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**EFFECTS OF NOTICING ON THE ORAL OUTPUT
IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE**

Dissertação submetida ao
Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês
da Universidade Federal de Santa
Catarina para a obtenção do grau de
Mestre em Letras: Estudos
Linguísticos e Literários.

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Florianópolis
2014

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Nogueira, Viviani Catia

Effects of Noticing on the Oral Output in English as a Foreign Language / Viviani Catia Nogueira ; orientadora, Mailce Borges Mota - Florianópolis, SC, 2014.

64 p.

Dissertação (mestrado) - Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina, Centro de Comunicação e Expressão. Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês: Estudos Linguísticos e Literários.

Inclui referências

1. Letras. 2. Aprendizagem de Língua Estrangeira. 3. Percepção Consciente em Língua Estrangeira . 4. Produção Oral em Língua Estrangeira. I. Mota, Mailce Borges. II. Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina. Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês: Estudos Linguísticos e Literários. III. Título.

Viviani Catia Nogueira

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Esta dissertação foi julgada adequada para a obtenção do Título de “Mestre em Letras”, e aprovada em sua forma final pelo Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês: Estudos Linguísticos e Literários.

Florianópolis, 31 de março de 2014.

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*To my husband, Marcio.
And to my family,
mother Lourdes, father Carlos
and brother, Adriano.
With love.*

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all the people who directly or indirectly supported me over this Master Course period, all the people who helped me to accomplish this dream.

Professor Mailce Borges Mota, my adviser, who gently answered my e-mail (the first one of hundreds we would exchange over the whole course) asking her for some support to start the course, who provided me with a clear idea to develop the initial project, who guided me with her valuable knowledge and experience, who believed in my will of achieving this M.A. certificate.

The members of the committee – Professor Dr. Rosely Perez Xavier, for her valuable insights in the qualifying exam and in the defense, and Professors Dr. Joara Martin Bergsleithner and Dr. Roberta Pires de Oliveira – for having accepted to read and evaluate my work.

All the professors of the Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês (PPGI), who shared their valuable knowledge with me in each course I attended during this M. A. period. My sincere gratitude to you.

My classmates, for all the times we spent together, the pleasant ones when drinking some coffee or having lunch together, as well as the moments we shared experiences in fruitful discussions during the classes. My special thanks to Cyntia Bailer, for her friendship, since 2009, when we both entered the Master Course as special students, and for her support, during these two years I carried out my M.A. course. Also, my special thanks to Andreia Veríssimo Agostini, for sharing her apartment with me and providing me with a place to stay in Florianópolis.

All the participants who kindly volunteered in the activities of this study, giving some of their time to help me carry out my research successfully. Without you, nothing would have been possible. Also, thanks to the coordinators, teachers, professors and owners of the institutions where I applied my pilot study as well as the activities of my final study.

My greatest appreciation goes to my family, especially to my mother Lourdes, for her massive support, affection and encouragement. My

father, Carlos, for his words of motivation, even without knowing exactly what I was studying. My brother, Adriano, who even when living far, supported me with his friendly words.

My profuse gratitude to my husband Marcio, for his love, attention, partnership, encouragement and understanding during my absences, and mainly, for his emotional support whenever I needed.

Unusual but hearty thanks goes to my lovely cats Nina, Dora, Prince, Dili and Coka, who were beside me while I was writing this Master thesis, providing me with good energy, affection and companionship.

Thank you all for all the good memories!

ABSTRACT

EFFECTS OF NOTICING ON THE ORAL OUTPUT IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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2014

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Schmidt's (1986, 1990, 1995, 2010) Noticing Hypothesis states that the learning of a linguistic item in an L2 occurs if the item is registered by the learner with some degree of awareness, that is, when the item is noticed. Based on this claim, the present study, which is nested in the interface between language and pedagogy, investigates the effects of noticing on the oral output of learners of English as a foreign language. The grammatical structure selected for this study was the absence and the obligatory use of the definite article "the", in three realizations: the absence of "the" to convey genericity, the obligatory use of "the+singular noun" to convey genericity, and the use of "the+noun made definite by the addition of a phrase" to convey specificity. In order to have learners focus their attention on the target structure, the pedagogical technique of input enhancement was applied through the underlining of the grammatical structure. Forty-eight participants of a language school in Rio Negrinho-SC completed (1) a personal and language background questionnaire, took both (2) a written and (3) an oral pretest assessing their knowledge of the target structure, carried out (4) four speaking activities as treatment, responded to (5) four retrospective interviews, one after each treatment session, and took both (6) a written and (7) an oral posttest. The results indicated a statistically significant increase from pre to posttests, in learners' accuracy in the use of the target structure, both in the written and in the oral tests. In addition, a moderate correlation between noticing and learning of the target structure was obtained from the data. These results are interpreted as evidence that noticing has effects on the oral output of learners of English as a foreign language.

Keywords: Noticing, Oral output, Input enhancement

Number of pages: 64

Number of words: 21.266

RESUMO

EFEITOS DA PERCEPÇÃO CONSCIENTE NA PRODUÇÃO ORAL EM INGLÊS COMO LÍNGUA ESTRANGEIRA

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2014

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Apresentada por Schmidt (1986, 1990, 1995, 2010) a Hipótese da Percepção Consciente propõe que a aprendizagem de um item linguístico numa segunda língua ocorre se o item é registrado pelo aprendiz com algum grau de consciência, isto é, se o item é percebido conscientemente. Com base nessa afirmação, este estudo, que se utiliza da interface entre a linguagem e a pedagogia, investiga os efeitos da percepção consciente na produção oral de aprendizes de Inglês como língua estrangeira. A estrutura gramatical selecionada para este estudo foi a ausência e o uso obrigatório do artigo definido “the”, em três realizações: a ausência do artigo definido para expressar genericidade, o uso obrigatório do artigo definido+sintagma nominal no singular para expressar genericidade, e o uso obrigatório do artigo definido+substantivo definido por sintagma para expressar especificidade. Com o objetivo de fazer com que o aprendiz focasse a sua atenção na estrutura alvo, o destaque do insumo, através do seu sublinhamento, foi aplicado como técnica pedagógica. Quarenta e oito participantes de uma escola de idiomas em Rio Negrinho-SC passaram pelos seguintes procedimentos: completaram (1) um questionário de informações pessoais e de experiência linguística; fizeram (2) um pré-teste escrito e (3) um pré-teste oral, ambos para verificação do conhecimento do participante em relação à estrutura alvo; (4) quatro atividades de conversação, como tratamento; responderam a (5) quatro entrevistas retrospectivas, uma após cada sessão de tratamento, para possibilitar o acesso à percepção consciente do aprendiz; e fizeram (6) um pós-teste escrito e (7) um pós-teste oral. Os resultados indicaram um aumento estatisticamente significativo na média dos pré-testes para os pós-testes, em relação à acurácia no uso da estrutura alvo, tanto para os

testes escritos quanto para os orais. Além disso, os resultados sugeriram a existência de uma correlação moderada entre percepção consciente e aprendizagem da estrutura alvo. Esses resultados foram interpretados como evidência de que a percepção consciente causa efeitos na produção oral de aprendizes de inglês como língua estrangeira.

Palavras-chave: Percepção consciente, produção oral, destaque do insumo.

Número de páginas: 64

Número de palavras: 21.266

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1 INTRODUCTION	23
1.1 PRELIMINARIES	23
1.2 THE PRESENT STUDY	25
1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH.....	27
1.4 ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS	28
2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	31
2.1 ON NOTICING.....	31
2.2 ON INPUT, INPUT ENHANCEMENT AND OUTPUT	40
2.3 ON THE DEFINITE ARTICLE.....	46
3. METHOD	51
3.1 OBJECTIVE AND RESEARCH QUESTION	51
3.2 PARTICIPANTS.....	52
3.3 MATERIALS.....	53
3.4 THE INSTRUCTIONAL TREATMENT	56
3.5 PROCEDURES.....	60
3.6 DATA ANALYSIS.....	61
3.7 THE PILOT STUDY	64
4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	67
4.1 STATISTICAL RESULTS	67
4.1.1 The written tests	67
4.1.2 The oral tests.....	69
4.1.3 Results regarding noticing.....	71
4.1.4 Results regarding the three cases of the target structure	73
4.2 DISCUSSION	75
4.2.1 Noticing and L2 accuracy in speaking.....	75
4.2.2 Enhanced input to provoke noticing.....	77
4.2.3 The use of the definite article	78
4.3 SUMMARY OF RESULTS.....	81
4.3.1 Readdressing the research question	81
5. FINAL REMARKS	83
5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS.....	83
5.2 LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.....	84
5.3 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS	86
REFERENCES	87
APPENDICES	99

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1 – Descriptive statistics for the written tests.....	67
Table 2 – Test of Normality, Shapiro-Wilk, for the written tests.....	68
Table 3 – Wilcoxon signed-rank test for the written tests.....	68
Table 4 – Descriptive statistics for the oral tests.....	69
Table 5 – Tests of Normality for the oral tests: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk.....	70
Table 6 – Wilcoxon signed-rank test for the oral tests.....	70
Table 7 – Descriptive statistics for noticing.....	71
Table 8 – Test of Normality for noticing: Kolmogorov-Smirnov.....	71
Table 9 – Spearman’s correlation between scores in the oral post-test and noticing.....	72

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 – Example of a card from treatment activity 1.....	57
Figure 2 – Example of a set of cards from treatment activity 2.....	58
Figure 3 – Example of a card from treatment activity 3.....	59
Figure 4 – Example of a set of cards from treatment activity 4.....	60
Figure 5 – Subjects’ performance in the four retrospective interviews..	72
Figure 6 – Improvement in the correct judgment of the three cases of the target structure, for written pre and posttests.....	73
Figure 7 – Improvement in the correct oral production of the three cases of the target structure.....	74

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

- L2 – Second Language
- IL – Interlanguage
- SLA – Second Language Acquisition
- EFL – English as a Foreign Language
- TL – Target Language
- L1 – First Language
- TE – Textual Enhancement
- P – Participant
- r_s – Spearman's correlation coefficient
- M – Mean
- SD – Standard Deviation
- Mdn – Median
- Min. – Minimum number of scores
- Max. – Maximum number of scores
- Skew. – Skewness
- Kurt. – Kurtosis
- Z – Standard Score

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix A – Institution’s Consent Form.....	99
Appendix B – Parents’ Consent Form.....	100
Appendix C – Participants’ Consent Form.....	102
Appendix D – Personal and Language Background Questionnaire.....	104
Appendix E – Pretest 1: Written Test.....	107
Appendix F – Pretest 2: Oral Test.....	111
Appendix G – Treatment Activity 1.....	116
Appendix H – Retrospective Interview 1.....	136
Appendix I – Treatment Activity 2.....	137
Appendix J – Retrospective Interview 2.....	141
Appendix K – Treatment Activity 3.....	142
Appendix L – Retrospective Interview 3.....	156
Appendix M – Treatment Activity 4.....	157
Appendix N – Retrospective Interview 4.....	161
Appendix O – Results of Written pre and posttests per participant....	162
Appendix P – Results of Oral pre and posttests per participant.....	163
Appendix Q – Results of the Written Tests for the three cases of the target structure.....	165
Appendix R – Results of the Oral Occurrences for the three cases of the Target Structure.....	166
Appendix S – Results of the four Retrospective Interviews.....	167

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 PRELIMINARIES

It is probably fair to say that the first mention to what later would be termed the Noticing Hypothesis appeared in 1986, when Schmidt and Frota (1986, p. 281) stated that, for a second language¹ learner to learn a targetlike form, it was neither enough for it to have been taught and drilled in class, nor enough for it to be present in input. Such form, however, should be noticed by the learner in input. From this time on, Schmidt has posed questions concerning the role of conscious awareness in language learning (1990, 1993, 1995, 2001). In 1990, Schmidt pointed out the need for much more research not only about the relationship between attention and awareness, but also about the role of instruction in making formal features of the target language more salient to facilitate input encoding. In 1993, Schmidt questioned which of the learners' cognitive abilities were engaged by input and interaction, and emphasized the importance of considering the role of learners' conscious mental processes in learning. In 1995, Schmidt asked, among other questions, if learning without noticing was possible. He reviewed some studies which argued in favor of such possibility, but he kept the hypothesis that awareness at the level of noticing is required for learning. In 2001, Schmidt disentangled issues related to attention and questioned if there could be learning without attention. He claimed that such a question could be considered unanswerable and that the most appropriate question would be whether more attention results in more learning.

Since the learning of a foreign language has always been connected to the instructional environment, the Noticing Hypothesis was also subject to many studies involving second language acquisition and pedagogy. Schmidt and Frota (1986), at the moment they were sewing the Noticing Hypothesis, argued in favor of an interface between noticing and instruction, claiming that the classroom provided both linguistic resources that could immediately be put to use and quick answers to linguistic problems. Researchers like Ellis (2008) gave support to the Noticing Hypothesis explaining that metalinguistic

¹The terms second language, foreign language, L2 and nonnative language are used interchangeably in the present study.

activity entails noticing, which in turn fosters the development of L2 explicit and implicit knowledge². Long (1996) argued that noticing is consequently achieved through interaction between non-native and native speakers, whose communication involves negotiation of form and meaning in a Form-Focused³ instructional environment. Doughty (1991) was the first to suggest that second language learning benefited from attention to form via visual input enhancement, also in an instructional context.

Criticism to the Noticing Hypothesis was seriously presented by Truscott (1998), who argued that the Noticing Hypothesis should be reformulated as a claim that noticing is necessary for the acquisition of metalinguistic knowledge⁴, but not for improving linguistic competence. Schmidt (2010), based on Bybee (2010), responded by stating that ideas related to noticing do not match generative theories, but exemplar-based theories. According to Schmidt (2010), exemplars of language, which might include different language items, form categories which can be fixed or open constructions for communication. Registering such exemplars requires an extended attentional process, that is, noticing. In support for that, Ellis and Mifka-Profozic (2013, p. 62) stated that Schmidt was careful to explain what he meant by conscious attention to linguistic forms: it does not mean that learners notice rules, but that they pay conscious attention to *exemplars* of a rule. Ellis and Mifka-Profozic (2013) also pointed out that “The more often an exemplar of the same feature is noticed, the more likely it is to affect a change in the underlying system” (p.62). Ellis and Mifka-Profozic (2013) added that noticing an exemplar of a grammatical item may either result in acquisition or not; as well as it may be noticed and then forgotten by the learner.

In the realm of the debate on the role of consciousness in the acquisition of a non-native language, the Noticing Hypothesis continues to be investigated in studies which involve different skills and aspects of the L2. According to Fortkamp (2000), the skill of speaking is the most

² According to Hulstijn (2005, p. 129) “Explicit and implicit knowledge differ in the extent to which one has or has not (respectively) an awareness of the regularities underlying the information one has knowledge of , and to what extent one can or cannot (respectively) verbalize these regularities”.

³ The definition of Form-focused instruction can be found on page 26.

⁴ According to Hu (2002, p. 348), metalinguistic knowledge is “explicit and verbalizable knowledge about L2 grammar”.

pursued by learners who want to achieve the language for immediate conversation, but the least tackled by researchers, who might consider it a complex ability to be investigated. Mota (2003) claimed that the imbalance between the great volume of research in L2 comprehension and the small number of studies on L2 speech production is related to the fact that “[...] in general, comprehension can be more easily assessed than production.” (p. 71).

As Mota (2010) pointed out, a psychological perspective to the study of the speaking skill was given only from the early 1960s, and the great amount of research carried out on language comprehension has had effects on the research about L2 speaking. Mota (2010) also pinpointed that the field lacks consensus both on the constructs which underlie L2 speech performance and on the way to approach it theoretically and pedagogically. She added that “Perhaps, a better understanding of the cognitive processes which are part of speaking might help us in finding ways to treat this skill, be it in a research program or in the classroom”. (Mota, 2010, p. 38)

1.2 THE PRESENT STUDY

The objective of the present study was to investigate the effects of noticing of a target structure on the oral production in English as a foreign language by a group of learners in different levels of English knowledge. More specifically, this study relied on perceptual salience of the input as a means to draw participants’ attention to the target structure in order to foster awareness about it, as well as more accurate production of the structure in speaking. The independent variable of this study is noticing, once it is the object of investigation and I intended to check its effects on speaking, which is the dependent variable. The enhancement of the input is used as a technique for form-focused instruction.

In the present study, I tried to tackle the first and most basic kind of noticing, the one initially proposed by Schmidt and Frota (1986), who claimed that “learners’ IL competence develops when they notice how a particular form is used in the input they receive” (Izumi, 2013, p. 26). Noticing, in this original concept, entails form, meaning and function relationships, which means that it can occur over interaction between the learner and the input received and attended.

According to Gass (1997), input is maybe the most important construct in second language acquisition, since nobody can learn a

second language without some sort of input. For the purposes of the present study, the notion of input enhancement is the one posed by Sharwood Smith (1993, p. 176): “input enhancement implies only that we can manipulate aspects of the input but make no further assumptions about the consequences of that input on the learner”. In the present study, input enhancement is presented as positive evidence, since it puts flags only in correct forms of the target structure, with the purpose of drawing the attention of the participants to the correct ways of using such structure.

In the present study, input is enhanced through form-focused instruction. Ellis (2001) claimed that form-focused instruction refers to any planned or incidental instructional activity that intends to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic forms. Also, according to Ellis (2001, p. 12), in the past years, form-focused instruction has been conceptualized as a set of psycholinguistically motivated pedagogic options. Following such tendency, in this research, the enhancement of the input was intentionally made in the form of statements and questions in the oral activities, with the purpose of directing learners’ attention to the accurate use of the target structure, and consequently promoting oral linguistic development.

At this point it should be clear that speaking, or oral output, is the second language skill dealt with in the present study. Speaking is the variable which is liable to suffer modifications in its accurate aspect, which means that the present study applied activities with input enhancement, which promoted the use of the oral output, focusing on the accurate production of the target structure. In this sense, the concept of output taken for the present study is the one stated by Swain (2005), who said that “the act of producing language (speaking or writing) constitutes, under certain circumstances, part of the process of second language learning”. (p. 471).

This study adopted a pretest, treatment, posttest design and the results were analysed by means of statistical tests. There was no formal control of the age or level of proficiency of the participants, because this control could affect the number of participants, due to the cutoffs which would have to be made, and because the oral and written pre-tests already served as a means to select participants. In addition, the objective of this study was to investigate oral production in its most possible natural way, which means different speakers using varied levels of language for communication. Finally, the target structure, the definite article, is the most used word in English (Nation, 2003), both in

colloquial and standard English, and consequently, the most used functional structure. All speakers of English, regardless of proficiency or age, use the definite article constantly when speaking.

In order to investigate the effects of noticing of the definite article's usage on learner's speaking, a grammaticality judgment test was designed (based on Ionin and Montrul, 2010) as a written pretest, and an oral pretest was prepared based on some words and pictures. In addition, four treatment activities were designed and implemented. These activities aimed at engaging participants in speaking and covered three cases of the target structure: the absence of the definite article to address genericity, as for example "Wolves are dangerous animals"; the obligatory use of the definite article with singular noun to address genericity, as for example "The wolf is not really a dangerous animal"; and the obligatory use of the definite article before a noun made definite by the addition of a phrase, to address specificity, as for example "The wolf you killed was not dangerous". It took the participants approximately 3 hours to perform all the four treatment activities. The posttests, both written and oral, were the same activities applied as pretests.

1.3 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

Up to now, various studies have investigated how to proceduralize noticing (Park, 2011; Shekari & Tahririan, 2006, Bergsleithner, 2007; Catena, 2011; Calderón, 2013; Leow, 2000; for instance) in order to promote L2 learning. However, results concerning noticing in relation to many aspects of SLA are in need to be supported by more evidence. As Izumi (2013) stated "[...] we need to understand the role of noticing by situating it in the complex interplay of many factors at play in SLA" (p. 35).

