Chapter 2

Literature Review

In this chapter, the meaning and epistemological perspectives to certain concepts relating to grammar and its teaching are examined from the point of view of the literature. The implementation of explicit grammar instruction will be critically examined. This will enable us have a clear perception of grammar teaching in Thailand schools.

2.1 Grammar and Grammar Learning

Today, it is estimated that about 300 million people are learning English in the world. Edwards (1994) declares that being bilingual or multi-lingual is fast becoming the rule rather than the exception, "... a normal and remarkable necessity for the majority in the world today" (p. 1). Grammar, for two millennia, has taken the front burner in school curricula and has been one of the earliest textbooks ever published (Carson, 1985). The teaching of the grammars of a second language has been enhanced with research in second language acquisition and there is now convincing evidence---direct and indirect---corroborating claim of the efficacy of grammar teaching in language learning (Ellis, 2006). Particularly, research has been carried out to examine whether teaching particular topics, structures or forms really culminates in the acquisition of such structures (e.g. White, Spada, Lightbown, & Ranta, 1991). Some research also seeks to compare the order of acquisition of structures in naturalistic and instructed learning (e.g. Pica, 1983).

Millions of people are struggling with the learning of English grammar as a means of language learning. What then is the substance of grammar? What is it concerned with? What is its past and scope? Is it significant in language teaching and learning?

2.2 Grammar: Definitions and Meaning

The word, 'grammar', in classical Greek and Latin, as the Oxford English Dictionary (OED, 1971) explains, is "...the methodical study of literature...including textual and aesthetic criticism, investigation of literary history and antiquities, explanation of allusions", among other explanations. Post-classical grammar has come to apply to the linguistic rather than the literary part of language. Early English school grammar developed from a direct application of Latin grammars to the English language.

Grammatical studies in the classical languages had traditionally emphasized two elements constituting the notion of grammar and they include, the learning of rules and their use, or their practical application (Applebee, 1974).

A few meanings or definitions of grammar can be understood from the perspective of Hartwell (1985), the first being the formal patterns that speakers of a language use automatically to construct and construe larger meanings. These are patterns which every member of a speech community shares. These, according to him are rules, one of which is the rule for pluralising morphemes / s, iz, z / in speech. Grammar may also refer to the scientific description, articulation or analysis of the formal patterns of a language (in correlation with the OED definition). A third consideration is grammar as a prescriptive (not, descriptive) corpus, setting rules governing the formation of correct sentences in a given language. Although not all linguists agree on theses rules on account of what some see as generalisations and sundry inconsistencies in the English language, for example, Batstone, (1994), such rules are regarded as a somewhat fair basis on which to evaluate a language for correctness or acceptability. As a result, various grammars have emerged, including functional grammar (systemic functional linguistics), structural linguistics, and generative grammar. Traditional School Grammar, (TSG) is predicated upon the third meaning of grammar (here) where rules expected to guide the learner are put in place.

Grammar became popular in schools in the 18th century because it was thought of as an art and science, capable of instilling discipline in its learners' minds, and as a gateway to all of knowledge, particularly sacred knowledge where sacerdotal personnel and the clergy would need to exercise and speak with discernment, oracular infallibility and pontifical authority. As such it had been considered appropriate for studying in schools, by the Middle Ages (Huntsman, 1983, p. 59).

Grammar, a term synonymous with, but subsuming *syntax*, according to Bolinger (1975) means, a setting together, which is a way of saying that grammar deals with the placement of many words (usually found together), in their respective, normal default positions in a structure for meaningful utterances---and this is usually done by rules, but Metcalfe & Astle (2005, p. 15) bluntly describe grammar as "... the basis of a language, the framework on which ideas are hung and the loftiest imagery of thought can fall flat if ungrammatically expressed". Achieving the functions described above necessitates a crafty handling of words of the language which are usually manipulated and brought together to form units longer than words, in a meaningful way (Ur, 1988).

Grammar involves learning a language from the smallest unit of its graphic representation or minutest unit of expression that is, letters of the alphabet, to the most recondite and complex of structures of its syntagmatic features (Ashade, 2007). When grammar is considered as a means of language learning, it imposes definitive pedagogic and methodical responsibilities on both the teacher and syllabus developer. How to approach grammar teaching depends on whom the target learners are. Teachers approach the teaching systematically by selecting what to teach (Richards, 2001)--- since the number of structures to teach are many---as may be seen from the content page of any grammar textbook. Attempts have been made to develop basic structure

lists for language teaching, (e.g., Fries 1952; Alexander, Allen, Close & O'Neill, 1975; Hornby, 1954; Wilkins, 1976).

Not the least of a grammar teacher's (or syllabus designer's) responsibilities is gradation which is closely related to the issue of selection and which linguists have, since the 1930's, been preoccupied with. Gradation is concerned with the grouping and sequencing of teaching items in a syllabus, specifying both the set of grammatical structures to be taught and the order in which they should be taught (Palmer, 1968). Nunan (1992) believes that grammatical structures are not acquired in the natural order as Palmer and others aver, while Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974), basing their argument on the learnability hypothesis have developed an order of the development of grammatical items. However, the teaching of grammar is most usually based on the natural order in which grammatical structures are acquired (Pienemann, 1989). All of the fore going is basically preparatory to exposing learners to the patterns or structures to be learnt. It is for the reason that English grammatical structures are sometimes difficult, recondite and complex that a great many learners are put off, confused and see grammar as boring, jejune, theoretical or lacklustre. Teaching the grammar of a language successfully therefore involves more than just being able to speak a language, or being a native speaker of the language. The basic aim of studying grammar therefore, is to "...develop the rules that will explain how surface structures are generated from deep structures and to state these rules so that they have the widest possible generality in their application" (Hillocks, McCabe, & McCampbell, 1971).

2.3 English Grammar Teaching Theories in History

For well over one century terminating in the mid 1980's, stakeholders in the English Language teaching profession beat around the bush for one, single, best teaching method which, unfortunately till today remains elusive, as they shifted attention from one method to another in what has been described as "... the changing winds and shifting sands" (Marckwardt, 1972, p. 5) and viewed by Stern, (1985, p. 251) as our "... century-old obsession". Grammar in the late 1880's became a major focus of linguists, teachers and researchers with the emergence of Francis Gouin's, *The Art of Teaching and Learning Foreign Languages,* followed by the Direct Method of Charles Berlitz; the Audiolingual Method in the 1940's, Cognitive-Code Learning method , the Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response and others (Brown, 2002).

