects one tense rather than another, and how*
>
> *to choose examples and illustrations which help, rather than*
>
> *hinder understanding.*

She adds that it is important for teachers to understand the subconscious contexts of different tenses; this way the teacher can identify and make them clear to their students.

In addition, inconsistent uses of tenses represent common types of errors in student's production. As Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) pinpoint, many English students jump from one tense to another when they speak or write in English. In other words, students do not respect tense sequences in discourse which results in producing less coherent pieces of discourse. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 162)provided the following samples:

A. The little girl cried her heart out. She had lost her teddy bear and was convinced she was not ever going to find him.

B. ? The little girl cries her heart out. She lost her teddy bear and is convinced she will not ever find him.

They indicate that the version in (B) is comprehensible and not obviously incoherent, but when compared with the original in (A) in which the past is maintained throughout the three clauses, "it comes out sounding somewhat disjointed and awkward […] because one does not normally jump from present tense to past tense to future tense [as the version in (B)] in a short piece of discourse". They consider that the reason behind this (changes in the tenses used in

the narrative as in B) lies in the teaching methodology that students receive when dealing with English structures (tenses). More precisely, they point out that "learners have learned the English system bit by bit at the sentence level without learning how the bits interacts in longer pieces of writing" (p.162). A limitation of sentence-based presentation fails to show the fact that certain tense-aspect combinations tend to occur together in discourse whereas others do not. In this respect, Hinkel (2002: 183) states that:

> *Traditional approaches to grammar pedagogy largely consist of training in inflectional forms of English verb tenses with a teacher's explanation of when particular forms of tenses are used, followed by close exercises in sentence-long contexts. The sentences for the practice of tense use and contexts are usually supplied by the material writer and include explicit contextual markers and adverbs[...] Although many L2 learners become quite skilled in identifying the adverbs supplied in practically all exercise sentences, they often do not associate their explicit/or implicit knowledge of tense uses…with other language production tasks, such as writing.*

Other problems pertain to terminology, as Richards (1981: 398) explains, in some grammar books, the term "tense" refers to all types of English tenses including aspect, like the progressive, while in others the term "tense" is often distinguished from "aspect". For example, the present simple is a tense whereas the present continuous is an aspect of the present. They confuse both the teachers and the students with the explanations they give.

The problem in teaching/learning tenses extended to other concerns. Aikten (1992) points out that avoidance is a problem, it is not a problem in itself but it results from difficulty as well as the unfamiliarity with some English tenses use, meaning and even form. Such as, past

perfect, future perfect and future continuous, future perfect continuous. This implies that learners do not only produce errors but they also avoid using certain English tenses altogether in their written or spoken production.

In order to reduce a chance of confusion that learners come across when using English tenses, many linguists like Lock (1996), Celce-Murcia and Larsen-freeman (1999), Celce-Murcia (2002) and Larsen- Freeman et al. (2002) emphasize the importance of presenting and teaching tenses to second language learners through texts in order to help them make appropriate verb tense-aspect choices, referring that this is not only methodologically required or desirable, but it is also necessary to address the acquisition issue.

Conclusion

It must be said that understanding and learning the temporal system of English is one of the most focal task in learning English grammar and its mastery is the primary concern of English language learners in order to achieve communication. However, this subject is vast and constitutes a challenging area to EFL learners due to a variety of reasons. The main ones being the complexity of this system, the way it is presented to learners and the role of teachers in attempting to facilitate its acquisition/ learning; hencefore, it certainly deserves a careful presentation and practice. Teachers need to afford opportunities for their learners to find out how this language feature is used communicatively and in different contexts. Only in this way language learners can deepen their understanding and use of this critical grammatical aspect.

Chapter Four

Teaching/Practising English Tenses through Dictogloss

Introduction

4.1 The Sample

4.2 The Test

4.3 Instruction

4.4 Analysis and Interpretation of the Results

   4.4.1 The Pre-test

      4.4.1.1 The Experimental Groups

      4.4.1.2 The Control Groups

   4.4.2 The Post-test

      4.4.2.1 The Experimental Groups

      4.4.2.2 The Control Groups

   4.4.3 Overall Analysis

Conclusion

Introduction

The English temporal system has been singled out by many language teaching professionals as one of the most troublesome grammatical aspects to second or foreign language learners of English. Most of the learners, in the Department of English at the University of Constantine 1, are consistently confused by the number of tenses used to express time in English as well as the various tense forms and uses. Therefore, incorrectly used tenses occupy a prominent place among the factors that lead to a poor performance either in writing or in speaking.

The present study has been carried out to investigate the effects of dictogloss, a collaborative learning procedure, as discussed in Chapter Two on the students' use of English tenses. It seeks to find out whether dictogloss, done in small groups for reinforcement and practice purposes during tense use learning, would lead students to notice and focus on English tenses, and in turn, help them achieve better performance when using tenses. Furthermore, it aims at determining students' motivation and attitudes towards the dictogloss procedure. Through this innovative teaching technique, we intend to answer the following questions:

- Does dictogloss have a significant impact on students' performance when using English tenses?
- Does dictogloss have positive effects on students' motivation and attitudes?

4.1 The Sample

The empirical study took place at the Department of Letters and English, University of Constantine 1, during the academic year 2011-2012. The present study began with 129 students; however, due to irregular attendance of some students, it includes 118: 61 students in the two Experimental groups; with 12 boys and 49 girls and 57 students in the two Control

groups; with 0 boys and 48 girls. The choice of Second Year students was grounded on the fact that they have already studied at least one year at the university; thus, they would have experienced working in groups at least once, in "Grammar" or other subjects. The students were not informed of the experiment or the research work the researcher (in this case the teacher herself) was conducting.

4.2 The Test

A test (see Appendix I) made of two parts was used in this study. Part one is a text which was selected and adapted from an online source, with 13 blanks representing the different English tense-aspect forms; in order to evaluate students' awareness of the form and use of this targeted grammatical aspect in context. The students were instructed that each tense should be used only once in order to avoid the acceptable answers in the analysis of the results and consider them as wrong answers. Part two, writing a paragraph, seeks to evaluate students' ability to use English tenses in free writing. The test was administered during a normal classes session, one hour and a half. The procedure used in this experimental work is a pre-test and a post test.

The pre-test was given to all the students before any teaching of English tenses. The purpose behind administering the pre-test is to be able to argue that any discrepancies between the learners' performance is due to their exposure to the new technique and not to any pre-existing differences. It lasted 90 minutes.

The post-test was administered after the teaching of the different tenses to all the groups. It is the same as the pre-test. The aim is to evaluate the students' progress, and in turn, to see whether the use of the new technique which recommended by many educationalists and researchers in the field, dictogloss, has yielded some satisfactory results.

3.4 Instruction

The overriding goal of integrating the dictogloss procedure within grammar classes is to enhance the learners' performance in the use of English tenses. Hence, along with the instructional content that the Experimental Groups received concerning the English tenses; they were exposed to five dictogloss tasks adapted from different sources (see Appendix II). Most scholars report that the text should be at or below students' current overall proficiency level (Jacobs and Small, 2003; Read, 2006).   the length of the text should also be decided according to the students' proficiency level. Accordingly, the texts, for this current study, were chosen on the ground of the topic, difficulty, length and their internal cohesion. They highlight the use of different tenses.

As the learners were not familiar with the dictogloss procedure, they were given a training session (see Appendix II, text 1) in which all the stages of the dictogloss procedure were referred to: preparation, dictation/Note-taking, reconstruction, and analysis and correction. The same procedure was followed for the other dictogloss texts. The following is a detailed description of the various stages involved in the dictogloss tasks.

─ Preparation:

I this phase, the students were organized into groups of four to five by their teacher (the researcher herself in this case). Then, students were prepared for the dictogloss activity by asking them either some questions in order to make them more receptive to the listening in the next stage. Besides, vocabulary items that we suspected would be unfamiliar was to the learners or difficult for them to infer was explained.

─ **Dictation/ Note-taking:**

The text was read twice at normal speed to the students. In the first reading, students just listened to the topic in order to get an idea about what it talks. While the text was being read the second time, they wrote some key words and phrases. However, they were discouraged from writing every sentence.

─ **Reconstruction:**

During this phase, the sub-groups (of 4 to 5)had half an hour to work together in order to reconstruct the text that they had heard, based on their notes. We did not interfere in the discussion of any sub-group but only moved around and monitored students' interaction in order to check that every student was contributing to accomplish the task. However, in order to facilitate the analysis/correction stage and focus the students' attention mainly on the targeted structure (tenses), we pointed out to minor errors to the learners while they were still drafting their texts, especially the texts of the sub-groups that were too cluttered with grammatical errors. One member of each group wrote the passage after it was approved by the other members. Students were told that they had to achieve grammatical accuracy, textual cohesion, and logical sense.

─ **Analysis and Correction:**

This last phase is characterized as being the longest one. Students' reconstructed texts were analyzed and corrected sentence by sentence by all the students with our help and guidance. We randomly selected one student from each group in order to read what they wrote for a particular sentence, and the rest of the class listened and discussed whether the reconstructed sentences were similar enough to the original text in terms of meaning and form. we try to draw students attention from time to time to grammatical and structural mistakes, the tenses, of course, were the main focus. Sentences containing mistakes were written on the board by the teacher or by the student (s), and the rest of the group who made

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the mistakes were asked to explain these differences, while others listened and gave their opinions. Going through the text, sentence by sentence, we were able to see what students did or did not know.

4.4 Analysis and Interpretation of the Results

4.4.1 The Pre-test

4.4.1.1 The Experimental Groups

─ **Part One**

The analysis of the results of the students' ability to recognize the right tense in the context in which it occurs has shown that-as it can be seen in the following Table- on the whole, all the students were unable to find the Present Perfect Continuous (Pr.Perf.C), the Future Perfect (FPerf.) and the Future Perfect Continuous (FPerf.C) in their corresponding blanks. The other tenses were used with different degrees of percentages.

Blanks	Right Answer		Wrong Answer		No Answer	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Had been living(PPerf.C)	02	**03.28**	59	**96.72**		
Was reading (PC)	49	**80.33**	11	**18.03**	01	**01.64**
Is visiting (Pr.C)	14	**22.95**	45	**73.77**	02	**03.28**
Has been visiting (Pr.Perf.C)			58	**95.08**	03	**04.92**
Comes (Pr.S)	54	**88.53**	06	**09.83**	01	**01.64**
Has flown (Pr.Perf.)	01	**01.64**	60	**98.36**		
Will be working (FC)	06	**09.84**	55	**90.16**		
Will have travelled (FPerf.)			59	**96.72**	02	**03.28**
Is going to fly (FS)	01	**01.64**	54	**88.52**	06	**09.84**
Will have been sitting (FPerf.C)			57	**93.44**	04	**06.56**
Phoned (PS)	46	**29.50**	42	**68.86**	01	**01.64**
Had decided (PPerf.)	12	**19.67**	49	**80.33**		
Will catch (FS)	48	**78.69**	13	**21.31**		

Table 04: Overall Results of the Experimental Groups in the Pre-test: Part One

As shown in Table 04, very high percentages of accurate answers were obtained in the Pr.S (88.53%), the PC (80.33%), and the FS (78.69%). Additionally, more than a quarter of the students (29.51%) were able to give the PS, nearly quarter of the students (22.95%)wrote the Pr.C in its corresponding place, and (19.67%) conjugated the verb 'to decide' in its right

tense (PPerf.). Moreover, a very small percentage (03.28%) reflects the number of the students who were capable of finding the PPerf.C, a minority (06 Students) was able to find the FC, and only one student wrote the Pr.Perf. in its right place. 01 student answered rightly to blank 9: the FS which is formed by ' Be going to'. Table 04 also shows that some students did not provide any answer for some tenses, may be   because they did not know how to form and to use the required tense.

In order to understand the problems the students had with tenses, we have analysed the results per blank.

─ **Blank 01: had been living (PPerf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Had lived (PPerf.)	05	08.49
Lived (PS)	41	69.49
Were living (PC)	07	11.86
Have lived (Pr.Perf.)	01	01.69
Meaningless forms	05	08.74
Total	59	100

Table 05: Blank 01. Pre-test. Experimental Groups

It appears from Table 05 that the students supplied various wrong answers which seem to be dispersed on the other past tenses with different degrees of percentages. 08.49% of the students provided the PPerf. which is possible in this context; however, because the students were told from the outset that each tense should not appear more than once, this answer was considered as unacceptable. More than half of the students (69.49%) opted for the PS as an answer. 08.47% reflects the percentage of the students who gave different verb forms which

do not exist in the English language. For example, had been live, had be living, had been left, had living, were lived and had be live; simply, because they ignore how to form the PPerf.C.

─ **Blank 02: was reading (PC)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Read (PC)	08	**72.73**
Meaningless forms	03	**27.27**
Total	11	**100**

Table 06: Blank 02. Pre-test .Experimental Groups

As Table 06 shows, 72.73% gave the PS, obviously; because they ignore the rule that governs the use of this tense. 27.27% provided insignificant verb forms such as 'red', 'was read', and 'reading'.

─ **Blank 03: is visiting (Pr.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Visits (Pr.S)	27	**58.69**
Visited (PS)	03	**06.52**
Meaningless forms	15	**34.79**
Total	45	**100**

Table 07: Blank 03.Pre-test. Experimental Groups

It is clear from Table 07 that more than half of the students (58.69%) who answer wrongly to blank: 03 suggested the Pr.S; they recognized the tense but not the aspect. This

may refer to the fact that the students did not pay attention to the context of the sentence, i.e., to the time marker 'at the moment' and considered the action as a completed one. As for the 06.52%% who gave the PS, they recognized neither the tense, nor the aspect. 34.79% showed their complete loss in trying to find the appropriate verb form, some of them did not know how to combine the auxiliary 'be' in the present with the present participle of the verb "to visit"; they wrote " is visit' and 'is visited'.

─ **Blank 04: has been visiting (Pr.Perf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Visited (PS)	37	**62.71**
Has visited (Pr.Perf.)	08	**13.57**
Visits (Pr.S)	01	**01.69**
Was visiting (PC)	04	**06.78**
Meaningless forms	09	**15.25**
Total	59	**100**

Table 08: Blank 04.Pre-test. Experimental Groups

According to Table 08, the majority of the students (62.71%) provided the PS; probably, because they were mistaken by the expression "for the past few weeks". This means that the students did not take into account the context of the sentence and did not relate it to the whole paragraph in which it occurs.

─ Blank 05: Comes (Pr.S)

Concerning the Pr.S, it has been found that 06 students suggested the PS (came). This may refer to the fact that the students did not pay attention to the expression 'once a year' which refers to a habitual action.

─ Blank 06: has flown (Pr.Perf.)

Wrong answer	N	%
Flies (Pr.S)	20	33.33
Is flying (Pr.C)	11	18.33
Flew (PS)	02	03.33
Meaningless forms	27	45.00
Total	60	100

Table 09: Blank 06. Pre-test. Experimental Groups

These figures show that almost all the students could not give the right answer (Pr.Perf.). This can be explained by the fact that this tense is very problematic for these learners. We note that 33.33% and 18.33% were mistaken by the time marker 'this year'; this is why they suggested the Pr.S and the Pr.C, respectively, instead of the Pr.Perf.. In addition, 45% of the students provided meaningless forms because they showed that they do not know the past participle of the irregular verb 'to fly'; they wrote ' flown' and 'flied'.

─ Blank 07: will be working (FC)

Wrong answer	N	%
Will work (FS)	43	78.18
Works (Pr.S)	03	05.46
Is working (Pr.C)	01	01.81
Meaningless forms	08	14.56
Total	55	100

Table 10: Blank 07. Pre-test. Experimental Groups

As presented in Table 10, we observe that the great majority of the students completed the sentence containing the FC incorrectly and opted for other choices. More than half of them (78.81%) provided the FS as an answer; mainly, because of the existence of the time marker "next year". It should be said whenever the students find this time, they tend to use the FS. They considered the action as a whole (complete) rather than to give emphasis on its continuity.

─ Blank 08: will have travelled (FPerf.)

Wrong answer	N	%
Will travel (FS)	30	**50.84**
Travelled (PS)	11	**18.64**
Will be travelling (FPerf.C)	03	**05.08**
Meaningless forms	15	**25.42**
Total	59	**100**

Table 11: Blank 08. Pre-test. Experimental Groups

Table 11 reveals that the students gave a diversity of wrong answers instead of the FPerf.. Almost half of them (50.84%) chose the FS; this choice is due to the fact these students are influenced by their first language, i.e., in Arabic, the future simple is used to express such an action which at a given future time will be in the past. 18, 64% reflects the percentage of students who chose the PS as an answer although there is no time marker which refers to the past. Three students wrote the FC. For those who gave the FS and FC, they found out the tense but not the aspect.

– **Blank 9: Is going to fly (FS)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will fly (FS)	23	42.60
Is flying (Pr.C)	12	22.23
Flies (Pr.S)	02	03.71
Flew (PS)	02	03.71
Meaningless forms	15	27.78
Total	54	100

Table 12: Blank 09. Pre-test. Experimental Groups

As it can be seen in Table 12, nearly half of the students (42.60%) opted for the FS which is formed by 'will plus stem', and 22.23% inserted the Pr.C. It is worth noting that these two tenses appear to be logical answers. However, these answers are not considered right because the students were informed before taking the test that each tense fits only one blank or that no tense should be used twice. In most cases where the FS and Pr.C were given as answers, they were used another time. 27.78% provided non-sense tense forms such as: 'flying', 'will flying', and 'is fly'.

─ **Blank 10: Will have been sitting (FPerf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
will sit (FS)	20	**35.09**
will be sitting (FPerf.C)	09	**15.79**
sits (Pr.S)	06	**10.52**
Meaningless forms	22	**38.60**
Total	57	**100**

Table13: Blank 10. Pre-test. Experimental Groups

It is not striking that a very high number of the students could not find the FPerf.C and suggested other options instead. A considerable number representing 35.09% wrote the FS, and 15.79% gave the FC. 38.60% provided unacceptable verb forms. This tense seems to be very problematic for our students, i.e., they do not know how to form it as well as they do not know when to use it.

─ **Blank 11: Phoned**

Wrong answer	N	%
Was phoning (PC)	08	**13.11**
Phones (Pr.S)	03	**16.66**
Meaningless forms	32	**52.43**
Total	43	**100**

Table 14: Blank 11. Pre-test. Experimental Groups

An important observation that can be drawn from Table 14 is that a proportion representing 13.11% (08 students) suggested the PC, thinking that the sentence talks about two actions that were happening at the same time. Three students opted for the Pr.S, probably, because of the existence of time marker 'this evening' in the sentence. Once again, the students did not take into consideration the context of the sentence and relate it to the paragraph in which it occurs in their attempt to identify the right tense. 52.43% proposed different insignificant forms such as: phoning, was phone.

─ **Blank 12: had decided (PPerf.)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Has decided (Pr.Perf.)	09	18.37
Decided (PS)	31	63.26
Meaningless forms	09	18.37
Total	49	100

Table 15: Blank 12.Pre-test. Experimental Groups

Table 15 reveals that a considerable number of the students (63.26%) gave the PS. This option is apparently due to the fact that these students did not order the actions of the sentence and that this action is completed before the action of phoning. Additionally, 18.37% represents the ratio of the students who gave Pr.Perf., and the same percentage provided insignificant answers, some of them ignore how to form the PPerf, such as: had decide.

─ **Blank 13: will catch**

Wrong answer	N	%
caught (PC)	02	18.18
Meaningless forms	09	81.82
Total	11	100

Table 16: Blank13.Pre-test. Experimental Groups

As appears in Table 16, 18.18% of the students opted for the PS instead of the FS; may be, because they thought that the writer was narrating a series of past events. 81.82% represents a proportion of the students who failed to form the FS or any other tense.

─ **Part Two**

As we are making a performance analysis, the results of this part of the test have been analyzed in two steps. As a first step of the analysis, we have collected all tense uses in their correct and incorrect use. Second, we have distinguished correct use from the incorrect one of the global production of each tense. Extract samples are taken from the students' papers to support the analysis.