It is hoped that this study will bring some contribution to theoretical and pedagogical issues concerning the role of noticing in the acquisition of English as an L2. Schmidt (1990, p.50) posited the necessity of giving value to the role of consciousness in second language learning, as well as accomplishing more research in order to assess sensitively what learners notice and what they think as they learn second languages.

The present study may also contribute to research on the efficiency of visual input enhancement to provoke noticing. Sharwood Smith (1993) had posed his concern about the lack of apparent

preoccupation about how learners really process input, and the psychological complexities involved in such process. He added that there was some belief in untested ideology or common-sense lines of teaching and learning, instead of psycholinguistic theories, which are crucial to a proper theory of language learning. As Sharwood Smith (1993) had proposed, the deliberate manipulation of the input was taken as the pedagogical technique for the present study. Some resulting ideas from the present research, then, might help show if such engineering is efficient to call attention to a specific part of the input – the target structure in question – , as well as support previous studies which have already suggested L2-learner development through this process. Also Combs (2004, p. 2) pointed out the relevance of studying the role that the manipulated input can play in instruction, since consciousness issues involving SLA have been debated, and both factors influence the instructional setting.

The target structure of this research – which is the use and the omission of the definite article – is a complex one. The definite article is a structure whose functional content is meaningful for communication, but whose saliency is limited, characterizing it as a challenging structure to learn.

The present study may contribute with new data on the role of noticing in the acquisition of target grammatical forms in the L2. In addition, provoking noticing through visual input enhancement for the learning of a second language is still a wide field to be explored. The present study may also offer new insights concerning the learning of the definite article, which presents difficulties for L2-learners of English (Butler, 2002).

For these reasons, this study might be of some contribution to EFL teaching and researching.

1.4 ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

The present thesis consists of 5 Chapters. Chapter 1 is the Introduction of the thesis and presents the preliminaries, the study in general lines, the significance of the research and the organization of the thesis.

Chapter 2, the Review of Literature, presents the previous theoretical and experimental research that was found to be the most relevant for the present study. In this Chapter, theories regarding

noticing, input enhancement, output and the definite article are presented, as well as empirical studies which support such theories.

Chapter 3 details the method used to accomplish this study. In this Chapter, the research question is presented and the participants are described. In addition, the materials employed as pre and posttests as well as the materials employed for the treatment sessions are detailed. Also, the procedures followed over the data collection, the data analysis and the pilot study are described in this Chapter.

Chapter 4 presents and discusses the results. Also, the answer to the research question is provided.

Finally, Chapter 5 presents the final remarks concerning the results as well as some pedagogical implications. The limitations of the present study along with suggestions for further research are also presented.

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

In this chapter, I present the theoretical and empirical literature on the most important constructs of the present study: noticing, input, input enhancement and speaking. I also provide a review on the target structure of the present study, the presence and absence of the definite article. The first section presents the construct of noticing. The second section deals with the constructs of input, input enhancement and oral output, and the last section discusses the definite article briefly.

2.1 ON NOTICING

Schmidt's (1983) case study of Wes as a learner of English, and Schmidt and Frota's (1986) case study of Schmidt himself as a learner of Portuguese were case studies which integrated acculturation⁵ and the cognitive theory⁶, providing these researchers with initial reflections on the role of attention in the learning of an L2.

After having investigated the case of Wes, an adult Japanese learner of English who was successful in communicative abilities due to his social and interactive personality, but had limited grammatical competence, Schmidt (1983) posited that "Interest and attention are additional minimum requirements if the source is to come out as well as the main course, and most language learners would agree that hard work is involved as well" (p. 173). As Ortega (2009) claimed, Schmidt made this assertion because he wanted to conclude that "[...] positive attitudes and an optimal environment will afford the linguistic data needed for learning, but [...] the learning will not happen unless the learner engages in active processing of those data" (Ortega, 2009, p. 58).

Schmidt and Frota (1986) found the same when he was a learner of Portuguese. In informal interaction with speakers of Portuguese, Schmidt discovered that, when hearing a language feature he had

⁵ Schmidt (1983, p.139) defines acculturation as a model "which claims that two groups of variables, social and affective, cluster into a single variable of *acculturation* [...] and the degree to which a learner acculturates to the target language group will control the degree to which he acquires a second language".

⁶ According to McLaughlin (1987, p. 133), the cognitive theory "applies the principles and findings of contemporary cognitive psychology to the domain of second language learning.

previously studied in class, this feature had the potential to be recognized as meaningful input, and to be registered with awareness, that is, noticed, for future use in communication. Thus, and contrary to Krashen's monitor theory, Schmidt and Frota (1986) proposed to make a modification in Krashen's principle, stating that

While Krashen proposes that both the product and the process of acquisition are subconscious, and specifically that differences between competing forms i and $i + 1$ are noticed at a subconscious level (Krashen 1983:140), we propose instead that in a particular case of a nontargetlike form i and a targetlike form $i+1$ a second language learner will begin to acquire the targetlike form if and only if it is present in comprehended input and "noticed" in the normal sense of the word, that is, consciously. (p. 311)

In the use of a second language for communication, psychological processes occur in the mind of the learner. Such processes allow the learner to perceive the stimuli and then apply sense to what is being noticed. The cognitive process of attention then, becomes one essential first step for the acquisition of an L2. Learners, when engaged in the process of acquiring a new language, can use different attentional resources and employ a higher or a lower load of attention in order to be successful in learning. Schmidt (1995) argued that efficient learning of an L2 can demand different levels of attention or some degree of focal attention. Also, according to Williams (2013), Schmidt's definitions of attention and awareness concur with the common-sense identification of these ideas: if we do not pay attention to something, we are not aware of it.

Schmidt (1995) posed the construct of attention very close to the one of noticing, which, in his view, is a mechanism that demands low level of awareness, but seems to be associated with all learning. Once a learner pays attention, awareness is required in order to capture the form and meaning of input, and to lead to the understanding of this input. This, in other words, is the noticing hypothesis "[...] input does not become intake⁷ for language learning unless it is noticed, that is,

⁷ For Schmidt (1993), "intake is the subset of input that is attended to and noticed".

consciously registered” (Schmidt, 2010, p.721). Bao, Egi and Han (2011) paraphrased Schmidt, when stated that “noticing of a form is a precursor to the learning of the form. In other words, only the part of input that the learner becomes consciously aware of holds the potential for learning” (p. 216).

Schmidt (1990) posited that, for language learning to take place, conscious processing is a necessary condition and it is what will guarantee the development of learning. Moreover, this conscious condition needs to have the peculiarity of awareness, once it is what allows the processing of perception, noticing (focal awareness) and understanding (Schmidt, 1990, p. 131). However, the answer for the question if learning without awareness is possible continues to be searched by researchers. In a review of such issue, Williams (2013) stated that learning without awareness is possible, but only learning of some regularities, and maybe of forms. Deeper processing with awareness brings about much larger learning effects, supporting Schmidt and Frota’s (1986) view that “[...] those who notice most, learn most” (p. 313).

When proposing the Noticing Hypothesis, Schmidt (1993, 1995, 2010), distinguished two levels of awareness: the level of noticing, a more superficial one, meaning that a conscious registration of some language input happened; and the level of understanding, which is a deeper one, related to learning of the system of the language. Schmidt (1995) referred to the notions of noticing and understanding claiming that

I use ‘noticing’ to mean conscious registration of the occurrence of some event, whereas ‘understanding’, as I am using the term, implies recognition of a general principle, rule or pattern. Noticing refers to surface level phenomena and item learning, while understanding refer to deeper level of abstraction related to (semantic, syntactic, or communicative) meaning, system learning. (p. 29)

Researchers have theorized about concepts related to the Noticing Hypothesis (e. g. Schmidt, 2001, 2010; Truscott, 1998; Izumi, 2013; Skehan, 2013; Williams, 2013). Besides, many empirical studies have been carried out to examine the relationship between noticing and various aspects of SLA. These aspects include (a) proficiency (e.g.

Calderón, 2013); (b) working memory capacity (e.g. Bergsleithner & Mota, 2013); (c) visual input enhancement (e.g. Rashtchi & Gharanli, 2010); (d) task type (e. g. Khatib & Alizadeh, 2012); (e) age (e.g. Catena, 2011); (f) individual differences (e.g. Simard & Foucambert, 2013); (g) awareness (e. g. Leow, 2000); (h) instruction (e.g. Frota & Bergsleithner, 2013); (i) recasts (e.g. Cerqueira, 2011).

Williams (2013), in a review of the concepts of attention, conscious awareness and noticing, posited that such concepts continue to be refined with research, which makes our understanding of the learning processes advance. In order to clarify these constructs, Williams (2013) posed attention as “a [limited] cognitive resource that when applied to a representation results in deeper and more elaborate processing” (p. 41). Attention, in this sense, is the core for the comprehension of the other ideas involved. In life, people are subject to stimuli coming from all around, and they are conscious of these things which happen all the time. However, an unexpected change that takes place in the environment will attract people’s attention making them get aware of this particular stimulus. People will orient their attention to that stimulus and will process it in order to decide how to react to it. In this sense, when focusing their attention on a particular stimulus, people become aware of it, or notice it. Noticing, thus, is focused attention on or conscious awareness of a stimulus. Considering the foreign language learning situation, in a context of input, the learner will focus his attention on a selected linguistic item, which is the candidate for being noticed, and consequently, a candidate for intake. Williams (2013) explained that, the relevant form can be clearly present in the input, but the learner may not notice it, because his attention is focused everywhere. Besides, Williams (2013) posed that even linguistic items which have not been registered with focal attention may have been proceduralized with some level of awareness “[...] just because the learner apparently has no access awareness, say, of a form and their attention does not appear to have been directed towards it, this does not mean that they have not processed it at some level” (p. 44).

Izumi (2013) claimed that, because of various interpretations of Schmidt’s idea of noticing, four different kinds of noticing can be discussed in the SLA literature: (1) noticing a form(-meaning-function) relationship; (2) noticing the gap between IL and TL; (3) noticing holes in IL; and (4) noticing the gap in one’s ability. Noticing a form(-meaning-function) relationship is the most simple kind of noticing, and it was originally proposed by Schmidt and Frota in 1986. It entails not

only noticing form but also meaning and context of the input. The second kind of noticing, the noticing the gap between IL and TL, happens when the learner notices a difference in a language form when used by himself and by a more proficient user. The learner, then, starts to incorporate such accurate use in his own output. These two first kinds of noticing are related to interaction between the learner and the surrounding input, according to Izumi (2013). The third kind of noticing is the noticing holes in IL, which can be understood as a learner's lack of linguistic means to express something intended. It is known as the noticing function of output, which posits that the need to communicate is a much more powerful way to trigger noticing than a mere exposure to input. The fourth kind of noticing, noticing the gap in one's ability, refers to the gap the learner notices, inside himself, at the moment he produces a message which he would like to be different, but he does not know how to express it precisely. Both the third and the fourth kinds of noticing are similar considering their learner-internally characteristics. However, Izumi (2013), explained that noticing a hole indicates a complete absence of the form the learner would like to use in his output; whereas noticing the gap suggests that the learner is partially able to express himself, but not so appropriately as he wanted.

Regarding differences in noticing concepts, Skehan (2013) posed the idea of input noticing and of output noticing. Input noticing occurs when input, which is available but which the learner was not aware of, ends up to be noticed. Output noticing occurs when the speaker wants to say something he is not able to, because there is a gap in his interlanguage. Skehan (2013) made it clear that the gap refers to the lack of means to express something in words and sentences, in spite of the speaker's knowledge of the function and meaning. Both input noticing and output noticing are, according to Skehan (2013) "the necessary precursor to development and change in the interlanguage system" (p. 170).

In a study with 24 Spanish learners divided in two groups, low proficient and intermediate proficient, Calderón (2013) investigated the effects of L2 proficiency on depth of processing, levels of awareness and intake; she also checked if there were any significant relationships between depth of processing with awareness and intake. According to the results, proficiency significantly affected awareness at the level of noticing and awareness at the level of understanding. There was also a positive correlation in both the low and intermediate proficiency groups between awareness at the level of noticing and high depth processing.

Calderón (2013) posited that the study supported Schmidt's postulation regarding the role of awareness and levels of awareness in L2 intake.

Bergsleithner and Mota (2013) carried out a study to investigate the relationship among working memory capacity, noticing, and accuracy in L2 oral production. Thirty adult EFL learners performed activities which assessed: noticing of the target structure, which was the indirect questions; their working memory capacity; and accuracy of the target structure in oral performance. Noticing was accessed through uptake⁸, since participants referred to what they claimed to have learned during the instruction process. According to the results, Bergsleithner and Mota (2013) pointed that the three variables tackled in this study are significantly related to each other. Higher span participants seemed to be better at noticing exemplars of the target structure as well as presented a more accurate use of the indirect questions in speaking.

Rashtchi and Gharanli (2010) carried out a study which proposed to investigate the impact of noticing on the acquisition of English conditional sentences. Two groups of 26 female Iranian EFL learners were the participants, who undergone a proficiency test, as well as a pretest and a posttest regarding the use of the target structure. The treatment was administered with visual input enhancement of the conditional sentences, which was the target structure underlying the study. Through the results in the posttest, most part of the learners showed they had successfully improved their accuracy in the use of the target structure. Noticing was measured through a retrospective questionnaire, which was applied after the treatment sessions. A qualitative analysis of the learners' answers demonstrated that noticing helped the experimental group learn the conditional sentences.

Regarding the relationship between noticing and the task-based approach, Skehan (2013) stated that the link will occur when the form-focused instruction is provided within a task-based instruction. Once the task-based instruction focuses primarily on meaning and communication, while the form-focused instruction focuses also on form – which is supposed to be the catalisator for noticing – Skehan (2013) stated that the form-focused approach should be promoted through tasks which attend to noticing demands, or tasks which “[...] may have consequences for the likelihood of effective noticing [...]” (p. 173).

⁸ For Bergsleithner (2007, p. 41) “uptake refers to what learners claim to learn from a particular lesson focused on a specific grammar topic”.

Noticing, according to Skehan (2013), is the first stage of a series of stages the learner should undergo to develop linguistic system. Such development can be build either on the basis of what has been noticed in the input, or through fitting what has been noticed into an existing system, challenging the learner to reorganize such system. (Skehan, 2013, p. 170)

Khatib and Alizadeh (2012) examined noticing in two different types of tasks (a picture-cued writing task and a reconstruction task) with Iranian EFL learners. Noticing was measured in terms of participants' relevant underlines of categories of past tense - which could be verbs or expressions – from texts that were read during an input-flooding⁹ stage. Participants' underlines were counted and values were attributed as a means to measure noticing. Results showed that only reconstruction tasks were found to have significantly promoted noticing among the participants.

Leow's 2000 study, which "reported that learning did not appear to occur among unaware learners for his particular population" (Leow, 2013, p.15), was another empirical study in favor of Schmidt's noticing hypothesis. Leow (2000) carried out an investigation on the effects of awareness or the lack thereof, on learners' intake and written production of L2 morphological forms. His results suggested that "aware learners improved significantly from pretest to posttest and also in comparison to unaware learners, the latter did not statistically improve from pretest to posttest" (Leow, 2013, p. 16). According to these results, Leow (2013) stated that awareness and learning have no dissociation.

Catena (2011) examined the relationship among age, noticing and L2 learning in two groups of learners – children and adolescents –, fostering noticing through input flooding, which is also considered an implicit strategy for attracting learners' attention to the form. Catena (2011) aimed at analyzing if the ability of noticing the English noun phrase in its simple and complex forms varied between both groups of learners, if noticing resulted in learning, and if input flood enabled the learning of premodification mechanisms of English noun phrases. The researcher designed two games as treatment sessions and, after each one of them, she administered an immediate test, in order to assess the effect of input flood on noticing. Results from the data suggested that noticing

⁹ According to Ellis (2009, p. 282), input-flooding refers to the high frequency to which a specific L2 feature occurs, also referred to as enriched input.

had no correlation with learning, since the participants were not able to use the noticed form in the posttest.

Simard and Foucambert (2013) carried out a study which looked at the effects of textual enhancement on noticing, considering the following individual difference variables: attention capacity, reading skills in L1 and in L2, and individual sensitivity to textual enhancement. Participants were 20 students attending intermediate French level classes. The study was proceduralized within the following sequence: personal questionnaire; the attention measure; the online¹⁰ noticing measure in L1 and in L2; the offline¹¹ noticing measure, which was a debriefing questionnaire; and the reading skills measures in L1 and L2. The researchers measured the effect of textual enhancement on noticing both through eye movement, provided by the eye-tracker, and through the debriefing questionnaire. According to the results, textual enhancement induced more noticing as measured by eye movements than the unenhanced condition. Also, results indicated that, from the three individual differences taken into account in the study, only attentional capacity was significantly linked to noticing. Another important result of the study was that the offline measure of noticing interacted neither with the online measure of noticing nor with the individual differences.

In spite of Schmidt's (1990) belief that noticing occurs in a natural setting of exposure to an L2 and not in an instructional one, he also acknowledges that there might be the possibility for the learner to have the experience of noticing exemplars of structures previously taught in class in a subsequent opportunity of communication. According to Frota and Bergsleithner (2013), when fostering noticing in this way, instruction is serving its own priming function "structures that were taught in class were subsequently noticed when encountered in communicative input" (p. 139). However, the Noticing Hypothesis also implies the idea that neither the instruction of a form nor the exposure to it in the context is sufficient for it to appear in a forthcoming production if the process of noticing had not happened in the learner's mind.

In a study which aimed at investigating if learners of English as an L2 were more likely to notice instances of a target structure after receiving explicit instruction on such English structures – the priming function of instruction – Frota and Bergsleithner (2013) reported,

¹⁰ The definition for online measure of noticing can be found on page 84.

¹¹ The definition for offline measure of noticing can be found on page 84.

through the observation of the results, that instruction and noticing seem to have a relationship. These researchers applied a pretest, a treatment, a posttest and a delayed posttest in a population of 27 Brazilian learners of English. The participants' level of proficiency in English was measured through a proficiency test, from which participants of intermediate level of knowledge were selected. Initially, the researchers exposed the participants to instances of the English noun phrase – the target grammatical structure – and then handed these participants a text, in order to check if they would notice exemplars of the target structure in the text without prior instruction. After that, participants received treatment with the objective of priming them to notice the target structure in future input. Finally, the posttests were applied. The results indicated that instruction draws to noticing, since both in the immediate and in the delayed posttest participants showed increasing sensitivity to exemplars of the target structure in subsequent input.

Cerqueira (2011) investigated the impact of three variables of individual differences, attention, noticing and working memory capacity, in the effectiveness of recasts¹². It was an experimental research which followed the design of pretest, posttest and delayed posttest. The participants were 33 Brazilian EFL learners, randomly selected from a language course in Brazil, and who formed 6 groups: 3 experimental groups and 2 control groups. Participants received corrective feedback in form of models¹³ or recasts, or no feedback according to the group they were assigned. Along with the language activities, participants performed attention control tests, working memory capacity tests and a stimulated recall interview to assess noticing. Results indicated that the groups which received corrective feedback outperformed the control groups. In relation to the individual differences, results suggested that attention was the most significant variable for EFL learning. The variable noticing did not present correlation with the variable attention, fact that Cerqueira (2011)

¹² According to Mackey (2006, p.406) recasts are “responses to non-targetlike utterances that provide a targetlike way of expressing the original meaning”.

¹³ According to Ellis and Sheen (2006, p. 577) models are “exchange-initial utterances that provide learners with positive evidence about the L2 in the form of statements, questions, and instructions that model specific linguistic features.”

attributed to the stimulated recall interviews, which might not have been sufficiently suitable to capture participants' noticing.