Essaying a postmortem of the post-method era, this research notes that agitations have come to the fore for the TESOL profession to develop alternative ways for designing better and reliable teaching strategies (Prabhu, 1990; Clarke, 1994; Kumaravadivelu, 1994). Developing appropriate alternatives implies having situational understanding (Elliott, 1993) of the teaching problems in contemporary times, of English as a second or foreign language. His views show that a meaningful pedagogy cannot be constructed without the complete appraisal of particular situations and that, adjustments to it cannot be successful without substantial alterations to those situations. In this connection, for the Thai society, the learning of English is a completely new and different experience from some other peoples' experiences, such as Ghanaians, Sri Lankans, Filipinos or Singaporeans who use English as a National

Official Language (NOL) by legislative enabling. The teaching methods that have proved to work in these climes may disappoint Thais and other learners like them, especially in Asia. The audio lingual approach (e.g. Fries, 1945; Lado, 1964) was about the first approach and response to English language teaching and by 1967, it had dominated language teaching in the United States for over two decades (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

Language learning has, over the centuries been guided by various theories while most of these were enmeshed in controversies, including the 'poverty of the stimulus,' by Chomsky (1965), the 'word – meaning mapping' and the nativist view. The positions of empiricists such as Hobbes and Locke about language learning have been challenged. McNeil's (1966) review of the 'language faculty' and the relational frame theory (RTF) have been questioned. Skinnerian Behaviourism of functionalist linguistics view; emergentist theories of 'nature and nurture' and the social interactionists and social constructivists' theories have suffered repulsion and doubt.

 However, grammar features well in many schools' English language syllabi, today (Hillocks, 1968). The tradition left by Greek grammarians twenty – five centuries ago is explicit-deductive teaching, although, both deductive and inductive methods have existed for ages. While this is true, they have never been on equal pedestal. Kelly, (1969) points out that whereas deductive learning dominated the Middle Ages and the eighteenth century, inductive learning dominated the late renaissance and early fifteenth century. Carson (1985) believes that grammar text books are antedated only by Euclid's text about geometry – and it has been around for two millennia. This shows why Traditional School Grammar grew out of the structure of Latin (Applebee, 1974). Since the perceived failure of TSG, the English learning world has witnessed the development of Structural Grammar which attempts to describe language by means of its structural features rather than by grammatical content (Gleason, 1965). Scholars have also explored Generative Grammar which believes that language is an abstract entity and that utterances spoken represent epiphenomenal evidence of the existence of the abstract language.

Chomsky (1957, 1965) regards grammar as the theory of the abstract language and believes that native speakers intuit the grammar of their language. Further developments came as Systemic Functional Linguistics was developed by M.A.K. Halliday and is somehow an extension of structural grammar but, it "focuses on solidery ... (mutually predictive) relationships between texts and the social practices they realize" (Halliday & Martin, 1993, p. 22).

Grammar and its teaching have spanned two millennia. This represents a subtle or covert indication that grammar----and its teaching-----is resilient. Hillocks (1986) wonders why even publishers say privately that composition texts that lack the usual thorough (and lengthy) grammar section will lose sales to texts that have it. He cannot understand why guidelines in some States, (for example, Texas in the United States) insist on extensive treatment of grammar in textbooks. This is against the back drop of research that reveals not only that students are hostile to it but also that the study of

grammar exerts no known positive influence on writing quality and little, if any, on editing.

2.4 The Role of Grammar in Language Learning

Having defined and understood grammar in the light of history, the role of grammar in the learning of a language and in particular, the English language will be examined here. The learning of grammar cannot be ignored for the central role it plays in the acquisition of all four skills (Long & Richards, 1987). There is anecdotal evidence that a grammarless pedagogy of English can lead to the almost irreversible attainment of ungrammatical, pidginised and broken form of the target language (Higgs & Clifford, 1982). This is probably one reason why a great many learners reach a point in their English language learning and are said to be prematurely plateaued or fossilized in their acquisition of English (Selinker, 1972).

It has been found that there is an urgent need for learners who wish to achieve accuracy and fluency, to be exposed to some focus on form (Long, 1983; Rutherford & Sherwood Smith, 1988). Canale and Swain (1980) say communication competence entails discourse competence, socio-cultural, strategic and grammatical competence, justifying the place of grammar in language learning.

In listening and speaking, grammar plays a crucial part in grasping and expressing spoken language because the grammar of a language is considered essential while attempting to attain the capability of grammatically acceptable utterances in the language (Corder, 1988; Widodo, 2006). Grammatical rules guide learners as to how such sentence patterns should be put together. Students who learn grammar can express meaning in the form of phrases, clauses and sentences (Doff, 2000). In his Interface Hypothesis, Ellis (2006) says explicit grammar knowledge '...may assist language development by facilitating the development of implicit knowledge. It also helps in the process of formulating messages" (p 96).
Mulroy (2003) makes an excellent argument for the explicit teaching of grammar:

> Sentences always have and always will consist of clauses with subjects and predicates and of words that fall into classes fairly well described as verbs, nouns, adjectives, adverbs, pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. Individuals who understand these concepts have a distinct advantage over others where the use of language is involved---and that means everywhere. (p. 118).

There is no discounting the effectiveness of grammar in enabling learners of the target language make acceptable, correct sentences while writing or speaking. For Moumene, (2007, p. 7), the "... Communicative Approach in its own abode has produced fluent but inaccurate users of language. The search for accuracy in speaking and writing requires a prompt return to the teaching of grammar either explicitly or implicitly".

Learners of grammar benefit from its many functions. Terrell, (1991, p. 58), indicating her 'non interventionist' position sees three functions of grammar: an "advance organizer" a "meaning form focuser" and "providing forms for monitoring" The last function mentioned leads, sometimes to self repair---in both speech and writing. According to the interaction hypothesis, this kind of repair work provides 'raw material' for language acquisition (Thornbury, 2006, p. 196).

Grammar knowledge enables interlocutors understand each other; to code and decode intelligibly. It is often heard that in person-to-person communication, sociolinguistic appropriateness and discourse competence are more important than grammatical accuracy. However, grammatical accuracy is a form of competence that keeps interlocutors on the same wave-length or pedestal where one speaks and the other understands (Celce-Murcia, 1991).

Learners, according to Thornbury (2002) may be expected to learn a few grammar rules to aid swift speech and writing. As he observes, '... without grammar, very little can be conveyed ...' (p.13). A learner who cannot determine whether to say *goes* or *go* with the subject, *the boy*, for example, may never be taken seriously.

Cognitivists are interested in the construction of L2 grammars in their scientific investigation of Language acquisition. However, according to Schachter (1988), L2 learners are not fully successful because of deficiency and lack of completeness of L2 grammars. The learner of English may be at an advantage, learning rules explicitly. The English language learner therefore stands an advantage, being aware of aspects of the rules (and possible exceptions). Rules may seem idealistic or generalistic, it may not be out of place when teaching these rules to clearly state any exceptions. These 'Exceptions' are also incorporated into the general body of rules, for example, an idealization may provide, thus:

After Do/do not, does/does not/did/did not, the next lexical verbs must be in base form:
I do/did   +   *know*
He/she does/did   +   *know.* No exceptions.

Both the rules and exceptions should form the grammar which the learner may be exposed to. The learners of English should be able to know the basic structure of the English clause as SVO, as opposed to Turkish and Japanese SOV or VSO in Welsh. Being ignorant of these rules on which English is based opens the learner's use of English to drudgery. However, how do learners, teachers and other stakeholders perceive the usefulness of grammar?