─ **Step One: Global use of tenses**

The following table provides the frequency of the use of tenses by the learners in the Experimental Groups. On the whole, we observe that there is gradation in the use of tenses.

Tenses	Frequency	%
Pr.S	115	18.69
PS	407	66.17
FS	05	0.81
Pr.C	04	0.65
PC	34	05.52
FC	/	/
Pr.Perf.	29	04.71
PPerf.	17	02.76
FPerf.	/	/
Pr.Perf.C	/	/
PPerf.C	04	0.65
FPerf.C	/	/
Total	615	100

Table 17: Tense Uses by the Experimental Groups in the Pre-test

Looking closely to the results, Table 17 reveals that the PS is the most frequently used tense (66.17 %) among the other tenses that emerged in the students' written production. 18.69 % represents the ratio of the global use of the Pr.S and 05.52 % reflects the frequency of the use of the PC. In addition, the other tenses like FS 0.81%, Pr.C 0.65%, Pr.Perf. 0.66%, Pr.Perf. 04.71%, and PPerf. 02.76 % are rarely used. However, the Pr.Perf.C, FC, the FPerf. and the FPerf.C are cases of total avoidance.

─ **Step Two: Correct versus Wrong Use**

- **Pr.S**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
91	**79.13**	24	**20.87**	115

Table 18: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Simple

From Table 18, we observe that the Pr.S is used correctly in 79.13% of the cases while 20.86% represents incorrect use. The latter were identified due to their co-occurrence with inappropriate adverbials or with information provided by the context.   It has been noticed that, in all the cases, the Pr.S was used instead of the PS, as it is shown in the following samples: "*Last winter, when we are all in the house [...]", "When I was eleven years old my mother was ill, she has a problem in her heart [...] she was at hospital and she does a surgery [...] I do everything at home [...] I take the responsibility.*"

- **PS**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
323	**79.36**	84	**11.79**	407

Table 19: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Simple

As presented in Table 19, out of the global production of the PS, 79.36% of the uses were appropriate and 11.79% were inappropriate and used in environments of the other

tenses. In the following case, one should note that the PS is used in the area of the Pr.S: "*Usually people did not accept advice*. The next sentence illustrates the use of the PS in the context of the PPerf.C: my cousin had a cancer in his head; he *suffered from this illness for four or six months before he died.*

- **FS**

Considering the FS, it was used in an accurate way in the environments where it appeared (4 cases).

- **Pr.C**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
03	**75**	01	**25**	**04**

Table 20: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Continuous

The figures in Table 20 show that the Pr.C is used properly in 75% of the cases while 25% represent erroneous use. In what follows, a learner used the Pr.C instead of the PC: "*One day, we decided to go to the sea with our cousins […] my father was driving the car […] the two cousins are sitting after him.*

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
29	**85.29**	05	**14.70**	34

Table 21: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Continuous

Table 21 illustrates that PC is used in an appropriate way in 85.29% of the cases while only 14.70 % represent incorrect use. In what follows, a learner used the PC twice at the place of different tenses: "*Last month, my best friend died because of the cancer, she <u>was</u> <u>suffering</u> from this disease for two years. Now she <u>was living</u> in the world of peace.*"

• **Pr.Perf.**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
09	**31.03**	20	**68.96**	29

Table 22: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Perfect

Table 22 reveals that the rate of correct use of the Pr.Perf. (31.03%) is lower than the rate of incorrect use (68.96%). In all cases, this tense was overgeneralized to two tense forms: the PS and the PPerf. In the following example, a learner used the Pr.Perf. instead of the PS: "*I <u>have started</u> a volley ball at the age of 10[...] at the age of 18 I <u>have stopped</u> [...] I <u>have</u>*

put all my efforts to my BAC exam.'' The next sentence illustrates a case of the Pr.Perf. used in a PPerf. environment: *we decided to change our house after my mother has died.''*

- **PPerf.**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
05	**29.41**	12	**70.58**	17

Table 23: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Perfect

As it appears from Table 23, the right use of the PPerf. reached 29.41% while the mis-use of this tense was 70.58%. of overgeneralizations, 09 appeared in environments of the PS and 03 were used in the area of the Pr.Perf. Examples that illustrate this would be: *"Last summer, my cousin who was 29 years old had burnt himself by fuel.''* In this case, a learner could have used the PS instead of using the PPerf.. The following sentence indicates the use of the PPerf. at the place of the Pr.Perf. *:"I had learnt many things from this experience."*

- **PPerf.C**

The four attempts that were made at this tense erroneous. The following sentence illustrates the use of the PPerf.C instead of using the Pr.Perf.C : "*I had been working with this company since I was 18 years old".*

1.4.1.2 The Control Groups

ﹾ **Part One:**

Table 24 provides a general idea about the ability of the students in the Control Groups to use the right tense in the context in which it appears. We note that all the students were unable to identify the Pr.Perf., FPerf. and the FPerf.C, whereas the other tenses scored varying degrees of percentages.

Blanks	Right answer		Wrong answer		No answer	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Had been living (PPerf.C)	04	**07.01**	53	**92.99**		
Was reading (PC)	40	**70.17**	17	**29.83**		
Is visiting (Pr.C)	25	**43.86**	31	**54.39**	01	**01.75**
Has been visiting (Pr.Perf.C)			57	**100**		
Comes (Pr.S)	48	**84.22**	09	**15.78**		
Has flown (Pr.Perf.)	03	**05.26**	54	**94.74**		
Will be working (FC)	08	**14.03**	49	**85.97**		
Will have travelled (FPerf.)			57	**100**		
Is going to fly (FS)	01	**01.75**	52	**91.23**	04	**07.02**
Will have been sitting (FPerf.C)			55	**96.49**	02	**03.51**
Phoned (PS)	23	**42.10**	34	**57.90**		
Had decided (P Perf.)	12	**21.05**	45	**78.95**		
Will catch (FS)	47	**82.46**	10	**17.74**		

Table 24: Overall Results of the Control Groups in the Pre-test

Considering Table 24, a very high ratio was obtained in the Pr.S (84.22%), in the PC (70.17%), and in the FS (82.46%). in addition, almost half of the students (42.10%) were able to give the PS, more than half of the students (43.86%) conjugated the verb 'to visit' in its

right tense (Pr.C) and 21.05% identified the PPerf. Further, a small number of the students (04 students) were able to find the PPerf.C, a minority (08 Students) was capable of giving the FC, only one student wrote the Pr.Perf. in its right place, and one found the FS which is formed by "be going to".

─ **Blank 01: had been living(PPerf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Had lived (PPerf.)	03	**05.66**
Lived (PS)	30	**56.60**
Were living (PC)	12	**22.65**
Meaningless forms	08	**15.09**
Total	53	**100**

Table 25: Blank 01.Pre-test. Control Groups

As it was expected, the majority of the learners could not find the PPerf.C. The greatest part (56.60%) suggested the PS; may be, because they thought that the writer is only narrating events on one part and due to the fact that these learners ignore the rule that governs this tense. 22.56% reflects the percentage of the students who used the PC instead of the PPerf.. Additionally, 15.09% of the students filled the blank with meaningless forms, because, in most cases, the students were unable to form the PPerf.

─ **Blank 02: was reading (PC)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Read (PS)	07	**41.18**
Meaningless forms	10	**58.82**
Total	17	**100**

Table 26: Blank 02.Pre-test. Control Groups

From Table 26, we notice that a considerable number of students representing 41.18% opted for the PS and more than half of the students 58.82% provided different insignificant forms.

─ **Blank 03: is visiting (Pr.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Visits (Pr.S)	17	**54.83**
Has visited (Pr.Perf.)	05	**16.14**
Was visiting (PC)	02	**06.45**
Meaningless forms	07	**22.58**
Total	31	**100**

Table 27: Blank 03. Pre-test. Control Groups

Considering Table 27, more than half of the students (54.83%) in their attempt to conjugate the verb 'to visit' in its right tense (Pr.C) provided the Pr.S, thinking that the verb refers to a complete action happening at the present time although there is a time marker 'at the moment' which refers to an action happening at the time of speaking and that is still

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ongoing. 05 students opted for the Pr.Perf. and 02 students for the PC. 22.58% is the ratio of the students who gave meaningless forms such as' visiting', 'visit', and 'is visit'.

─ **Blank 04: has been visiting (Pr.Perf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Visited (PS)	27	**47.37**
Was visiting (PC)	02	**03.52**
Had visited (PPerf.)	10	**17.54**
Has visited (Pr.Perf.)	14	**24.56**
Meaningless forms	04	**07.01**
Total	57	**100**

Table 28: Blank 04. Pre-test. Control Groups

All the students missed the Pr.Perf.C, and, instead, they used other unacceptable answers, as it appears in the above Table. The great majority of them (47.37%) suggested PS; nearly quarter of the students (07.01%) provided non-sense answers.

─ Blank 05: comes (Pr.S)

Wrong answer	N	%
Came (PS)	03	33.34
Has come (Pr.Perf.)	01	11.11
Had come (PPerf.)	01	11.11
Meaningless forms	04	44.44
Total	09	100

Table 29: Blank05. Pre-test. Control Groups

As it is shown in Table 29, we note that 44.44% provided various meaningless answers instead of the right tense (Pr.S) and 03 students (33.34%) gave the PS, 01 opted for the Pr.Perf, and 01 wrote the PPerf.

─ Blank 06: has flown (Pr.Perf.)

Wrong answer	N	%
Flew (PS)	03	05.55
Is flying (Pr.C)	02	03.70
Flies (Pr.S)	23	42.59
Meaningless forms	27	47.63
Total	54	100

Table 30: Blank06. Pre-test. Control Groups

Table 30 reveals that almost half of the students (42.59%) suggested the Pr.S. This can be explained by the fact that this tense is very problematic for these learners. 47.63% provided

meaningless forms because the students showed that they do not know the past participle of the irregular verb 'to fly'.

─ **Blank 07: will be working (FC)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will work (FS)	48	**97.96**
Meaningless forms	01	**02.04**
Total	49	**100**

Table 31: Blank 07. Pre-test. Control Groups

It is not surprising that the majority of the students (97.96%) opted for the FS, because students whenever find the indicator of time' next year', they tend to use the FS without taking into account the nature of the action if it is ongoing or not.

─ **Blank 08: will have travelled (FPerf.)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will travel (FS)	05	**08.49**
Will be working (FC)	41	**69.49**
Travelled (PS)	07	**11.86**
Had travelled (PPerf.)	01	**01.69**
Meaningless forms	05	**08.74**
Total	59	**100**

Table 32: Blank 08. Pre-test. Control Groups

According to Table 32, all the students were not able to form and to use the FPerf. They provided different wrong answers. The majority of them (69.49%) gave the FC.

─ **Blank 09: Is going to fly (FS)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will fly (FS)	19	**63.54**
is flying (Pr.C)	10	**19.23**
Will be flying (FC)	02	**03.85**
Will have been flying (FPerf.C)	01	**01.93**
Flies (Pr.S)	10	**19.23**
Flew (PS)	02	**03.85**
Was flying (PC)	02	**03.85**
Has been flying (Pr.Perf.C)	01	**01.93**
Meaningless forms	05	**09.62**
Total	52	**100**

Table 33: Blank 09. Pre-test. Control Groups

Table 33 reveals that the students tended to provide different tense forms. The majority of them (63.54%) chose the FS which is formed by 'will plus the base form of the verb'. 19.23% gave the Pr.C. Here, for the FS and Pr.C, it would not really matter if students were not instructed before having the test that each tense should appear once.

─ Blank 10: Will have been sitting (FPerf.C)

Wrong answer	N	%
Will sit (FS)	17	30.90
Will be sitting (FC)	12	21.81
Has sat (Pr.Perf.)	04	07.27
Sat (PS)	02	03.63
Was sitting (PC)	06	10.90
Is sitting (Pr.C)	03	05.45
Meaningless forms	11	19.29
Total	55	100

Table 34: Blank 10. Pre-test. Control Groups

It appears from Table 34 that a number representing 30.90% used the FS, 21.81 gave the

FC. 19.29 % provided unacceptable verb forms.

─ Blank 11: phoned (PS)

Wrong answer	N	%
Was phoning (PC)	06	26.09
Phones (Pr.S)	02	08.69
Is phoning (Pr.C)	01	04.34
Meaningless forms	14	60.86
Total	23	100

Table 35: Blank 11. Pre-test. Control Groups

Table 35 reveals that instead of inserting the PS, more than half of the students (60.86%) provided meaningless forms in this blank which are not considered to be part of the English language. 26.09% provided the PC, thinking that the sentence contains two actions happening in parallel. 02 students opted for the Pr.S and one for Pr.C as answers, most probably, because of the presence of the time marker 'this evening' in the sentence.

− **Blank 12: had decided (PPerf.)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Decided (PS)	26	57.78
decides (Pr.S)	05	11.11
Has decided (Pr.Perf.)	03	06.67
Meaningless forms	11	24.44
Total	45	100

Table 36: Blank 12. Pre-test. Control Groups

As Table 36 reports, a large number of the students (57.78%) opted for the PS; we assume that these students thought that the writer is only narrating a series of events.

− **Blank 13: will catch (FS)**

10 students supplied different insignificant forms such as 'will catched', 'will be catched', and 'catched".

─ **Par Two**

─ **Step One: Global Use of Tenses**

The following Table provides the frequency of the use of tenses by the learners in the Control Groups.

Tenses	Frequency	%
Pr.S	107	17.68
PS	417	68.92
FS	19	03.14
Pr.C	06	0.99
PC	27	04.46
FC	02	0.33
Pr.Perf.	09	01.48
PPerf.	13	02.80
FPerf.	/	/
Pr.Perf.C	/	/
PPerf.C	01	0.16
FPerf.C	/	/
Total	601	100

Table 37: Tense Uses by the Control Groups in the Pre-test

The above Table demonstrates that the PS was used at a very high rate (68.92%) in the students' papers. 17. 68% represents the global use of the Pr.S, 04.46% the use of the PC, 03.14% the use of the FS and 02.80% represents the global use of the PPerf. It also shows that the emergence of the Pr.C 0.90, the FC 0.30, the Pr.Perf.C 0.15 and the PPerf.C 0.30 at

very low and close rates. Moreover, some tenses were completely avoided (the FPerf. and the FPerf.C).

- **Step Two: Correct Use versus Wrong Use**

  - **Pr.S**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
49	**45.79**	58	**54.21**	107

Table 38: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Simple

Table 38 reveals that 45.79% represents the correct use of the Pr.S while 54.21% represents improper use of this tense. Therefore, in more than half of the cases, the Pr.S occurred in the environment of another tense or another tense–aspect. In the following example, it would have been appropriate if a learner had chosen to use the PPerf.: "*While my father was closing the door, I realized that I <u>forget </u>something […]*". In the next sentence, a learner used the Pr.S at the place of the PS: "*[…] we suddenly <u>hear</u> the phone […] I <u>feel</u> that something […]*".

- **PS**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
389	**93.28**	28	**06.72**	417

Table 39: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Simple

93.28% reflects where the PS was used correctly and 06.72% where it was used erroneously. This tense was used at the expense of various tense forms. In what follows, a learner used the PS instead of using the PPerf.: *"When I was discovering the details of the house, my cousin came quickly and told me that my family <u>did </u>an accident."*

- **FS**

Examining the use of the FS provides that this tense was used accurately in all cases (19 case).

- **Pr.C**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
03	**50**	03	**50**	06

Table 40: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Continuous

Table 40 reveals that the rate of correct use of the Pr.C (50%) is the same as the rate of incorrect use (50%). In two cases, this tense was overgenerlized to the PC forms. In the third case, it was used at the place of the Pr.S: "*we are living in Algeria".*

- **PC**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
21	**77.77**	05	**22.23**	26

Table 41: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past continuous

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As far as the PC is concerned, 77.77% represents the correct use of this tense and 22.23% represents incorrect use, as shown in Table 42. Of the 05 (22.23%) overgeneralizations, 01 appeared in the environment of the Pr.Perf.C and 04 were used in the PS areas. In the following case, a learner used the PC instead of using the Pr.Perf.C: *He [her father] let me with my aunt, from that year [1994] I was staying with her till now. The next example shows the use of the PC at the place of the PS: Last summer, my family and I went to Bedjaai [...] after we took a break for few hours, we <u>were eating </u>our lunch [...] the people we were meeting were very gentle.*

- **FC**

The use of the FC shows that this tense was used incorrectly in the environment where it occurred (2 cases).

- **Pr.Perf.**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
04	**44.45**	05	**55.55**	09

Table 42: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Perfect

Table 42 reveals that the rate of correct use of the Pr.Perf. (44.45%) is lower than the rate of incorrect use (55.55%). In most cases, this tense was overgenerlized to two tense forms: the PS and the PPerf.. In the following example, a learner used the Pr.Perf. instead of the PS: *Last summer, my family and I have travelled to Egypt.* The next sentence illustrates a case of the Pr.Perf. used in a PPerf. environment: " *before our dad died, we have left our house ".*

- **PPerf.**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
03	**17.64**	14	**82.26**	17

Table 43: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Perfect

As shown in table 43, the PPerf. is used correctly in 17.64% of the cases while 82.26% represent inaccurate use. The over-generalizations (12 cases) identified in the students' papers are uses of the PPerf. in the environment of the PS. An example that illustrates this is: "Last *summer, we <u>had gone</u> to the zoo and we <u>had seen</u> many kinds of animals.*

- **PPerf.C**

The only attempt that was made at the PPerf.C was inaccurate. Here, the PPerf.C was used instead of the Pr.Perf.C: *" my parents had been looking for her till now".*

4.4.2 Analysis of the Results of the Post-test

4.4.2.1 The Experimental Groups

─ **Part One:**

The following Table provides how the students in the Experimental Groups performed while using English tenses. The figures show that the students' scores have witnessed considerable changes. However, the students show that they seem to have difficulty in using the FS which is formed by 'Be going to' and FPerf.C (04.92, 08.19% of correct answers).

Blanks	Right Answer		Wrong Answer		No Answer	
	N	%	N	%		
Had been living(PPerf.C)	31	**50.82**	30	**49.18**		
Was reading (PC)	56	**91.80**	05	**08.20**		
Is visiting (Pr.C)	54	**88.52**	07	**11.48**		
Has been visiting (Pr.Perf.C)	19	**31.15**	41	**67.21**	01	**01.64**
Comes (Pr.S)	55	**90.16**	06	**09.84**		
has flown (Pr.Perf.)	19	**31.15**	41	**67.21**	01	**01.64**
Will be working (FC)	20	**32.78**	41	**67.22**		
Will have travelled (FPerf.)	30	**49.18**	29	**47.54**	02	**03.28**
Is going to fly (FS)	03	**04.92**	58	**95.08**		
Will have been sitting (FPerf.C)	05	**08.20**	55	**90.16**	01	**01.64**
phoned (PS)	51	**83.61**	10	**16.39**		
had decided (PPerf.)	28	**45.91**	33	**45.09**		
Will catch (FS)	59	**96.72**	02	**03.28**		

Table 44: Overall Results of the Experimental Group in the Post-test: part One

According to Table 44, a considerable number of the students found the FS (96.72%), the PC (91.80%), the Pr.S (90.16%), the Pr.C (88.52%), and the PS (83.60%). It also shows that half of the students (50.82%) wrote the PPerf.C in its corresponding blank, about half of

the students (49.18%) found the FPerf., and 45.90% were capable of finding the PPerf. 32.78% found the FC, the same percentage (31.15%) gave the Pr.Perf. Pr.Perf.C. Once again, a minority of the students (04.82%) found the FS which is formed by 'be going to'.

– **Blank 01: had been living (PPerf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Had lived (PPerf.)	02	06.66
Lived (PS)	15	50.00
Were living (PC)	05	16.67
Meaningless forms	08	26.67
Total	30	100

Table 45: Blank 01. Post-test. Experimental Groups

It is clear from Table 45 that half of the students proved difficulty in identifying the PPerf.C, and confused it particularly with the PS. 16.67% gave PC, and 6.66% provided the PPerf.. This indicates that these students still do not distinguish between the various uses of the past tenses. 26.67% provided insignificant verb forms.