To recap, the Noticing Hypothesis puts the mental process of attention, more specifically noticing, or directed attention, as a key for learning a second language. As Spinner, Gass and Behney (2013) stated, studies have referred to noticing focusing on different constructs, some have used noticing as attention, others noticing as awareness, and some have used both constructs. The reason for that, according to these researchers, lies on the lack of empirical evidence for noticing, since we cannot know for sure if something has been noticed. Also, there is the issue of measurement. Simard and Foucambert (2013) pointed out that the choice of the correct measure of noticing still presents a challenge for SLA researchers.

The next section presents the technique I employed to stimulate learners' use of their attentional system to focus on form and meaning of the target structure, in order for it to be noticed and to become intake.

2.2 ON INPUT, INPUT ENHANCEMENT AND OUTPUT

According to Gass and Mackey (2007, p.177), input refers to “the language that a learner is exposed to”. In this sense and thinking in a simple way, input can come to the learner through reading or listening of diverse types of texts in the foreign language which is aimed to be learned. Such input can be provided by a native speaker, by a proficient language teacher or even by the textbook which is the support for the learning of a specific foreign language.

Initially proposed by Krashen (1985), input would be the key for the acquisition of an L2 “ [...] the single most important source of L2 learning is comprehensible input, or language which learners process for meaning and which contains something to be learned, that is, linguistic data slightly above their current level” (Ortega, 2009, p. 59).

As input has been regarded as meaningful content to which the learner is exposed in an L2, linguists have reflected on and analysed this construct. Gass (1997) then defined the term comprehended input, which would be differentiated from Krashen's comprehensible input, considering the control of comprehensibility of the input. For Krashen's comprehensible input, the focus is on the speaker; but for Gass (1997), the focus is on the learner, and how much he can apperceive and understand from the received input. For the Universal Grammar theory, input is seen as provision of positive evidence, which is information that

is possible within a language (Gass & Mackey, 2007). This view goes hand in hand with the interaction approach which, according to Gass and Mackey (2007, p. 176), attempts to account for learning through the learner's exposure to language, production of language, and feedback on that production, having the mechanisms of noticing and attention mediating between communication and learning.

For Sharwood Smith (1993), input means language data that the learner is exposed to. Taking this definition into consideration, Sharwood Smith (1993) questioned what part of the information is assimilated and processed by the learner's mind. When enhancing the input, the teacher directs the learners' attention to certain parts of that input, the parts which the learner is supposed to incorporate into his L2 linguistic knowledge, that is, the parts which are intended to be transformed into intake.

For intake to take place, the process of manipulating input involves some degree of elaboration and explicitness. Combs (2008) explained that elaboration refers to the way the teacher gives relevance to the input – if it is underlined, capitalicized, boldfaced –, as well as to the frequency of the input in a determined linguistic activity. Likewise, explicitness refers to the amount of information the teacher gives about the input. As an example, in a linguistic activity where the input is underlined all the time it appears, but no explanation about it is given, such input can be considered elaborated and implicit. This way of manipulating input goes in hand with Schmidt's idea of noticing “[...] noticing is related to explicit knowledge or explicit learning within implicit teaching or implicit instruction [...]” (Bergsleithner, 2007, p. 35).

Sharwood Smith (1993, p.176) better explained the idea of input enhancement when he distinguished it from consciousness-raising. He posed that consciousness-raising implies that the mental state of the learner is modified by the input, then, all input would be intake. Input enhancement, in its turn, involves the deliberate manipulation of the language input, making it salient to the learner, in order to facilitate the development of L2 knowledge. However, Sharwood Smith pinpointed that what is made salient by the teacher, may not be salient to the learners or, even if the learners notice the signals in the linguistic material, their mental grammatical representations may not be affected by such signals, and therefore language development may not occur. If the flags created by input enhancement in a linguistic material really direct learners' attention to develop their internal mental flags, is an

empirical question posed by Sharwood Smith (1991) and tackled by me in the present study.

Besides, Sharwood Smith (1991, p. 121) claimed that teachers must assume that learners' own learning mechanisms involve internally generated input enhancement. In this sense, he explained the difference between internally and externally created salience. On the one hand, input which was opaque can suddenly catch learner's attention because of his readiness to a growth in knowledge, constituting a process of internally created salience. Externally created salience, on the other hand, comprises input enhancement techniques generated by the teacher. Such signals, as exposed previously, may or may not be noticed by the learner and, if noticed in the activity, maybe it can be non-salient to the learner's learning mechanisms, carrying out no effects on language development.

Doughty (1991) was the first researcher to put into action what Sharwood Smith (1991) had put into question. In her doctoral dissertation she conducted an experiential study, with three groups of participants: two experimental groups, one rule-oriented and other meaning-oriented – including input enhancement of the target forms – and a control group. Results indicated that perceptual saliency may have been the key for the success of instructional treatment, since the meaning-oriented group improved significantly in the target structure.

Once the enhancement of the input intends to promote noticing of the form, then there is a knot reconciling form-focused instruction, input enhancement and noticing. When form-focused instruction questioned where it could help learners to acquire structures they had failed to acquire even after years to exposure to comprehensible input, manipulated perceptual saliency of the input could have been a tentative answer for that. "FFI can aid acquisition by drawing learners' attention to forms in the input that otherwise they might not notice and thus fail to intake" (Ellis, 2001, p. 8)

Izumi (2013, p. 35) related attention to the enhancement of the input, positing that noticing can be managed through strategies applied to the input

Learners are not free to notice anything and everything they wish to notice. Our limited processing capacity necessitates that attention and noticing be selective and should be strategically allocated and managed. Noticing is not always

voluntarily controlled, either. It is constrained and regulated by many properties in the input, [...].

Robinson (1997, p. 223) examined the extent to which learners were able to acquire a rule related to novel verbs in English, after exposure to examples of sentences containing the verbs. The treatment was carried out in four different conditions: implicit, incidental, enhanced and instructed. Results indicated that the enhancement technique, coupled with attention to meaning, led to more generalizable, non-item specific learning than the memorization encouraged in the implicit condition. Besides, Robinson (1997) pinpointed that learning via focus on form through input enhancement in the context of meaningful activities has, at least as one advantage over pedagogic rule learning, the certainty that functional coordinates are noticed along with targeted structures.

In a study which applied reactive form-focused instruction through underlining both wrong and right use of some grammatical items in oral texts – after having transcribed them –, Baleghizadeh and Derakhshesh (2012) observed that learners could benefit from the repetition of the task following the flags provided by the enhancement of the input.

On the other hand, Dalili, Ketabi, Kassaian and Rasekh (2011) set out a study to examine whether implicit instruction through textual enhancement could override explicit instruction through explanation of the rules, in order to induce system learning. According to the results in the posttest, learners of the rule-oriented group considerably outperformed the ones from the textual enhancement group in overgeneralizing their knowledge and learning about the system of the dative verbs in English. These researchers posed the doubt about the effectiveness of the enhancement of the input for triggering the implicit system-learning of language structures.

Likewise, Cho and Reinders (2013) investigated the effects of aural input enhancement on L2 acquisition, having the passive voice as the target linguistic item. Seventy-two participants formed three groups, two experimental and one control group. Participants received an audiobook to listen to as homework. Both experimental groups received aural input enhancement: one got pauses before and after the target structure, and the other had the speed of the audio recorded reduced. Results showed no significant effects from pretests to posttests,

regarding the differences in the treatments applied with aural input enhancement.

Combs (2008) carried out a research in which he checked, beforehand, topic familiarity of the participants of some subjects; then applied reading texts which comprised both the topic participants had revealed to have less familiarity and the target structure – the inflectional superlative. The target structure was enhanced in a way to call learners' attention to form. Results measured by pre and posttests of the target structure did not show a significant impact on the acquisition of form.

As stated previously, there is some evidence that form-focused instruction and the less explicit forms of input enhancement – such as underlining the targeted forms – have served to initiate learner noticing, has provided some effects in language development, and possibly, has generated learning. However, there is also evidence of no effectiveness of the enhanced input, as Han, Park and Combs (2008, p.600) highlighted “in some studies, TE was highly effective in that it led to noticing as well as acquisition; in some it was moderately effective in that it led to noticing but not to acquisition; but in others, it did not appear to be effective.”

Once the saliency of the enhanced input is promoted with the intention to provoke noticing and, consequently, to have linguistic items registered by the learner, the development of more complex cognitive processes like speaking may be fostered.

Bygate (2001) stated some aspects in which speaking differentiates from writing: “oral language, because of its circumstances of production, tends to differ from written in its typical grammatical, lexical and discourse patterns” (p. 14). Brown (1994) when explained some difficulties in teaching speaking, pointed that oral speech production can be affected by characteristics like: *clustering*, since speakers organize their output in phrases, not word by word; *redundancy*, since the oral speech can be reorganized many times in order to have the meaning transmitted; *reduced forms*, since the speaker contracts sounds in pronunciation, avoiding the bookish manner of speaking; *performance variables*, since the speaker manifest hesitations, pauses and corrections during his performance – Brown (1994, p. 270) posed the hesitation phenomena as “one of the most salient differences between native and nonnative speakers of a language” –; *colloquial language*, since speakers need to be familiar enough with words, idioms and sentences in order to be able to produce them; *rate of delivery*, since

speakers should be able to have a reasonable speed in their speech; *stress, rhythm and intonation*, since speakers convey important messages through these characteristics; and *interaction*, since speakers create conversations from the interaction with others.

The speaking of a language may be considered the resulting materialization of an integrated knowledge of a language, once this skill involves a set of cognitive processes, putting the speaker as a “*complex information processing system*” (Levelt, 1995, p.40). Levelt (1989) presented these processes in a model proposed to explain L1 speech production, but which served as the basis of bilingual models of speech production (Mota, 2010).

In order to clarify Levelt’s speech model, Mota (2010) explained that, to speak, the speaker goes through mental concepts and through linguistic knowledge as well. First, there is the conceptualization of the message, in which the speaker conceives an intention to speak – this takes place in the conceptualizer component of Levelt’s speech model. Then, by means of access to the mental lexicon, the speaker selects lexical units as well as grammatical and phonological rules, in order to give the preverbal message a linguistic structure. At this moment, the speaker has processed an internal speech. This takes place in the formulator component. Internal speech is the result of formulation process. After that, the speaker needs to convert the internal speech into overt speech, that is, the speaker articulates muscles to make the message concrete and this takes place in the articulator component of the model. Finally, there is the speech-comprehension system, which monitors all the processes and allows the speaker to evaluate what was spoken in comparison to what was intended to be spoken. In this sense, Levelt (1989, p. 1) argued that “the speaker is a highly complex information processor who can, in some still rather mysterious way, transform intentions, thoughts, and feelings into fluently articulated speech.”

Swain’s (2005) Output Hypothesis stated the concept of output “as part of the *process* of learning, not simply the product of it” (p.471). In this sense, output has been conceptualized in a more complete view, not only as a simple production of a foreign language, but also as part of the process of acquiring a new language. Learning items of an L2 can occur in a moment of formal instruction or over an informal interaction among people, since both circumstances offer potential oral output to be perceived, processed and understood by learners.

Considering the complexity of the speaking ability and its consequent importance for research on linguistics, Doughty & Long (2005) stated that

The focus is firmly on identifying the nature and sources of the underlying L2 knowledge system, and on explaining developmental success and failure. Performance data are inevitably the researchers' mainstay, [...] (p. 4).

In summary, input is the part of the linguistic content which is aimed at being internalized, that is, learned. When enhanced by being underlined, for example, the input can attract learner's attention more strongly, that is, the learner can apply to the input attention with awareness. Such process may lead the learner to be able to use the input properly in his own oral production, which might mean that noticing occurred.

The next subsection will briefly present the target structure which will be treated in this study, the absence and the use of the definite article "the".

2.3 ON THE DEFINITE ARTICLE

According to Nation (2003) the definite article, *the*, is the most frequent word of the English language. Butler (2002, p. 452) also stated that articles are the most commonly used words in English, and yet their usage is surprisingly complex.

Because of the wide usage, one would believe that the definite article is an easy structure to acquire. Such ease can be suggested for the speakers of English as an L1, who acquire the language oriented by meanings that words and sentences carry in combination with contexts. Native speakers of English, according to Butler (2002), seem to acquire the article system at a relatively early age and exhibit a low frequency of errors. However, for learners of English as a second language, "the" is not an easy structure to acquire and incorporate automatically, neither to the oral nor to the written mode of language. The difficulties which surround this structure and which are presented by learners have been investigated by researchers like Wrase (1982), Faingold (1993), Liu and Gleason (2002), Butler (2002), Ansarin (2004), and Ionin and Montrul (2010), for instance. Considering learners' difficulties to use the English

article system accurately, Butler (2002) stated that: “Part of the complexity can be attributed to the fact that the English article system does not consist of one-to-one form and meaning relationships” (p. 452).

Reflecting if L2-English learners use articles randomly or if they develop theories on article usage, Butler (2002) recruited eighty Japanese EFL adult learners, at different developmental stages, in a research which attempted to reveal and examine what kind of metalinguistic knowledge learners employ in order to select articles for usage. There were also twenty native speakers of English participating in the study as a control group. Participants took a fill-in-the-article test, in which they were instructed to pick out the article (a, an, the or ∅) they believed to be the most suitable one to complete the blank. Immediately after, participants had a stimulated recall interview, through which they explained, verbally, their choices about the completion of the blanks in the text. Results specifically from the fill-in-the-article test suggested that the more proficient the learner was, the more targetlike was his use of articles. Results from the interview suggested that there was a large gap in targetlike usage of articles, between the most proficient Japanese learners and native speakers of English. Regarding the question if EFL Japanese learners develop any theory, using their metalinguistic knowledge, in order to make sense of the article system, results indicated that learners form different approaches to understand the use of articles. However, the accessibility of metalinguistic knowledge might depend on the nature of the activity employed, the time available for performing it, and the level of proficiency of the learner. Butler (2002), thus, claimed that teachers should provide successive and systematic instruction to help learners of different levels of proficiency overcome specific types of difficulties in article use.

As addressed in the preceding paragraph, difficulties to use the definite article properly are faced even by proficient and mature speakers, who have studied English for many years, but who can find themselves in doubtful situations when need to use the definite article (Butler, 2002). For Brazilian learners, who have Brazilian Portuguese, a Romance language, as their native language, these difficulties may happen due to the interpretation of generic/specific references or to syntactic and semantic differences between Brazilian Portuguese and English. Given this context, Ionin and Montrul (2010) pointed out the need for extra research: “Findings on how L2 learners interpret definite plurals in generic and nongeneric environments would add to the

growing body of literature on the SLA of phenomena at the syntax-semantics interface” (p. 878).

Faingold (1993) investigated the emergence of the definite articles from Classical and Vulgar Latin to Spanish, Portuguese and Rumanian, through examination of documents from fourth to twelfth centuries. From the analysis, the researcher posed that the development of the definite article in Romance languages seems to have happened from demonstratives in Latin. Faingold (1993) attributed such fact to his findings, which presented synchronic and diachronic frequency use of demonstratives corresponding to emergent articles. He claimed that, in the eighth century, the use of demonstratives with the function of definite articles increased radically. This phenomenon is called *weakening*, that is, when the functional range of a grammatical form is extended to cover new contexts (Faingold, 1993, p. 13). On top of that, examples of *identifiability* were analyzed, showing that speakers used to make use of demonstratives – now functioning as articles – to refer to something which was either prominent in the discourse or accessible to the hearer by prior knowledge. However, in modern Romance languages, the researcher claimed that definite articles precede the noun phrases which are accessible by the speaker’s or hearer’s prior knowledge, even if it is not prominent in the discourse.

Wrase (1982) pointed out the importance of context and prior knowledge of the speaker in order to use the correct article, definite or indefinite, in writing. Wrase (1982) developed a kind of system to help L2-English learners use articles in writing. Her system was composed of 5 questions which were: (1) Has the noun been mentioned before? (2) Is there anything definite after it, like a *that*-clause or an *of*-phrase? (3) Is there only one in existence? (4) Is it a count noun? (5) Is it singular? Wrase (1982) stated that this system worked in a fruitful way with her learners, since it gave them a mechanism to discover by themselves which article to use, consequently making students independent of the teacher. In addition, by answering the questions in a search for the correct article to use, learners can discover that no article is necessary, making them not to feel obliged to insert an article before every noun. Thus, Wrase (1982, p. 7) claimed that her framework could provide students with a systematic way of coping with the problem of articles, besides helping a speaker of English as second language define his own context and his prior knowledge as well.

Ionin and Montrul (2010) carried out two studies to investigate the generic interpretation of plural noun-phrases by speakers of Spanish,

a Romance language which requires articles for generic interpretation, and by speakers of Korean, a language which lacks articles. The aim of the research was to examine the role of L1 transfer as well as to show that recovery from L1 transfer was possible, and then compare Spanish and Korean speakers' performances. Participants of the first study were 24 L1-Spanish and 29 L1-Korean learners of English, as well as 19 native English controls. A language background questionnaire and four tasks – a cloze test of L2 proficiency, an acceptability judgment task, a truth-value judgment task and a picture-matching task – were completed by the participants, who performed the activities in their hometowns. Firstly, data both from Spanish and Korean learners were analysed for the acceptability judgment task and then, for the truth-value judgment task. Results indicated evidence for L1 transfer for both groups of speakers, since Spanish speakers interpreted English definite plurals as generic and Korean speakers sometimes interpreted bare plurals as specific – which would be appropriate for Korean. However, lack of recovery from L1 transfer for Spanish speakers led the researchers to hypothesize if limited exposure to English in an EFL environment had been the cause for such result. In this realm, researchers conducted a follow-up study with 11 advanced Spanish-speaking learners of English in the United States, and had advanced Korean-speaking learners as controls. Results of this second study showed that recovery from L1 transfer was possible, for both Spanish and Korean learners, since both groups of participants were able to interpret definite plurals in a targetlike way.

Considering the nongeneric use of the definite article a problematic issue for Iranian learners to acquire, Ansarin (2004) set up a study which aimed at investigating four uses of the definite article: textual, structural, situational and cultural. The researcher hypothesized that these four kinds of knowledge about the definite article would be learned at different stages of learners' language development, and would pose different difficulties depending on learners' proficiency. One important consideration pointed by Ansarin (2004) was that the Iranian learners speak Persian, a language which does not have an article system equivalent to the English system. From a proficiency test, Ansarin (2004) separated the participants into 4 groups, from low to proficient. Results showed that, of the four kinds of use of the definite article, the one which posed less difficulty was the situational use, followed by the textual, structural and finally, the cultural use, which was the most problematic for the participants. According to the results, the researcher

stated that formal instruction and exposure to the foreign language did not help advanced level students to overcome problem in article usage.

Syntax-semantic differences from English to Portuguese do not tend to be taught in Brazilian classrooms, where the focus is on the syntactic use of the definite article and on whether it is used or not in sentences, with a basis on pedagogical rules. Butler (2002) stated that articles have not been the focus of very much attention in L2 classrooms. EFL teachers should be aware of the problems learners face trying to make sense of the article system in English. Liu and Gleason (2002) suggested that, in order to teach the definite article, teachers should not only be aware of students' readiness to the content but also direct the practice of this linguistic item and select suitable material for its teaching.

Schmidt and Frota (1986) pointed and discussed some differences in the use and meaning of the definite article between English and Portuguese languages. As a learner of Portuguese, Schmidt's lack of production of the definite article was his major problem, as well as lack of accuracy in the structure, when used (p. 253). Ionin and Montrul (2010) also pointed what they considered a "well-known difference" (p. 878) between English and Romance languages, which is the generic interpretation that definite plurals can have in Romance languages, but not in English.