From learners of English the world over, it is a knock for English grammar. Hillocks et al (1971) surveyed attitudes of about 3,000 students in a blue-collar suburban US county and reported that students rated the study of TSG and mechanics as the least interesting parts of their English programme. This finding is in tandem with Elle et al (1976), Bradlock et al (1963) and Hillocks (1986). If grammar is as important as established earlier, why do learners loathe, resent or simply have negative attitudes to it? For Scarcella, (1990, p. 76)---speaking from the perspectives of teachers---"...many

language learners do not understand our input. Others who do understand fail to respond to our input in meaningful ways which facilitates second language development". In other words, many grammar structures that are presented learners remain complex, intractable and recondite, having not been presented in manners consistent with learners' ability to understand with the consequence of frustration for learners because '…we cannot acquire what we do not understand" (Nunan, 1989, p. 25).

Grammar learning may be donkeywork, drudgery and an otiose, redundant effort for native English speakers as '… the rule …is for the most part, simply unusable for native speakers of the language' (Hartwell, 1985, p. 116; Labov, 1970). Echoing Chomsky's poverty of the stimulus, Shaughnessy, (1977, p. 129), in her study of basic writers in college composition in America explains that "…despite their difficulties with common errors, their (native English-speaking children) intuition about English are the intuition of native speakers. Most of what they need to know has already been learned – without teachers". It therefore makes some sense to adopt the modified structural or grammatical syllabus (with communicative activities) for non-native learners in, for example the Orient, Africa or the rest of the English-learning world. Grammar may be of little or no value to native English speakers as findings have indicated.

2.5 Explicit Grammar and Explicit grammar Teaching

What is explicit grammatical instruction and how is it different from other grammar teaching approaches? These are the main questions which this section is set to tackle. While it is difficult to be pontifical about how a learner could be taught explicitly to become accurate and fluent at the same time, it is becoming "... increasingly clear that grammar is a tool or resource to be used in the comprehension and creation of oral and written discourse..." (Celce-Murcia 1991, p. 466). However much aware of metalinguistic descriptions and recondite grammatical terminology, without the ability to translate this knowledge into an active, productive one for communicating, the learner may only have been engaged in profitless hard work. Communicating messages is one important role that grammar knowledge attempts to assume since, "...being able to talk about language is very different from being able to talk in the language" (Cameron, 2001, p. 106). Grammatical inaccuracy ultimately leads to miscommunicating the intended message (Celce Murcia, 1991, p.467). This could occur when explicit grammatical instruction is taught without regard to certain steps which research believes could produce both accuracy and fluency for the learner. Doing this breeds frustration on the part of the teacher who will later find out that learners are good at grammar but cannot write or speak error-free sentences (Widodo, 2006).

There are two kinds of knowledge necessary to gain proficiency in a second language. These are explicit (conscious learning) and implicit (subconscious acquisition) knowledge (Klein, 1986). There is the need to differentiate between implicit and explicit grammatical instruction. The long drawn debate between apologists of explicit and implicit grammar teaching is an indication that both these methods hold far-

reaching implications for explaining grammar. Bialystok, (1981, p. 201) declares that "explicit linguistic knowledge contains all the conscious facts the learner has about the language and the criterion for admission to this category is the ability to articulate those facts". On the other hand, implicit grammar instruction is constructed in the natural language process like a child who has no access to rules. A child implicitly learns aspects of the language, (e.g., syntactic, semantic, pragmatic or phonological rules of language) while not having access to an explanation of those rules explicitly (Brown, 2000). The learner therefore speaks or writes good English without an idea of the grammatical rule behind it. Appealing to *Universal Grammar* (Chomsky 1965), Pawley and Syder (1983) warrant that native speakers know a number of formulas and rules which enable them understand and produce utterances without conscious effort. Native speakers therefore rely on, and use, implicit grammar knowledge (as opposed to the explicit) because it becomes manifest in actual performance, that is, for both comprehension and performance.

As previously stated, explicit grammatical instruction is the means by which grammatical structures, forms, or topics are identified, isolated for pedagogic purposes, broken down by means of grammatical analysis from a possible complex structure form, to surface-level structure, and involving the formulation of rules before or after examples (depending on whether it is an inductive or deductive approach option), and which is followed by a plethora of examples, illustrations, practice, production and communicative tasks, interactional feedback and assessment.

Explicit knowledge deals with the intake and development of implicit language, useful for monitoring output (Terrell, 1991). Explicit Knowledge involves the facts that speakers of a language have learnt, but which are sometimes complex. These facts are held consciously; are learnable, verbalisable and are normally received through controlled processing (Ellis, 2006). Explicit knowledge is also learnable through practice of error correction which usually engenders for the learner, a correct mental representation of the rules learnt. However, this is workable on the condition that there is enough time to operate the learning process. The learner is expected to be concerned with the correctness of his / her written production and speech and should know the correct rules. According to Brown (2000), since conscious knowledge of grammatical rules is learned through formal classroom instruction, the learner knows about language and the ability to articulate those facts.

Dekeyser (1994) avouches that "...implicit means that no rules are formulated, explicit means rules are formulated (either by the teacher or the student, either before or after examples / practice"). (p. 188). Bialystok, (1981) attempts to draw a distinction between implicit grammar and Dekeyser's (1994) description of explicit grammar. While Bialystok sees implicit linguistic knowledge as "...the intuitive information upon which the language learner operates in order to produce responses (comprehension and production) in the target language...it is in this sense that a language learner may claim that a sentence 'sounds' or 'feels' right although no direct evidence for the correctness of the sentence can be cited". (p. 201). It is therefore significantly clear that whereas implicit learning is subconscious, explicit teaching is

purposeful, deliberate and essentially rule-based. Students can learn these rules in many different ways.

According to Ellis (2006), since grammar teaching is "...any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that helps them either to understand it metalinguistically and / or process it in comprehension and / or production so that they can internalise it" (p. 84), grammar can involve learners discovering grammatical rules for themselves, that is, "... no presentation and no practice". Learners can also learn by being exposed to input contrived to provide multiple exemplars of the target structure or learn by corrective feed back. He regards "focus on forms" (p. 84) as instruction involving a structure of the day-to-day approach where the student's primary focus is on form (i.e. accuracy) and where the activities are directed intensively at a single grammatical structure. This may necessitate extensive metalanguage description of the structure, formulation of relevant rules, identification of key concepts and an enduring session of practice and production. However, Doughty (2001) and Long (1988) have dismissed focus on form as a form of implicit instruction occurring naturally in the course of a learner's use of the structure and that it promotes inter-language development as the structure being explained has a real life situation to hang the explanation on. To establish this further, Long (1991, pp. 45-46) avers that:

> ...whereas the content of lessons with a focus on forms is the forms themselves, a syllabus with a focus on form teaches something else –
> biology, mathematics, workshop practice, automobile repairs and
> overtly draws students' attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication.