– **Blank 2: was reading (PC)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Read (PS)	03	60.00
Meaningless forms	02	40.00
Total	05	100

Table 46: Blank 02. Post-test. Experimental Groups

Table 46 indicates that 60% of the students suggested the PS and 40% reflects the percentage of the students who provided insignificant answers such as "reading". The results of the pre-test and the post-test show that the PC, used for expressing an action which was taking place at the same time while another action was occurring, seems to be well-mastered by the majority of students.

− **Blank 3: is visiting (Pr.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
visits (Pr.S)	06	75
Meaningless forms	02	25
Total	08	100

Table 47: Blank 03. Post-test. Experimental Groups

The above Table demonstrates that a minority of the students (08 students) did not identify the right tense (Pr.C) in its corresponding blank. 06 of them suggested the Pr.S, forgetting that the action is in progress and that its period of time is not yet over. 02 provided insignificant forms.

‒ **Blank 04: has been visiting (Pr.Perf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Visited (PS)	16	39.02
Was visiting (PC)	02	04.89
Had visited (PPerf.)	10	24.39
Has visited (Pr.Perf.)	05	12.19
Meaningless forms	08	19.51
Total	41	100

Table 48: Blank 04. Post-test. Experimental Groups

Table 48 reveals that more than half of the students (68.85%) could not find the Pr.Perf.C in its right bank.

‒ **Blank 05: Comes (Pr.S)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Came (PS)	04	66.67
Meaningless forms	02	33.33
Total	06	100

Table49: Blank 05. Post-test. Experimental Groups

As it can be seen from Table 49, 04 students provided the PS. This may suggest that these students did not notice the expression 'once a year' and that the sentence expresses a kind of habitual action. 02 students wrote 'come', we assume that they have problem with the 's' of the third person.

− **Blank 06: will be working (FC)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will work (FS)	29	70.74
Works (Pr.S)	02	04.88
Is going to work (FS)	05	12.20
Meaningless forms	05	12.20
Total	41	100

Table 50: Blank 06. Post-test. Experimental Groups

It appears from Table 50 that more than half of the students (70.74%) provided the FS because students whenever they find the time marker 'next year', they tend to think of the FS without taking into consideration the nature of the action.

− **Blank 07: has flown**

Wrong answer	N	%
Flies (Pr.S)	11	26.83
Flew(PS)	03	07.32
Will fly (FS)	04	09.76
Has been flying (Pr.Perf. C)	01	02.44
Meaningless forms	22	37.70
Total	41	100

Table 51: Blank 07. Post-test. Experimental Groups

These figures show that more than half of the students still experience difficulties in using the Pr.Perf. (41 out of 61 students). This can be explained by the fact that this tense is a challenging tense for these learners. We note that their answers varied between the Pr.S (26.83%), the PS (07.32%), and the FS (09.76%). In addition, 37.70% of the students provided meaningless forms because they showed that they do not know the past participle of the irregular verb 'to fly'.

− **Blank 08: will have travelled (FPerf.)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will travel(FS)	06	**20.68**
Travelled (PS)	07	**24.14**
Meaningless forms	16	**55.18**
Total	29	**100**

Table 52: Blank 08. Post-test. Experimental Groups

This Table demonstrates that more than half of the students (55.18%) provided insignificant tense forms such as: 'will travelled', 'will have travel', 'will has travelled', will have travelling. this shows, we presume, identified that the verb expresses a future perfective action; however, they could not form the tense in a correct way, i.e. they are aware of the use of this tense but not of its form. 20.68% provided the FS, 24.14% opted for the PS.

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− **Blank 09: Is going to fly (FS)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will fly (FS)	13	**22.42**
Is flying (Pr.C)	13	**22.42**
Will be flying (FC)	06	**10.35**
Flew (PS)	06	**10.35**
Flies (Pr.S)	05	**08.62**
Meaningless forms	15	**25.84**
Total	58	**100**

Table 53: Blank 10. Post-test. Experimental Groups

Table illustrates that 53 students out of 61 did not identify the FS with the form of 'be going to'. It shows that the same percentage (22.42%) gave the FS of will plus stem and the Pr.C. A quarter of the students (25.84%) provided non-sense tense forms.

‒   **Blank 10: will have been sitting (FPerf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will sit (FS)	15	27.26
Will be sitting	11	20.00
Sits (Pr.S)	02	03.64
Will have sat (FPerf.)	02	03.64
Meaningless forms	25	45.46
Total	55	100

Table 54: Blank 10. Post-test. Experimental Groups

As it appears in Table 54, the FPerf.C still seems to be problematic for the great majority of the students; their answers seem to be distributed on the other future tenses with different degrees of percentages. However, almost half of them (45.46%) assigned non-sense verb forms, because, in most cases, these students failed to form correctly the FPerf.C. One student provided no answer at all.

‒   **Blank 11: phoned**

Wrong answer	N	%
Was phoning (PC)	06	60
Meaningless forms	04	40
Total	10	100

Table 55: Blank 11. Post-test. Experimental Groups

As it appears in Table 55, 06 students (60%) still think that the PC is the appropriate tense to fill the blank, most probably, because they still think that the two actions were happening at the same time. 04 students (40%) showed their inability to form the right tense and they provided meaningless forms such as 'phoning', 'phone', and 'was phoned'.

− **Blank 11:   had decided (PPerf.)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Decided (PS)	24	**72.73**
Decides (Pr.S)	01	**03.02**
Has decided (Pr.Perf.)	03	**09.09**
Meaningless forms	05	**15.16**
Total	33	**100**

Table 56: Blank 12. Post-test. Experimental Groups

These figures show that more than half of the students (72.73%) suggested the PS; may be, because these students did not order the actions in the sentence or the use of this tense is still form problematic to them.

− **Blank 13: will catch**

Two students suggested insignificant forms that are not considered to be part of the English language (such as: will catched, will caught). This shows that some second year students still do not know how to form FS.

─ Part Two

─   Step One: Global Use of tense

A quick inspection of the figures in the table bellow allows us to see that all the tenses were used by the students in the experimental groups the FPerf.C with varying degrees of percentages.

Tenses	Frequency	%
Pr.S	83	13.05
PS	423	66.50
FS	11	01.72
Pr.C	04	00.62
PC	57	08.96
FC	03	00.47
Pr.Perf.	23	03.61
PPerf.	19	02.98
FPerf.	01	00.15
Pr.Perf.C	05	00.78
PPerf.C	07	01.10
FPerf.C	/	/
Total	636	100

Table57: Tense Uses by the Experimental Groups in the Post-test

Table 57 reveals that the PS is the most frequently used tense (66.50%) among the other tenses that appeared in the students' written production. 13.05 % represents the ratio of the global use of the Pr.S and 08.96 % reflects the frequency of the use of the PC, 3.61% of the

Pr.Perf., 02.98% of the PPerf. and 01.10% the PPerf.C. In addition, the other tenses like Pr.C 0.67% and FC 0.94 % are rarely used. However, the FPerf.C is completely avoided.

− **Step Two: Correct versus Wrong Use**

- **Pr.S**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
68	**81.92**	15	**18.07**	83

Table 58: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Simple

From Table 58, we note that the rate of correct use of the Pr.S (81.92%) is higher than the rate of incorrect use (18.07%). The most over-generalizations (12 cases) identified in the students' papers are uses of the Pr.S in the environment of the PS, and 03 cases are the use of the Pr.S at the expense of the PPerf.. In the following sentence, a learner could have used the PS instead of using the Pr.S: "*Suddenly, I heard a child crying so I went to ask [...] he <u>tells</u> me that he lost the way [...] fortunately, we <u>find</u> his father and he <u>thanks</u> us a lot*. The next sentence illustrates the use of the Pr.S in the area of the PPerf.: *"[...] we suddenly heard the phone [...] I feel that something <u>happens.</u>*

- PS

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
299	**70.69**	124	**29.31**	423

Table 59: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Simple

Through Table 59, we observe that the right use of the PS reached 70.69% while the misuse of this tense was 29.31%. Though the learners were introduced to the various tense forms, they did not make any attempt at using them, and thus, the over-generalization of the PS gets higher. The following examples show the over-generalization of the PS in areas where the other tenses would have been used. In what follows, a learner used the PS instead of the Pr.Perf.S: *"Houda is my best friend, I miss her a lot [...] I did not see her for Two years."* The second sentence shows the use of the PS in the environment of the PPerf.C: *I went with my family to Tunisia [...] before we arrived; we travelled for eighteen hours. The third sentence illustrates the use of the PS at the place of the PPerf. :By 8 PM, we left this place back to home.* In the following case, a learner tended to use the PS instead of using the PC: *This time last year, I visited Algiers.* The last sentence illustrates the use of the PS in the context of the Pr.S: *We still kept the past events in our minds.*

- **FS**

, the FS was used in an accurate way in the contexts where it appeared (11 case). This reflects the fact that the FS is least problematic for these learners.

- **Pr.C**

All the uses (4 cases) of the Pr.C that emerged in the learners 'written production were accurate.

- **PC**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
46	**80.71**	11	**19.29**	57

Table 60: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Continuous

Table 60 reveals that the learners produced 57 cases of the PC including 46 (80.71%) appropriate uses and 11cases (19.29%) were incorrect.

- **FC**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
02	**66.67**	01	**33.33**	17

Table 61: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Future Continuous

Table 61 indicates that only two attempts were made at the FC; however, only one attempt was accurate. "*With my new sisters I will be living a very good memories and have special stories.*"

- **Pr.Perf.**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
04	**45.45**	05	**55.55**	09

Table 62: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Perfect

Table 62 illustrates that the rate of correct use of the Pr.Perf.S (44.45%) is lower than the rate of incorrect use (55.55%). In most cases, this tense was overgenerlized to two tense forms: the PS and the PPerf.. In the following example, a learner used the Pr.Perf. instead of the PS: "*When my mother did a surgery, I was at the age of 13 and I have taken the*

responsibility of the house. The next sentence illustrates a case of the Pr.Perf.S used in a

PPerf. environment: *I have finished my studies when I went to Algiers.*

- **PPerf.**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
03	**23.07**	10	**76.92**	13

Table 63: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Perfect

Table 63 indicates that the PPerf. is used appropriately in 23.07 % of the cases while

76.92 is the rate which represents inaccurate use of this tense. Of the 07 (38.89%)

overgeneralizations, 05 appeared in environments of the PS and 02 were used in the

environment of the Pr.Perf.. Examples illustrate this would be: *0ne day, we were walking*

down the street when suddenly we had seen group of dogs, one of them had attacked my

friend." In this case, a learner could have chosen to use the PS. *When I was a child , I like to*

watch T.V all the day, but now, I am old, I had changed, I like more staying with my friends.

In the second sentence, a learner used the PPerf. instead of the Pr.Perf.

- **Pr.Perf.C**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
01	**20**	04	**80**	05

Table 64: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Perfect Continuous

Examining the contexts in which the Pr.Perf.C is used reveals that 20% (01case) of the uses were proper and 80% (04case) were improper, as shown in Table 64. Out of 04 inaccurate uses of this tense, 03 were used in environments of the PC, and 01 was used at the place of the PS. In the following sentence, a learner could have chosen to use the PC instead of using the PPerf.C: "Last year, I went to Bedjaai with my family […] my father *has been driving* slowly and we *have been complaining* about this […]. In what follows, a learner used the Pr.Perf.C at the place of the PS: "When I *have been caught* by the dog, I *have been crying* a lot."

- **PPerf**.C

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
03	**42.85**	04	**57.15**	07

Table 65: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Perfect Continuous

42.85% of the uses of the PPerf.C were appropriate and 57.15% of the cases (04 cases) were inappropriate and used at the expense of the PS, as it appears in the following Examples:

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"When we were travelling, we <u>had been eating</u> a lot of chocolate." and *"When it was*

snowing, we <u>had been building</u> a snowman beside our house".

4.4.2.2 The Control Groups

─ **Part One:**

Table 66 presents the results obtained from the Control Groups in the post-test. Since the figures show that these students have permanent difficulty in using the FPerf.C (00% of correct answers), whereas their ability to use the other tenses, in the context in which they appear, varies from one tense to another.

Blanks	Right Answer		Wrong Answer		No Answer	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
Had been living(PPerf.C)	10	**17.54**	43	**75.44**	04	**07.02**
Was reading (PC)	44	**77.21**	13	**22.09**	/	/
Is visiting (Pr.C)	29	**50.88**	28	**29.12**	/	/
Has been visiting (Pr.Perf.C)	10	**17.54**	47	**82.46**	/	/
Comes (Pr.S)	53	**92.98**	03	**05.27**	01	**05.27**
Has flown (Pr.Perf.)	05	**08.78**	52	**91.23**	/	/
Will be working (FC)	09	**15.78**	48	**84.22**		
Will have travelled (FPerf.)	08	**14.03**	47	**82.50**	02	**3.52**
Is going to fly (FS)	01	**01.75**	53	**93.00**	03	**05.25**
Will have been sitting (FPerf.C)	/	/	53	**92.98**	04	**07.02**
Phoned (PS)	46	**80.70**	11	**19.30**	/	/
Had decided (PPerf.)	18	**31.58**	39	**68.42**	/	/
Will catch (FS)	55	**96.50**	02	**03.50**	/	/

Table 66: Overall Results of the Control Group in the Post-test: Part One

It is obvious from Table 66 that the great majority of the students were able to answer correctly using the FS (96.50%), the Pr.S (92.98%), the PS (80.70%), and the PC (77.21%). It also demonstrates that 50.88% were capable of providing the Pr.C, 31.58% found the PPerf. Additionally, the same proportion was able to provide the PPerf.C and the Pr.Perf.C (17.54%

for each). However, only a small number of students (15.78%) could assign the FC, and 14.03% the FPerf. Only one student was able to form and use the FS with the form of 'be going to'. Only 08.78 answered correctly by writing the Pr.Perf.in its right place.

– **Blank 01: had been living (PPerf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Had lived (PPerf.)	03	**06.97**
Lived (PS)	26	**60.46**
Were living (PC)	11	**25.58**
Meaningless forms	07	**16.27**
Total	4è	**100**

Table 67: Blank 01. Post-test. Control Groups

Table 67 shows that the students provided various answers differing in percentages. more than half of the students (60.46%) inserted the PS, believing that the paragraph is a narrative one, and, in this case, the PS is the most appropriate tense to be used. 25.58% chose the PC and 6.97% gave the PPerf.. This means that these students do not distinguish between the various uses of the past tenses. 16.27% reflects the ratio of the students who provided insignificant verb forms, because they could not form the needed tense.

–

Blank 02: was reading (PC)

Wrong answer	N	%
Read (PS)	04	30.76
Had read (Pr.Perf.)	03	23.07
Meaningless forms	06	46.17
Total	13	100

Table 68:Blank 02. Post-test. Control Groups

The above Table demonstrates that 30.76% suggested the PS and 23.07% wrote the PPerf., and nearly half of the students (46.17%) who could not conjugate this verb in its appropriate tense (PC) suggested unacceptable verb forms.

− **Blank 03: is visiting (Pr.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Visits (Pr.S)	21	75.00
Visited (PS)	03	10.71
Meaningless forms	04	14.29
Total	28	100

Table 69: Blank 03. Post-test. Control Groups

It is apparent from Table 69 that out of 57, 28 the students showed their inability to use the Pr.C in the context in which it appears and they suggested other options instead. The majority of them (75.00%) wrote the Pr.S as if the action were not in progress and it refers to a complete action happens at the present time, 10.71% provided the PS for no reason, and 14.29 % gave meaningless verb forms.

– **Blank 04: has been visiting (Pr.Perf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Visited (PS)	30	65.22
Was visiting (PC)	04	08.69
Meaningless forms	12	26.09
Total	46	82.46

Table 70: Blank 04. Post-test. Control Groups

Table 70 reveals that more than half of the students (65.22 %) who answered wrongly to blank 04, used the PS as if the action did not start in the past, is continuing at the present, and will almost certainly continue in the future. 08.69% gave the PC and 26.09 % gave non-sense answers, because they were not capable of forming this tense accurately such as: has been visited, has been visit.

– **Blank 05: Comes (Pr.S)**

Concerning the Pr.S, it has been found that 03 students suggested the PS (came). This may refer to the fact that the students once again did not pay attention to the expression 'once a year' which refers to a habitual action.

Wrong answer	N	%
Flew (PS)	08	15.39
Is flying (Pr.C)	08	15.39
Will fly (FS)	12	23.08
Is going to fly (FS)	02	03.85
Will be flying (FC)	01	01.93
Meaningless forms	21	36.48
Total	52	100

Table 71: Blank 06. Post-test. Control Groups

From Table 71, it is worth mentioning that 36.48% of the students provided insignificant language forms in trying to find the Pr.Perf.

– **Blank 07: Will be working (FC)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will work (FS)	45	43.75
Meaningless form	03	06.25
Total	48	100

Table 72: Blank 07.Post-test. Control Groups

It is obvious from Table 72 that a considerable proportion representing 43.75% used the FS because of the presence of the time marker 'next year' at the end of the sentence. This indicates that these students did not take into consideration the continuity of the action at that time. 03 students wrote meaningless verb forms such as 'will be work' and will working'.

- **Blank 08: Will have travelled (FPerf.)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will travel (FS)	34	72.34
Will be travelling (FC)	05	10.64
Is going to travel (FS)	05	10.64
Meaningless forms	03	06.38
Total	47	100

Table73: Blank 08. Post-test. Control Groups

It is clear from Table 73 that, once again, a large number of the students encountered difficulties in identifying the right tense (FPerf.), and provided different verb forms instead. More than half of the students (72.34%) opted for the FS, 10.64% tended to give the FS which is expressed through the combination of semi auxiliary 'be going to', and the same percentage gave the FC. These answers show that these students recognized the time of the action (the future), but did not identify the aspect.

− **Blank 09: is going to fly (FS)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will fly (FS)	17	32.08
Is flying (Pr.C)	14	26.42
Flies (Pr.S)	07	13.21
Flew (PS)	02	03.78
Meaningless forms	13	24.53
Total	57	100

Table 74: Blank 09. Post-test. Control Groups

These figures show that almost all the students still could not insert the FS which is formed by 'be going to'. We note that their answers varied between the FS (32.08%) and the Pr.S (%). In addition, 24.53% of the students provided meaningless forms.

– **Blank 10: will have been sitting (FPerf.C)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will sit (FS)	24	45.29
Will be sitting (FC)	04	07.55
Is sitting (Pr.C)	02	03.78
Has been sitting (Pr.Perf.C)	06	11.32
Will have sat (FPerf.)	02	03.78
Was sitting (PC)	03	05.66
Sits (Pr.S)	01	01.89
Sat (PS)	07	13.21
Meaningless forms	08	15.10
Total	53	100

Table 75 : Blank 10. Post-test. Control Groups

The above Table demonstrates that the majority of the students showed their inability to use and to form the FPerf.C. They supplied various wrong answers which seem to be dispersed on the other future, past and present tenses with different degrees of percentages. However, about half of the students (45.29%) opted for the future simple, which, in turn, shows once again that the students discovered the tense, but not the aspect.

– **Blank 11: phoned (PS)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Was phoning (PC)	04	36.36
Had phoned(PPerf.)	01	09.09
Phones (Pr.S)	01	09.09
Is phoning (Pr.C)	01	09.09
Meaningless forms	04	36.36
Total	11	100

Table 78: Blank 11. Post-test. Control Groups

As it is shown in Table 78, 36.36 % conjugated the verb in the PC as if this action werhappening at the same time while the other one was taking place and the same percentage provided insignificant forms in their attempts to find the right verb form such as 'phoning', 'was phoned'. 01 student opted for the PPerf., 01 for the Pr.S and 01 student gave Pr.C; may be, because of the presence of the indicator of time 'this evening' in the sentence.