In summary, the article usage in English poses aspects which are in need of further research, such as the difficulties presented by learners to use the system properly, the way teachers tackle the content in instructional settings, and the differences between the English article system and the L1 of the learner.

The next chapter presents the methodology which was adopted to carry out this study.

3. METHOD

This study was conducted with the main goal of investigating the effects of noticing on L2 learners' oral output. More specifically, this study aimed at analyzing if learners improved their accuracy of the grammatical structure – the absence of the definite article to express genericity, the obligatory use of the definite article+singular noun to express genericity, and the obligatory use of the definite article+noun made definite by the addition of a phrase, to express specificity – in the posttest, and if this improvement correlates with learners' noticing of the grammatical structure. In order to reach this objective, L2 English learners were recruited to participate in the study. These participants took two pretests, four activities of treatment, four interviews –one after each treatment activity – and two posttests.

The present study was conducted in a classroom environment, which means that it was not possible to control all the variables which can interfere in the context of a classroom (Gass, 2010, p. 11). On top of that, the present study did not involve a control group, but only the experimental group of participants, which was tested before and after treatment. Due to these characteristics, this study is of a quasi-experimental nature.

In this chapter, a description of the method adopted to carry out the present study is provided. The chapter is organized in six sections. In section 3.1, the objective and the research question are presented. In section 3.2, the participants of this study are introduced. In sections 3.3 and 3.4, the research design and the materials are presented, respectively. The treatment sessions are described in section 3.5. All the procedures which were followed in the study are detailed in section 3.6. The statistical measures for data analysis are described in section 3.7. Finally, in the last section of the chapter, 3.8, the pilot study carried out to test the materials of this study is reported.

3.1 OBJECTIVE AND RESEARCH QUESTION

The main objective of this study was to investigate the effects of one independent variable, noticing, on a dependent variable, the oral output of a sample of learners of English as a second language.

In order to pursue the goal posed above, the following research question and hypotheses were addressed:

Research question 1: Are there effects of noticing on L2 learners' oral output?

Hypothesis 1a, the null hypothesis: The mean of the oral pre-tests will be higher than the mean of the oral post-tests, indicating that noticing does not influence learners' oral output.

Hypothesis 1b: The mean of the oral pre-tests will be lower than the mean of the oral post-tests, indicating that noticing influences learners' oral output.

3.2 PARTICIPANTS

The present study was carried out with learners of English as a foreign language at different levels of knowledge of English, attending a course at a language school in Rio Negrinho, Santa Catarina. Fifty-three participants started carrying out the research procedures. However, as they were all volunteers, they could choose not to participate in the study at any time, and this happened with five participants, remaining 48 participants, 32 female and 16 male. Besides, participants who presented more than fifty per cent of correctness in the pre-tests were also cut off from the study. Therefore, there were only 19 remaining participants regarding the results of the written pretest, and 44 remaining participants regarding the results of the oral pretest. There was only one group of participants, the experimental group, which was compared in two different situations: before and after treatment.

Through the *Personal Information and Language Background Questionnaire*, adapted from Toassi (2012), participants provided both biographical and linguistic information, including experience with English as a second language. This questionnaire (Appendix D) was applied with the objective of gathering some information on participants' factual features, as well as on their behavior and attitudes concerning English as a foreign language. A profile of the participants was attempted through this material.

According to the personal information provided by the participants, most of them is female, above 19 years old, and occupy the time as students. When asked about their linguistic background, most participants answered that they had been studying English for at least 3 years, while their interest in the language had existed for more than 3 years. Moreover, 33 participants reported they were students of English as a foreign language at an intermediate or advanced level according to the material and method followed by the language institute where they

studied. Also, most of the participants indicated that different media and means of communication like movies, series, songs, video games, internet, TV and radio were the way they used to access English as a foreign language. In addition, they reported that these are the most efficient means to develop the language. Talking to a fluent person or to a native speaker as well as attending courses, were pointed as the second most efficient manner to develop English as an L2. When asked about the extra time they spent studying English, most part of participants reported that they dedicated around 2 hours per week to the study of the language. For the question about which skill participants were more interested in developing, the majority of them responded that their high interest lies on both skills related to communication: aural comprehension and oral expression. Thirty participants responded that their high interest lies on aural comprehension and 26 responded that their high interest is to develop oral expression for communication. Therefore, it is possible to observe that skills related to communication are the ones that the majority of the participants considered highly important to develop for their learning. Regarding the question about what kind of activity, inside the classroom, participants considered more efficient for their learning, 39 participants mentioned that activities aimed at promoting their oral development were the most efficient ones. Again, participants demonstrated that being able to communicate is their desire when learning a foreign language. The questions about participants' contact with native speakers and participants' experience abroad showed that their opportunities to use English lie on a classroom context almost exclusively, since only 15 participants answered they had had contact with a native speaker and only 5 of them had traveled abroad. The question about the reason why participants were studying English revealed that most of them want to improve their intellectual skills, besides considering the knowledge of English important for their profession and to travel in the future.

Regarding the pieces of information collected with the Personal Information and Language Background Questionnaire, participants of this study carry a profile of the average student of English as a second language: they want to speak and comprehend people speaking, and they recognize the importance of a second language for their intellectual development. The last question of the questionnaire asked participants' opinion about the importance of English for the current world. Participants gave answers that demonstrated their interest in knowing

English in order to be able to communicate and use technologies, and consequently feel inserted in the modern world.

The participants did not have their proficiency measured due to two features of this study. The first one was the targeted structure, the definite article, which is a high frequent word in the English language (Liu & Gleason, 2002) and, therefore, is subject to use by English speakers of all levels of knowledge. Despite the fact that L2-English learners use structures with the definite article all the time, there are several and complex relationships among such structures and the meanings they carry out. In this sense, not selecting participants of the same proficiency level seemed to be a more sensible manner to approach this grammatical structure. The second reason lies in the importance of having a high number of participants to run valid statistical tests. The control for knowledge of the target structure was implemented by means of written and oral pretests. Thus, a proficiency test would represent a third lay of participant screening and this was thought to be unnecessary.

3.3 MATERIALS

The present study had a pretest, treatment, posttest design. The materials and procedures were tested through a pilot study in order to evaluate whether the design chosen was adequate to the purposes of the present study.

In the present study the following instruments were used: a personal information and language background questionnaire, two pretests – one written in order to assess participants' level of grammatical knowledge of the target structure, and one oral to assess participants' use of the target structure in speech production – two post-tests – one written aimed at assessing participants' level of grammatical knowledge of the target structure after receiving treatment, and one oral to assess participants' use of the target structure in speech production after receiving treatment (the post-tests were identical to the pre-tests) – stimulated recall interviews after each treatment session, in order to access participants' noticing. Each instrument is described as follows:

(1) *Personal Information and Language Background Questionnaire* (adapted from Toassi, 2012). This questionnaire (Appendix D) was applied with the objective of gathering some information on participants' behavior and attitudes concerning English

as a foreign language. A profile of the participants was attempted through this material.

(2) *Pretest 1*. Pretest 1 (Appendix E) consisted of a grammaticality judgment test, adapted from Ionin and Montrul (2010), and constructed with 30 sentences. Fifteen of the sentences contained the target structure in three possibilities of use – the omission of the definite article to express genericity (5 exemplars), the use of the definite article + singular noun to express genericity (5 exemplars), and the use of the definite article + noun made definite by the addition of a phrase, to express specificity (5 exemplars). The other fifteen sentences contained fillers, with the following structures: the indefinite article (5 exemplars), prepositions (5 exemplars) and the present progressive (5 exemplars). In this written test, participants were required to rewrite all the sentences in order to make them correct, by inserting or removing only one word of the sentence, as illustrated in example A below:

Example A. Kids playing computer games are my nephews.

The kids playing computer games are my nephews.

In order to score this written pretest, each one of the fifteen sentences which contained the target structure was corrected. Participants, then, could have a total of fifteen points in this written pretest.

(3) *Pretest 2*. Pretest 2 (Appendix F) was an oral test which consisted of a picture-and-word description of a set of 28 cards. Fourteen cards showed a word and fourteen showed a picture. Participants were instructed to get a card from the pile and describe it in any way. This researcher provided two examples for the participants to understand how to manage the activity. Because of the open-ended characteristic of this activity, since it was carried out in the oral mode, there was not a foreseeable number of maximum correct occurrences the participants could produce. Each correct occurrence was scored according to the three cases of the target structure considered in this study.

(4) *Retrospective interviews 1, 2, 3, 4*. These written interviews (Appendices H, J, L, N) were applied after the treatment sessions 1, 2, 3, 4, respectively. All these interviews consisted of three questions. The first one was an open-ended question which aimed at capturing the participant's perception of the treatment activity in a general way. The second question presented three pairs of sentences and the participant was required to choose which sentence of the pair sounded correct. In the third question, the participant was asked to correct a sentence which

was malformed regarding the use of the target structure. This correction could be made through the statement of the grammatical rule or through the rewriting of the sentence in the correct form.

(4) *Posttest 1*. This test (Appendix E) consisted of the same grammaticality judgment test described for Pre-test 1, and it was applied right after the last stimulated recall interview.

(5) *Posttest 2*. This test (Appendix F) was the same oral activity of Pre-test 1 and was applied right after post-test 1.

3.4 THE INSTRUCTIONAL TREATMENT

The treatment group received treatment through four different planned activities involving the target structure, which is the contrast in the use of the definite “the” – to convey generic or specific reference – and its absence, the zero article, – to convey generic reference. The targeted structure was underlined both in the questions and in the statements of these activities, with the purpose of drawing learners’ attention to such forms. Two of these activities were designed to be performed in pairs, one in trios and one in groups of four learners. All of these activities were especially prepared for this study. Each one took approximately 50 minutes to be carried out.

In the first one (Appendix G), in pairs, learners received a set of 40 cards, with “animals” as the thematic issue. Each card contained two statements plus one or two questions, and also one picture. The statements posed general ideas of some animals, using the *absence of the definite article* (☹), and the obligatory use of the definite article *the+singular noun* to convey generic reference. The last question, which referred to the animal in the picture, had the definite article “the” underlined, in order to call the participants’ attention to its correct use when specificity was to be conveyed. Thus, the objective of this activity was to show the possibilities of using the definite article to make generic or specific reference, and its absence to make generic references. In pairs, participants read the statements and asked and answered the questions, displaying the cards on the table. An example is given below:

Figure 1. Example of a card from treatment activity1

⊗ Guinea Pigs are used as food for some people in South America.

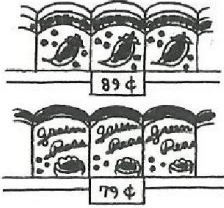
The Guinea Pig is kept as pet in many countries of the world.

Would you eat the Guinea Pig in the picture?



In order to perform the second activity (Appendix I), the participants were organized in trios and received 12 sets of cards. Each set was composed of three cards, A, B, and C, all of them containing one unfinished sentence and, card C, contained also a picture. In card A, a general topic would be put to discussion, and should be complemented, in speaking, with the topics in the other two cards (cards B and C). Card A presented one case of the target structure – the absence (⊗) of the definite article to convey genericity. Card B presented the use of the definite article+singular noun to convey genericity. And card C presented the definite article+noun made definite by the addition of a phrase, to convey specific reference. In order to perform the activity, one participant would take card A, read the beginning of the sentence aloud and continue speaking, giving his opinion about the topic. Another participant would take card B, read the beginning of the sentence aloud and link his opinion to what had been said by the previous participant. The last participant would take card C, he would also read the beginning of the sentence aloud and give a closing to the conversation, adding his opinion about the topic addressed in the card. These unfinished sentences possessed the symbol (⊗) for omission of the definite article, and the definite article underlined, as an attempt to call participants' attention to form and meaning. One example of the activity is provided below.

Figure 2. Example of a set of cards from treatment activity 2.

<p>1-A</p> <p><u>o</u> Supermarkets...</p>	<p>1-B</p> <p><u>The</u> product...</p>	<p>1-C <u>The</u> prices...</p> 
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The third activity (Appendix K) consisted of 2 sets of 16 cards each. One set of cards contained a small and funny story about an animal, in addition to some questions. The other set contained pictures which corresponded to each animal addressed in the stories. Two cases of the target structure were addressed in this activity: the absence of the definite article to convey genericity and the use of the definite article+noun made definite by a phrase, to convey specificity. Again, the cases of the target structure were underlined in the questions, in order to call participants' attention to this input. In order to perform this activity, participants were required to have the cards with stories in a pile, faced down; whereas the pictures were spread over the table and faced up. Taking turns, participants would take a card and read the story out loud, while the partner listened to it and located, in the pictures, the animal which was addressed in the story. The participant who read the story, then, would ask the questions and the partner would give the answers based on the story. One example of the second activity, with both cards, is provided below:

Figure 3. Example of a card from treatment activity 3

Story

Last night an unusual thing occurred. I was trying to sleep when I heard voices coming from outside. I opened the window and I saw owls on a post. Their faces were like hearts and they were speaking cheerfully. For me, it was strange, because an owl can't speak, but those owls spoke English!

Questions

Do o owls speak?

Are the faces of the owls in the story like hearts?

Where were the owls?


Do the owls in the story speak English?



The fourth activity (Appendix M) consisted of a set of 24 cards. Eight of these cards addressed the absence (∅) of the definite article to convey genericity; other set of eight cards addressed the structure “*the+singular noun*” to convey genericity. The last set of eight cards contained both unfinished sentences and pictures. The sentences were also unfinished and presented the structure *the+noun made definite by a phrase* to convey specificity, and which was related to the picture. In this way, the 24 cards could have the three cases of the target structure which are tackled in this study. Again, the target structure was underlined with the purpose of calling participants’ attention to form and provoke noticing. In groups of four people, participants were instructed to spread the cards over the table, faced down. Then, taking turns, each participant was required to pick a card, read the beginning of

the sentence out loud and add to it his/her opinion. The other participants were instructed to give their opinion and continue the conversation. An example of the activity 4 is provided below.

Figure 4. Example of a set of cards from treatment activity 4

<p>☉ Men...</p>	<p><u>The Internet...</u></p>	<p><u>The singer in the picture ...</u></p> 
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3.5 PROCEDURES

The first procedure to be followed was to ask for the authorization from the language school's owner through a letter of consent (Appendix A) to have the data collected in the school.

In order to recruit these participants for the present study, this researcher visited classes, talked about the research project and distributed consent letters. People who were underage received a consent letter (Appendix B) addressed to their parents, and adults received a consent letter (Appendix C) which they could sign by themselves. Through these letters (Appendices B and C), the participants were invited to participate in the study and were given information about it. The procedures, the voluntary nature of participation, the assurance of confidentiality, and the contact with the researcher were provided in these documents. These letters also highlighted that the aim of the study was to collect data for academic purposes and not to evaluate their performance or give them a grade.

The learners who accepted to participate in the project, then, set a time with this researcher, who was able to form three groups for treatment. Those who could not take part of a group, set a different time with this researcher and received the treatment individually.

On the first day of meeting, the participants were required to fill in the personal information and language background questionnaire (adapted from Toassi, 2012), which was the first procedure of the research. It took the participants around ten minutes to answer the questionnaire. Subsequently, participants were required to take the pretest 1, in which they had the opportunity to show their knowledge of the target structure in the written form. After that, participants were invited to take the pretest 2. This oral activity was recorded for later transcription and checking of participants' accuracy of spoken English regarding the use of the target structure. These three procedures were carried out in the first meeting with most part of participants, as long as they were available time.

The following step was to apply the four treatment sessions. Each one happened in a new meeting, in different days, during a period of at least 2 weeks. After each treatment session, the participants answered the written interview regarding their noticing of that activity. This interview was carried out in Portuguese, to avoid the interference of lack of knowledge in English.

After the four treatment sessions, a new meeting was set with the participants with the purpose of having them take both posttests, written and oral.

In this realm, participants and researcher had around 6 meetings to carry out the procedures of the research. Other participants, who did not have the availability to follow this chronogram, had even more meetings with this researcher to cover all the procedures.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

The data of the present study were analysed quantitatively, through the program SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) version 20. The alpha level was set at $p < 0.005$, the standard coefficient of significance for linguistic experiments.

To investigate the effects of noticing on learners' oral output, a comparison of the means of pre- and post-tests was done to check if the participants presented linguistic improvement. Then, such results were correlated with the results for the noticing interviews, in order to check if noticing had effect on the linguistic improvement of the participants. Thus, only data related to correctness in both pre- and post-tests, written and oral, were considered in this study. For the written test, which was a grammaticality judgment test, the maximum number of correct answers

could be 15. For the oral test, there was not a maximum number of correct answers, once participants were required to produce a comment on each of the 28 cards, and this comment could have been made using the target structure or not, in the correct way or not. The results of the oral post-tests were correlated with noticing, in order to check if there was a relationship between noticing and the accurate speech production of the grammatical target structure.

Firstly, the scores of the written tests, pre and post, were compared to one another and the descriptive statistics were run. The same procedures were carried out for the oral pre and posttests. From the descriptive statistics, mean, median, standard deviation, skewness and kurtosis were analysed, in order to check for the distribution of the data. In addition, both graphs of histograms and of boxplots, as well as the normality tests of Kolmogorov-Smirnov and of Shapiro-Wilk were run, with the purpose of checking the distribution of the data. As neither the data for the written tests nor for the oral tests presented a normal distribution according to the tests described above, the non-parametric test of Wilcoxon Signed-Rank was run in order to analyze the inferential statistics.

With the intention of analyzing noticing, indirect measures were used for each of the three questions contained in the four interviews.

The first question of each interview was an open-ended one, asking about the participant's general perception of the activity they had just performed. Because of their open-ended nature, these four questions – the first question of each of the four interviews – were given several kinds of answers, from subjective to objective ones. The maximum score for this first question was 5 points. Answers which addressed linguistic structures in general received 1 point. For instance, the answers given by participant 07, in the retrospective interview 1 (example a), and by participant 06, in the retrospective interview 3 (example b), respectively, received 1 point:

Example a. *Gostei muito das atividades propostas. Aprendi muitas coisas que não sabia. Alguns nomes de animais*¹⁴.

¹⁴ “I liked the proposed activities very much. I learned many things I did not know. Some names of animals” (P07, retrospective interview 1, *my translation*).

Example b. *A atividade 3 foi interessante, pois a partir dos textos estimulamos nossa memória para responder às perguntas, e também pudemos expandir nosso vocabulário*¹⁵.

Answers which addressed the target structure in a general way received 3 points as for instance, the answers given by participant 05, in the retrospective interview 2 (example a), and by participant 04, in the retrospective interview 3 (example b), respectively:

Example a. *Que antes do sujeito é bom ser usado um artigo*¹⁶.

Example b. *Sim, o uso das expressões “the” e “a”, onde devem ser usadas e qual delas usarmos com os substantivos*¹⁷.

Answers which addressed the target structure with richness of details, in relation to any one of the three cases dealt in this study, received 5 points. As examples, answers from participants 17, in the retrospective interview 3 (example a), and from participant 28, in the retrospective interview 4 (example b), are shown:

Example a. *Que eu sabia muito sobre eles e que cada um tinha uma história. Sim. A presença do “the” para coisas específicas. E o símbolo ∞ para não específicas*¹⁸.

Example b. *O uso do “the” somente quando for no singular e sem ele no plural, ou ainda, referindo-se a certa figura*¹⁹.

¹⁵ “The activity 3 was interesting because the texts gave us opportunity to stimulate our memory in order to respond the questions, and we could also expand our vocabulary” (P06, retrospective interview 3, *my translation*)

¹⁶ “Before the subject it is suitable to use an article” (P05, retrospective interview 2, *my translation*).