However, dissenting voices have been raised to the issue of explicit grammar teaching and grammar learning in general. Krashen (1992) is noted for making a distinction between 'acquisition' and 'learning', noting that 'learnt' knowledge does not turn into 'acquired' knowledge but that it serves only to 'monitor' the learner's production and comprehension and, generally, the linguistic output resulting from the 'acquired' knowledge. Krashen, (1982) argues that there are three grounds on which the teaching or learning of grammar should be discouraged. First, he believes that it is possible to acquire a language without learning it. A second reason he advanced is that even the best users of a second or subsequent language master only a little portion of the rules taught explicitly. Further, Krashen thinks that the role of grammar in a foreign language is restricted to monitoring and that only little can be monitored. Perhaps as a result of the complex relationship between teaching and learning, Krashen (1993) describes the effect of explicit grammar instruction as "peripheral and fragile" (p. 725). As well, Krashen thinks that explicit grammatical knowledge about structures and the accompanying rules may never turn into implicit knowledge which underlies unconscious language comprehension and production. He declares that studies that show some effect for explicit or formal grammatical instruction present only little gain in consciously-learned competence consistent with the claims of the Monitor Hypothesis.

Whereas Terrell (1991) argues that grammar provides three basic functions for the language learner, she remains one of those who believe in the non-interventionist approach, arguing that research to date does not show that grammar is the most important factor in language acquisition.

In line with this stand is Winitz (1996) who investigated the effects of implicit and explicit instruction on the grammaticality judgement of 139 Spanish college students where the results showed that students who received explicit instruction performed less impressively that their colleagues who received implicit instruction.

Truscott (1996) advances a claim that explicit or formal language learning comes with marginal benefits, if any. He believes that the effects of explicit grammar learning are short-lived and may therefore not promote "genuine knowledge of language" (p.120). It is his belief that rather than showing the learner's ability to use the target language in spontaneous communication, studies which have shown some benefit for such explicit or form-focussed instruction have only given the results from test scores where the tests have been based on the learner's metalinguistic knowledge.

Further, whereas some researchers have shown that explicit grammar learning is beneficial to the learner for both production and comprehension (e.g., Skehan, 1996; Batstone 1994), it is their consensus opinion that the way of approaching the teaching of formal grammar is what makes the difference in the results. They object to traditional grammar teaching methods which do not exemplify grammar in the context of use. In the same vein, Ellis et al (2001a) declare that

> while there is substantial evidence that focus-on-forms
> instruction results in learning as measured by discrete point language
> tests (e.g., grammar test in the TOEFL), there is much less evidence
> that it leads to the kind of learning that enables learners to perform the
> targeted form in free oral production (e.g., in a communicative task (p.
> 421).

2.5.1 Selection of Grammatical content

Once a grammar-teaching programme decides to adopt the explicit pedagogical philosophy, successfully operationalising it may depend on a few variables. Explicit grammatical teaching recognises the need to teach meaning through form (Lado 1970), although today, more attention is given the functions which grammar performs. By establishing relationships between form and function, grammar assumes a fundamental basis of being a means of language acquisition (VanPatten, Williams & Rott (2004). In teaching the structures and forms, Krashen (1982) avers that only simple grammar structures should be taught so that learners would be able to monitor their output. Mackey (1976) warrants that in addressing learning difficulty with the chosen structures, selection may be based on frequency of use and the usefulness of such structures to learners while Ellis (2006) is convinced that, starting from forms that differ from the learners' first language (L1) is reasonable. However, opportunity should be given to the teaching of structures which contrast with the learners' target

language since this will be best addressed through contrastive analysis (Trahey & White, 1993).

2.5.2 Explicit Grammatical Instruction: Who to teach

Many people have argued that teaching grammar at the early stages of L2 acquisition helps the learner understand and acquire the necessary structures faster while another school of thought believes that grammar is best administered at a stage when a learner has acquired basic, initial footing. Lado (1964); N. Ellis, (2005) assert that the audio lingual method favoured the former since, once the structures are embedded in the learners' psyche from the beginning, they would not depart from the path. However, research on immersion programmes (e.g., Genesee, (1987) hinges argument on the thinking that learners know L2 syntax in some measure, from their exposure to communicative input. Learners of the L2 in their early stages of learning are also best not exposed to grammar learning because at that stage, learners make use of ready-made chunks, memorizing individual words and weaving these words into fairly meaningful utterances devoid of any rules (Ellis, 1984; Perdue & Klein, 1993). This is usually made possible because such beginners use context as a means of driving meaning (Ellis, 1984).

Rather than teach grammar in the early stages of L2 acquisition, it is the opinion of Ellis (2002b) that task-based activities be given to aid them in the lexical development of their language learning at this level, preparing the ground for receiving grammatical input later, arguing that not grammar, but task-based language teaching, helps language learners in the early stages, while this approach can receive complementary, light grammatical input which may include demonstrating some necessary grammatical features, for example, regular plurals:
Boy---Boy*s*, table----table-*s*, or regular verb past forms:
Want----want-*ed*, walk-----walk-*ed*, which in itself is the basic aim of 'input-processing instruction' (VanPatten, 1996; 2003).

2.5.3 Implementation Procedures

Are there any principles guiding the implementation of the explicit grammatical instruction approach? Are there theories, empirically-generated recommendations or hypotheses upon which its practice is predicated? As an eye-opener, Spada's survey (1997) reveals that most grammar pedagogy studies involve some kind of explicit instruction, including the giving of metalinguistic information and examples, error correction, skill practice and production. What step-by-step procedures are suggested by research, for explicit grammar teaching? These are the questions that will be addressed in this section.

Borg, (1998) declares that "... the teaching of grammar in the absence of well-founded guidelines is like a landscape without bearings", p. 10. Implementing explicit grammar teaching, teachers may need to be aware that a grammatical system that can engender accuracy for a learner but fails to aid his or her fluency may be viewed as ineffective.

Many structures in a target language are understandably and expectedly strange, hence complex, seemingly intractable and sometimes inexplicably recondite for the learner. This is where explicit instruction comes to the learner's rescue. The purpose of studying grammar is to develop the rules capable of explaining how surface structures are generated from deep structures and to make them generalisable, having first stated them (Hillocks et al, 1971). The goal for most teachers is to utilize the benefits of explicit grammar for internalizing the structures and rules of language and this teaching is carried out in a way that the rules and structures can be used for communication------both in the spoken and written forms. (Ellis, 2002).