- **Blank 12: had decided (PPerf.)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Decided (PS)	25	64.10
Had been deciding Pr.Perf.C)	02	05.13
Decides (Pr.S)	02	05.13
Has decides (Pr.Perf.)	06	15.38
Meaningless forms	04	10.26
Total	39	100

Table 79: Blank 12. Post-test. Control Groups

Table 79 provides the various wrong answers differing in percentage instead of the PPerf. More than half of the students (64.10%) opted for the PS, considering the action as being part of narrating a series of past events and did not emphasize on the order of the two actions in the sentence.

- **Blank 13: Will catch (FS)**

Wrong answer	N	%
Will be catching (FC)	01	50
Meaningless forms	01	50
Total	02	100

Table 80: Blank 13. Post-test. Control Groups

From table 80, we notice that 02 students could not find the accurate tense (FS). One suggested the FC and one provided non- sense answer.

一 Part Two

1. Global Use of tenses

Table below shows that some tense forms are still avoided completely in the learners' written production such as: the Pr.Perf.C, the FC, FPerf., and the FPerf.C.

Tenses	Frequency	%
Pr.S	80	13.51
PS	434	73.31
FS	13	02.19
Pr.C	04	00.67
PC	34	05.74
FC	/	/
Pr.Perf.	08	01.55
PPerf.	16	02.70
FPerf.	/	/
Pr.Perf.C	/	/
PPerf.C	03	00.50
FPerf.C	/	/
Total	592	100

Table 81: Tense Uses by the Control Groups in the Post-test

Table 81 reveals that the PS is the most frequently used tense (73.31%) among the other tenses that emerged in the students' written production. 13.51 % represents the ratio of the global use of the Pr.S and 05.54 % reflects the frequency of the use of the PC, 02.70% of the PPerf. and 2.19% of the FS. In addition, the other tenses like Pr.C 0.67%, Pr.Perf. 01.55%,

and PPerf. 0.50 % are rarely used. However, the Pr.Perf.C, FC, the FPerf. and the FPerf.C are cases of total avoidance.

2. Correct versus Wrong

- **Pr.S**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
47	**58.75**	33	**47.75**	**80**

Table 81: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Simple

As presented in table 81, out of the global production of the Pr.S, 58.75% of the uses were appropriate and 47.75% were inappropriate and used in environments of the PS. Examples that illustrate this would be: " *One day, I get up early[…]' and " when they are in the way to home, they had an accident"*.

- **PS**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
402	**92.62**	32	**07.37**	**434**

Table 82: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Simple

Table 82 illustrates that the PS 92.62% is used in of the cases while 07.37% represent incorrect use.   This tense was overgenerlized to various tense forms. In the following example, a learner used the PS instead of the PPerf.: *When we were waiting in the airport, I*

*realized that I <u>forgot</u> my passpor*t. The next sentence illustrates a case of the PS used in a Pr.S environment: *"People usually take care when they <u>left</u> their home and go out."* In the last sentence, it would have been appropriate if a learner had chosen the PC: *"Last Friday, while I <u>took</u> a shower and my mother <u>prepared</u> our lunch [...] my father came and told us [...].*

- **FS**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
12	**92.30**	01	**07.70**	**13**

Table 83: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Future Simple

The figures in Table 83 show that the FS is used accurately in 92.30% of the cases while 07.70% represents inaccurate use. The following sentence indicates that the FS is used at the place of the FC: *'[...] this time next year, she will visit me as she promised [...]"*

- **Pr.C**

The four attempts that the learners made at using the Pr.C were accurate.

- **PC**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
25	**73.52**	09	**26.48**	34

Table 84: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Continuous

As it appears in Table 84, the learners produced 34 cases of the PC including 25 (73.52%) appropriate uses and there were 09 (26.48%) identifiable over-generalizations of this tense.

- **Pr.Perf.**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
03	**37.50**	07	**87.50**	10

Table 85: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Present Perfect

Considering Table 85, the Pr.Perf. is used correctly in 37.50% of the cases while 87.50 % represent improper use of this tense in the context in which it appears. Of the 07 (75%) overgeneralizations, 04 emerged in environments of the PS, 01 was used in the environment of the PPerf.C, and 02 were used in the area of the PPerf.. Examples illustrating this would be:*"Last week, I have spent an extremely beautiful weekend." "Last summer, I have visited a very beautiful place; called Djijel […] I have stayed there one week before we went back to our town." "Last year, we decided to visit Oran to spend our holidays […] we took a break after we have arrived.*

- **PPerf.**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
09	**56.25**	07	**34.75**	**16**

Table 86: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Perfect

Table 86 indicates that the PPerf. is used properly in more than half of the cases. 34.75% represents the rate of the cases in which this tense is used improperly. *It was a crazy experience that I <u>had never forgotten</u>. When we arrived to Tunisia, we took a rest then we <u>had decided</u> to visit its […]. The weather was nice and we <u>had come back</u> in the evening.*

● **PPerf.C**

Correct Use		Wrong Use		Total
N	%	N	%	
02	**66.66**	01	**33.34**	**03**

Table 87: Correct versus Wrong Use of the Past Perfect Continuous

Examining the environment in which the PPerf.C is occurred reveals that 66.66% (2cases) of the uses were appropriate and 33.34% (1case) were inappropriate, as shown in table, in the following sentence, a learner could have chosen to use the PC instead of using the PPerf.C: *"[...] my father was buying [cake] from the market while my mother <u>had been cleaning</u> the house".*

4.3 Overall Analysis

─ Part One

The results of the pre-test and the post-test of both the Experimental Groups and the Control Groups of the first part of the test were grouped together in the following table to be compared and analyzed in order to make conclusions.

Answers	Pre-test				Post-test			
	Control Groups		Experimental Groups		Control Groups		Experimental Groups	
PPerf.C	04	**07.01**	02	**03.28**	10	**17.54**	31	**50.82**
PC	04	**70.17**	49	**80.33**	44	**77.21**	56	**91.80**
Pr.C	25	**43.86**	14	**22.95**	29	**50.88**	54	**88.52**
Pr.Perf.C	/	/	/	/	10	**17.54**	19	**31.15**
Pr.S	48	**84.22**	54	**88.53**	53	**92.98**	55	**90.16**
Pr.Perf.	03	**05.26**	01	**01.64**	05	**08.78**	19	**31.15**
FC	08	**14.03**	06	**09.84**	09	**15.78**	20	**32.78**
FPerf.	/	/	/	/	08	**14.03**	30	**49.18**
FS	01	**01.75**	**01**	**01.64**	01	**01.75**	03	**04.92**
FPerf.C	/	/	/	/	/	/	05	**08.20**
PS	23	**42.10**	18	**29.50**	46	**80.70**	51	**83.61**
PPerf.	12	**21.05**	12	**19.67**	18	**31.58**	28	**45.91**
FS	47	**82.46**	48	**78.69**	55	**96.50**	59	**96.72**
	03.72		**03.36**		**04.49**		**7.04**	
	0.36				**2.55**			

Table 89: Summary of the Results of Part One

The above Table reveals that, before any tense teaching, the level of the students in the Experimental Groups and the Control Groups is approximately the same in terms of their ability to form and to use the right tense in its context of occurrence is approximately the same. The number of correct answers obtained in the pre-test and the means of the groups (Xc

= 03.72 and Xe= 03.36) with a mean difference of 0.36 show that there is no discrepancies between them before the experimentation.

The students in both groups seemed to experience various degrees of difficulties with different tenses. As far as the Pr.Perf.C, the FPerf. and the FPerf.C are concerned, all the students in the Experimental Groups and the Control Groups have not been able neither to form nor to use these tenses in their corresponding blanks. The students in both groups have performed a relatively poorly regarding the PPerf.C, the Pr.Perf. and the FC and FS which is formed by 'be going to'. Table 89 also indicates that the tenses that do not represent difficulties to the students in both groups are the Pr.S, the PC, and the FS.

Table 89 shows that, in the post-test, the number of correct answers of the students in the experimental groups has increased (almost in all cases). However, the number of correct answers in the control groups has increased on some items and decreased inothers. Accordingly, students in the experimental groups achieved better performance in inserting the right verb form in the right blank than those in the Control Groups. After comparing the two means of the pos- test scores, it has been found that the mean of the Experimental groups is significantly larger than the mean of the Control groups (Xc= 4.49 and Xe=07.04) with a difference in mean equals to 02.55. It should be noted that the FPerf.C still represents a very problematic tense for the students in both groups. Since a minority of students in the Experimental Groups 08.19% have been able to form and use this tense and all the students in the Control Groups failed to form and use this tense. A minority of the students (01.75% in the Control groups and 04.92% in the Experimental groups) found the FS which formed by semi auxiliary plus going to; we presume that these students do not have problems with this form of the FS tense, but they do not consider it as a tense or the context in which it appears is not clear for them. We have also reached the conclusion that the students, in both groups,

sometimes know the required tense, but they fail to form it correctly. So, they provided meaningless tense forms.

Part Two

ㅡ Pre-test

The following Table presents the results of the students in both groups in the second part of the pre-test in order to get a clear idea and compare students' abilities to use tenses communicatively.

Tenses	Pre-test							
	Control Groups				Experimental Groups			
	F	%	C	%	F	%	C	%
Pr.S	107	**17.68**	49	**45.79**	115	**18.69**	91	**79.13**
PS	417	**68.92**	389	**93.28**	407	**66.17**	323	**79.36**
FS	19	**03.14**	19	**100**	05	**0.81**	05	**100**
Pr.C	06	**0.99**	03	**50**	04	**0.65**	03	**75**
PC	27	**04.46**	21	**77.77**	34	**5.52**	29	**85.29**
FC	02	**0.33**	/	/	/	/	/	/
Pr.Perf.	09	**01.48**	04	**44.45**	29	**04.71**	09	**31.03**
PPerf.	17	**02.80**	**03**	17.64	17	**02.76**	05	**29.41**
FPerf.	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
Pr.Perf.C	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
PPerf.C	01	**0.16**	/	/	04	**0.65**	/	/
FPerf.C	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
Total	605	**100**	488	**428.93**	615	**100**	456	**479.22**
Means	**4.28**				**4.79**			
MD	**0.51**							

Table 90: Summary of the Results of the Pre-test: Part Two

According to Table 90, we can notice that the students' ability in the Experimental Groups and Control Groups in using tenses in the context of communication is also approximately the same. The number of correct answers in the pre-test and the means of the

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groups (Xc= 04.28 and Xe = 04.79) reveal that the sample is almost homogenous, with a mean difference of 0.51.

Table 90 also shows that the PS is the most frequently used tense in students' written production of both groups, which, in turn, gives enough space for the PS to be overgeneralized where other tenses would have been used. This was reflected in the fact that the nature of the question requires using this tense more than the others, but it also allows them to jump from one tense to another. In addition, the other tenses like FS (03.14%, 0.81%), Pr.C (0.99, 0.65%), Pr.Perf. (01.48, 0.66%)and the PPerf. 02.76 % are rarely used. However, the Pr.Perf.C, and the FPerf.C are cases of total avoidance in both the Control and Experimental groups. So, the students did not refer to these tenses in their controlled performance; obviously, they are not going to use them in their writing.

─ **Post-test**

Table 91 presents the results of the students in both groups in the second part of the post-test in order to be checked against.

Tenses	Post-test							
	Control Groups				Experimental Groups			
	F	%	C	%	F	%	C	%
Pr.S	80	**13.51**	47	**58.75**	83	**13.05**	68	**81.92**
PS	434	**73.31**	402	**92.62**	423	**66.50**	299	**70.69**
FS	13	**02.19**	12	**92.30**	11	**01.72**	11	**100**
Pr.C	04	**0.67**	04	**100**	04	**0.62**	04	**100**
PC	34	**05.74**	25	**73.52**	57	**08.96**	46	**80.71**
FC	/	/	/	/	03	**0.47**	02	**66.67**
Pr.Perf.	08	**01.35**	03	**37.52**	23	**3.61**	10	**43.47**
PPerf.	16	**02.70**	09	**56.25**	19	**02.98**	12	**63.16**
FPerf.	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
Pr.Perf.C	/	/	/	/	05	**0.78**	01	**20**
PPerf.C	03	**0.50**	02	**66.66**	07	**01.10**	03	**42.84**
FPerf.C	/	/	/	/	/	/	/	/
Total	592	100	504	577.62	636	100	546	669.47
Means	05.77				06.69			
MD	0.92							

Table 91: Summary of the Results of the post-test: Part Two

Table 91 demonstrates that the all the English tenses appeared in the written production

of the students of the experimental groups except the FPerf. and the FPerf.C with different

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degree of percentages, whereas some tense forms are still avoided completely in the written production of the learners of the Control groups such as: the Pr.Perf.C, the FC, FPerf., and the FPerf.C. After comparing the two means of the post- test scores, it was found that the mean of the Experimental groups is 6.69, and the mean of the Control groups is with a difference in mean equals to 0.9. This indicates that the Experimental groups did not performed better than the Control groups.

Conclusion

The first research question examines the impact of dictogloss on students' performance in English tenses. To answer this question, the students' scores on pre-test and post-test in the Experimental and Control Groups were analyzed and compared in order to draw conclusions. The pre-test provides no significant difference between the groups either in terms of their ability to complete the text with the right verb tenses or their ability to use them communicatively. After comparing the means of the post-test scores, it was found that the Experimental Groups outperformed partly the Control Groups in a cloze procedure activity where only tenses have been omitted in comparison with production in tenses in free writing. These results are not due to chance, but are the consequence of being exposed to dictogloss tasks. Nevertheless, we also reached the conclusion that even students were supplied with the dictogloss tasks, they experienced some difficulties and they were liable to make mistakes. We think that it sometimes takes a long time and lot of exposure to English tenses in clear contexts for some students in order to know when to use them correctly. On the whole, the results have confirmed the significance of dictogloss in reducing the students' learnability pro blems of English tenses.

Chapter Five

Motivation and Attitudes towards Dictogloss

Introduction

5.1 The Teachers' Questionnaire

  5.1.1 The Sample

  5.1.2 Description of the Questionnaire

  5.1.3 Analysis of the Results

  5.1.4 Interpretation of the Results

5.2 The Students' Questionnaire

  5.2.1 Description of the Questionnaire

  5.2.2. Analysis of the Results

  5.2.3 Interpretation of the Results

5.3 Overall Analysis

Conclusion

Introduction

Knowing students' acceptance and comfort with a given task is very important even if it has been proved to have the intended or expected effects. Accordingly, Skehan (1996:4) claims that "from the teaching point of view, it is important to know what impressions L2 learners have about a given task and how accurately they can produce their target language" . For that reason, in our current research, we have made use of a descriptive method in which we have relied on Second Year Grammar teachers' as well as learners' questionnaires. The teachers' questionnaire is primarily intended to gather information about their views regarding the usefulness of dictogloss in improving the students' use of verb tenses and whether students find it as a motivating technique. The students' questionnaire aims at finding out their motivation, their attitudes and perceptions regarding dictogloss.

5.1 Teachers' Questionnaire

5.1.1 The Sample

The teachers' questionnaire is addressed to the seven teachers of Grammar, Second Year LMD at the Department of English, University of Constantine 1.

5.1.2   Description of the Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire (see Appendix III) is made up of four sections and consists of 29 questions. Most of the questions are close ended (Yes/No questions) or questions requiring (a) specific option(s). Some questions require full statements.

Section One: General Information, provides personal information about the teachers' degree (Q1) and the number of years' experience in teaching Second Year Grammar (Q 2).

Section Two: Learning/Teaching Tenses, The aim is to get information about the importance of learning English tenses from the teachers' point of view and why (Q3and Q4), whether English tenses constitute a problematic and challenging area to Second Year students, and the factors causing difficulties for learners to learn tenses (Q5 and Q6). It also aims at

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finding out whether students' main problem is the ignorance of the rules that govern the use of various tenses or is when it comes to apply these rules in language use (Q 7). It is also concerned with the teachers' opinions about the necessity of incorporating interactive activities while teaching and/or practising tenses and why (Q8 and Q9), and how frequently they organize group/pair work situations for English tenses and if they do, what kind of interactive activities they adopt (Q10 to Q11).

Section Three: Dictogloss, the objective of section three is to find out about whether Second Year Grammar teachers are familiar with the dictogloss procedure (Q12), the teachers' general views regarding the effectiveness of this procedure when used to teach/practise English tenses and why (Q 13, Q14 and Q15).It is also concerned with finding out about whether they have used dictogloss before teaching English tenses (Q 16), if yes, how many times (Q17), what kind of texts they have used (Q18), and how easy their students found the performance of dictogloss and why (Q20 and Q21). The teachers were also asked for their views about whether dictogloss stimulates students' motivation and why (Q22 and Q23), whether it is good for getting learners to work together and why (Q24 to Q26). This section also aims at knowing whether students have problems working together while doing dictogloss (during the reconstruction stage) (Q27 and Q28).

In section Four: Further Suggestions (Q29) the teachers are invited to give additional comments.

5.1.3 Analysis of the Results

─ Section One: General Information

1. What is your degree?

      a. Master ☐

      b. Magister ☐

      c. Doctorate ☐

Degree	N	%
Master	03	**42.86**
Magister	04	**57.14**
Total	07	**100**

Table 92: Classification of Teachers' per Degree
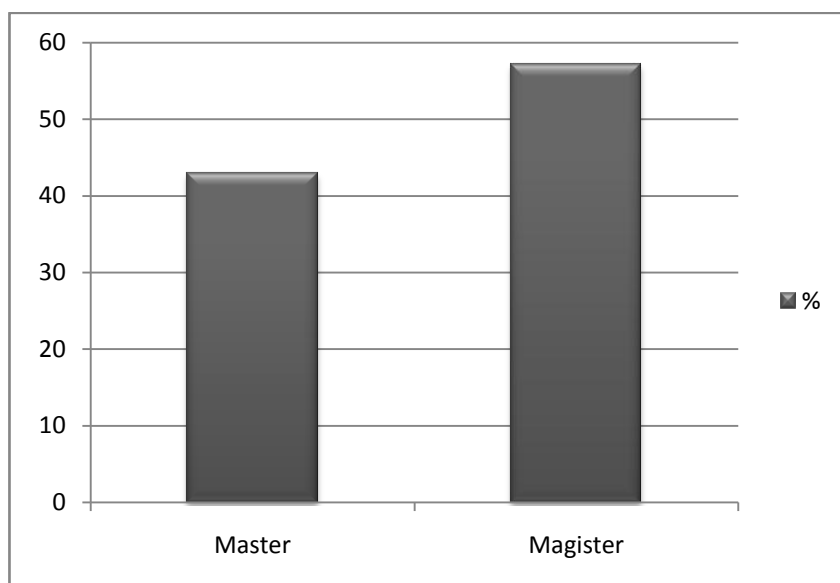
Graph 92: Classification of Teachers' per Degree

As it can be seen in Table 92, three teachers have a Master degree and four teachers have a Magister degree.

2. How long have you been teaching Second Year Grammar?

…Years.

Among the teachers who have a Magister degree, one has been teaching Second Year Grammar for 08 years, two have been teaching it for 06 years, and one for 04 years. Concerning the 03 teachers who have a Master degree, one has been teaching second year grammar for 03 years and two for 01 year. These results show that our sample is composed of

two different degrees and a different number of years of experience which, in turn, would be the cause of having different attitudes and different points of view.