¹⁷ “Yes, the use of the expressions ‘the’ and ‘a’, where they are supposed to be used and which of them we should use with nouns” (P04, retrospective interview 3, *my translation*).

¹⁸ “That I knew a lot about them and that each one had a story. Yes. The presence of ‘the’ for specific things. And the symbol ∞ for non specific ones” (P17, retrospective interview 3, *my translation*).

¹⁹ “The use of ‘the’ only when it is singular and without it in the plural, or still, when referring to a certain picture” (P28, retrospective interview 4, *my translation*).

The second question, which consisted of 3 pairs of sentences, each one addressing one case of the target structure, asked participants to check the correct sentence in the parentheses, according to their perception. Each correct check scored one point, and the maximum score for this question was 3 points. The third question consisted of one incorrect sentence and the participant was asked to correct it. If the sentence was made correct, either through its rewriting or through the explanation of the process for correction, 1 point was scored by the participant. Thus, from these 3 questions, each written interview had a maximum score of 9 points; from the four interviews together, a total score of 36 points could be possible for a participant to score for noticing.

Points from the four interviews were added and a total score per participant was set. Then the numbers for noticing were processed for the descriptive statistics, in order to check the distribution of the data, since the objective was to correlate noticing with the numbers for correctness in the oral posttest. This procedure was followed in order to check if the accurate speech production of the target structure in the oral posttest had some relationship with the noticing of the target structure. As the descriptive statistics for the oral posttest as well as for noticing indicated the data were not normally distributed, the non-parametric correlation of Spearman was applied to the data.

Also, the three cases approached in the target structure – the absence of “the” and the+singular noun for generalization as well as the+noun made definite by a phrase, for specificity – were analysed in the pre and posttests, with the purpose of checking the improvement of each one after the treatment sessions.

The results and the discussion for this data analysis are presented in Chapter 3.

3.7 THE PILOT STUDY

In order to test the materials selected for the present study, a pilot study was carried out over two days. The participants were 4 students of the fifth semester of the Letras program at UnC – Universidade do Contestado, in Mafra, Santa Catarina. Their age ranged from 20 to 23 years old, with a mean of 21.

On the first day of the pilot study, the consent letter, the personal and language background questionnaire, the oral and written pre-tests, the treatment activities 1 and 2, and the stimulated recall interviews 1

and 2 were carried out with the group of four participants. No changes were necessary in the consent letter for adult participants. Another version of the consent letter was prepared in order to address the parents of underage participants who could be recruited for the final data collection.

The analysis of the results of this first day of the pilot study showed that: (1) pre-tests needed to be modified, both pre-test 1 and 2 were shortened, due to the time participants took to perform them; (2) the treatment activity 1 ran properly, provoking volunteers' participation; (3) treatment activity 2 needed to be redesigned in a way that the single unfinished sentence was substitute by three unfinished sentences, which comprised the three cases of the target structure already described and tackled in this study.

On the second day, the treatment activities 3 and 4, as well as their respective stimulated recall interviews, and also the written and oral post-tests were applied. The results for this second day of the pilot study showed that: (1) treatment activity 3 ran properly, showing to be highly motivating for the participants to speak; (2) treatment activity 4, had to be totally changed: instead of cards with one picture and some words, which should be related through the saying of sentences, and which comprised only one topic of the target structure, this researcher developed an activity in which participants gave their opinions, and which comprised the three topics of the target structure focused on this study.

The next chapter presents and discusses the results of the present study.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter aims at presenting and discussing the results obtained in order to answer the research question presented in Chapter 3, section 3.1. This chapter is divided into three subsections: section 4.1 presents the statistical results obtained in this study; section 4.2 presents the discussion for the statistical results; and section 4.3 presents the summary of the results, addressing the research question.

Section 4.1 is subdivided into four subsections: subsection 4.1.1 presents the statistical results for the written tests; subsection 4.1.2 presents the statistical results for the oral tests; subsection 4.1.3 brings the statistical results regarding noticing and finally, subsection 4.1.4 presents the statistical results regarding the three cases of the target structure tackled in this study.

Section 2 is also subdivided in four subsections: subsection 4.2.1 discusses the results for the written tests; subsection 4.2.2 discusses the results for the oral tests; whereas subsection 4.2.3 discusses the results for noticing; subsection 4.2.4 discusses the results obtained for the three cases of the target structure investigated in this study.

4.1 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

4.1.1 The written tests

Firstly, scores of the grammaticality judgment tests, the written tests, pre- and post-, were compared to one another. Table 1 presents the results of the descriptive statistics.

	n	M (SD)		Mdn	Min.	Max.	Skew.	Kurt.
Written pre-test	19	4,3	2,3	5	0	7	-0,32	-1,25
Written post-test	19	11,9	2,9	12	2	15	-2,12	6,79

Note: n=number of cases

The results show that, for the written pre-test, the mean was 4,3, and the standard deviation was 2,3; while for the written post-test the mean was 11,9, and the standard deviation was 2,9. According to the results in the post-test, the major part of the participants not only

corrected a great number of sentences in the grammaticality judgment test, but also was concentrated around the mean, with few ones dispersed from the mean. Observing the increase of the mean between the pre-test and the post-test, it seems possible to argue that the treatment sessions might have had an effect on the learning of the target structure.

Table 1 also shows that, in the pre-test, the minimum score was 0 and the maximum was 7; while for the post-test, the minimum was 2 and the total was 15, this last one representing the maximum number of correct sentences a participant could carry out.

Also in Table 1, the descriptive statistics for skewness both in in the written pre- and post-test, -0,32 and -2,12, respectively, showed that the data is symmetric. The result for kurtosis for the pre-test was low, -1,25. However, the results for kurtosis in the written post-test, 6,79, indicates that the data was not normally distributed, once the scores were peakly concentrated around the mean.

In order to check for normal distribution once again, the normality test of Shapiro-Wilk, which is indicated to check normality for small samples, was applied to the data. As can be seen in Table 2, the results indicated that the data were not normally distributed.

Table 2

Test of Normality, Shapiro-Wilk, for the written tests

	n	significance
Written pre-test	19	0,047
Written post-test	19	0,001

Note: n=number of cases

Taking into account a not normally distributed data, the non-parametric test of Wilcoxon Signed-Rank was applied to the data.

Table 3

Wilcoxon signed-rank test for the written tests

	n	M	p.
Negative ranks	0	0,00	0,000
Positive ranks	18	9,5	
Ties	1		
Total	19		

Note: n=number of cases; p.= p-value

Table 3 showed the results for the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test, which was of $<0,0001$ ($z = -3,732$; $p < 0,0001$), less than the level of significance stated for this research, which was of a maximum of $0,005$, suggesting that the study was of significance, in relation to the written tests.

According to the results both for the descriptive and the inferential statistics for the written pre-tests, the treatment sessions seemed to have been effective for the learning of the target structure tackled in the present research.

4.1.2 The oral tests

The scores of the oral tests, pre- and post-, were also compared to one another. Table 4 shows the results for the descriptive statistics.

	N	M	(SD)	Mdn	Min.	Max.	Skew.	Kurt.
Oral pre-test	44	7,4	4,4	7	0	1	0,00	-1,05
Oral post-test	44	16,8	7,1	19	15	28	-0,54	-0,71

Note: N=total number of cases

As can be seen in Table 4, the mean for the pre-test was $7,4$, and the standard deviation was $4,4$, which is a high number compared to the mean, and what can lead to a not normally distributed data. For the post-test, the mean was $16,8$, while the standard deviation was $7,1$, which means that not so many participants had their scores dispersed around the mean. From the minimum scores reached in the pre-test, 0 , and in the post-test, 1 , it is observable that the minimum score did not have a noticeable increase.

The maximum scores, on the other hand, had an outstanding increase, from 15 in the pre-test to 28 in the post-test, which shows the participants produced a higher number of correct sentences using the target structure after having the four treatment activities provided by this researcher. Through the analysis of skewness and kurtosis, the data shows a tendency for being normally distributed, once neither skewness nor kurtosis values were higher than 1 .

Table 5, however, shows that, through the tests of normality, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and the Shapiro-Wilk, it is possible to identify a deviation from normality of the data in the oral post-test, with results of 0,02 for both tests.

Table 5

Tests of Normality for the oral tests: Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		Shapiro-Wilk	
	N	sig.	N	significance
Oral pre-test	44	0,20	44	0,08
Oral post-test	44	0,02	44	0,02

Note: N=total number of cases

In this sense, data were considered not normally distributed and, to check for inferential statistics, the non-parametric test of Wilcoxon Signed-Rank was applied to the data.

Table 6

Wilcoxon Signed-rank test for the oral tests

	N	M	<i>p.</i>
Negative ranks	3	4,83	0,000
Positive ranks	40	23,28	
Ties	1		
Total	44		

Note: N=total number of cases; *p.*= p value

As can be seen in Table 6, the results for the Wilcoxon Signed-rank test was $p < 0,0001$ ($z = -5,539$; $p < 0,0001$), suggesting that the significance of the treatment sessions was prominent. Also, through the rankings in the Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test, it is possible to observe that the greatest part of participants, 40, improved their scores in the post-test, being ranked with positive ranks; only 3 of them had negative ranks, and only 1 kept the same score of the pre-test.

According to the results, both the descriptive and the inferential statistics suggested that the increasing in the accurate production of sentences from pre- to post-tests is due to the treatment sessions.

4.1.3 Results regarding noticing

The main objective of this study was to investigate the effects of noticing of the target structure on participants' oral output. In this sense, the results obtained in the oral posttest were correlated with the results obtained for noticing. Appendix S displays a table with participants' scores for noticing in each of the four retrospective interviews and the total score per participant.

Since the descriptive statistics described for the oral posttest indicated that the data for this variable were not normally distributed, descriptive statistics for the noticing variable was also run, with the purpose of checking which would be the best correlational test to apply for these both continuous variables.

Table 7

Descriptive statistics for noticing

	N	M	(SD)	Mdn	Min.	Max.	Skew.	Kurt.
Noticing	44	22,2	5,6	23,5	9	31	-0,43	-0,56

Note: N=total number of cases

In spite of the results of skewness and kurtosis for noticing had shown a tendency for a normal distribution, as can be seen in Table 7, the normality test of Kolmogorov-Smirnov showed low significance for a normal distribution, with a result of 0,02, as can be seen in Table 8.

Table 8

Test of Normality for noticing: Kolmogorov-Smirnov

	N	sig.
Noticing	44	0,020

Note: n=total number of cases

In this sense, the data were assumed to be not normally distributed, and the Spearman rank order correlation (r_s) was applied to the data.

Table 9

Spearman's correlation between scores in the oral post-test and noticing

	N	correlation	<i>p.</i>
Oral post-test and noticing	44	0,44	0,002

Note: N=total number of cases; *p.*= p value

As can be seen in Table 9, the relationship between the two variables was moderate, and positive, $r_s=0,44$, indicating that when one increases, the other also increases, that is, the more noticing a participant had of the target structure, the higher the number of correct sentences he/she produced in the posttest. The result for significance in the Spearman rank order correlation test was 0.002, which is lower than 0,05, indicating that the result has a low likelihood of being due to chance, that is, the treatment seemed to have had some effect on participants' noticing of the target structure.

Besides, in order to show the variance of the scores per participant in each of the four interviews, a graph was run.

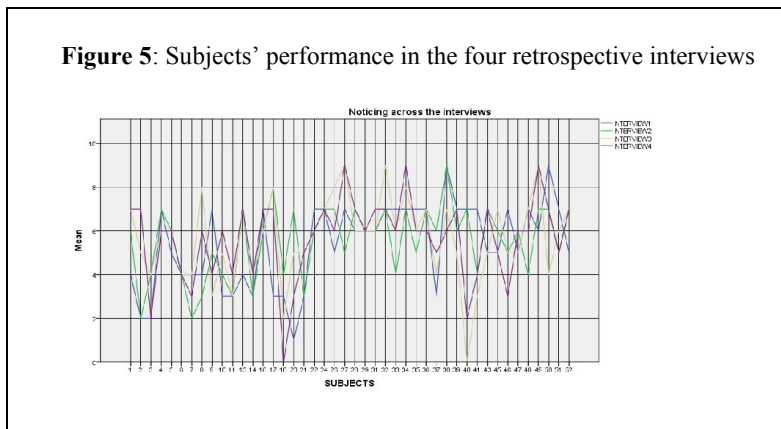


Figure 5 shows the scores per participant in each of the four interviews applied to access noticing. Results indicated that there was not much variance in the means of the four interviews, if they were compared to one another.

Results regarding the correlation between noticing and oral output suggested that these two variables correlate positively, which

means that the more noticing a learner had of the target structure, more accurately was his production in the oral posttest.

In this realm, the treatment which was provided with activities presenting the target structure underlined, seemed to have provoked learners' noticing and helped them learn the aimed structure.

4.1.4 Results regarding the three cases of the target structure

The scores regarding the three cases of the target structure approached in this study were compared from both written pre to posttests and oral pre to posttests.

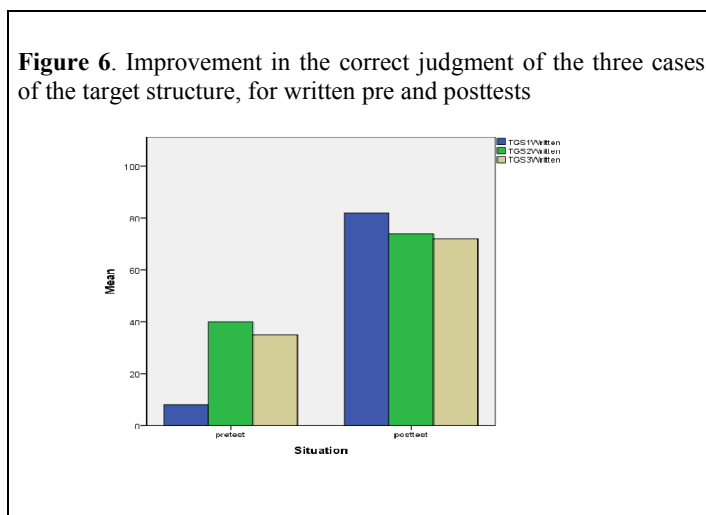
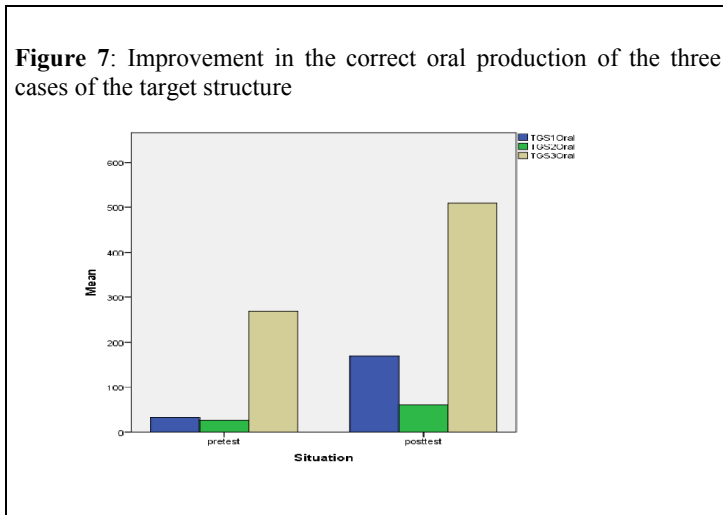


Figure 6 presents the results for the written tests, before and after treatment, for the three cases of the target structure approached in this study. As can be seen in Figure 6, the mean for the first case of the target structure – the absence of “the” for generalization – was the one which had the greatest increase in the mean, from pretest to posttest. Both the second case – the+singular noun for generalization – and the third case of the target structure – the+noun made definite by the addition of a phrase, for specificity – had almost the same mean concerning the pretests, and increased almost the same amount in the

post-tests. Results indicated that participants increased the scores for judgment of the three cases of the target structure.

Moving on to the results for the oral production, when participants freely produced utterances about words and pictures from cards, Figure 7 presents the results.



According to the results for the oral tests, presented in Figure 7, the greatest increase in the mean, from pre to posttest, was for the third case of the target structure approached in this study, with a mean of 269 in the pretest and 510 in the posttest. The first case of the target structure presented the second most statistically significant increase, with a mean of 32 in the pretest and of 170 for the posttest. The second case of the target structure – the +singular noun to convey generalization – also increased from pre to post oral test, mean 26 in the pretest and 61 in the posttest.

Results observed in Figures 6 and 7 showed that participants produced more accurate occurrences in the oral posttest, for the three cases of the target structure approached in this study and which were applied in the treatment sessions. In this sense, the underlining of the aimed structure in the activities seemed to have focused learners' attention to form and meaning.

4.2 DISCUSSION

This subsection discusses the results of this study, as well as its relationship with empirical research already carried out on noticing, input enhancement and the target structure chosen for this research. Also, the research question of this study will be addressed in this subsection.

Thus, this subsection is organized in 3 further subsections: 4.2.1 discusses the effects of noticing in L2 accuracy concerning the speaking ability; 4.2.2 discusses the use of enhanced input as a technique to provoke noticing whereas subsection 4.2.3 discusses the target structure tackled in this study.

4.2.1 Noticing and L2 accuracy in speaking

It has been more than two decades since Schmidt has postulated the Noticing Hypothesis for the learning of a second language and, according to Leow (2013), the hypothesis is “arguably the most influential theoretical underpinning in SLA over the last two decades and has contributed tremendously to the centralization of both the roles of attention and awareness in the process of acquiring or learning a second or foreign language (L2)” (p. 11).

According to Schmidt (1990), noticing is “focal awareness” (p. 132), suggesting that the process happens when the learner chooses what part (item, material) of the input to pay attention to, making it available for posterior recognition or use in a given interaction. His assumptions were based on studies about cognitive psychology, which claimed that “learning without awareness is impossible” (Schmidt, 199, p. 131); and about attention, which seemed to be “facilitative” for learning.

Many studies in the area of SLA have involved the Noticing Hypothesis, and have backed it up with results either in favor of the hypothesis or offering new views on Schmidt’s ideas.

The results of the present study demonstrated a moderate correlation between noticing and L2 oral output development. As this study investigated noticing through the ability of speaking, other studies which also related noticing to the oral development of the L2 will be recalled here.

The origins of the linguistic empirical support for Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis was given by Schmidt and Frota (1986), in which the authors posited that, after having searched the diary notes of the

subject (Schmidt himself), they had the indication that the most produced forms were the ones Schmidt had noticed mostly. Such claim arose in Schmidt's 1990 paper *The role of consciousness in Second Language Learning* "A search of the diary notes indicated that the forms that I produced were those that I noticed people saying to me" (p. 140).

In the present study, a target structure (the use or absence of the definite article) was selected, and tasks with the enhancement of such structure were provided to the participants, different from Schmidt and Frota's case study of Schmidt as a learner of Portuguese, who was learning the L2 in its natural context, thus receiving several linguistic structures as input. Even considering such difference in the learning setting of the L2, it is possible to have a positive comparison between both studies. Schmidt produced the structures which he had more frequently reported in his diary, that is, structures which he had noticed.

Accordingly, in the present study, the correlation between oral post-tests and noticing was positive, statistically indicating that both grow together: the more noticing of the target structure, the more accurate occurrences of the target structure were produced in the post-tests. Besides, the correlation was moderate ($r_s = 0.447$), a statistical result which might be of some importance for a linguistic study.

Another study which is in accordance with the present research is Bergsleithner (2007). She found a statistically significant relationship between noticing and oral performance. According to her results, "the participants who noticed the L2 linguistic aspects of the target structure demonstrated superior performance in using the target structure in the two posttests" (p. 120).