2.5.3.1 Implementation Components and Stages

In this part, what Ur (1988) describes as "general framework" (p. 7) for explicit grammatical instruction will be examined from not just a unilateral perspective but from a body of documented research, hypotheses and theories. In order to generate both fluency and accuracy for the learner of English through explicit grammar learning, certain elements constituting its implementation procedure may need to be put in operation, including:

Presentation:
(a) Identifying and isolating a structure, form or topic for instruction

(b) Converting the complex structure into a simple one,

(c) Formulating rules based on the simplified version (if deductive approach,),
(See Azar, 2007; Borg, 2003; Doff, 2000; Eisestein-Ebsworth, 1987, 1998)

(d) Giving extensive explanations with copious, relevant examples and illustrations,

Feedback:
(e) Feedback elicitation and 'checking'

Practice:
(f) Giving learners opportunities for practice, that is, written exercises(Ur 1988, 1998)

Production:
(g) Encouraging independent learner production of the new structural item
(Richards and Rodgers, 1996; Skehan, 1998; Ur, 1999; Celce Murcia, Donyei & Thurrell, 1997).

Follow-up:
(h) Testing and review
(Ellis, 2002; Ur, 1988; Widodo, 2004; Eisenstein, 1987; Swan, 1999; Dekeyser, 1994; Mitchell, 2000).

2.5.3.2 Explicit Grammar Implementation Component One: Presentation by the Inductive and Deductive Approaches.

Whether explicit grammar is to be taught intensively (over a period of time, and which could be a lesson, a unit or a series of lessons), or extensively (teaching a complete range of structures within a short period of time) (Ellis, 2006), the decision about how to present the material or structure to the learners is important because instructional methods employed make significant difference in learner understanding and performance (Karen & Ziemer, 2007).

Direct explicit instruction, that is, the *deductive* approach is one of the two ways of teaching grammar explicitly and it involves oral or written explanations of grammatical phenomena (Widodo, 2006; Dekeyser, 1994). Rules which are capable of explaining how surface structures are generated from deep structures are usually given as guide. Attempt is also made to generalise them having first stated the rules (Hillocks et al, 1971).The deductive approach is also known as 'rule-driven learning'. Michael Swan (cited in Thornbury, 1999, p. 32) outlines guidelines for presenting the rules:
The rules should be true.
The rules should show clearly what limits are on the use of a given form
The rules need to be clear.
The rules ought to be simple
The rules need to make use of concepts familiar to the learners' experience.

One constant feature of explicit grammatical teaching is the formulation of rules from, perhaps complex structures and the demonstration of the functioning of same with examples, (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). In the deductive approach, rules should be personalisable, short and thoroughly exemplified (Ur, 1988; Widodo, 2006). Dealing with explicit grammar teaching, it is noted that structures in the target language are sometimes simple but more often than not, are seemingly intractable, having no semblances to many of the learner's L1 forms (Ellis 2004). It is for this reason that a teacher using this pedagogical dispensation while teaching the *Indefinite Pronoun* topic, for example, will likely say:
'Where any of the following words appears, the next principal verb (real action word) must carry an *s* after it, (e.g., comes, speaks), if the action is in the present time. The words affected by this rule are:

Everybody,	*everyone*	*everything*	*everywhere*
Nobody	*no-one*	*nothing*	*nowhere*
Somebody	*someone*	*something*	*somewhere*
Anybody	*anyone*	*anything*	*anywhere*

An example sentence, based on the rule which learners may attempt to give, can therefore be:

'Everybody Knows me', (not: Everybody *know* me).

Many learners of English, apparently not attuned to explicit grammar teaching rules such as the one above are much likely to produce utterances such as, *everybody* like *him*; *everything* look *fine*. As should be expected, arguments against explicit procedures center on the likelihood that language becomes "… the object rather than

the means of discussion". (Doughty and Williams, 1998, p. 114). Care is therefore usually exercised by teachers of explicit grammatical instruction to project meaning from rules through real-life practice.

However, the second method identified for teaching explicit grammar is the *inductive* and is hinged on a reasoning progression that proceeds from particulars, such as measurements, data or observation, to generalities (which include laws, rules, theories or concepts) (Felder & Henriques, 1995). In this regard, learners are involved in consciousness-raising tasks which enable them see the pattern of a structure so that learners can formulate rules from such patterns (Ellis, 1998; 2006). The following are patterns from which at least one rule could be derived:

(i) He travelled *in* January
(ii) She started schooling *in* April.
(iii) He met them *in* November.
(iv) My birthday comes up *in* March

Either the teacher or the students may formulate a rule from these, thus:

- Months of the year are usually introduced by the use of the preposition *in*, or
- Use *in* to introduce months of the year.

This inductive approach is also called, 'rule discovery learning'.

The inductive approach leaves an almost unforgettable experience with learners who may have had experiential participation in their own learning by formulating usable rules for the construction of standard and convention-compliant sentences. At the same time, it develops their mental strategies for handling tasks (Eisestein, cited in Long and Richards, 1987).

Both approaches have been found effective. While Selinger (1975); Fotos & Ellis, (1991); Fotos, (1994); Herron & Tomasello (1992) avouch that it is better than the deductive; N. Ellis, (1993); Robinson, (1996); Reber, (1989) and Hammerley (1975) declare that the deductive approach is better and more result- oriented. However, Rosa and O'Neill (1999) found no difference between the effects of inductive and deductive approaches. Perhaps it is for this variation in findings that Corder (1973) had advocated a mixed-bag approach: teaching with both approaches.

2.5.3.3 Component Two: Skill Practice

Grammar and grammatical instruction have been loathed and decried by learners who have been frustrated by the sheer mechanicality, systematicity and the seeming odious, dry, drab, jejune and lackluster rules which many learners in all corners of the English – learning world, have found rather theoretically otiose and banally unexciting. According to Ellis, 2006, there is "...some evidence that teaching explicit knowledge by itself (i.e. without opportunity for practicing the target language feature), is not effective", p. 96. In explicit grammatical instruction, 'presenting' or teaching structures and rules alone, without providing a means of helping learners understand, internalize and produce the new language in real-life situations appears a

half measure that confuses learners and the teaching is very likely to end up in drudgery and counter-productivity. Richards, Platt and platt, (1992) explain that teaching grammar through drills, grammar explanation and other form-focused activities is a way of raising learners' awareness of the grammatical features of the language. This is contrasted with the traditional approaches to teaching of grammar in which the goal is to instill correct grammatical patterns and habits directly (p. 78). Teachers are therefore expected, according to Snow (2006, p. ix), to see language as "… a major tool for communication and that communicative activity should play a major role in the language classroom", while noting that the focus of teaching is authentic communication; extensive use of pair and group activities that involve negotiation of meaning and information sharing. This is the case of formal grammar, which is described as "… grammar presented as form in isolation from its meaning in context" (Batstone, 1994, p. 136). This is against the spirit of explicit grammar implementation.

Learner practical involvement (alluding to the 'Present Practice Produce' principle) carefully guides learners to "… attend to grammar while retaining a measure of self expression and meaning focus" (ibid., p. 137). It is noteworthy that it was the lack of fluency and ease experienced by those taught by grammar translation that led to the development of CLT in the late 1970s and 1980s (Cameron, 2001). Learning grammar and its rules alone does not translate to, or guarantee, accuracy or fluency but practice does. Mitchell and Myles (1998) contend that competence and performance are closely related. In his participation metaphor, Sfard (1998, p. 6) says, "… in the image of learning that emerges from a linguistic turn, the permanence of having gives way to the flux of doing". According to Ur, (1999), the practice stage comes after the initial presentation and explanation when the learner is assumed to have perceived the material and taken it into short-term memory but cannot be said to have really mastered it yet.