— **Section Two: Learning/Teaching Tenses**

3. **For your students, learning English tenses is:**

   a. **Very important** ☐

   b. **Important** ☐

   c. **Not important** ☐

Option	N	%
a	05	71.42
b	02	28.58
Total	07	100

Table 93: Teachers' Opinions about the Importance of Learning English Tenses
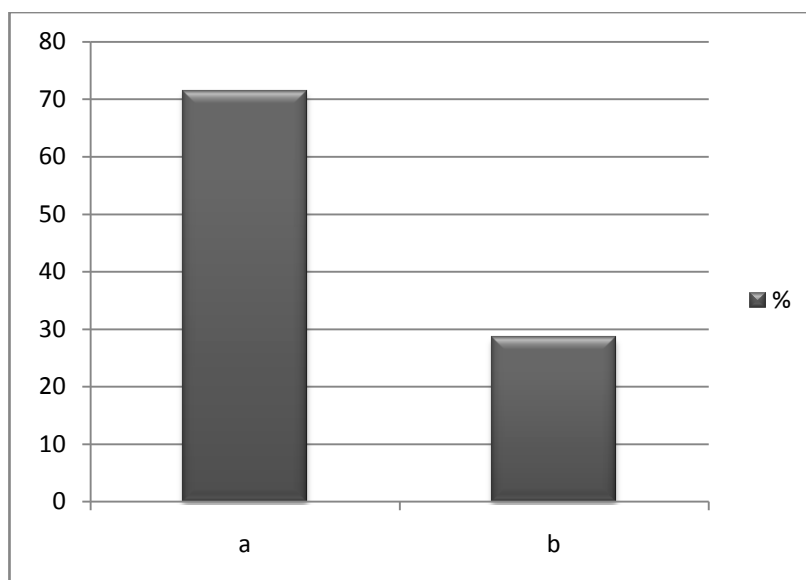
Graph 93: Teachers' Opinions about the Importance of Learning English Tenses

As it can be noticed in the Table 93, the majority of the surveyed teachers (71.42%) think that learning English tenses is very important.

4. If '(very) important', please explain why.

....

Among the 05 teachers who said that, for their students, learning English tenses is *very important*, 04 justified their views as follows:

— "English tenses express meaning, and unless they are used accurately, this meaning will be destroyed or not conveyed adequately." (01 teacher)

— They enable students to indicate when a situation (or an event) takes place. (02 teachers)

— Speaking and writing coherently is due to the respect of the agreement of tenses. (01 teacher)

No justification was provided by the 2 teachers who consider that learning English tenses is *important.*

5. English tenses are a problematic area for your students.

Yes ☐

No ☐

To this question, all the teachers answered 'Yes'. This shows that tenses represent a real difficulty to students.

6. If 'Yes', is it because of:

a. Ignorance of the rules. ☐

b. The way English tenses are presented and practised. ☐

c. The insufficient time allocated to teach and practise English tenses. ☐

d. The complex nature of the English tense system. ☐

e. Other: Please, specify: ....

Degree	N	%
a	01	14.28
b	01	14.28
c	01	14.28
bcde	01	14.28
cd	02	28.58
de	01	14.28
Total	07	100

Table 94: Reasons behind Difficulty of Tenses
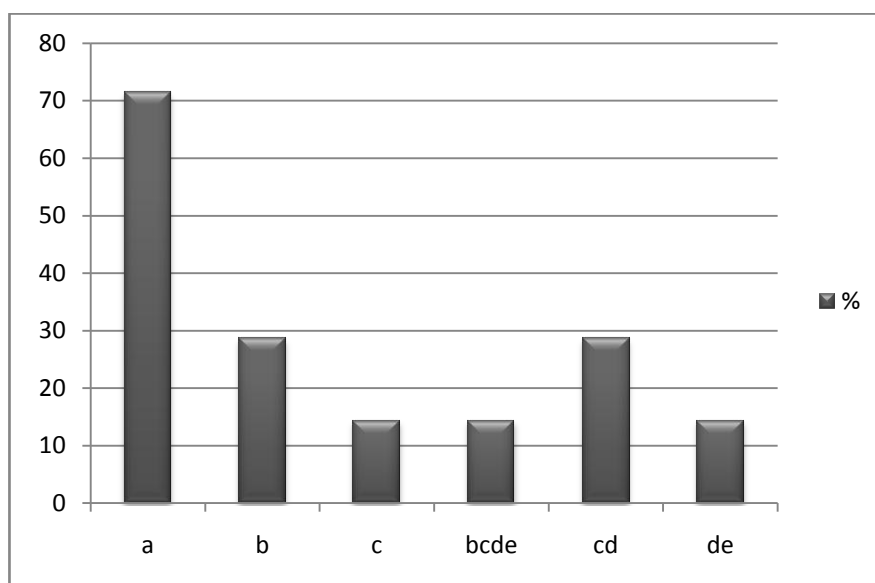
Graph 94: Reasons behind Difficulty of Tenses

According to Table 94 and Graph 94, the teachers' answers seem to be distributed on almost all the options; in other words, teachers are not on the same wavelength regarding the factors that cause difficulties to learners in learning English tenses. Some of them tended to opt for one reason, others for two and one teacher opted for three reasons (bcd) and specified

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(e) also that the difficulty of this system may stem from the negative influence of the mother tongue (in our case Arabic).

7. Your students know most of the tense rules, but they still make mistakes in the use of the right tense.

Yes ☐

No ☐

Here, also, all the teachers answered 'Yes'. This shows that students produce ungrammatical sentences (performance) though they know the rule (competence).

8. Interactive activities are necessary when teaching and practising English tenses.

Yes ☐

No ☐

Option	N	%
Yes	05	71.42
No	02	28.58
Total	07	100

Table 95: Teachers' Belief about Using Interactive Activities while Teaching English
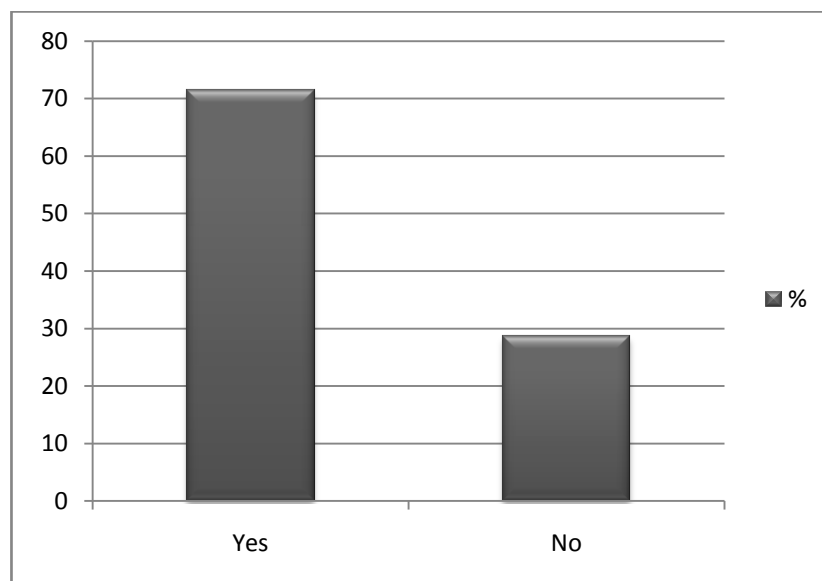
Tenses

Graph 95: Teachers' Belief about Using Interactive Activities while Teaching English

Tenses

As Table 95 and Graph 95 indicate, the majority of the teachers (71.42%) consider that interactive activities are necessary when teaching and practising English tenses.

9. If 'Yes', please, explain why.

04 teachers out of five explained that interactive activities are necessary for teaching and/or practising English tenses for the following reasons:

— Students will be more aware of their mistakes. (02 teachers)

— They make the learning of English tenses an enjoyable task and encourage students to communicate with each other in the classroom. (01 teacher)

— "Interaction helps the students to negotiate the meaning and the form of tenses more efficiently". (01 teacher)

10. How often do you organize group / pair work practice situations for English tenses?

    a. Always ☐

    b. Often ☐

    c. Rarely ☐

    d. Never ☐

Option	N	%
b	05	71.42
c	02	28.58
Total	07	100

Table 96: The Frequency of Using Pair/Group Work while Teaching English Tenses
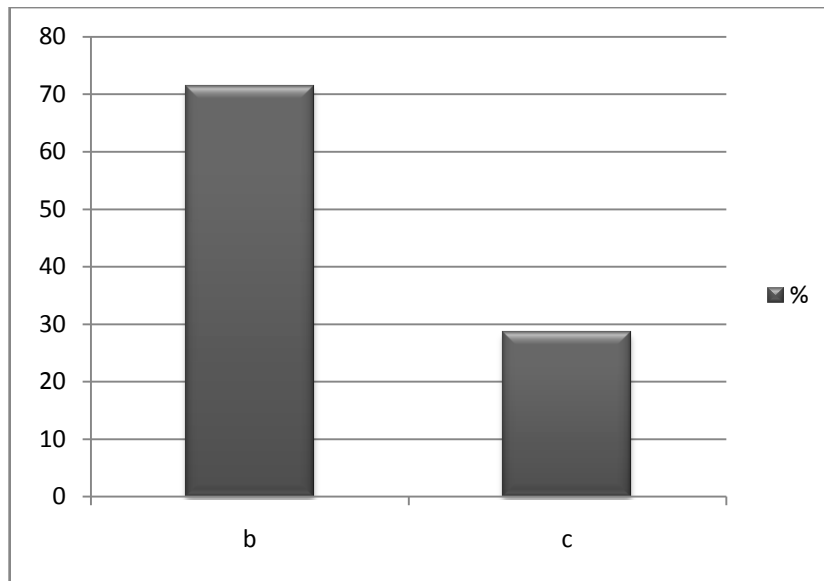
Graph 96: The Frequency of Using Pair/Group Work while Teaching English Tenses

Table 96 and Graph 96 reveal that 71.42% of the sample said that they "*often*" use pair/group work for teaching English tenses; the remainder (28.58%) said that they use them "*sometimes*". No one responded "*rarely*" or "*never*" to this question.

11. If "Always or Often or Rarely", what kind of activities do you use?

    a. Learning together ☐

    b. Team games ☐

    c. Role-plays ☐

    d. Jigsaw ☐

e. Dictogloss ☐

f. Other: **Please, specify:**

……………………………………

.

Option	N	%
a	04	**57.54**
f	01	**14.28**
ae	02	**28.85**
Total	07	**100**

Table 97: Kinds of Interactive Activities Used by Teachers to Teach Tense
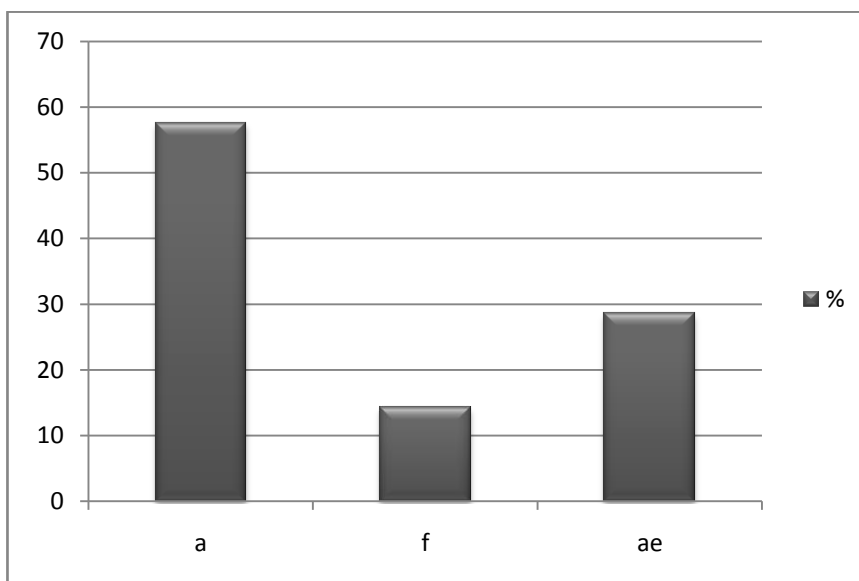
Graph 97: Kinds of Interactive Activities Used by Teachers to Teach Tense

According to Table 97 and Graph 97, more than half of the surveyed teachers (57.14%) use learning together. 28.58% use both learning together and dictogloss. 01 teacher specified that s/he uses games.

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─ Section Three: Dictogloss

12. Are you familiar with the dictogloss procedure?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Option	N	*%*
Yes	03	42.86
No	04	57.14
Total	07	100

Table 98: Teachers' Familiarity with Dictogloss
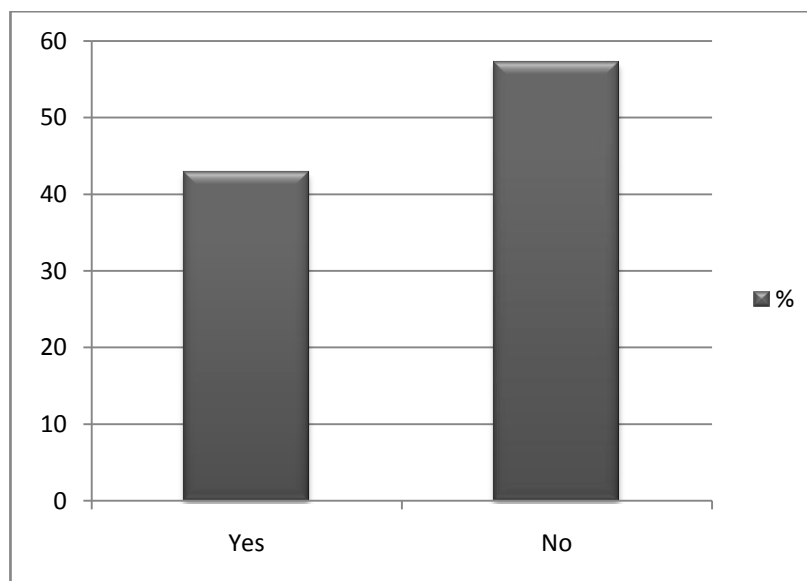
Graph 98: Teachers' Familiarity with Dictogloss

As it can be seen in Table 98 and Graph 98, dictogloss is not known to more than half of the surveyed teachers (57.14%).

13. Dictogloss has positive effects when used to teach English tenses.

Yes ☐

No ☐

Almost all the teachers (06) think that dictogloss can be effective in teaching English tenses; one did not give any answer.

14. If 'Yes', please, explain why.

The six teachers explained their choices saying:

— It allows learners to notice the gap between their use of English tenses and how they are actually used in the target language.(03 teachers).

— "Learning and teaching tenses make more sense if embedded in an especially intriguing text." (01 teacher).

— Students are obliged to rely on their grammatical knowledge (tenses) plus cooperating with classmates." (01 teacher)

— Students are shown that tenses express meaning. (01 teacher)

15. If 'No', please, explain why.

No answer was provided to this question as no teacher had said to "No" to the previous question.

16. Have you used the dictogloss procedure to teach/practise tenses?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Option	N	%
Yes	02	28.58
No	05	71.42
Total	07	100

Table 99: Teachers' Use of Dictogloss
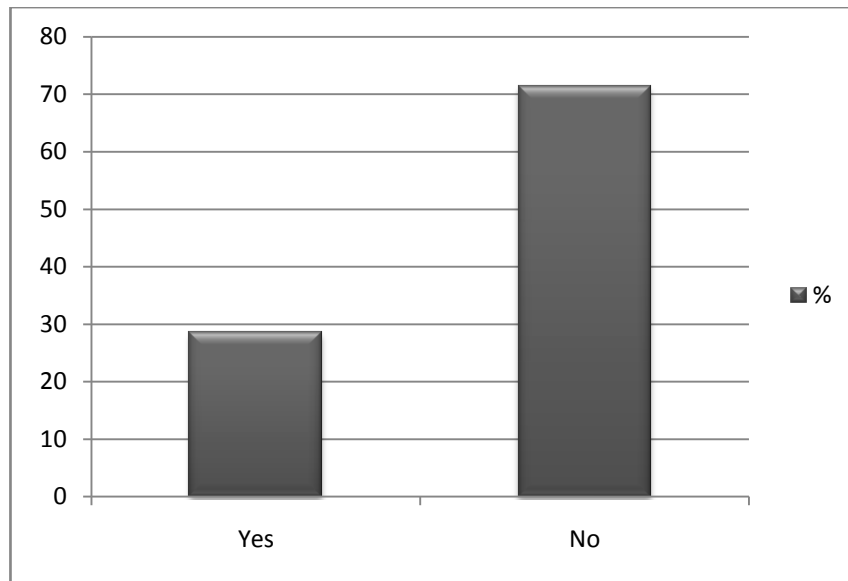
Graph 99: Teachers' Use of Dictogloss

Only two teachers (28.57%) have tried out this technique in their classrooms to teach English tenses.

17. If 'Yes', can you specify how often?

    a. Once ☐

    b. Twice ☐

    c. Three times ☐

    d. Other: Please, specify.

    …………………………

Two teachers stated that they have used dictogloss once in their grammar classes.

18. What kind of texts have you used?

    a. Narrative ☐

    b. Expository ☐

    c. Scientific ☐

    d. Descriptive ☐

    e. Other: Please, specify:……………

Both teachers said that they used a narrative dictogloss text.

19. To complete the reconstruction of the texts, students were given:

    a. Less than 20 minutes ☐

    b. 20 minutes ☐

    c. 30 minutes ☐

    d. 45 minutes ☐

    e. More than 45 minutes ☐

Concerning the time allocated to learners to reconstruct the text, one teacher gave his/her students less than 20 minutes to reconstruct the text that they had heard, and the other one gave them 20 minutes.

20. Students find the dictogloss procedure:

a. **Easy** ☐

b. **Average** ☐

c. **Difficult** ☐

The two teachers, who tried this technique out, claimed that the students found the performance of dictogloss "Average".

21. Can you, please, explain why?

……………………………………………

The two teachers provided the following reason:

− Students' lack familiarity with dictogloss and its stages.

22. Dictogloss stimulates students' motivation to learn English tenses.

Yes ☐

No ☐

The two teachers who adopted this technique said that dictogloss stimulates students' motivation.

23. If 'Yes', please, explain why.

The two teachers explained that:

− It allows them to interact together. (01 teacher)

− It is a challenging activity. (01 teacher)

24. Dictogloss is appropriate for getting learners work together.

Yes ☐

No ☐

To this question, both teachers replied 'Yes'.

25. If 'Yes', please explain why.

The two teachers provided the following reason:

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― Students must rely on each other's notes to reconstruct the text.

26. If 'No', please explain why.

No answer is provided to this question as both teachers said "Yes" to question 24.

27. Do the students have problems working together while doing dictogloss?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Both teachers answered "No" to this question.

28. If 'Yes', please explain why.

No answer is given to this question, because both teachers answered "No" to question 27.

―Section Four: Further Suggestions

29. Please, add any further comment.

04 of the surveyed teachers gave comments about dictogloss summarized as follows:

― "Dictogloss engages learners in a meaningful communication and it may bring to their attention something they need to discover about the use of English tenses."(01 teacher)

― "Dictogloss is an interesting and new technique that can be useful to teach any grammatical aspect not only tenses" (01 teacher).

― "The implementation of dictogloss, especially in grammar classes, is useful as it allows learners to interact with each other and at the same time learning grammar" (01 teacher).

― "Dictogloss works on the basis of text, where the context is more specific and details are given to help learners get the point" (01 teacher).

5.1.3 Interpretations of the Results

Our sample is composed of teachers with different degrees and a different number of years of experience in teaching Second Year grammar. Concerning learning and teaching

English tenses, a large proportion of the surveyed teachers (71.42%) view that learning English tenses is very important to their learners in the process of learning English language mainly because this grammatical system express meaning, and the ability to speak and write coherently in English is due to the respect of the agreement of tenses. This means that grammar teachers consider tenses as a very important element of English grammar. In addition, all 2nd grammar teachers agree that this grammar subsystem (tenses) constitutes a difficult area to their learners. They also agree that this difficulty appears to be related to their inability to transfer their grammatical knowledge of tenses to practice; in other words, students do not have many problems as far as the form is concerned or the meaning of a given English tense, but when and why to use a particular tense in speaking or writing. The majority of the teachers (71.42%) consider that interactive activities are necessary when teaching and practising English tenses, indicating that they "*often*" use pair/group work for teaching English tenses; the remainder (28.58%) use them "*sometimes*". This indicates that Second year grammar teachers, in our context, are aware of the importance of involving learners in their own learning and assisting them to change their statues to be active participants instead of passive members. Concerning the kinds of interactive activities that the surveyed teachers use to teach/practice tenses, the majority (57.14 %) use learning together model; and 28.58% use both learning together and dictogloss. 01 teacher specified that s/he uses games. This means that different interactive activities are applied in our grammar classes.