The present study also demonstrated evidence for the claim that attention – or more specifically, focused attention, or noticing – is necessary for improving the learning of a linguistic item of an L2. Thus, the present study supports Schmidt's 1995 view that

One convincing demonstration of learning without attention would be enough, but so far there have not been any. Several studies purporting to demonstrate learning without attention are shown to really have demonstrated only a low level of learning associated with a low level of attention (Schmidt, 1995, p. 1).

4.2.2 Enhanced input to provoke noticing

As Lee and Huang (2008) posited, the enhancement of the input has been present in the studies of SLA with the purpose of making such input more perceptible for learners. Techniques as underlining the input in sentences, questions, or texts, are used in order to call the learner's attention to a targeted structure which is aimed to be learned. In this sense, pedagogical interventions planned with both input enhancement and a target structure attend on the focus on form instructional context, which "is used to refer to any planned or instructional activity that is intended to induce language learners to pay attention to linguistic forms" (Ellis, 2001).

In this study, the four speaking activities were planned by this researcher in a way that all of them contained three cases of using the definite article, which was the targeted structure: both (1) *∅* (or *zero article*) and (2) *the+singular noun* to express generalization; and (3) *the+noun made definite by the addition of a phrase*, to express specificity. These three cases were underlined in the sentences, question or texts which were provided in the speaking activities, in order to call the attention of the participants to such saliency and provide them with noticing on the form and use of such structures. Schmidt's 1993 noticing hypothesis offers support for such claims " (...) target language forms will not be acquired unless they are noticed , and one important way that instruction works is by increasing the salience of target language forms in input so that they are more likely to be noticed by learners" (p. 217).

In the present study, saliency of the target structure through underlining seemed to be perceptual for learners, if the results of the posttests are taken into account. Both for the written and for the oral posttests, the mean of accurate judgments and production of sentences with the target structure got a prominent increase: around 6 points from pre- to post-written-test, and 9 points from pre- to post-oral-test.

Other studies which suggested that input enhancement may be beneficial for provoking noticing were Izumi (2002) and Doughty (1991). Izumi (2002) presented results of positive impact of enhancement on the noticing of the target form items on the input for one group of participants, in spite of their failing to show gains in learning. Doughty (1991) presented results which indicated that "increasing the salience of the target forms was as successful as providing metalinguistic descriptions in fostering acquisition of relative clause structures" (Schmidt, 1990, p, 219).

Also, the success achieved in the present study may be related to the great length and exposure to input over the treatment sessions. Combs (2008) posed that studies with input enhancement which involved limited exposure to input in short-time treatments should not expect processing of the input, since learners were not provided with sufficient time for such mental development.

Butler (2002) inferred, through the interviews participants answered in the study, that learners had different hypotheses which they employed to make sense of the complicated English article system: “successive and systematic instruction could be most effective for those learners who exhibit confusion and struggle to capture the workings of the article system”. (p. 476)

4.2.3 The use of the definite article

As already mentioned in Chapter 2, section 2.2.4, and also according to Butler (2002), the definite article is the most frequent word in the use of the English Language. Such ranking position is also confirmed by *The Oxford English Corpus*, which represents all types of English from all parts of the world. On the website of *Oxford Dictionaries*, it is stated that “the humble word ‘the’, the commonest in the written language, accounts for almost 100 million of all the words in the corpus” (“Two billion words?”, para. 1).

The definite article is a word of function, which is used to join other words in a sentence and establish meaningful relationships. Due to its functional nature, the definite article comes to be a complex structure for non-native learners to learn. This structure can also be used according to the speaker’s attitude, as well to convey different meanings in a sentence.

Statistical results provided in subsection 4.1.4 showed an increase for the correct use of the targeted structure in the three cases approached in this study, both for written and oral tests.

For the written tests, the case of the target structure that increased the most was the first one, which tackled the use of the zero article to convey genericity: \emptyset +*plural noun*. The mean was from less than 20 in the pretest to 80 in the posttest. These numbers indicate that participants in this study were able to improve their knowledge of such “use” of the definite article: absence of it with plural countable nouns to convey genericity. For Brazilian learners of English, such numbers can be considered positive, once “there is evidence that bare plurals (\emptyset

crianças são indígenas) and definite plurals (*as crianças são indígenas*) with generic readings can also coexist in Brazilian Portuguese” (Ionin & Montrul, 2010). In English, however, genericity is expressed by bare plurals. In this case, participants were able to use the bare plural to convey genericity, applying the structural concept of the English language properly, and avoiding the influence of their native language.

The+noun made definite by the addition of a phrase, to express specificity, was the case of the target structure which had the second most positive result for the written tests. The mean was from approaching 40 in the pretest to approaching 80 in the posttest. This case seemed to be the most clear for the learners to notice, as it was reported in the stimulated recall interview:

The second case of the target structure dealt in this study, *the+singular noun* to convey genericity, was the one which got the third best improvement from written pre to posttests. The mean was from 40 in the pretest to approaching 80 in the posttest. Singular NPs, according to Ionin and Montrul (2010), are used with the definite article to express genericity but, depending on the predicate, they can also point to a specific meaning of the NP. In the present study, the case which was tackled was the use of the definite article +singular NP to convey genericity only. Then, this structure might have caused some doubts for the participants, once in Portuguese this structure is not widely used in the same sense. In Brazilian Portuguese it is more common to use definite article+plural noun (*as crianças são indígenas*) to express genericity, than the definite article+singular noun (*a criança é indígena*).

Considering the oral production, results involving the use of the three cases of the target structure dealt in this study, were also meaningful from pre to posttests.

This time, correctness in the production of the third case of the target structure (*the+noun made definite by the addition of a phrase*, to convey specificity) was higher than for the other two cases. The mean in the pretest was approaching 280, while in the posttest was higher than 500. Butler (2002) also had results indicating that specific reference was a feature of referentiality which posed fewer problems for learners, in a study which attempted to provide a clearer picture of how L2 learners acquire the English article system.

The case targeted structure which had the second most gain from pre to posttest, concerning the speech production, was the first one. The mean in the pre-test was around 30, whereas for the post test was 170. This result can be considered a very positive gain, if one were to

consider the structure of Portuguese and English. Schmidt and Frota (1986) observed that “Geographical names (neighborhoods, cities, states, countries) and some other proper nouns (such as names of institutions) cause difficulties because they usually do not require articles in English but usually do in Portuguese” (p. 253). In this sense, it is assumed that Portuguese requires the use of the definite article in more situations than in English, which can lead the learner to transfer native language concepts to the L2, when in process of learning. The consequence of such transfer may pose difficulties for the learning of the second language. In the present study, however, learners were not influenced by this feature of their native language, and produced a higher number of correct sentences using \varnothing +*plural countable nouns* to convey genericity.

As well as for the written posttest, the second case of the target structure dealt in this study (*the+singular noun* to convey genericity) was the one which learners showed less improvement in the oral post-test. The mean for the pre-test was of 26, whereas for the post-test was of 61. As already discussed for the written post-test results, “English does use definite articles for generic interpretation when it comes to singular NPs” (Ionin & Montrul, 2010, p. 883), the same language feature does not apply so strongly to Brazilian Portuguese, which might have cause doubt for the Brazilian participants.

According to the results, participants displayed learning gains for all the three cases of the target structure which were tackled in the present study. In the written mode, the case with prominent positive results was the use of \varnothing +*plural noun* to convey genericity, whereas for the oral mode the case *the+noun made definite by the addition of a phrase* was the one which increased the most. In spite of such facts, it is acknowledgeable that articles constitute a complex part of the English language, posing challenges for learners as well as for researchers and teachers.

The discussion provided in this section demonstrates that it is possible to learn some cases regarding the use of the definite article in English. The problems learners have to use the definite article, however, may be one of the most difficult linguistic features for SLA researchers and EFL teachers to explain. Butler (2002) has posited that “Although it is well-known that many second language (L2) learners have trouble using articles ‘properly’, the primary causes of their difficulties remain unclear” (p. 451).

4.3 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

This section presents the summary of the results, addressing the proposed research question.

4.3.1 Readdressing the research question

The present study pursued the following research question:

RQ1: Are there effects of noticing on L2 learners' oral output?

According to the results demonstrated by the statistical analyses, noticing and oral production had a positive and moderate correlation. The positive nature of the correlation means that when one variable increases, the other increases along; and the moderate nature means that the level of relationship between them is statistically moderate. In this sense, the answer for the research question proposed in this study is affirmative. Thus, the hypothesis 1a, which stated that the mean of the oral pre-tests would be higher than the mean of the oral post-tests, can be rejected. Hypothesis 1b, which stated that the mean of the oral pre-tests would be lower than the mean of the oral post-tests, indicating that noticing influences learners' oral output, can be accepted, since the mean for the oral pre-test was of 7,4 and for the oral post-test was of 16,8.

In this sense, Schmidt and Frota's (1986, p.313) claim that "those who notice most, learn most", is supported by the results of the study.

The next Chapter presents the final remarks for this research: a summary of findings, limitations and suggestions for further research, and pedagogical implications.

5. FINAL REMARKS

The objective of this study was to investigate if noticing of a grammatical structure, stimulated by textual enhancement, could provide accurate oral production of the structure. In this Chapter, section 5.1 presents the summary of findings of the present study; section 5.2. presents the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research; and section 5.3 presents the pedagogical implications of the findings.

5.1 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

As the results of data analysis demonstrated, the main findings of this study are:

Finding 1: Noticing has a positive on the accuracy of L2 speech production, in hand with studies like Bergsleithner (2007) and Schmidt and Frota (1986), at least with respect to the use of the definite article in English.

Finding 2: The use of enhanced input as a pedagogical technique to drive learners' attention to the target structure was suitable, in hand with previous studies like Doughty (1991) and Baleghizadeh and Derakhshesh (2012).

Finding 3: In spite of the lack of or the weak saliency presented by the target structure under investigation, results pointed to learning gains regarding the use of the structure. From the three cases tackled – (1) absence of the definite article to convey genericity, (2) obligatory use of the definite article+singular noun to convey genericity, and (3) obligatory use of the definite article+noun made definite by the addition of a phrase, to convey specificity – the one which presented more significant results for learners' performance in the written tests was case (1), whereas for the oral tests, the case which learners uttered more accurately was case (3). The higher scores in the written posttests for case (1) represented a challenge for the present study, since the absence of the target structure does not show any salience. All the same, the treatment activities seemed to be important for participants to improve their performance. The results obtained for the oral use of the structure the+ noun made definite by the addition of a phrase – case (3) – were also important for the present study, since the weak saliency in the input makes it difficult to be enhanced and then noticed by learners. However, the learners of the present study overcame this difficulty. As already mentioned, the definite article is the most frequent word/structure in the

English language, but such characteristic does not guarantee accurate use regarding form and meaning. In the present study, input enhancement seemed to play a crucial role in the positive results that were obtained, since the conversational activities employed presented accurate repetition of the target structure and learners' attention was drawn to the target form through underlining. For Han et al. (2008) the activity needs to be designed with a necessary balance between the frequency and the technique employed to make the target structure salient. For Han et al (2008, p.611), the frequency of the target forms in the input generate saliency and, the more salient such forms are, the higher their chances of promoting noticing. This seems to have been the case in the present study.

5.2 LIMITATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

With a view to contributing to the area of SLA in what regards the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 2001, 2010), which “has been very influential and it is now regarded as a mainstream SLA construct” (Yoshioka et al, 2013, p.7), this study was carried out to investigate the effects of noticing on the oral output of L2-English learners.

Studies involving noticing have already shown clear evidence of learning an L2 when this attentional process is triggered (e.g. Schmidt & Frota 1986; Doughty, 1991, Robinson, 1997; Leow, 2010; Rashtchi & Guaranli, 2010; Cerqueira 2011, Khatib and Alizadeh, 2012; Ellis & Mifka-Profozic, 2013; Calderón, 2013; Frota & Bergsleithner, 2013; Simard & Foucambert, 2013; Bergsleithner & Mota, 2013; among others). The present study, thus, intended to contribute to this group of studies. However, the results obtained in the present study should be treated with caution, since many issues are still to be investigated. Thus, the following limitations and suggestions for further research are presented:

1. The three cases of the target structure. Only three cases of use of the target structure were tapped in this study – (1) absence of the definite article to convey genericity, (2) obligatory use of the definite article+singular noun-phrase to convey genericity, and (3) obligatory use of the definite article+noun+cataphor to convey specificity. The definite article involves many other uses in English, which could be treated in another research.

2. The enhancement technique employed and the ability which was aimed at. This study used textual enhancement aiming at developing the ability of speaking. Further research could employ enhancement of input through two different modes of communication in order to develop the same ability. Effects of textual enhancement could be compared to effects of aural enhancement of the input for the improving of speaking.

3. The delayed posttest. This study presented statistically significant results concerning the posttests, which were applied right after the last treatment session. The question which arises, however, is whether these effects are long-term. In order to answer that, a delayed posttest should have been applied. In a future research, a posttest could be applied around two weeks after the last treatment session.

4. The control group. The present study did not involve a control group. A control group would have been compared with the experimental group and the results could apply a greater validity to the research.

5. The way noticing was measured. Baltra (as cited in Schmidt and Frota, 1986, p. 238) had already stated that it is not possible for us to observe what mental processes occur in another person's mind, and that we should not assume that we know what goes on in our own. Likewise, Schmidt and Frota (1986, p.238) had acknowledged the weakness of self-report data, which can be idiosyncratic and of dubious generalizability. In spite of that, along more than two decades of the Noticing Hypothesis, self reports have been kept as a means to measure noticing. Researchers have theorized on self reports and have used them to improve the proceduralization of noticing. Online measures of noticing – which are applied while learners are processing the data – like the think-aloud protocols; and the offline measures of noticing, – questionnaires applied after the data have been processed, through stimulated recall interviews, or retrospective questionnaires – are procedures which have been seeding controversial results regarding the assessment of noticing. Robinson (1995) has offered some support for the offline approach by developing a framework which consists in a yes/no questionnaire to be applied after exposure to treatment, and in order to assess noticing. Part of this approach was adopted in the present research, in which noticing was measured through an offline questionnaire elaborated by me, in order to direct learner's attention to specific meanings of the three cases carried by the aimed structure. For Leow (2013, p.13) the offline process of checking noticing works "at the

stage of retrieval or reconstruction”. However, Leow (2013) suggests two simultaneous online measures for noticing, eye-tracking and oral protocols, which the autor posed as “the more appropriate methodological procedure to minimally established the process of attention (via eye-tracking) and (levels of) awareness (via think-alouds)” (p. 19). Further research could apply the eye-tracking technique together with other offline measures in order to assess noticing more effectively.

5.3 PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

As previously stated, this study aimed at investigating the effects of noticing on the oral production of English as a foreign language.

According to the results, the instructional treatment which was employed to reach this objective seemed to be effective. The participants (19 concerning the written tests, and 44 concerning the oral tests) showed improvement in the correct use of the target structure. Also, there was a positive moderate relationship between both variables tackled in this study, noticing and speaking.

Furthermore, and also according to the results previously mentioned, the pedagogical technique chosen in order to drive participants’ attention to form, the underlining of the input, seemed to function for such objective. Hence, this study has some pedagogical implications regarding the employment of planned focus on form instruction, indicating that such planned treatment may have positive outcomes for learners’s development of their L2.

This study also demonstrated that applying textual enhancement to provoke noticing, and possible consequent learning of form and meaning, is an easy measure to implement in order to improve learners’ oral output in English.

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Appendix A

Consent Letter – Permission for data collection



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
PPGI – Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês: Estudos
Linguísticos e Literários

Rio Negrinho, julho de 2013.

Para:

De: Viviani Catia Nogueira – UFSC/PPGI

Ref.: Permissão para coleta de dados

Prezada Professora,

Eu, Viviani Catia Nogueira, aluna de mestrado do Programa de Pós-graduação em Inglês: Estudos Linguísticos e Literários, sob supervisão da Professora Dra. Mailce Borges Mota, venho solicitar sua permissão para coletar dados referentes a minha pesquisa junto aos alunos deste centro de ensino. A coleta de dados faz parte da minha pesquisa de mestrado, intitulada “Efeitos da percepção consciente na produção oral em inglês como língua estrangeira”.

A participação dos alunos é voluntária e todos os participantes terão sua identidade preservada. Os instrumentos da coleta de dados consistem de: (1) um questionário para delinear o perfil dos participantes; (2) dois pré-testes, um escrito e um oral; (3) quatro atividades de tratamento, cada uma de aproximadamente 50 minutos; e (4) dois pós-testes. Toda a coleta de dados será realizada em horários alternativos ao horário de aula dos participantes, e de acordo com a possibilidade deles.

Certa de sua colaboração, desde já agradeço.

Viviani Catia Nogueira

Mailce Borges Mota

Appendix B

Consent letter for underage participants



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido - Pais

Prezados pais,

Eu, Viviani Catia Nogueira venho, por meio desta carta, solicitar a sua autorização para a participação de seu filho(a), aluno(a) desta instituição, _____, na realização de uma importante etapa de minha pesquisa de Mestrado. Sou aluna do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês: Estudos Linguísticos e Literários, da Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina (UFSC – Matrícula 201201177), meu trabalho se concentra na área de Aprendizagem de Língua Estrangeira e é orientado pela Professora Doutora Mailce Borges Mota.

Seu filho(a) está sendo convidado(a) para participar desta pesquisa sobre percepção e aprendizagem de língua inglesa porque ele é um estudante de inglês como língua estrangeira e está matriculado nesta instituição. A pesquisa tem por objetivo investigar os efeitos da percepção na aprendizagem do inglês como língua estrangeira, com foco no desenvolvimento da habilidade oral. Alguns estudos já realizados mostram que a percepção consciente do aprendiz produz efeitos positivos para a aprendizagem da língua inglesa, entretanto, mais pesquisas são necessárias para que melhor possamos entender o papel da percepção consciente na aprendizagem da língua estrangeira e no desenvolvimento da habilidade oral.

Seu filho será solicitado a desempenhar as seguintes tarefas: (1) preencher um questionário de perfil do participante; (2) realizar um pré-teste escrito; (3) realizar um pré-teste oral, no qual ele terá a voz gravada; (4) participar de quatro atividades de conversação; (5) preencher uma pequena entrevista após cada atividade de conversação; (6) realizar um pós-teste escrito; e (7) realizar um pós-teste oral, no qual ele terá a voz gravada. Os procedimentos serão realizados na escola e

aplicados pela própria pesquisadora, durante o período de férias e em horários previamente marcados.

Participar da pesquisa não oferece nenhum risco ao seu filho(a). Pelo contrário, as atividades propostas nesta pesquisa enriquecerão os conhecimentos de língua inglesa. Além disso, após a coleta de dados, a pesquisadora propiciará um retorno em relação à atuação do seu filho(a) nas atividades desenvolvidas.

Mesmo que seu filho(a) e você(s) tenham consentido participar da pesquisa e por algum motivo seu filho(a) não queira mais fazê-lo, ele(a) pode desistir a qualquer momento, bastando apenas comunicar a pesquisadora. Em caso de dúvidas ou sugestões, o contato com a pesquisadora pode ser feito através do e-mail vivianinog@gmail.com, ou dos telefones (47)3644-8908 / (47) 9926-8057.

Assinando o consentimento informado, você estará autorizando seu filho(a) a participar da nossa pesquisa. Muito obrigada,

Viviani Catia Nogueira
(pesquisadora)

Mailce Borges Mota
(orientadora)

Consentimento Informado – Autorização

Eu, _____ (nome completo do pai/mãe), autorizo meu filho(a) _____ (nome completo do filho) a participar da pesquisa “Efeitos da Percepção Consciente na Produção Oral em Inglês como Língua Estrangeira”, e concordo que os dados coletados sejam utilizados para a realização da mesma.

Rio Negrinho, _____ de _____ de 2013.