Carroll (1999) expounds on the cognitive processes in listening that lead to the internalisation or processing of messages into the Long Term Memory and this takes place, at the practice stage. The concern is both for understanding and internalising, on the part of the learner because activities are reinforcers. In considering "… these events or stimuli (reinforcers) that follow a response and that tend to strengthen behaviour, say, to teach somebody something, we ought to attend carefully to reinforcers" (Brown, 1987, p. 63). Also, "…reading aloud or performing dialogues to the class or comparing and explaining sentences in pairs or small groups… serves to promote retention in long term memory" (Thornbury, 2002, p.101).

Lindsfors (1987, p. 379) holds that teaching a structure or point of grammar, every teacher should be concerned with "… getting students to respond to English input in meaningful communication… to aid the acquisition and retention of input". According to Richards (2001, p. 36), " CLT is a broad approach to teaching that resulted from a focus on communication as the organising principle for teaching rather than a focus on mastery of the grammatical system of the language". In the same vein, Cameron (2001, p. 109) concludes that the "… most recent trends in language teaching remind us that grammar is needed, but we have also learnt from CLT and immersion programs that

meaning-focused communication classroom activities do increase fluency in language use and that there are interesting and meaningful ways to help learners with grammar". In Thailand, the teaching of grammar has been without skill practice in most classroom cases (Khunying, 2005; Arunee, 2001). Thai and other learners of English have ample opportunities to practise and produce the language while this may represent a clear departure from the tradition of complete reliance on language-focus exercises. An illustration below may describe the difference between *production* and *practice*. Practice exercises come in the form of:

(a) Slot fillers:

> He ---- good English. (speaking / speak/speaks OR,
> (b) Transformation, e.g. Change the sentences below to plural
> (i)This is a man
> (ii) That lady is my friend.
> (c) Multiple choice, e.g.:
> There ---- man at the door, now
> (i) are some (ii) are a (iii) is a (iv) are many

Or,
(d) Matching:

> He   a bird
> I   a teacher
> She   {   is   }   students
> The girls   {   am   }   a nurse
> The Peacock   {   are }   a man

Exercises provide no opportunity to 'do' things although they help supply examples of the structures and as such, are not communicative. Therefore, piquant, picturesque, verisimilitude, amusing or game-like activities offer more learning value and are communicative. For Ur (1988: 7), the "… practice stage consists of a series of exercises done both in the classroom and for home assignment, whose aim is to cause the learners to absorb the structure thoroughly.

2.5.3.4 Component Three: Production

Production is the third P in the PPP pedagogic principle and it refers to the practical demonstration of new language items acquired. This is quite different from 'Practice' in that it is the juncture at which learners' understanding of the input is acted out in a real-life situation for the realization of meaning. Performance seems to follow understanding but it is risky to assume that learners usually understand teacher input. It may be difficult to say that learners can remember; that they have proceduralised or internalised the new knowledge, or, say they will be able to produce the new knowledge in real life, for, "… we cannot acquire what we do not understand" (Nunan

1989 p. 25). Snow (2006) recommends choral drills, classroom chat, model-based dialogues, role-plays, surveys, interviews, cocktail parties, press conferences, pair or small group tasks, debates, and large group discussions.

A currently active tradition in language pedagogy research is task-based learning (Skehan, 1998). In principle, TBL may seem to have little to do with grammar but it offers a balanced approach in which grammar pedagogy is linked with communicative experience (Thornbury, 1997; Lynch, 1996; Pennington, 2002). In this connection, Kagan (1989) advocates cooperative learning activities which involve group activities to ensure learner understanding but with the teacher spending a little more time explaining off the points, leaving little time for the "cooperative learning" experience. Moskowitz (1978) suggests that students be given the right to be heard. Also, having learners participate "… in a project immediately after its explanation can be very effective" (Scarcella 1990, p. 84). Since skill practice is "…any kind of engaging with the language on the part of the learner usually under teacher supervision whose primary objective is to consolidate learning" (Ur, 1988, p. 11), it may come in the form of free group discussions, semi-controlled small-group transactions, fluid pairs, chain, brainstorm, student-teacher exchange, teacher-student exchange, dialogues, play acting, role play, entertainment and visual focus (Lindsfors, 1987). Doing this will make the learning of grammar in the long term one of the means of acquiring a thorough mastery of the language as a whole, not as an end in itself (Ur, 1998).

2.5.3.5 Component Four: Feedback

Feedback is, accurately interpreting our students' reactions to our lessons and understanding our own methodology of giving feedback (Scarcella, 1990). In the course of a classroom lesson, learners are wont to make errors repeatedly with the same structures or forms. The fully professional teacher determines the source of the error: cause and course and effects a correction.

This part of the study sees feedback in the light of the fore-going where learners need to be corrected or put aright by the teacher during the implementation process of an explicit grammar lesson. Ellis (1998) examines theoretically motivated instructional options relevant to explicit grammar teaching among which is negative feedback. Whether as a component of a main lesson or as an alternative grammar teaching method, this method shows learners when they have failed to produce a structure in the correct form. Johnson (1988) argues that learners should be made to see for themselves where the structure may have gone deviant. Doughty and Varela (1995) aver that negative feedback is effective in the scaffolding process. According to Lightbown & Spada (1990), there is reduction in the incidence of particular errors during communicative lessons where negative feedback is demonstrated. Explicit grammar lessons are executed with feedback as one of the pillars that tailor the learner to success, and a few options are open to the teacher under the dispensation of explicit grammar teaching.

However, care must be exercised in administering correction during an explicit grammar lessons so that the process will not be counterproductive as the reaction of

Thai students is naturally different from that of other learners in other countries or cultures. Many teachers in France, as Dannequin (1977) observes, believe that students do not have the right to make mistakes, but must conform to the teacher's standards. This is most like the Japanese society, as reported by Thompson (1987), where much heed is paid to the correct answer, through dogmatic rule learning without regard to context. The Chinese education is also obsessed with correctness (Maley, 1986). It is therefore not surprising that French, Japanese and Chinese students, for example, do not feel comfortable with a lesson that fails to demand correctness and correction, of them.

Spotlighting----singling out a student and asking this student to perform or answer correctly before others) is common in the United States (Mohatt and Erikson, 1981). This method may not be successfully used with learners in Asia. This may be so because students in Asia are generally bashful. In Asia, students feel that if they give the wrong answer it not only humiliates them but also brings shame on their families (Sue 1983). Iwatake (1978) warrants that in Asia, teachers are accustomed to learners' reticence on this account.