As for Dictogloss, more than half of the surveyed teachers (57.14%) are not familiar with this technique. It should be noted that knowing about the existence of dictogloss has nothing to do with the degree or years of experience of teachers since, in our sample, two teachers who have Magister degree and have been teaching grammar for many years (06 years) are not familiar with dictogloss as they replied in the questionnaire in contrast to the teacher who has

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Master degree and one year of experience. The great majority of the teachers (85.71%) view that dictogloss can be effective in teaching English tenses. One teacher, we presume, has a neutral point of view as s/he provided no answer. Two teachers from our sample adopted this technique in their classrooms to teach tenses once and they stated that it is an appropriate technique to get learners work together; they also indicated that their students expressed positive attitudes towards dictogloss.

5.2. The Students' Questionnaire

5.2.1. Description of the Questionnaire

This questionnaire, which was set mainly to determine students' attitudes and level of motivation regarding the dictogloss procedure, involves 19 questions divided into four sections. The questions include close-ended questions and open-ended questions where students have to explain their choice or suggest alternatives.

Section One: General Information, provides information about the sex of the students with the aim of knowing whether gender differences leads to different attitudes towards the dictogloss procedure (Q1).

Section Two: Learning Tenses, seeks to elicit answers concerning the importance of learning tenses in the process of learning English in the students' views and why (Q2 and Q3), whether the English tense system represents a problematic area to Second Year students, and the causes of the problimaticy (Q4 and Q5). It also aims to know whether students' main problem is the ignorance of the rules that govern the use of various tenses or is when it comes to apply these rules in language use (Q6). Students were also asked about their preferable structure to learn tenses, whether individually, in pairs or in groups and why (Q7 andQ8).

Section Three: Dictogloss, is about dictogloss and involves knowing whether students have been taught English tenses through dictogloss before, or having done this kind of grammar tasks to learn tenses is regarded as a new experience for these students (Q09). Students were

asked to identify the degree of their motivation while doing dictogloss (Q10) and how they found the performance of dictogloss, whether easy, average or difficult and why (Q11and Q12). This section also involves learners' views about whether dictogloss texts that were selected by the   teacher /researcher during the experiment were interesting, and whether the length of time that they were given in order to reconstruct the text was sufficient (Q13 and Q14). It also aims at knowing whether students had problems working together while doing dictogloss(during the reconstruction stage) and they were asked to provide the reason in case they encountered problems (Q15 and Q 16),whether the students really like to study grammar in the future through the dictogloss procedure and why(Q17 andQ18).

Section Four, is a space devoted to students to give additional comments about the sections have been dealt with so far (Q19).

 5.2.2. Analysis of the Results

─ **Section One: General Information**

1. **Sex**

      Male   [   ]

      Female   [   ]

Sex	Control Groups		Experimental Groups	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
Male	08	**14.03**	13	**21.31**
Female	49	**85.97**	48	**78.69**
Total	57	100	61	100

Table 100: Number of Students per Sex
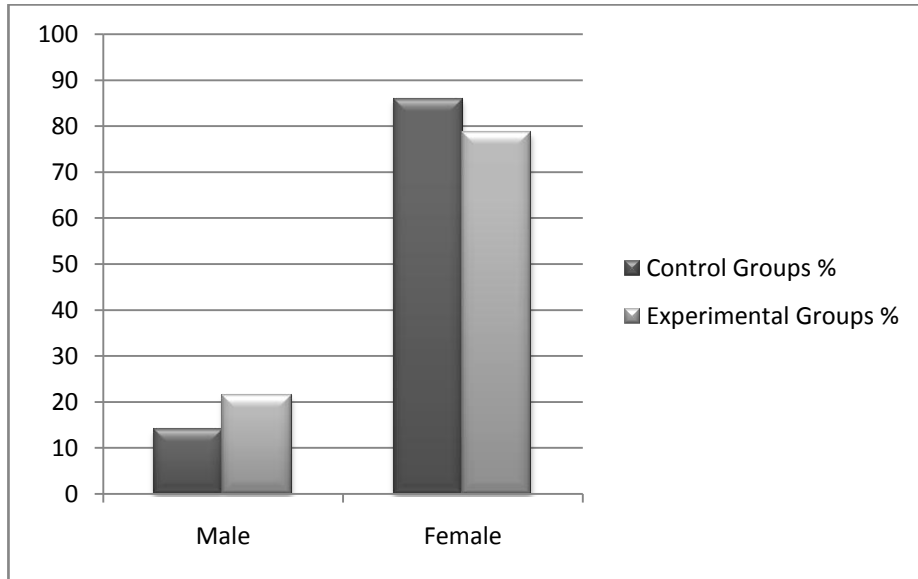
Graph 100: Number of Students per Sex

Table 100 shows that, in both groups, the large majority of the students (85.97% in the Control groups and 78.69% in the Experimental groups) are female.

─Section Two: Learning Tenses

2. Learning English tenses is:

- **Very important** ☐

- **Important** ☐

- **Not important** ☐

Option	Control Groups		Experimental Groups	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
a	42	**73.69**	53	**86.88**
b	15	**26.31**	08	**13.12**
Total	**57**	**100**	**61**	**100**

Table 101: The Degree of Importance of English tenses

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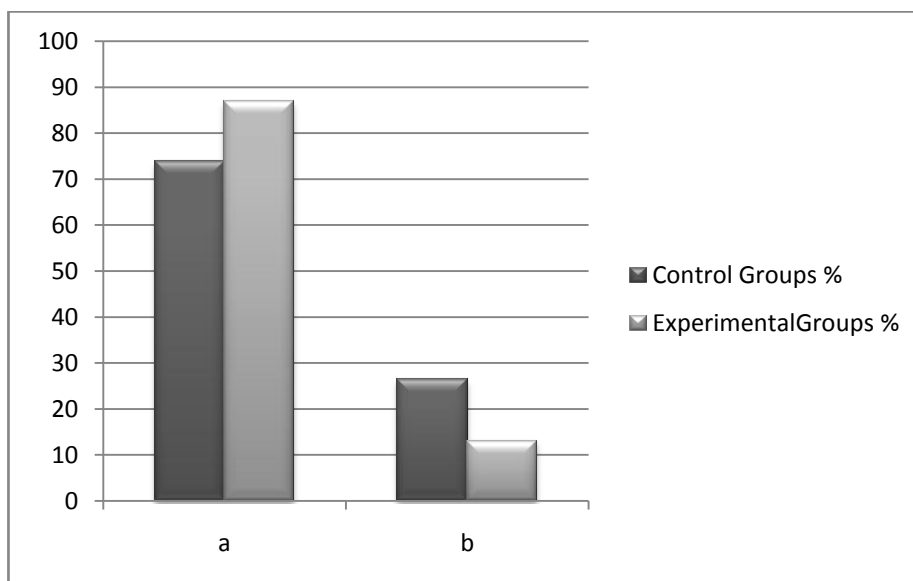
Graph 101: The Degree of Importance of English tenses

The majority of the surveyed students in both groups (the Control groups 73.69% and in the Experimental groups 86.88%), as it is shown in Table101 and Graph 101, tenses are considered to be of colossal importance in learning English. More than quarter (26.31%) of the students in the Control groups and 13.11% of the Experimental groups stated that learning tenses is important. No one in both groups said that this language feature is not important. Accordingly, all these students are aware of the importance of this grammatical feature in the process of learning English.

3. If "(very) important)", please explain why.

Among the 53 students in the experimental groups who consider learning English tenses is "*very important*", 50 provided their views as summarized below:

- Accurate uses of tenses help to write and speak coherently and meaningfully (08 students).

- Tenses enable to indicate when an event takes place (02 students)

- They are much part of learning English.(07 students)

- Inappropriate uses of tenses may obscure the meaning of the sentence and even of the text (01 student).

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- Using tenses correctly gives value to students' writing and speak (03 students)

- Students must distinguish between the various uses of English tenses (02 students).

- To be able to express their ideas (22 students).

- To reduce their errors when they speak or write (02 students).

- A good use of tenses guarantees that the reader will understand the ideas and receive the message (03 students).

3 students explained that learning English tenses is *important* because:

- A good language learner should master the tense system.

- They are the basis of learning English.

- They help them to determine the time and duration of the event.

In the Control Groups, 15 students state that English tenses are very important for the following reasons:

- Tenses indicate when an event takes place. (09 students)

- To speak a correct English (02 students)

- Learning tenses is very important for learning any language among them English. (01 student).

- To write correctly. (03 students)

No justifications were provided by the students in the Control groups who stated that learning English tenses is *important.*

4. English tenses are a problematic area for you.

Yes ☐

No ☐

Option	Control Groups		Experimental Groups	
	N	%	N	%
Yes	47	82.45	50	81.96
No	10	17.55	11	18.04
Total	57	100	61	100

Table 102: Students' Problems with English Tenses
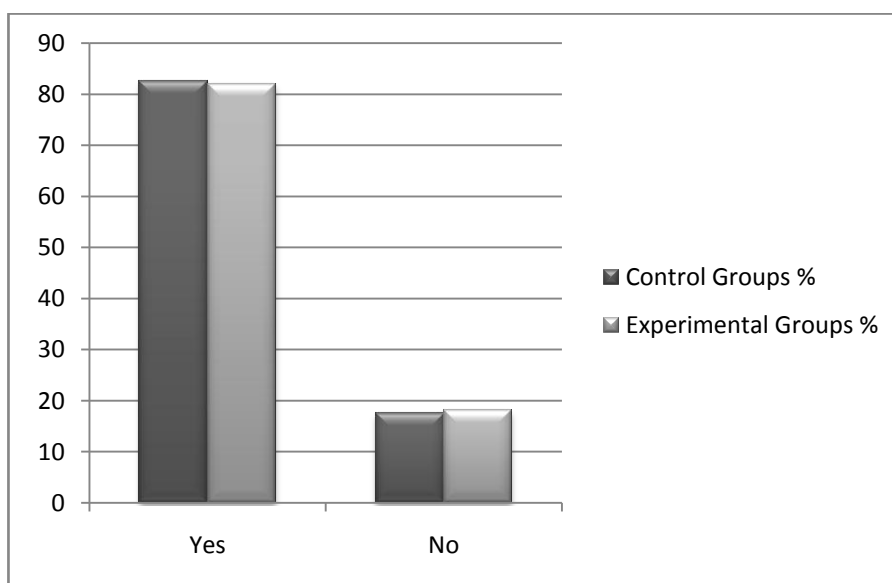
Graph 102: Students' Problems with English Tenses

From the above Table 102 and Graph 102, we clearly notice that 82.45% of the Control groups and 81.86% of the Experimental groups said that they have difficulty with English tenses. Only 17.55% of the Control groups and 18.04% of the Experimental groups stated that tenses are not considered as a problematic area for them. On the whole, we can say that the large majority of the learners in both groups encounter problems with tenses which used to express time in English.

5. If 'Yes', is it because:

    a. You ignore the rules.

    b. Is inappropriate method of teaching and practising English tenses.

    c. The amount of time devoted to teach English tenses is insufficient.

    d. The English tense system is complex.

    e. Other: Please, specify.

        …………………

Option	Control Groups		Experimental Groups	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**
a	06	**10.51**	06	**09.83**
b	08	**14.03**	06	**09.83**
c	10	**17.54**	17	**27.86**
d	23	**40.35**	21	**34.42**
e	01	**01.75**	03	**04.91**
abc	01	**01.75**	/	/
acd	01	**01.75**	/	/
bc	03	**05.26**	04	**06.55**
bd	02	**03.50**	/	/
cd	01	**01.75**	03	**04.91**
No answer	01	**01.75**	01	**01.63**
Total	57	100	61	100

Table 103: Causes of Students' Problems with English Tenses
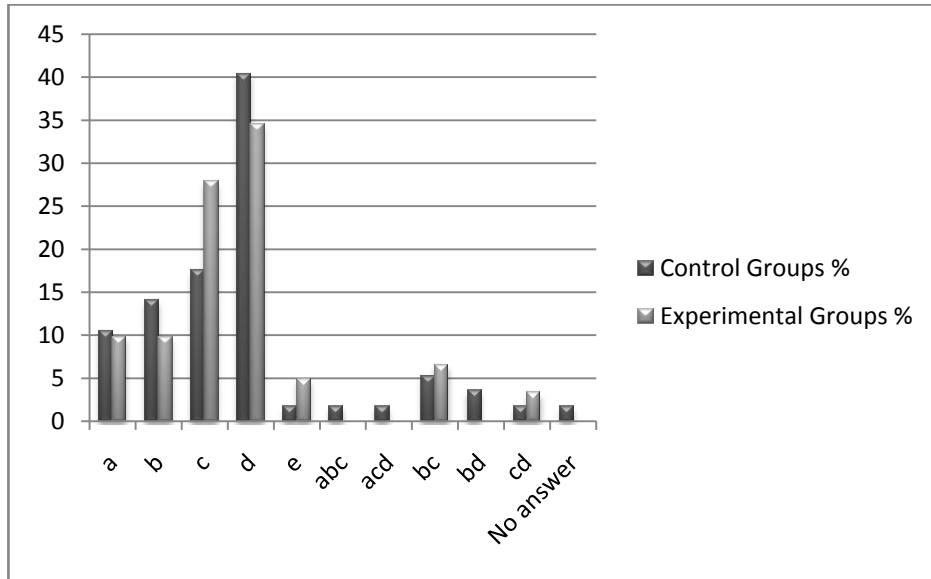
Graph 103: Causes of Students' Problems with English Tenses

Table 103 and Graph 103 show that the students' answers seem to be distributed on all the options with various degrees of percentages. The highest proportion of the students in both groups (40.35% in the Control groups and 34.42% in the Experimental groups) stated that the reason behind difficulty of learning English tenses is the complexity of this system itself. 17.75% in the Control groups and 27.86 % in the Experimental groups pointed out that what makes the English tenses problematic for them is the time allocated to teach/learn English tenses in our context it is not enough.

03 students in the Experimental groups specified other reasons:

- English tense system is different from the Arabic one.

- Lot of rules and forms.

- One student finds herself confused between two tenses that each of which seems appropriate.
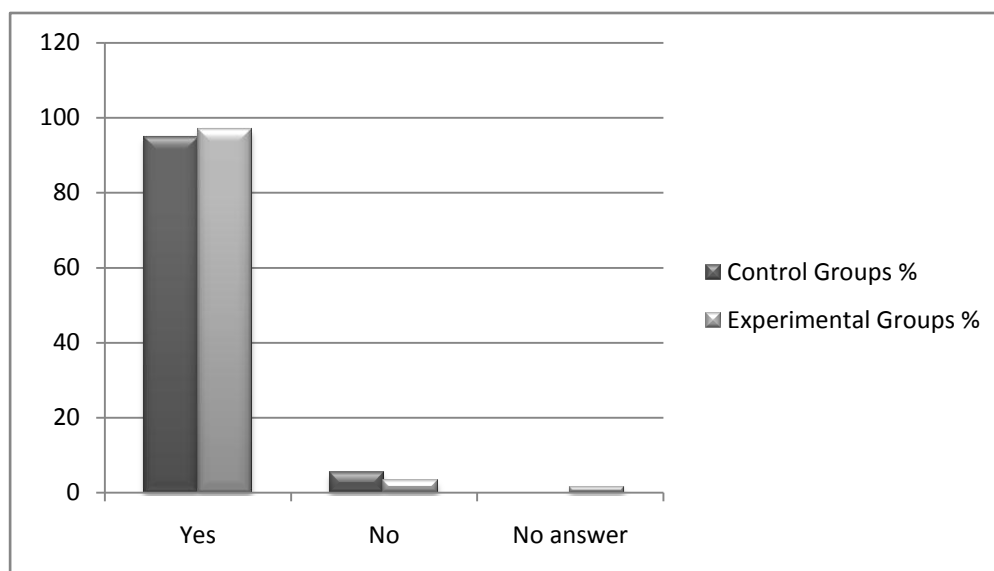
6. You know most of the tense rules, but you still make mistakes in the use of the right tense.

      Yes   ☐

      No   ☐

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Option	Control Groups		Experimental Groups	
	N	%	N	%
Yes	54	**94.73**	58	**95.08**
No	03	**05.27**	02	**03.27**
No answer	/	/	01	**01.63**
Total	57	100	61	100

Table 104: Students' Inability to Use the Right Tense (Performance)

Graph 104: Students' Inability to Use the Right Tense (Performance)

Table 104 demonstrates that 94, 73% of the students in the Control groups and 96.72% in the Experimental groups face situations where they fail to use the appropriate tense though they know the rule. Only a few members in both groups (05, 27 for the Control groups and 03.27% for the Experimental groups) said that they do not encounter such problems. One student provided no answer at all. This is a real indication that students do not have problems as far as the rules which govern different tenses (competence)is concerned, but they are rather confused when to use a particular tense and not the other (performance).

7. In learning tenses, you prefer to work:

a. Individually ☐

b. In pair ☐

c. In groups ☐

Option	Control Groups		Experimental Groups	
	N	%	N	%
a	12	**21.05**	18	**29.50**
b	21	**36.85**	19	**31.14**
c	23	**40.35**	24	**39.34**
ab	01	**01.75**	/	/
Total	57	100	61	100

Table 105: Students' Preferable Structure in Learning English Tenses
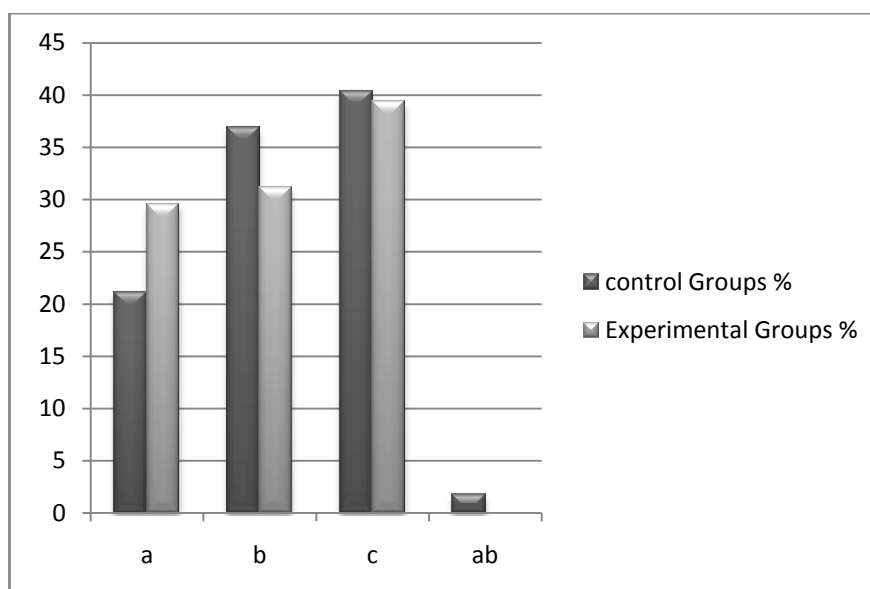
Graph 105: Students' Preferable Structure in Learning English Tenses

As the figures show, the highest proportion of the students in both groups (40.35% in the Control groups and 39.34% in the Experimental groups) favor to learn English tenses in groups. The lowest proportion of the students in the Control groups and the Experimental groups prefer working individually when it comes to learning tenses. One student in the Control groups would rather prefer to learn tenses in two ways individually and in pairs.

8. Please, can you explain why?

All the answers to this question in both the Control groups and the Experimental groups can be grouped as follows:

Students' justifications *for individual work* can be grouped into three categories:

- **More(much) concentration**

- **Better understanding.**

- **No noise.**

- **Avoid confusion.**

Students' justifications for pair work can be grouped into categories:

- **More discussion.**

- **Less noise.**

- **Better understanding.**

- **Discovering mistakes and correcting them.**

Students' justifications for *Group work* can be grouped into categories:

- **More information**

- **Discovering mistakes and correcting them**

- **Much help and better understanding.**

− **Section Three: Dictogloss**

9. Have you been taught grammar through the dictogloss procedure before?

Yes ☐

No ☐

To this question, all the students in the Experimental groups and the Control groups said that they have never been taught grammar through dictogloss. Accordingly, in what follows, we are going to take into consideration the answers provided by the students in the Experimental groups.