Assinatura: _____

Appendix C

Consent letter for adult participants



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Termo de Consentimento Livre e Esclarecido – Participantes

Prezado participante,

Você está sendo convidado para participar de um projeto de pesquisa sobre percepção e aprendizagem em língua inglesa. Você foi selecionado porque você é estudante de língua inglesa e está matriculado nesta instituição. Este estudo, intitulado “Efeitos da Percepção Consciente na Produção Oral em Inglês como Língua Estrangeira” está sendo conduzido por mim, Viviani Catia Nogueira, aluna do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Inglês: Estudos Linguísticos e Literários, da Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina (UFSC – Matrícula 201201177), e orientado pela Professora Doutora Mailce Borges Mota.

Objetivo da Pesquisa:

A pesquisa tem por objetivo investigar os efeitos da percepção na aprendizagem do inglês como língua estrangeira, com foco no desenvolvimento da habilidade oral. Alguns estudos já realizados mostram que a percepção consciente do aprendiz produz efeitos positivos para a aprendizagem da língua inglesa, entretanto, mais pesquisas são necessárias para que melhor possamos entender o papel da percepção consciente na aprendizagem da língua estrangeira e no desenvolvimento da habilidade oral.

Procedimentos:

Você será solicitado a desempenhar as seguintes tarefas: (1) preencher um questionário de perfil do participante; (2) realizar um pré-teste escrito; (3) realizar um pré-teste oral, no qual você terá a voz gravada; (4) participar de quatro atividades de conversação; (5) preencher uma pequena entrevista após cada atividade de conversação; (6) realizar um pós-teste escrito; e (7) realizar um pós-teste oral, no qual você terá a voz gravada. Os procedimentos serão realizados na escola e aplicados pela própria pesquisadora, durante o período de férias e em horários previamente marcados.

Riscos:

Participar da pesquisa não oferece nenhum risco a você. Pelo contrário, as atividades propostas nesta pesquisa enriquecerão seus conhecimentos de língua inglesa. Além disso, após a coleta de dados, a pesquisadora propiciará um retorno em relação à sua atuação nas atividades desenvolvidas.

Confidencialidade:

Os dados coletados nesta pesquisa serão usados na minha dissertação de mestrado, porém, o total acesso a eles será confiado somente a mim (pesquisadora) e a minha orientadora. Não será incluída nenhuma informação que possa identificá-lo(a) e a sua identidade será totalmente preservada.

Natureza voluntária:

Mesmo que você tenha consentido participar da pesquisa e por algum motivo não queira mais fazê-lo, você pode desistir a qualquer momento, desde que comunique a pesquisadora. Em caso de dúvidas ou sugestões, o contato com a pesquisadora pode ser feito através do e-mail vivianinog@gmail.com, ou dos telefones (47)3644-8908 / (47) 9926-8057.

Assinando o consentimento informado, você estará autorizando a pesquisadora a utilizar os seus dados na pesquisa. Muito obrigada,

Viviani Catia Nogueira
(pesquisadora)

Mailce Borges Mota
(orientadora)

Consentimento Informado – Autorização

Eu, _____ (nome completo), concordo em participar da pesquisa “Efeitos da Percepção Consciente na Produção Oral em Inglês como Língua Estrangeira”, e autorizo a pesquisadora a utilizar os dados coletados para a realização da mesma.

Rio Negrinho, _____ de _____ de 2013.

Assinatura: _____

Appendix D

Personal Information and Language Background Questionnaire



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

Questionário Biográfico e de Experiência Linguística

Este questionário é parte da pesquisa intitulada “Efeitos da percepção consciente na produção oral em inglês como língua estrangeira.”

Preencha as informações a seguir com seus dados.

Seção 1: Informações Pessoais do Participante

Nome _____ completo:

Idade: _____ Nacionalidade: _____ Sexo: () M () F

Ocupação atual: _____

Informações para contato:

Telefones _____ E-mail _____

Seção 2: Informações sobre a Experiência Linguística do Participante

1. Há quanto tempo você tem interesse pela língua inglesa?

2. Há quanto tempo você começou a estudá-la formalmente (em curso de idiomas e/ou escola regular)?

3. Você estuda inglês em alguma escola/curso de idiomas? Qual? Em que nível você está?

4. Que tipo de contato você tem com a língua inglesa com o objetivo de desenvolver o seu conhecimento da língua? Marque quantas alternativas desejar.

através de filmes, seriados, músicas, jogos de vídeo game, internet, TV, rádio

através de conversa com pessoa fluente em inglês ou falante nativo de inglês

através de cursos extras

outro, especifique: _____

E, qual das formas de contato descritas acima você percebe como mais eficiente? Escreva quantas quiser aqui: _____

5. Você dedica quanto do seu tempo para o estudo do inglês extraclasse?

nenhum até 1h por semana

até 2h por semana mais de 2h por semana

6. Qual habilidade você tem mais interesse em desenvolver? Marque números de 1 a 4, sendo: 1, para muito interesse; 2, para bastante interesse; 3, para um tanto de interesse; e 4, para pouco interesse.

Leitura em língua inglesa Escrita em língua inglesa

Compreensão oral em língua inglesa Expressão oral em língua inglesa

7. Na sala de aula, que atividades você percebe como eficientes para a sua aprendizagem? Marque quantas alternativas desejar.

atividades que promovam oportunidades para desenvolver a comunicação oral.

atividades que promovam oportunidades para desenvolver conhecimentos de gramática e vocabulário.

atividades que promovam o desenvolvimento da comunicação escrita.

atividades que promovam o desenvolvimento da compreensão oral da língua na comunicação.

8. Você possui/ possuiu contato com falantes nativos de inglês?

sim não

9. Você já esteve em algum país de língua inglesa?

Se sim, por quanto tempo? menos de 2 meses até 6 meses

de 6 meses a 2 anos mais de 2 anos

não

10. Por que você está aprendendo inglês? Marque quantas alternativas desejar.

para viajar por motivo profissional por motivo de lazer

para aperfeiçoamento nos estudos outro, especifique: _____

11. Na sua opinião, o inglês é importante no mundo de hoje? Por quê?

Thank you! 😊

Appendix E

Pre-Test 1 – Written Test



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

Pré-teste 1 – Escrito (based on Ionin, T. and Montrul, S., 2010)

Complete Name: _____

Instructions:

Correct the sentences below by inserting or removing only one word.
Rewrite the whole sentence in the line provided.

Example:

Kids playing computer games are my nephews.

The kids playing computer games are my nephews.

1. Kelly is talking her husband, but he is paying attention to the news.

2. Gary is living on the beach and his children swimming now.

3. Ring is a beautiful gift to give to a woman.

4. The doctors are well paid professionals.

5. Giraffe uses its long neck to eat leaves from high trees.

6. Becky has favorite song and she listens to it every day.

7. Chris's cat is sleeping under the bed is for hours!

8. Dalmatian of my neighbor plays with cats all the time.

9. The teachers are hardworking people.

10. Car is a dangerous means of transportation.

11. The boys are running the garden and playing with a ball.

12. The President of Brazil visiting China this week.

13. Alice saw little boy who was eating an apple.

14. The teenagers like listening to music.

15. Elevator was a great invention.

16. Girls sitting over there study English.

17. Movie can be a very interesting kind of entertainment.

18. Janice is moving to her new house and meeting is new neighbors.

19. Robin went by the store for to buy an umbrella.

20. Anna's favorite song brings with her good memories.

21. The actors and actresses are very famous people.

22. Chicken I saw yesterday had three legs.

23. Caterpillar of Alice's story smokes.

24. The students are meeting people are from different countries.

25. Professor Smith opened at the classroom door and a student came in.

26. Radio is an old means of communication.

27. The scientists are extremely intelligent people.

28. Snake frightens people.

29. Unknown person has entered my house.

30. Cats of my street are black and white.

Thank you😊

Appendix F

Pre-Test 2 – Oral Test

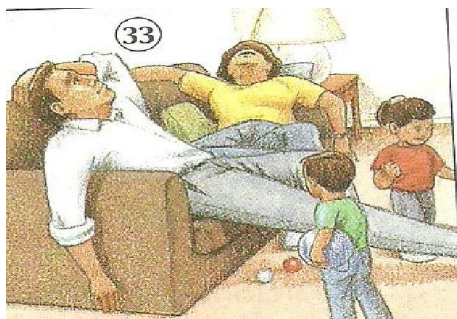


Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Pré-teste 2 - Oral

Instrução

Você vai tirar alguns cartões de uma pilha de cartões virados para baixo. Alguns cartões possuem palavras e outros possuem figuras. Veja os exemplos que a pesquisadora está mostrando. Observe o conteúdo do cartão e fale uma frase/faça um comentário que contenha a palavra que você está vendo, ou descreva a situação/lugar que você está vendo na figura. Fale uma frase ou faça um comentário, algo que venha a sua cabeça de imediato. (Todas as imagens desta atividade foram retiradas do livro *The Oxford Picture Dictionary*, de Shapiro, N. e Adelson-Goldstein, J., 1998).

Exemplos:



radio

cat

computer

bicycles

restaurants

planet

friends

dogs

tv

E.T

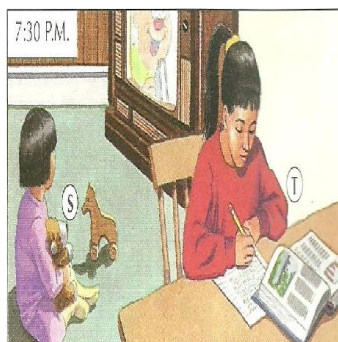
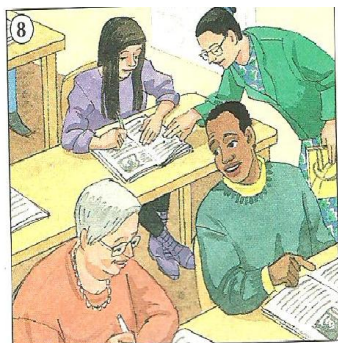
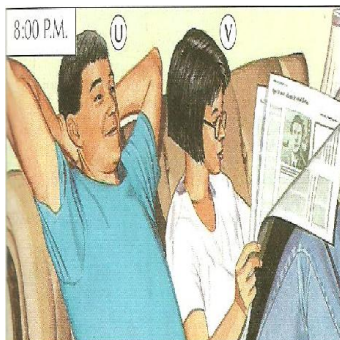
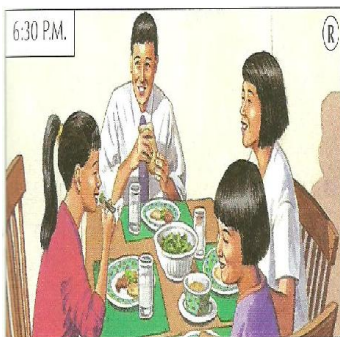
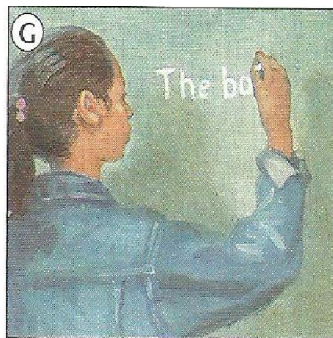
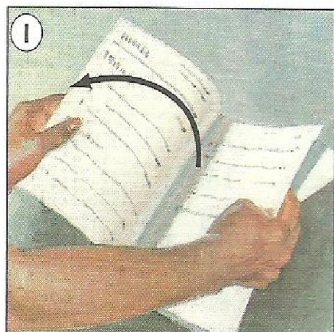
cars

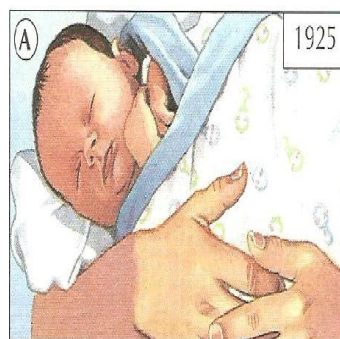
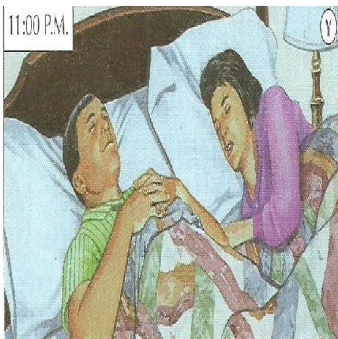
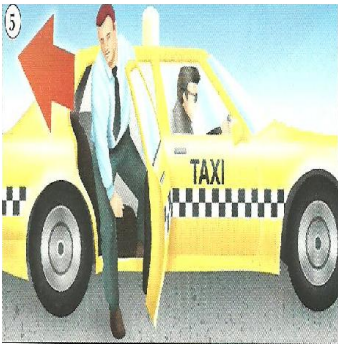
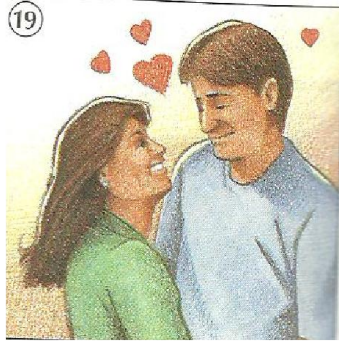
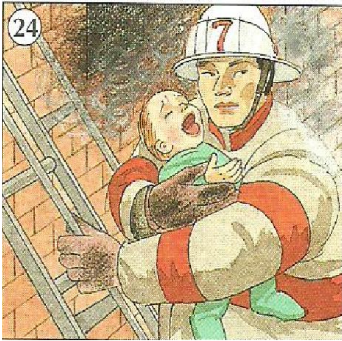
books

city

girl

cellphones







Appendix G

Treatment Activity 1



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Atividade de Tratamento 1

Instrução

Você e o seu colega estão recebendo 40 cartões. Cada cartão contém um ou dois comentários sobre um animal, uma ou duas perguntas sobre ele e uma figura dele. Veja o exemplo abaixo. Coloquem os cartões em uma pilha e virados para baixo na carteira. Vocês devem virar um cartão de cada vez, alternando as vezes entre vocês, de modo que cada um vire 20 cartões. Vocês devem produzir uma conversação, respondendo às perguntas e observando as figuras. Preste bastante atenção nas perguntas, pois há regras a serem descobertas. Observe o exemplo. (Todas as imagens desta atividade foram retiradas do Google Images).

☞ Dogs are known to be friendly animals.

The dog can take care of your house when you are not home.

Do you like dogs?

Do you like the dog in the picture? Why (not)?



☞ Lions are dangerous.

The lion is one of the strongest animals in the world.

Do you agree?

Are the lions in the picture dangerous? Why (not)?



☞ Cats used to be sacred animals in the Ancient Egypt.

The cat can catch its prey with a lot of success.

What's your opinion about cats?

Are the cats in this picture cute? Why (not)?



☞ Birds sing beautifully.

The bird has a happy life, since it has the whole sky for it.

Don't you think?

Do you think the bird in this picture sing beautifully? Why (not)?



☞ Butterflies make our days more colorful.

The butterfly prefers to live in warmer climates.

Do you enjoy butterflies?

Do you enjoy the butterfly in the picture? Why (not)?



☒ Elephants are heavy animals.

The elephant is the largest known mammal on land.

Do you think the elephants in the picture are heavy too?
Why (not)?



☒ Giraffes are very tall animals.

The giraffe uses its long neck to eat leaves from high trees.

What's your opinion about giraffes?

Are the giraffes in this picture tall or short? Why (not)?



☹ Flies are considered pests worldwide.

The fly is considered an irritating insect in some people's opinion.

Do you agree?

Is the fly in this picture irritating too? Why (not)?



☹ Dodos are extinct birds.

The dodo could not fly.

What can you tell me about the dodo you see in the picture?



☞ Chickens were domesticated more than ten thousand years ago.

The chicken is part of the highest population of birds in the world.

What would people use the chicken of the picture for?
Why?



☞ Cows are natural resources of milk, meat and leather.

The cow is seen as a sacred animal in India.

Do you like the cows in the picture? Why (not)?



☞ Fish are found in many sizes, colors and species.

The fish can eat plankton, insects or smaller fish.

Would you like to have the fish in the picture? Why (not)?



☞ Guinea Pigs are used as food for some people in South America.

The Guinea Pig is kept as a pet in many countries of the world.

Would you eat the Guinea Pig in the picture? Why (not)?



☒ Horses are domesticated around the world for many reasons.

The horse can live for about 30 years.

Is the horse in the picture old? Why (not)?



☒ Iguanas have an excellent sight and use it to communicate with other iguanas.

The iguana is considered an exotic pet.

Would you like to have the iguana in the picture? Why (not)?



☉ Koalas live in forests in Australia.

The koala spends almost all of its life in the trees.

Is the koala in the picture a nice animal? Why (not)?



☉ Mice are found in all the corners of the globe.

The mouse can be a small and quiet pet.

Would you have the mouse of the picture as a pet? Why (not)?



☞ Monkeys are very funny animals.

The monkey peels the banana before eating it.

What's your opinion about the monkey in the picture?
Why?



☞ Parrots can mimic sounds or even talk.

The parrot is kept as a pet in many houses.

Would you like to talk to the parrot in the picture? Why
(not)?



Q Penguins can obtain all of its food from the sea.

The penguin can't fly but it can jump!

Can the penguin in the picture jump? Why do you think so?



Q Pigs live in farms all over the world.

The pig, when kept in the right condition, is a relatively clean animal.

Is the pig in the picture clean too? Why (not)?



☒ Rabbits eat grass to keep their teeth healthy.

The rabbit is a lovely animal.

Don't you think the rabbit in the picture is lovely? Why (not)?



☒ Rhinoceroses are large mammals native to Africa and Asia.

The rhinoceros has relatively poor eyesight.

Have you ever seen a rhinoceros?

Would you like to see the rhinoceros of the picture close to you? Why (not)?



☞ Shrimps are tiny in size.

The shrimp is considered delicious seafood.

Do you like to eat shrimps?

Is the shrimp in the picture delicious? Why (not)?



☞ Snakes do not live in the polar regions, where it is too cold for them.

The snake frightens people.

Are you afraid of the snake in the

picture? Why (not)?



☞ Tigers have no limits to catch their prey.

The tiger is a fast and strong animal.

How can you describe the tiger in the picture?



☞ Alligators have a long and heavy tail.

The alligator has two sets of eyelids.

What's your opinion about the alligator in the picture?

Why?



☞ Ants don't have bones.

The ant is a very hardworking insect.

Do you think the ant in the picture is hardworking too?
Why (not)?



☞ Bears are nocturnal and solitary animals.

The bear loves eating fish.

What do you think of the bear in the picture? Why?



o Beetles appear everywhere.

The beetle can be brown, black, yellow, blue, red or green.

How can you describe the beetle in the picture?



o Cheetahs are found in Africa, Asia and in parts of Europe.

The cheetah is the fastest animal in the world.

Would you run with the cheetah in the picture? Why (not)?



☞ Dolphins are found in warmer seas worldwide.

The dolphin swims very fast.

Would you like to swim with the dolphins in the picture?
Why (not)?



☞ Donkeys are loyal and good friends.

The donkey is used to carrying heavy loads.

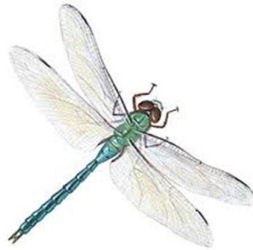
Would you take a ride on the donkey in the picture? Why
(not)?



☞ Dragonflies fly to you when you deal with water.

The baby dragonfly can produce a painful bite for humans.

How can you describe the wings of the dragonfly in the picture?



☞ Ducks feed on aquatic plants, small fish and insects.

The female duck quacks a lot.

Are the ducks in the picture quacking? Why do you think so?



☒ Toads are more active in wet weather.

The toad is an important animal for the nature.

Is the toad in the picture important too? Why (not)?