Lyster and Ranta (1997) believe recast is the most common form of feedback (where recast refers to the reformulation of a learner's utterance or a part of an utterance according to target language norms by an interlocutor or teacher). They present four other types of feedback, including explicit correction which is a means by which the teacher or interlocutor gives the correct form or structure of a deviant form or utterance. Second is the 'clarification request' option where a teacher or interlocutor seeks more information on the deviant structure from the speaker. This automatically raises a red flag to the speaker. Many Asian students, including Thais are reluctant to request clarification (Sato, 1981). Third is the elicitation of the correct form of the deviant utterance by the interlocutor from the learner who is helped by the interlocutor's (teacher's) leading cues. Also identified is the metalinguistic feedback where learners are encouraged to pay more attention to language descriptions, using specific grammatical terms. Lastly, repetition of deviant structures also tends to notify the learner of an error which may be rectified by the learner.

In his "error gravity" analysis, Kiparsky, (1974) identifies two categories of errors that learners can make: local errors such as the omission of an auxiliary verb, e.g.
He ( ) my brother (for: He *is* my brother)
She ( ) go tomorrow (for: She *will* go tomorrow); and global errors such as faulty word order, for example:

(1) The English language rules forget many people.

The speaker intends to say:

(2) Many people forget English language rules.

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Local errors are sentence-level errors while global errors are discourse-level errors, the latter being the worse source of miscommunication or confusion than local (Sentence level) errors (Frodesen, 1991).

In attempting to correct learner errors in an explicit grammar lesson, Tomasello & Herron (1988) found two methods, first, the inductive where learners are exposed to many parallel examples and the 'garden path condition' where the teacher gives as many examples as in method one above and asks learners to apply the rule which the learners formulated . Other pedagogic correction interventions are, the 'reformulation technique' (Cohen, 1983), the 'interview analysis' (Wechsler, 1987), both applicable during oral (speaking) presentations while, for correcting written work, Knapp (1972) designed the 'underlining and error checklist'. Witbeck (1976) designed and prefers 'peer correction activities' unlike when learners are in the glare of the whole class, corrected, leading to perceived embarrassment. Teachers dispensing explicit grammar instruction may also wish to consider the use of audio cassettes which Farnsworth (1974) warrants will give learners access to the exact points the teacher is correcting, as that this can be played over and over for mastery.

2.5.3.6 Stages in Error Correction

Just as care is taken not to saddle beginners or young learners with an overload of grammatical instruction (Ellis, 2006), exposing learners to error correction is expected to be handled with care where a teacher dispensing explicit grammar teaching may like to know by asking learners' opinion in grammaticality judgement or engaging in catechism for determining their metalanguistic knowledge. The older or more linguistically mature in the target language, the more they are disposed to the grammaticality judgement approach to testing their grammatical knowledge (Chaudron, 1983). The teacher is sometimes encouraged to vacate 'office' for his or her students to become temporary teachers who explain, for example, after teaching the following rule:

'After *enjoy*, the next verb should be in *ing*.'

The teacher asks the learners about the correct one:

(a) She enjoys to drink coffee early in the morning, or
(b) She enjoys drinking coffee early in the morning

Learners under instruction here are expected to give chapter and verse for their opinion about the correctness or otherwise.

2.5.3.7 The Active-Uptake Hypothesis

Input is successful not when there is corresponding uptake but at the point where it is activated by the learner for profit. How much of the grammar explicitly taught which is 'understood' by learners is internalised, ready to be practically

demonstrated by the learner in a natural speech or writing context? Understanding alone is not responsible for performance (Ellis, 2006) Input may be understood but later forgotten and, as such, cannot be utilised in real-life situations. This demonstrates the necessity for input retention, which is derived from the understanding of the explanation offered by the teacher.

With this in mind, it becomes imperative to exemplify, once and for all, a typical explicit grammar instruction procedure in order to ensure that teachers would implement explicit grammatical instruction in its full measure. To this end, I have come up with the Active-Uptake Hypothesis which is based on the premise that, for explicit grammar learning to be profitable for both accuracy and fluency, according to researchers' consensus opinion, the learner must understand input, convert input to uptake and retain uptake. In other words, uptake is useless when it becomes slippery.
In this regard, both the teacher and learners have individual and collective roles to play in any explicit grammatical instruction lesson. The kernel of this hypothesis (of uptake retention) is the need for every grammar teacher to engage in practical production which helps in processing input from Short Term Memory to Long Term Memory (Carroll, 1999).

The major differences between EFL and ESL are seen from the perspectives of the opportunities learners have to practically use the items of language, in real life situations. In most parts of Asia, English language learners leave the classroom and go back to their immediate communities to resume speaking the local language until the next day of class when another lesson in English takes place. In this situation, the opportunities for practising and practically utilising learnt items are very limited. Students under this kind of EFL situation are expected to get more 'production' time in the class to practically act out the substance of the theoretical structure just learnt (Fotos, 2002). Based on this, the EFL model overleaf (see figure 2) assigns 70 percent of lesson time to 'practice' and 'production' of new structures in an EFL classroom. However, students in ESL classrooms, (usually found in countries where English has a legislative status such as being an official or a co-official language, e.g., Singapore, The Philippines and India), have wide 'production' opportunity to practically speak English outside the classroom. As such, these learners may only need minimal practice and production. The ESL classroom explicit grammar model (see figure 2) therefore assigns 30 per cent of total lesson time to 'practice' and 'production' during a grammar lesson.

These models are recommended for learners who have passed the early stages of learning English (Ellis, 2006). Research on immersion programmes (e.g. Genesee, 1987) shows that it is possible for learners to develop some measure of fluency in the target language without formal instruction in the L2. Besides, it has been argued that early interlanguage is agrammatical (Ellis, 1984) but could better be developed by encouraging learners to use memorised chunks and construct utterances with strings of words devoid of grammatical intricacies. It is further recommended that the ESL model (see Fig. 1, overleaf) is operationalised with less lesson time devoted to production in particular as learners' interlanguage develops. In this way, the ESL model will require less practice and production from advanced learners such as those

in later years of undergraduate education (than those at the pre-intermediate level) who, as Ghanaians, Liberians, Indians or Singaporeans study English as their major degree course.

The EFL model (unlike that of the ESL), when implemented in a country such as Thailand will be expected to utilise ever expanding communicative opportunities during lessons. This may be relaxed as learners approach, or are already at, the advanced level of language study. In other words, both models serve to nurture the learner at points in-between the beginner's and advanced levels of language study.