10. When you did dictogloss, did you feel:

a. Strongly motivated ☐
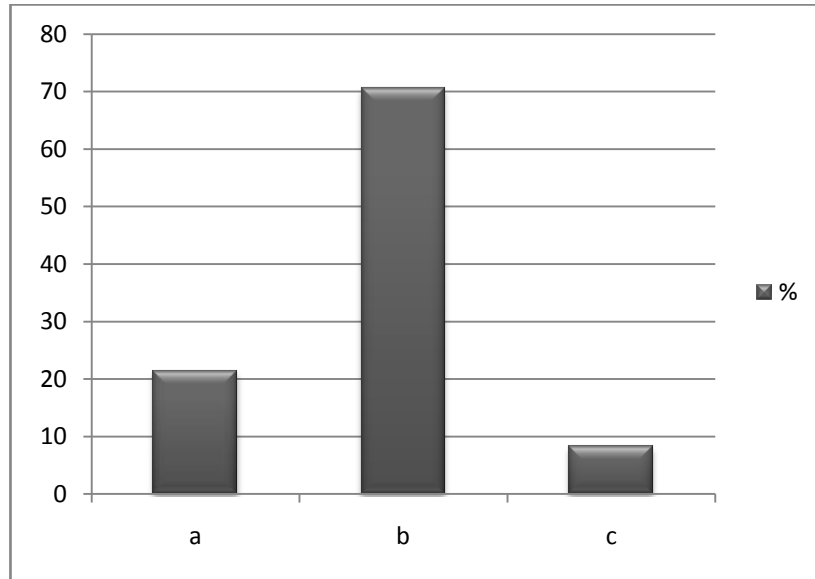
b. Motivated ☐

c. Not motivated ☐

Option	N	%
a	13	21.32
b	43	70.49
c	05	08.19
Total	61	100

Table 106: Levels of Students' Motivation when Doing Dictogloss

Graph 106: Levels of Students' Motivation when Doing Dictogloss

These figures show that 21.32% of the students (10 females and 03 males) in the Experimental groups said that they felt strongly motivated. 70.49% of the students said they felt motivated. The very high number of the students who said that they felt strongly motivated and motivated together (91.81%) provides strong implication that dictogloss has a good effect on students' motivation.

11. **How did you find the dictogloss procedure?**

    a. Easy   ☐

    b. Average   ☐

    c. Difficult   ☐

Option	N	%
a	15	**24.59**
b	43	**70.49**
c	03	**04.91**
Total	61	100

Table 107: Practicability of Dictogloss Performance

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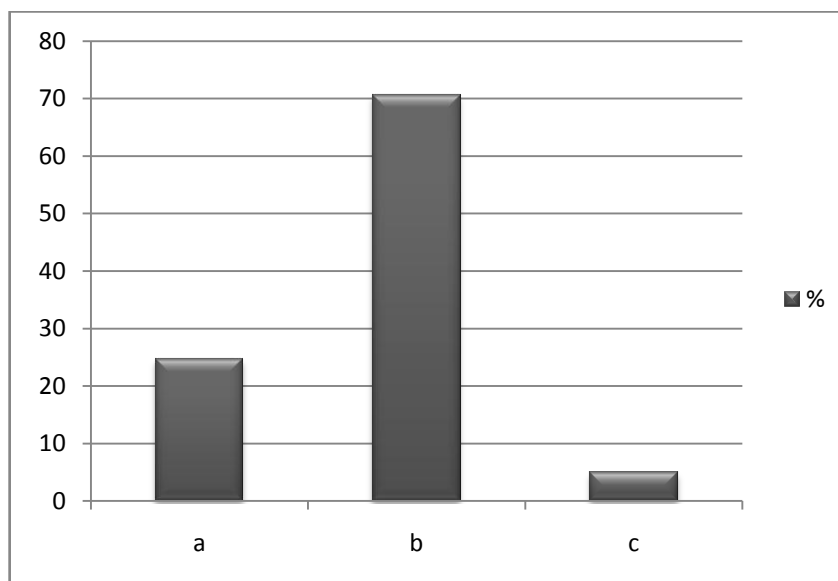
Graph 107: Practicability of Dictogloss Performance

A large percentage (70.49%) of the students claimed that the dictogloss procedure is average. However, almost half of the students (24.59%) stated that dictogloss is easy, and a minority (04.91%) found it difficult.

12. Can you, please, explain why?

Among the 15 students who found that dictogloss is *"Easy"*,08 students justified their views according to the following considerations:

- It does not include rewriting the text word for word (01 student) and it offers them the chance to use their own words (02students).

- Some students memorize better when listening than reading. (01 student).

- They rely on each other's notes to reconstruct the text. (02students).

- They like dictogloss (02 students).

Out of 43 of students, 24 explained that they found dictogloss "*Average*" because:

- It is somehow difficult to listen and write down at the same time. (10 Students).

- They found it difficult to reconstruct the text as closely as possible to the original one (01 Student).

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- Time was not enough to reconstruct the texts (01 student).

- Some students their English ability is not high. (02 students).

- It needs much attention to the vocabulary, grammar and the meaning of the text.

- They found it difficult to reconstruct the text as closely as possible to the original one (01 Student).

Among the 03 students who found that dictogloss is *"Difficult",* 02 students claimed that:

- "I could not take notes at all."

- "It is very difficult to understand, listen and take notes in parallel".

13. Did you have problems working together while reconstructing dictogloss texts?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Option	N	%
Yes	09	**16.40**
No	51	**83.60**
Total	61	100

Table 108:   Students' Problems while Reconstructing Dictogloss Text
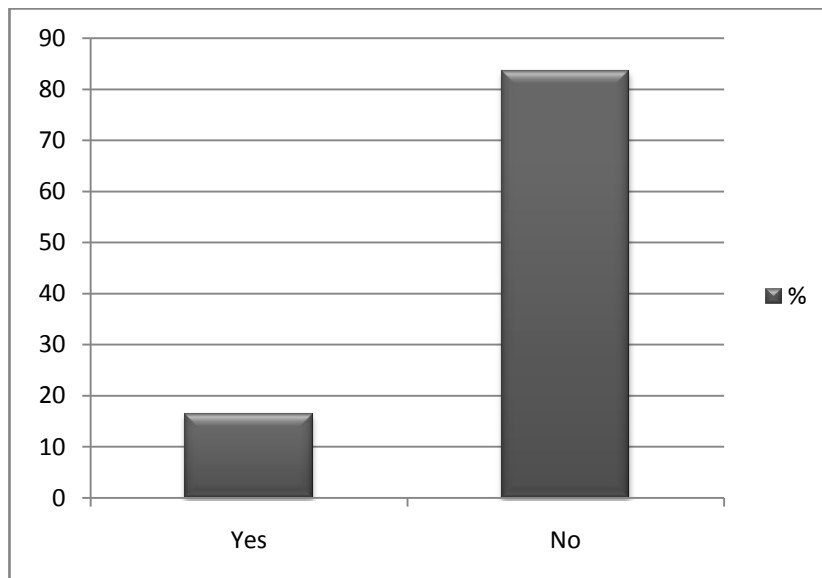
Graph 108: Students' Problems while Reconstructing Dictogloss Text

As Table 108 indicates, a considerable proportion of the students (83.60%) had no problem while working to accomplish the task. Nevertheless, a few students (16.40%) encountered problems while working together to reconstruct the text of the students.

16. If 'Yes', please explain why.

....

Out of 09 students in the experimental groups, 07 provided their reasons:

- Imposing points of view (word, structure, tense, and information). (03 students)

- Some students are not deeply engaged in the work. (01 student).

- Some students prefer to work individually. (01 student)

- Some students do not like when students in their groups correct their mistakes. (02 students).

13. Were the dictogloss texts interesting?

     Yes ☐

     No ☐

Option	N	%
Yes	55	**93.45**
No	04	**06.54**
Total	61	100

Table 109: Students' Attitudes towards Dictogloss Texts
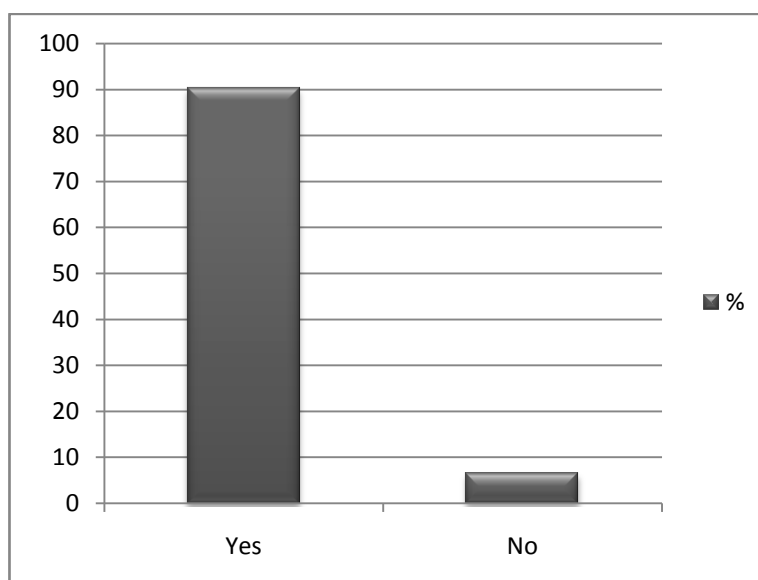
Graph 109: Students' Attitudes towards Dictogloss Texts

These figures obviously show that an overwhelming percentage of the students (93.45 %) indicated a positive attitude towards dictogloss texts that were selected and prepared for this particular study when compared to those who expressed negative attitude (06.54%).

14. Was the time allocated to you to complete the reconstruction of the text sufficient?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Option	N	%
Yes	41	**67.22**
No	20	**32.87**
Total	61	100

Table 110: Students' Attitudes towards the time allocated to text reconstruction
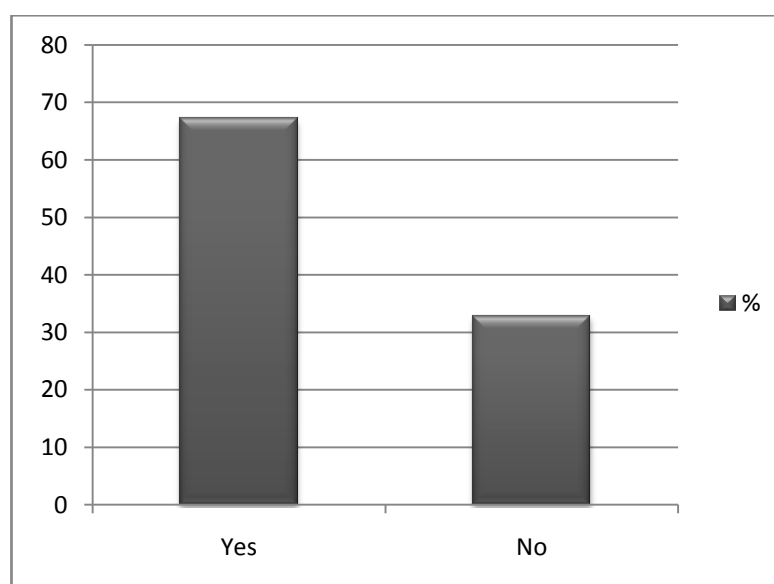
Graph 110: Students' Attitudes towards the time allocated to text reconstruction

As seen in Table 110 and Graph 110, the majority of the students (67.22%) stated that the time (30 minutes for each text) was assigned to them to reconstruct the text was enough and 32.78% reflects the number of students who did not think so.

17. Would you like to study grammar in the future through the dictogloss procedure?

Yes ☐

No ☐

Option	N	%
Yes	46	**75.41**
No	15	**24.59**
Total	61	100

Table 111: Students' Attitudes towards Dictogloss
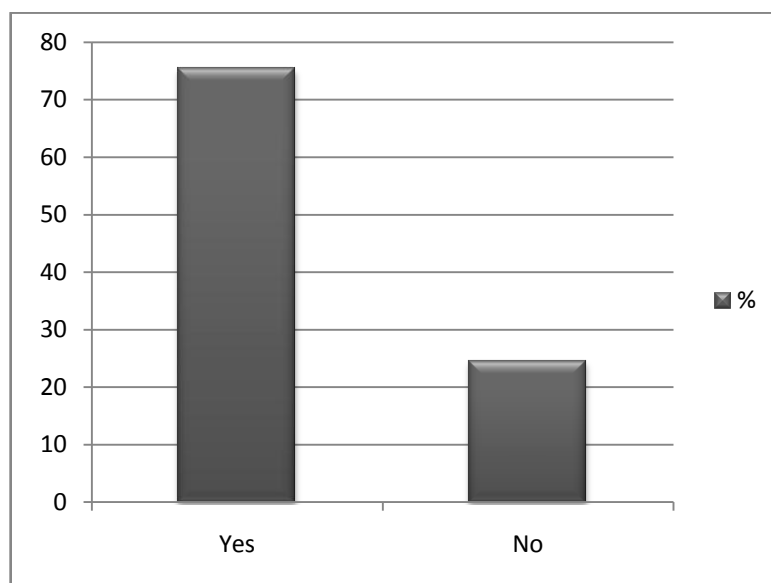
Graph 111: Students' Attitudes towards Dictogloss

The reason behind this question is to detect whether the students really like to do this kind of grammar tasks and find it useful. The above table shows that the majority of the students (75.41%) would like to study grammar in the future through dictogloss. 24.59% would not like to study grammar through dictogloss. Therefore, this language teaching technique must have a place in the FL grammar pedagogy.

18**. If 'Yes', please explain why.**

……………………………

Out of 46 students, 39 would like to learn grammar in the future through the dictogloss procedure for the following reasons:

- It is a collective task and makes them very active and dynamic. (06 students).

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- A good exploitation of time, no time for talking about other things (02 students).

- Dictogloss does not make them bored (04 students).

- It helps students discover their mistakes and learn from them with their classmates (05 students).

- It improves their grammatical knowledge (01student).

- It helps them evaluate their grammatical knowledge (02students).

- It helps to learn grammar along with new words and the orthography of English (02 students).

- It helps to understand the relevance of learning grammar (01students).

- It strengthens the relationship between students and teachers (01 student).

- It puts an end to fear of talk in the classroom and eliminates shyness (04 students).

- New activity that they used not to do it before in their classrooms (1 student).

- They like this technique (2 students).

- It is a good method to make students understand well (3 students).

- It improves their writing(02 students).

- It offers a change from the grammar practice routines (02 students).

ー **Section Four: Further Suggestions**

…………………………

Among the respondents, 32 students provided the following suggestions as summarized below:

Dictogloss

- It must be given the principle place in grammar classes. (1 student)

- They would like if they would have the chance to do it again (4 students).

- They consider it as an interesting and beneficial activity (8 students).

- They hope if they will do it again with more complicated texts (1 student).

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- Students consider it as a good tool that gives them the chance to work in groups and to evaluate their grammar level (6 students).

- They hope their teachers would use it in other modules (1 student).

- Dictogloss was a little difficult but it was more fun than usual (1 student).

The place of tenses:

- They have a central role (3 students).

- Good writing and speaking is partly due to a good use of tenses (2 students).

- Tense are important in language learning, and therefore, they should be given more consideration by giving more hours to teaching/learning them. (3 students).

5.2.3 Interpretation of the results:

Through our analysis, it has been indicated that female and male are found to be proportionate in both groups. In learning tenses, the students' responses reveal that they are aware of the importance of learning this language feature in the process of learning English. However, we found that 82.45% of the Control groups and 81.86% of the Experimental groups said that they have difficulty with English tenses. The highest proportion of the students in both groups (35.08% in the Control groups and 31.14% in the Experimental groups) stated that the reason behind this difficulty is the complexity of the English tense system itself. In addition to that, 94.73% the students in the Control groups and 96.72% in the Experimental groups face situations where they fail to use the appropriate tense though they know the rule. This was reflected in the fact that students do not have problems as far as the rules which govern different tenses is concerned, but they are rather confused when to use a particular tense and not the other. The highest proportion of the students in both groups (40.35% in the Control groups and 34.42% in the Experimental groups) stated that the reason behind difficulty of learning English tenses is the complexity of this system itself. The results also show that the highest proportion of the students in both groups (40.35% in the control

groups and 39.34% in the experimental groups) would rather learn English tenses in groups mainly for better understanding.

With regard to dictogloss whether students have been taught English Grammar through the dictogloss procedure, the results demonstrate that all the students said 'No'. This shows that having done this kind of grammar tasks to learn English tenses is regarded as a new experience for these students. The closed-question in the questionnaire also concerns the issue of how students felt towards dictogloss whether strongly motivated, motivated, or not motivated. The results show that 21.32% of the students admitted that they felt strongly motivated. 70.49% of the students said they felt motivated. Due to the higher number of the students who said that they felt strongly motivated and motivated together (91.81%), we can say that this is a strong implication that dictogloss has a good effect on students' motivation. The students were also asked about how they found the performance of dictogloss in general. The findings show that the highest percentage (70.49%) of the students claimed that the dictogloss procedure is "average". Concerning reconstructing of the text, the third phase in the dictogloss task, the students were asked whether they had problems working together while reconstructing the text. To this question, the large majority of the students (83.60%) said "No" while 16.40% encountered problems. They were also asked whether the time allocated to them to reconstruct the text was enough. The results show that the majority of the students 67.22% stated that the time (30 minutes for each text) was assigned to them to reconstruct the text was enough and 32.78% reflects the number of the students who did not think so. The questionnaire also involves a question about the learners' views regarding whether the dictogloss texts were interesting or not. The results reveal that an overwhelming percentage of the students (90.16%) indicated a positive attitude towards the dictogloss texts that were selected and prepared for this particular study when compared to those who expressed negative attitude (06.55%) and those who provided no opinion (03. 29%). On the question of

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whether the students would like to study grammar in the future through dictogloss, which is an indirect question to examine if dictogloss is a motivating technique and if the students really find it useful, the majority of the students (75.41%) wished to study grammar in the future through dictogloss.

3.5 Overall analysis

Our investigation reveals that both Second Year learners and Second year Grammar teachers consider that learning English tenses is very important. Meanwhile, through their responses to the questionnaires, they stated that this grammatical aspect is difficult to learn. regarding dictogloss, it has been found that the students have never been taught grammar through this technique, and more than half of teachers do not know about the existence of dictogloss. teachers' and students' attitudinal evaluation of dictogloss reveals that it is effective in terms of its teachibility, learnability, and task usefulness.

Conclusion

The second research question addresses the issue of motivation and attitudes towards the dictogloss procedure. Learners who have been exposed to dictogloss and teachers who tried out dictogloss in their classes to teach tenses show positive attitudes towards it. For the students, it is practical, challenging and motivating; for the teachers, it is beneficial, and will facilitate their work in teaching tenses or any other linguistics item. In order to change grammar practice routines, dictogloss can be recommended as a motivating technique

Chapter Six

Pedagogical Implications

Introduction

6.1 Guidelines for Implementing Dictogloss

    6.1.1 Text Design

    6.1.2 Teambuilding

    6.1.3 Students' Assessment

6.2 Suggestions for Further Research

Conclusion

Introduction

As teachers, we try to improve teaching methods and find remedial strategies in order to ameliorate our students' academic achievements and gain satisfactory results, especially in the field of grammar, since it is held that grammar is the skeleton of any given language, and its mastery is vital in acquiring that language. More precisely, we want our students to be as proficient and as accurate as possible when expressing themselves, either in writing or speaking. our focus is on the temporal system of English because learning/ teaching English tenses is part of learning/ teaching grammar and students with different language proficiency encounter difficulties with this system.

Based upon the results of this research and classroom observation, some suggestions are provided as guidelines to assist teachers of grammar or other disciplines who are interested in innovating their current teaching methods or those who would like to use dictogloss either on a daily basis or occasionally in their language classrooms to maximize the learning outcomes.