☒ Goats prefer to live in mountainous areas.

The goat produces good milk.

Would you drink the milk of the goat in the picture? Why (not)?



o Sheep feed on grass and berries.

The sheep produces wool to keep us warm.

Do you want the wool of the sheep in the picture? Why (not)?



Kangaroos eat plants, nuts, berries and insects.

The kangaroo doesn't live in Brazil.

Would you like to see the kangaroo of the picture jumping on your street?

Why (not)?



Appendix H

Stimulated Recall Interview - 1



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

Entrevista de Estimulação da Memória – referente à atividade 1

Nome Completo: _____

Responda às questões abaixo com as suas impressões

1. O que você percebeu na atividade 1, quando você e seu colega conversaram sobre os animais das figuras que estavam logo abaixo? Você percebeu algo diferente nas perguntas? Isso chamou a sua atenção para aprender algo em inglês? O quê?

2. Observe os pares de frases e marque um X nos parênteses da frase que você percebe como correta.

a. The teachers are hardworking people. ()
 Teachers are hardworking people. ()

b. Giraffe uses its long neck to eat leaves from high trees. ()
 The giraffe uses its long neck to eat leaves from high trees. ()

c. Caterpillar of Alice's story smokes. ()
 The caterpillar of Alice's story smokes. ()

3. Como você corrigiria um colega que diz:

"The pandas live in China and eat bamboo."

Appendix I

Treatment Activity 2








Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Atividade de Tratamento 2

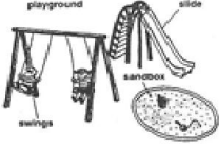



Instrução


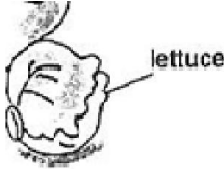


Esta atividade deve ser feita em trios. Vocês estão recebendo 12 conjuntos de cartões, cada um contendo três cartões (A, B e C). Os cartões A e B possuem frases inacabadas, e o cartão C, além de uma frase inacabada, possui uma figura que deve ser relacionada à frase. Vocês devem expressar suas opiniões ou criar histórias, seguindo a sequência A, B, C de cada conjunto de cartões, lendo o início da frase em voz alta e completando-a com as suas ideias. A cada novo conjunto de cartões, ao distribuí-los, vocês devem alternar os cartões (A, B, C), para que todos produzam frases usando as três diferentes estruturas em suas falas. Sejam coerentes nas histórias e tentem associar suas opiniões tanto aos temas dos cartões quanto às falas dos seus colegas! Prestem bastante atenção nas frases inacabadas dos cartões, pois há regras a serem descobertas. (Todas as imagens desta atividade foram retiradas do livro *English for Everyday Activities*, de Zwier, L. J., 1999).

Exemplo:

<p>(number) – (letter)</p> <p>∞ Accidents...</p>	<p>(number) (letter)</p> <p>The car...</p>	<p>(number) – (letter)</p> <p>The driver...</p> 
--	--	---

<p>2-A</p> <p>☉ Sports...</p>	<p>2-B</p> <p><u>The athlete...</u></p>	<p>2-C <u>The diet...</u></p> 
<p>3-A</p> <p>☉ Pets...</p>	<p>3-B</p> <p><u>The dog...</u></p>	<p>3-C <u>The cat...</u></p> 
<p>4-A</p> <p>☉ Hotels...</p>	<p>4-B</p> <p><u>The breakfast...</u></p>	<p>4-C <u>The bedroom...</u></p> 
<p>1-A</p> <p>☉ Supermarkets...</p>	<p>1-B</p> <p><u>The product...</u></p>	<p>1-C <u>The prices...</u></p> 

<p>5-A</p> <p>⊗ Apartments...</p>	<p>5-B</p> <p>The elevator...</p>	<p>5-C The playground...</p> 
<p>6-A</p> <p>⊗ Movies...</p>	<p>6-B</p> <p>The popcorn...</p>	<p>6-C The seats...</p> 
<p>7-A</p> <p>⊗ Parties...</p>	<p>7-B</p> <p>The cake...</p>	<p>7-C The guests...</p> 
<p>8-A</p> <p>⊗ Cars...</p>	<p>8-B</p> <p>The tire...</p>	<p>8-C The mechanic...</p> 

<p>9-A</p> <p>☉ Songs...</p>	<p>9-B</p> <p>The CD...</p>	<p>9-C The stereo system...</p> 
<p>10-A</p> <p>☉ Vegetables...</p>	<p>10-B</p> <p>The tomato...</p>	<p>10-C The lettuce...</p> 
<p>11-A</p> <p>☉ Letters...</p>	<p>11-B</p> <p>The post office...</p>	<p>11-C The stamp...</p> 
<p>12-A</p> <p>☉ Trees...</p>	<p>12-B</p> <p>The fruit...</p>	<p>12-C The flowers...</p> 

Appendix J

Stimulated Recall Interview - 2



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Entrevista de Estimulação da Memória – referente à

atividade 2

Nome completo: _____

Responda às questões abaixo com as suas impressões

1. O que você percebeu na atividade 2, quando você e seus colegas criaram histórias a partir de frases já iniciadas e de figuras? Você percebeu algo diferente nas frases? Isso chamou a sua atenção para aprender algo em inglês? O quê?

2. Observe os pares de frases e marque um X nos parênteses da frase que você percebe como correta.

a. The doctors are well-paid professionals. ()
Doctors are well-paid professionals. ()

b. The snake frightens people. ()
Snake frightens people. ()

c. Chicken I saw yesterday had three legs. ()
The chicken I saw yesterday had three legs. ()

3. Como você corrigiria um colega que diz:
“*Dog is a loyal animal.*”

Thank you

Appendix K

Treatment Activity 3



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Atividade de Tratamento 3

Instrução

Você e o seu colega estão recebendo dois conjuntos com dezesseis cartas cada. Em um dos conjuntos, existem pequenas e exóticas histórias sobre animais; e, no outro, estão as fotos desses animais. As cartas que contêm as histórias devem ficar em uma pilha e viradas para baixo; as cartas que contêm as fotos devem ficar viradas para cima, e espalhadas na mesa. Alternadamente, você e seu parceiro devem virar uma carta com uma história e lê-la em voz alta, enquanto o parceiro localiza a foto correspondente ao animal falado. As perguntas devem ser feitas pelo participante que leu a história, e o parceiro deve respondê-las tanto de acordo com a história lida. Preste bastante atenção nas histórias e nas perguntas, pois existem regras a serem descobertas. (Histórias baseadas em Ionin, T. and Montrul, S., 2010; exceto as histórias 11 e 13, que foram retiradas de Ionin, T. and Montrul, S, 2010).

(Cartas com as histórias)

Story 1

Last night an unusual thing occurred. I was trying to sleep when I heard voices coming from outside. I opened the window and I saw owls on a post. Their faces were like hearts and they were speaking cheerfully. For me, it was strange, because an owl can't speak, but those owls spoke English!

Questions

Do o owls speak?

Are the faces of the owls in the story like hearts?

Where were the owls?

Do the owls in the story speak English?

Story 2

People believe that some bats feed on animal blood, but it's not totally true. Most part of bats prefers to eat mice. Some Bats can fly very high and can listen to footsteps from 9 km of distance. However, I know a different bat: it drinks orange juice, it doesn't fly and it can't listen to any other sound than rock music.

Questions

What do some bats generally enjoy eating?

What abilities do some bats have?

Does the bat in the story drink orange juice?

What's the bat's favorite kind of music?

Story 3

Some Spiders cause fear in many people. The spider's poison can kill a person. But the spider I have in my house is a different one. When it bites an insect, the insect gets covered with honey!

Questions

Are you afraid of spiders?

Is the spider of this story different?

How different is it?

Story 4

Yesterday, a strange animal was walking on the street. It looked like a turtle, because turtles walk slowly. But its shell was not hard: it was so soft that you could fold it many times! That was a very different turtle.

Questions

Do all turtles walk slowly?

Can you fold the shell of a turtle?

Is the shell of the turtle of this story hard or soft?

Story 5

I didn't believe that fantastic things could happen, but this story happened to me. Last morning I was watering my flowers when a caterpillar appeared. All Caterpillars don't smoke, but that caterpillar was smoking like the one in the story of Alice's Wonderland.

Questions

Do you like caterpillars?

Do all caterpillars smoke?

Was the caterpillar in the story smoking?

Do you know Alice's Wonderland story?

Story 6

People generally like to eat armadillos, but my neighbor doesn't. She has an armadillo pet! Her armadillo is always with her and helps her in many things. It is very weird!

Questions

Do you think armadillos' meat is good?

Does the armadillo in the story help his owner?

Would you like to have an armadillo as a pet?

Do you know what an armadillos eat?

Story 7

Some Chameleons are animals that change the color of their skin. A friend of mine got a chameleon as a birthday gift! Everyone went to her house to see the chameleon, but, for our surprise, the chameleon didn't change the color of its skin... it was only pink all the time.

Questions

Are some chameleons strange things to get as birthday gifts?

Have you ever seen a chameleon?

Is the chameleon of the story different? Why?

Story 8

Some Dalmatians are energetic and playful dogs. They like humans and can be good companions. The Dalmatian I have is a little different; it likes cats and doesn't like humans! It plays with my cats all the time.

Questions

Are some Dalmatians nice dogs?

Do some dogs play with cats?

Why is the Dalmatian of the story different?

Story 9

Last week I watched a cartoon about an eagle. Some Eagles are a symbol of power, but the eagle in the movie was so weak that all the other animals could beat it!

Questions

Are some eagles powerful birds?

How was the eagle in the story described?

Story 10

In our zoo, we have two unusual tigers. Some Tigers eat meat all the time. But our two tigers were vegetarian: they love to eat carrots, and they hate meat.

Questions

What do some tigers do all the time?

Do you know any vegetarian tiger?

Can you describe the tigers of the zoo in the story?

Story 11

Yesterday morning, when I got up to start the day, I found a fox in my kitchen! Some Foxes like to eat meat of other animals, but the one in my kitchen was eating bread! I got scared!

Questions

What happened to the person in the story?

Do some foxes eat bread?

Does the fox in the story like to eat meat?

Story 12

Q Pandas live in China and eat bamboo. But I read a story of a panda that enjoyed eating bananas. This panda also wanted to dye its hair black; it didn't enjoy the white parts of its body.

Questions

What animals like to eat bananas?

What do Q pandas generally eat?

Does the panda in the story like the white parts of its fur?

Is the panda of the story very different? Why?

Story 13

Last night, I saw a movie about two very strange chickens. They have three legs, instead of two! That's so weird. Everyone knows that a chicken normally has two legs!

Questions

How many legs do Q chickens have?

Can you describe the chickens of the story?

Story 14

Fantastic stories sometimes happen. Can you believe if I tell you about a bee which produces milk instead of honey? That is true. Q Bees generally produce honey for people, but this one was producing milk!

Questions

What animals produce milk?

What do Q bees produce?

How about the bee of the story?

Story 15

People think a kiwi is only a kind of fruit, but it isn't. Q Kiwis are birds that can't fly, because they don't have wings. When I went to New Zealand, I saw a different kiwi: it had big wings and it was flying very high.

Questions

Have you ever seen a kiwi?

What is a kiwi?

Do Q kiwis live in New Zealand?

Why is the kiwi of the story different?

Story 16

☹ Ostriches are the biggest birds in the world. In our zoo, however, there is a curious ostrich: it is very short and it runs very fast!

Questions

Are ☹ ostriches tall birds?

Can you imagine a short ostrich?

Is the ostrich in the story different? Why?

(Imagens retiradas do *Google Images*)













Appendix L

Stimulated Recall Interview - 3



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

Entrevista de Estimulação da Memória–referente à atividade 3

Nome completo: _____

Responda às questões abaixo com as suas impressões

1. O que você percebeu na atividade 3, quando você e seu colega conversaram a partir da leitura de histórias exóticas de alguns animais? Você percebeu algo diferente nas perguntas ou no texto lido? Isso chamou a sua atenção para aprender algo em inglês? O quê?

2. Observe os pares de frases e marque um X nos parênteses da frase que você percebe como correta.

a. The teenagers like listening to music. ()

Teenagers like listening to music. ()

b. Car is a dangerous means of transportation. ()

The car is a dangerous means of transportation. ()

c. Dalmatian of my neighbor plays with cats all the time. ()

The Dalmatian of my neighbor plays with cats all the time. ()

3. Como você corrigiria um colega que diz:

“Kiwis from New Zealand are delicious.”

Thank you ☺

Appendix M

Treatment Activity 4



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina
Atividade de Tratamento 4

Esta atividade deve ser feita em grupos de quatro estudantes. Vocês estão recebendo 24 cartões, cada um contendo somente uma frase inacabada, ou uma frase inacabada e uma figura. Os cartões devem ficar organizados em uma pilha, virados para baixo. Alternadamente, cada um de vocês deve tirar um cartão da pilha, ler o início da frase e completá-la oralmente, expondo, para os seus colegas, a sua opinião sobre o assunto do cartão. Uma conversa deve ser gerada a partir da sua opinião, com os seus colegas de grupo concordando ou se opondo a ela e dizendo por quê. Sempre que possível, seja crítico em suas opiniões! Preste bastante atenção nas frases, pois há regras a serem descobertas.

<input type="checkbox"/> Men...	<input type="checkbox"/> Women...	<input type="checkbox"/> Songs...
<input type="checkbox"/> Movies...	<input type="checkbox"/> Books...	<input type="checkbox"/> People...

<u>o</u> Teachers...	<u>o</u> Pets...	<u>The</u> internet...
<u>The</u> planet...	<u>The</u> radio...	<u>The</u> country...
<u>The</u> activity...	<u>The</u> laptop...	<u>The</u> city of Florianópolis...
<u>o</u> Men...	<u>o</u> Women...	<u>o</u> Songs...
<u>The</u> TV...		

The birthday party in the picture...



The boy in the picture...



The girl in the picture...



The house in the picture...



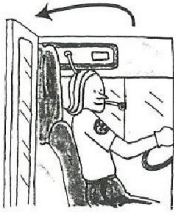
The people in the picture...



The singer in the picture...



The bus driver in the picture...



The literature book in the picture...



Appendix N

Stimulated Recall Interview - 4



Universidade Federal de Santa Catarina

Entrevista de Estimulação da Memória – referente à atividade 4 e a toda a pesquisa.

Nome completo: _____

Responda às questões abaixo com as suas impressões

1. O que você percebeu na atividade 4, quando você e seus colegas conversaram sobre temas diversificados, expondo as suas opiniões? Você percebeu algo diferente nas frases inacabadas? Isso chamou a sua atenção para aprender algo em inglês? O quê?

2. Observe os pares de frases e marque um X nos parênteses da frase que você percebe como correta.

a. The actors and actresses are very famous people. ()
Actors and actresses are very famous people. ()

b. Radio is an old means of communication. ()
The radio is an old means of communication. ()

c. Cats of my street are black and white. ()
The cats of my street are black and white. ()

3. Como você corrigiria um colega que diz:

“City of Rio Negrinho is a pleasant place to live.”

Thank you ☺

Appendix O

Results of written pre and posttests per participant

	PARTICIPANT CODE	WRITTEN RESULTS			
		PRETEST		POSTTEST	
		INCORRECT	CORRECT	INCORRECT	CORRECT
1	02	9	6	0	15
2	03	12	3	4	11
3	05	8	7	1	14
4	10	8	7	1	14
5	11	8	7	3	12
6	14	9	6	5	10
7	18	13	2	13	2
8	20	13	2	0	15
9	21	10	5	4	11
10	26	11	4	4	11
11	28	12	3	4	11
12	29	14	1	4	11
13	38	10	5	0	15
14	40	8	7	2	13
15	45	9	6	1	14
16	46	13	2	5	10
17	47	15	0	1	14
18	49	12	3	3	12
Total		202	83	57	228
		285		285	

Appendix P

Results of oral pre and posttests per participant

	PARTICIPANT CODE	ORAL RESULTS			
		PRE-TEST		POSTTEST	
		CORRECT	INCORRECT	CORRECT	INCORRECT
1	01	7	0	14	7
2	02	11	3	13	4
3	03	14	8	19	3
4	04	9	0	26	0
5	05	9	0	17	0
6	06	14	4	17	0
7	07	9	0	11	0
8	08	13	1	17	2
9	09	6	1	19	8
10	10	5	2	14	4
11	11	10	2	19	2
12	13	6	2	25	3
13	14	14	2	20	8
14	16	9	0	20	4
15	17	8	0	22	1
16	18	0	2	4	1
17	20	3	0	10	7
18	21	5	0	12	3
19	22	7	3	8	4
20	24	14	3	23	4
21	26	10	3	24	4
22	27	7	1	21	3
23	28	3	0	1	0
24	29	1	0	13	2
25	31	9	0	24	1
26	32	11	7	24	0
27	33	4	0	25	2
28	34	13	7	22	2
29	35	2	0	28	0
30	36	5	0	23	2
31	37	4	0	19	2
32	38	12	1	23	5
33	39	14	0	26	3
34	40	1	1	5	0

35	41	7	0	4	0
36	43	0	0	25	1
37	45	12	9	15	8
38	46	15	2	21	3
39	47	8	7	9	4
40	48	3	3	13	1
41	49	2	0	21	5
42	50	4	9	4	3
43	51	7	3	6	2
44	52	0	0	14	3
Total		327	86	741	121
Total		413		862	

Appendix Q

Results of the Written Tests for the three cases of the target structure

Pretests

Target structure	INCORRECTNESS	CORRECTNESS
case 1	87	8
case 2	55	40
case 3	60	35
TOTAL	202	83

Posttests

Target structure	INCORRECTNESS	CORRECTNESS
case1	13	82
case 2	21	74
case 3	23	72
TOTAL	57	228

Appendix R

Results of the oral occurrences for the three cases of the target structure

	PRETEST						POSTTEST					
	TGS 1		TGS 2		TGS 3		TGS 1		TGS 2		TGS 3	
	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-	+	-
Correct and incorrect occurrences per target structure	32	20	26	4	269	62	170	29	61	21	510	71
Total number of occurrences per target structure	52		30		331		198		71		581	
Total number of occurrences produced from pre to posttests	413 Corretas: 327 Incorretas: 86						862 Corretas: 741 Erradas: 121					

Appendix S

Results of the four Retrospective Interviews

Participant Code	Interview 1	Interview 2	Interview 3	Interview 4	Total per participant
01	4	6	7	7	24
02	2	2	5	7	16
03	2	4	4	2	12
04	7	7	6	6	26
05	5	6	6	6	23
06	4	4	4	4	16
07	4	2	4	3	13
08	4	3	8	6	21
09	7	5	3	4	19
10	3	4	5	6	18
11	3	3	3	4	13
13	4	7	7	7	25
14	3	3	4	4	14
16	7	6	6	7	26
17	3	8	8	7	26
18	3	4	2	0	9
20	1	7	5	3	16
21	3	3	5	5	16
22	7	6	6	6	21
24	7	7	7	7	28
26	5	7	8	6	26
27	7	5	9	9	30
28	6	7	6	7	26
29	6	6	6	6	24
31	6	6	6	7	25
32	7	7	9	7	30
33	7	4	6	6	23
34	7	7	8	9	31
35	7	5	6	6	24
36	7	7	7	6	27
37	3	6	4	5	18
38	9	9	7	6	31

39	7	6	5	7	25
40	7	7	0	2	16
41	7	4	3	4	18
43	5	7	5	7	24
45	5	6	7	5	23
46	7	5	5	3	20
47	5	6	5	6	22
48	7	4	7	6	26
49	6	7	9	9	31
50	9	7	4	7	27
51	7	5	6	5	23
52	5	7	7	7	26
Total per interview	237	244	250	249	