6.1 Guidelines for Implementing Dictogloss

The implementation of dictogloss in grammar classes or other disciplines at the university level is not a difficult task. However, because this innovative teaching technique has not yet become known to foreign English teachers, based on our own experience throughout this research work, we provide some guidelines to interested teachers to help them successfully implement dictogloss in their classes to teach tenses or any other grammatical aspect. There are three issues that teachers need to be careful about with regard to the implementation of dictogloss: text design, team-building, and students' assessment.

6.1.1 Text Design

In dictogloss, learners are exposed to the sound rather than the written form of language. Accordingly, teachers are advised to take into account the following features:

- The topic of the text should not be vague and should consist only of key information. In other words, dictogloss text should begin with general idea and statements, followed by supporting details to increase specificity, and concludes with a more general statement.

- Dictogloss text should contain textual cohesion Explicit, because the complex syntax can be problematic to learners in the sense that it makes the aural task much more difficult. In other words, teachers should avoid using texts containing complex and long sentences which can create a kind of distraction.

- The lexis should be largely familiar to learners with one or two new items that may be pre-taught or possibly allowed to be inferred from the context. Another consideration in the area of lexis is the avoidance of proper names in the text as students sometimes confuse them with English words. However, if it is impossible to avoid them, teachers have to refer to them or write them on the board before dictation of the text as we did with our students in the experiment.

- Dictogloss text should have a structural focus, and there should be language areas that represent problematic to learners in order to create a challenge for them.

It should be noted that suitable texts are not quite easy to find. However, they can be constructed, or modifications could be opted for to obtain the suitable texts that meet the features listed above, as we did with the texts used in the experiment.

6.1.2 Team-building

As dictogloss is a collaborative task, teachers should bear in mind that placing students together in groups and expecting them to work together is not enough and does not ensure positive results subsequently. Accordingly, two features should be taken into account to group composition in order to guarantee the success of dictogloss.   Teachers are advised to form mixed groups (heterogeneous groups) in terms of sex and language proficiency, especially for

larger groups (of 4 and more). For that, a teacher can administer a test at the beginning of the year in order to have an idea about his/her students' level in terms of grammar or any other aspect s/he wants to measure later. Teachers are recommended to decide about and specify the time needed to complete the dictogloss activity.

6.1.3 Students' Assessments

Teachers should, not only be concerned about the final product, but also assess the process involved. Evaluating group work and individual efforts is not an easy task for teachers. Group assessment is not usually perceived as being difficult to be evaluated; the joint efforts or the final report or findings are appreciated and given a mark. However, Individual accountability of each student is problematic and more demanding on the part of the teacher, especially in large classes. It is very important that students understand that they cannot get 'a ride free' on the work of others. As possible solutions, teachers can provide random individual oral questions, ask any learner in the sub-groups to clarify or to explain their choices. Circulating among the sub-groups in order to make sure that every student is contributing can also be a very important role played by the teacher during the reconstruction stage of dictogloss. Another important task that teachers should perform in order to help students produce more and develop their skills is giving feedback, comments and corrections on group or individual performances. Regardless of which assessment method is adopted, it is vital that assessment criteria are clearly explained to learners, because once students know that their teacher is taking into consideration their individual contributions to their group and to the whole class, they are likely to become active participants in their classes.

Because of the very limited opportunities of meaningful social interactions in the target language which are offered to students and not using grammar in our classes communicatively bring about lack of motivation in our students. According to both the teachers' and students' responses to the questionnaire, dictogloss helped them gain motivation, which shows that

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such a strategy may increase interest and motivation since the students wanted it to be used in their future grammar lessons.

Generally, classes are crowded, and because of that, teachers can give feedback to only a very limited number of students. Dictogloss, done for reinforcing goal, may be useful since every single student gets the chance to actively participate in this type of output collaborative task, and the feedback given in the final stage could benefit everyone since the whole class is working on the same task.

Another pedagogical implication arising from this study is, although dictogloss is a collaborative task in nature, it was noticed that it did not cause too much noise, confusion and did not take up more time than scheduled.

6.2 Suggestions for Further Research

The primary focus of the current study was to examine the effectiveness of the dictogloss procedure by looking at certain learning outcomes (the usage of verb tenses and students' satisfaction with this innovative technique). However, there are other issues to be researched before accepting or rejecting dictogloss as an efficient or effective means for promoting language learning. Because informal classroom observation alone could not really provide us with what was going on inside dictogloss and because our focus was on the students' outcomes in terms of tense verb accuracy and not on the process itself, it would be valuable to investigate, in future research, whether learners during the reconstruction stage focus on meaning, forms, or both by recording students' interactions during this phase. To what extent students can reconstruct the text in comparison to the original one also needs to be examined in further research in order to evaluate the effectiveness of dictogloss.

Moreover, the experiment on which this study is based is limited to only the English verb tenses, and due to time limitations, no measures assessing the long-term effects of dictogloss were implemented. Thus, more research on the effectiveness of dictogloss on different

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linguistics items, over longer periods of time and on a more representative sample, is needed in order to further our understanding of how durable the effects of dictogloss are and to generalize the findings to the whole population.

Additionally, the current study indicates the various tenses which seem to be to some extent troublesome and difficult to learners, such as perfective tenses (whether simple or continuous). Indeed, more research is needed to find remedial strategies to help learners overcome the existing problems.

Conclusion

The field of second language grammar is in transition, and language teachers need to be more aware of such changes in the field of language teaching/learning. Our interest in grammar does not mean that we are seeking for a perfect method or technique that guarantees perfect learning outcomes or ensures success in every context; however, we aim at raising our students' awareness, learning gains and ameliorate their academic achievement. In spite of the fact that a number of issues that are needed to be addressed in further research, dictogloss is a useful addition to both language teachers' and researchers' repertoires for focusing on a variety of linguistic items during meaningful interactions. Based on the finding of the previous research and the current research, dictogloss can be recommended to teach/practise various linguistic items, including tenses.

CONCLUSION

The present study is an attempt to demonstrate the effectiveness of dictogloss, recommended by many educationalists to teach/learn grammar, on students' performance in using English tenses and to find out about students' motivations and attitudes. It is hypothesized that adopting dictogloss, as a supplementary practice, in foreign grammar classes while teaching English tenses is likely to be effective to improve the students' accuracy of the use of verb tenses. We also hypothesize that students would have positive attitudes towards dictogloss if it is used in grammar classes to teach tenses. To check the validity of the first hypothesis, an experimental design consisting of pre-test and posttest was administered to 118 students who assigned to two Experimental Groups and two Control Groups. The second hypothesis was tested through a Teachers' and a Students' questionnaire. The findings of the present investigation reveal that the groups whose members were exposed to dictogloss tasks have significantly improved in terms of using English tenses to complete the text, as opposed to their achievement in using English tenses communicatively. We think that this is a sound argument for researchers who argue that the effect of teaching grammar may not be visible immediately in students' writing and speaking in contrast to controlled performance. They also reveal that the students were motivated in doing dictogloss and active through participating in group discussions and whole class discussions. This was reflected through the observation that the students seemed to be more relaxed and comfortable with each other after a certain period of time. Concerning the amount of using English tenses, due to dictogloss, it has increased in grammar classes. Indeed, most, if not all, the students in the Experimental groups were involved in listening, speaking, reading, writing, and discussing grammar points that might hardly be possible otherwise in other grammar activities.

Suggestions at the end of the present study can help and encourage teachers of grammar to try out dictogloss either on a daily basis or occasionally since it was found, on the whole,

to be significant in reducing the learnability problems of English tenses. We believe that it can also be successfully used for the teaching of other grammatical forms and structures, especially those forms that can only be well illustrated through discourse-based exercises and activities, and not through sentence level examples.

Appendices

- **Appendix I:** The Test

- **Appendix II:** Dictogloss Texts

- **Appendix III:** Teachers' Questionnaire

- **Appendix IV:** Students' Questionnaire

Appendix I

The Test

Part One: Put the verbs between brackets in the right tense.

Jim likes travelling a lot. In fact, he was only two years when he travelled to the United States. He was born in France, but his parents met in Germany after they**…**… **(to live)** there for five years. They met one day while Jim's father…… **(to read)** a book in the library and his mother sat down beside him.

Jim ……**(to visit)** his parents at the moment. He lives in New York now, but …… **(to visit)** his parents for the past few weeks. He **…… (to come)** to visit his parents at least once a year. This year he **…… (to fly)** over50 times for his job. He has been working for the same company for almost two years now. He is sure that he **…… (to work)** for them next year as well. His job requires a lot of travel. In fact, by the end of this year, he **…… (to travel)** over 120 times. This time he **……. (to fly)** from Paris after a meeting with the company's French partner. He **…… (to sit)** for over 18 hours by the time he arrives.

Jim was talking with his parents earlier this evening when his wife **……(to phone)** to inform him that the company he is working with**…… (to decide)** to emerge with a company in Australia after two months of negotiations. This means that Jim **…… (to catch)** the next plane back to New York.

Adapted from English tense Review for Advanced Level English ESL EFL TESL TOFEL classes.About.com htt://esl.about.com/library/lessons/blgr_tenses.htm June 26th, 2009.

List of deleted tenses:

1. Had been living (Past Perfect Continuous)

2. Was reading (Past Continuous)

3. Is visiting (Present Continuous)

4. Has been visiting (Present Perfect Continuous)

5. Loves (Present Simple)

6. Has flown (Present Perfect)

7. Will be working (Future Perfect Continuous)

8. Will have travelled (Future Perfect Simple)

9. I going to fly (FS)

10. Will have been sitting (Future Perfect Continuous)

11. Telephoned (Past Simple)

12. Had decided (Past Perfect)

13. Will catch (Future Simple)

Part Two:

Narrate an event which has happened to you, to your family or to an acquaintance.

Appendix II

Dictogloss Text 1(Training session)

Silverlock and the three bears

The three bears had been working very hard and were looking forward to a nice hot dish of soup each and a good night 's sleep what they did not know was that, while they were out , girl called silverlock had got into their cottage. She had tried the soup in each dish, and had drunk up all the soup in the smallest one. Then, because she was feeling very tired after her meal, she had gone into the other room, where there were three comfortable chairs. She tried them all, but chose the smallest one to curl up in, because it had the softest cushions. She was still there, fast asleep, when the three bears returned. The bears noticed at once that somebody had been in. Then they went into the next room, where the comfortable armchairs were. The small bear looked down at his chair, which was in the darkest corner of the room. He said nothing, but waited patiently for the other two bears to go away.

Adapted from Allsop (1983: 148)

Dictogloss Text 2

For the big day

They **have set** the date, picked the dress and **are making** the final preparation for the big day. Marry **has made** sure that she will look her best when she **marries** Ben later this week. For the past five months, she **has been sticking** to an exercise programme in which she **has been doing** forty or fifty minutes of exercise a day. She **has also been watching** her diet. She **has been avoiding** calorie foods and eating lots of fruits and vegetables instead. Because of her hard work, she **has lost** nearly ten kilos. Marry' efforts **have paid off** and she looks fabulous. The couple **has ordered** huge amounts of foods and beverages for the wedding, which will take placeat a secret location.

Adapted from Powell, Walker and Elsworth (2002: 51)

Dictogloss Text 3

Help!

Mrs. Johnson **was** with her friends in a restaurant. The waiter **had been running** from table to table taking orders and serving food, but he **did not notice** them. Mrs. Johnson and her friends **had been sitting** there staring at him without saying anything**.** In the end, they **received** what they **had ordered** after **had been waiting** for over than an hour**.** While they **were all having** steak, Mrs. Johnson suddenly **found** that she could not breathe because she **had swallowed** a piece of meat. Her friend **hit** her on the back, but the piece of Steak **remained stuck** in her throat. She **was starting** to panic. One of her friends **shouted out** desperately 'Excuse me, can anyone help my friend? "She is choking**".** At another table there was a woman who **saw** what **was happening** and **rushed** over to try to help. She **stood** behind Mrs. Johnson and **put** her arms around her waist, and then **pulled** hard inwards and upwards three times.

Adapted from Oxenden and Koenig (1996: 13)

Dictogloss Text 4

A Penguin Joke

One day a man and his wife **were walking** down the street when they **came across** a penguin. 'Oh!' exclaimed the man. What a surprise! What **shall we do** with it? 'I know,' said his wife. 'We **will ask** a policeman.' So they **found** a policeman and **explained** what **had happened**. 'Mmm, said the policeman, 'I think the best thing is to take it to the zoo.'' 'It is a good idea' said the woman. 'We **will go** there straight away. The next morning the policeman **was walking** down the same street when he **saw** a couple again with the penguin. 'I thought I told you to take that penguin to the zoo,' the policeman said. 'Well we did,' said the man. 'We took it to the zoo and we all had a really good time. So this afternoon we **are taking** it to the cinema, and this evening we **are going to have** a meal in a fish restaurant.

Adapted from Hedge (2000: 161)

Dictogloss Text 5

The inside job!

Jim was a useless bank worker; he was lazy and forever dreaming. One day he **was resting** on his desk, his boss **saw** this and told him to get to work. Jim said, "I **will have** it all done by 2 pm, I promise." "You will" screamed his boss, "or you **will be collecting** your last pay check this time tomorrow." Although he **will have been working** for this bank for ten years by this time tomorrow, Jim was not bothered and under his breath he said, "Not to worry, I **will be relaxing** on a beach this time next week; I **will not be worrying** about my pay check. I will have got enough money to last my whole life by the end of today! He said, "I have a plan. By the end of the day, I will have broken into safe; I will have taken some of the money left there and I will have spent my last few miserable hours in this bank." When one of his colleagues asked him what he was saying he repeated more clearly, "At 10 this time next week, I **will be flying** to Mexico with my wife, I certainly **will not be thinking** about this bank." Jim did not know that his colleagues had taped everything.

Adapted from Oxenden and Koenig (1996: 13)

Appendix III

Teachers' Questionnaire

Dear teacher,

This questionnaire is part of a research work. It aims at investigating the effectiveness of dictogloss, a collaborative learning procedure, to improve the use of tenses, and determine students' motivation and attitudes towards the dictogloss procedure.

I would be grateful if you could answer the following questionnaire. Please, tick [ ] the appropriate answer or make full statements whenever necessary.

Your answers will be valuable for the completion of the study.

May I thank you in advance for your collaboration.

Miss Meriem Lebsir

Department of Letters and English

Faculty of Letters and languages

University"Des Fréres Mentouri", Constantine

- **Section One: General Information**

1. What is your degree?

     a. Master   ☐

     b. Magister   ☐

     c. Doctorate   ☐

2. How long have you been teaching Second Year Grammar?

……Years.

- Section Two: Learning /Teaching Tenses

3. **For your students, learning English tenses is:**

    a. Very important   ☐

    b. Important   ☐

    c. Not important   ☐

4. If '(very) important', please explain why.

…………………………………………...

5. **English tenses are a problematic area for your students**.

    Yes   ☐

    No   ☐

6. **If 'Yes', is it because of:**

    -   Ignorance of the rules.   ☐

    -   The way English tenses are presented and practised.   ☐

    -   The insufficient time allocated to teach and practise English tenses.   ☐

    -   The complex nature of the English tense system.   ☐

    -   Other: Please, specify: …………………

7. **Your students know most of the tense rules, but they still make mistakes in the use of the right tense.**

Yes ☐

No ☐

8. **Interactive activities are necessary when teaching and practising English tenses.**

Yes ☐

No ☐

9. If 'Yes', please, explain why.

…………………………………………………………………………………

10. How often do you organize group / pair work practice situations for English tenses?

a. Always ☐

b. Often ☐

c. Rarely ☐

d. Never ☐

11. If "Always or Often or Rarely", what kind of activities do you use?

a. Learning together ☐

b. Team games ☐

c. Role-plays ☐

d. Jigsaw ☐

e. Dictogloss ☐

f. Other: Please, specify:………………………………..

- Section Three: Dictogloss

The dictogloss procedure is a dictation-based activity which contains four stages:

- Preparation of the students for the context and the unknown /difficult vocabulary of the text.

- Dictation of the text once: the students listen to the text to get the meaning, then a second time: the students listen and take notes (they write the key words).

- Reconstruction of the text (not necessarily the same as the original one, but the same meaning: students share their notes.

- Analysis and correction of the students' texts, sentence by sentence, then students compare their texts with the original one.

12. **Are you familiar with the dictogloss procedure?**

Yes ☐

No ☐

13. **Dictogloss has positive effects when used to teach English tenses**.

Yes ☐

No ☐

14. **If 'Yes', please, explain why.**

………………………………………………………………………………

15. **If 'No', please, explain why.**

………..…………………………………………………………………

16. **Have you used the dictogloss procedure to teach/practice tenses?**

Yes ☐

No ☐

17. **If 'Yes', can you, please, specify how often?**

a. Once ☐

b. Twice ☐

c. Three times ☐

d. Other: Please, specify………………

18. **What kind of texts have you used?**

a. Narrative ☐

b. Expository ☐

c. Scientific ☐

d. Descriptive ☐

e. Other: Please, specify……………………

19. **To complete the reconstruction of the texts, students were given**

a. Less than 20 minutes ☐

b. 20 minutes ☐

c. 30 minutes ☐

d. 45 minutes ☐

e. More than 45minutes ☐

20. **Students find the dictogloss procedure:**

a. Easy ☐

b. Average ☐

c. Difficult ☐

21. **Can you, please, explain why?**

……………………………………………

22. **Dictogloss stimulates students' motivation to learn English tenses.**

Yes ☐

No ☐

23. **If 'Yes', please, explain why.**

………………………………………………………………………………………

24. **Dictogloss is appropriate for getting learners work together**?

Yes ☐

No ☐

25. If 'Yes', please explain why.

………………………………………………………………………………………………

26. If 'No', please explain why.

………………………………………………………………………………………………

27. **Do the students have problems working together while doing dictogloss?**

Yes   ☐

No   ☐

28. If 'Yes', please explain why.

………………………………………………………………………………………

- **Section Four: Further Suggestions**

29. **Please, add any further comment.**

………………………………………………………………………………………………

Students' Questionnaire

Dear Student,

   This questionnaire is part of a research work. It aims at determining your motivation and attitudes towards the dictogloss tasks as performed in the classroom while studying the English tenses.

   I would be grateful if you could answer the following questionnaire. Please, tick [ ] the appropriate answer or make full statements whenever necessary.

Your answers will be valuable for the completion of the study.

 May I thank you in advance for your collaboration.

<div align="right">

Miss Meriem Lebsir

Department of Letters and English

Faculty of Letters and languages

University"Des Fréres Mentouri", Constantine

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- Section One: General Information

1. Sex :

Male ☐

Female ☐

− **Section Two: Learning Tenses**

2. Learning English tenses is:

a. Very important ☐

b. Important ☐

c. Not important ☐

3. If "(very) important", please explain why.

…………………………………………………………………………………

4. English tenses are a problematic area for you.

Yes ☐

No ☐

5. If 'Yes', is it because:

a. You ignore the rules. ☐

b. The method of teaching and practising English tenses is inappropriate. ☐

c. The amount of time devoted to teach English tenses is insufficient. ☐

d. The English tense system is complex. ☐

e. Other: Please, specify. ☐

………………………………………...

6. You know most of the tense rules, but you still make mistakes in the use of the right tense.

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Yes ☐

No ☐

7. In learning tenses, you prefer to work:

    a. Individually ☐

    b. In pair ☐

    c. In groups ☐

- Section Three

8. Have you been taught grammar through the dictogloss procedure before?

   Yes ☐

   No ☐

9.When you did dictogloss, did you feel:

   a. Strongly motivated ☐

   b. Motivated ☐

   c. Not motivated ☐

10. Please, explain why

....

11. How did you find the dictogloss procedure?

   a. Easy ☐

   b. Average ☐

   c. Difficult ☐

12. Please, explain why

....

13. Did you have problems working together while reconstructing dictogloss texts?

    Yes ☐

    No ☐

14. If 'Yes', please explain why.

       Yes   ☐

       No   ☐

18. If 'Yes', please explain why.

....

*- **Section Four: Further Suggestions***

19. **Please, add any further comment.**

………………………………………………………………………………………

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