At the implementation stage of an explicit grammar lesson, rule formulation is a constant requirement. Examples may come before a rule (inductive approach) or they may come after the rule (deductive approach). Since learning styles differ from individual to individual, it is recommended that the teacher use both methods while teaching a single structure to ensure maximal learner understanding. Based on theoretical findings and research recommendations, the following two models of explicit grammatical instruction have been fashioned:

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   ┌──────────┐                              ┌──────────┐             │
│   │ TEACHER  │──────────────────────────────│ LEARNERS │             │
│   └──────────┘                              └──────────┘             │
│       ┌──────────────┐                                               │
│       │Deep Structure│                                               │
│       └──────────────┘                                               │
│            │                                                         │
│       ┌────────────────┐                                            │
│       │Surface Structure│                                           │
│       └────────────────┘                                            │
│            │                                                         │
│  70%   ┌────────┐  ┌───────┐  ┌────────┐  ┌───────────┐            │
│  of    │Example │→ │Rule(s)│→ │Example │→ │Explanation│            │
│ lesson └────────┘  └───────┘  └────────┘  └───────────┘            │
│  time       │                                                       │
│       ┌─────────────┐                                              │
│       │FEED BACK:   │                                              │
│       │ Checking/   │                                              │
│       │ Mini lesson │                                              │
│       └─────────────┘                                             │
│                          ┌──────────────────┐                     │
│  30%                     │    PRACTICE      │                     │
│  of                      │Written Exercises │                     │
│ lesson time              └──────────────────┘                     │
│                          ┌──────────────────────┐                 │
│                          │    PRODUCTION        │                 │
│                          │Role Plays, dialogues │                 │
│                          │Drama Sketcher, debates│                │
│       ┌────────────────┐ └──────────────────────┘                │
│       │DELAYED TESTING │                                          │
│       │Review          │                                          │
│       └────────────────┘                                          │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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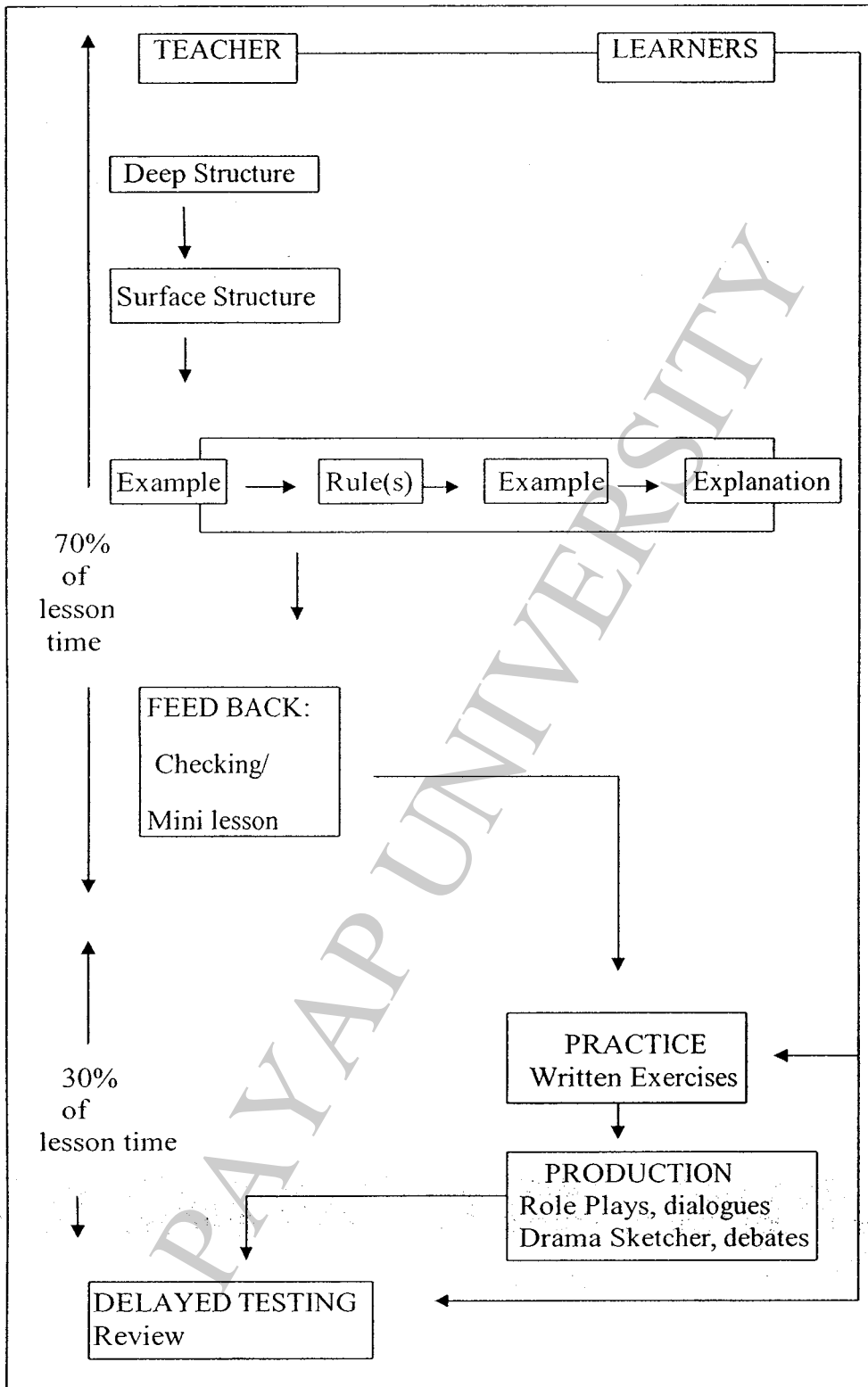
Figure 1. A Model Explicit Grammatical Instruction Procedure for
ESL Classrooms

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┌─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  ┌─────────┐                        ┌──────────┐                  │
│↑ │ TEACHER │                        │ LEARNERS │                  │
│  └─────────┘                        └──────────┘                  │
│   ┌───────────────┐                                               │
│   │ Deep structure│                                               │
│   └───────┬───────┘                                               │
│           ↓                                                       │
│   ┌────────────────┐                                              │
│   │Surface Structure│                                             │
│   └───────┬────────┘                                              │
│ 30 %      ↓                                                        │
│ of  ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────┐             │
│Lesson│ ┌─────────┐ ┌──────┐ ┌─────────┐ ┌───────────┐│            │
│Time  │ │ Example │ │ Rule │ │ Example │ │Explanation││            │
│      │ └─────────┘ └──────┘ └─────────┘ └───────────┘│            │
│      └────────────────┬─────────────────────────────┘            │
│                       ↓                                           │
│   ┌──────────────────────┐                                       │
│   │      FEEDBACK        │                                        │
│   │ Checking/ Mini lesson │                                      │
│   └──────────────────────┘            ┌──────────────┐            │
│                                        │  PRACTICE    │           │
│↑                                       │  Written     │           │
│                                        │  Exercises   │           │
│ 70%                                    └──────┬───────┘           │
│ of                                            ↓                   │
│Lesson                                  ┌──────────────────┐       │
│Time                                    │ PRODUCTION:      │       │
│↓                                       │  role plays;     │       │
│   ┌──────────────────────┐             │  dialogues       │       │
│   │ DELAYED TESTING      │             │  play acting     │       │
│   │ Review               │             │  choral drills   │       │
│   └──────────────────────┘             │ 'cocktail parties'│      │
│                                        │ 'press conferences'│     │
│                                        │  interviews      │       │
│                                        │  debates etc.    │       │
│                                        └──────────────────┘       │
└─────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
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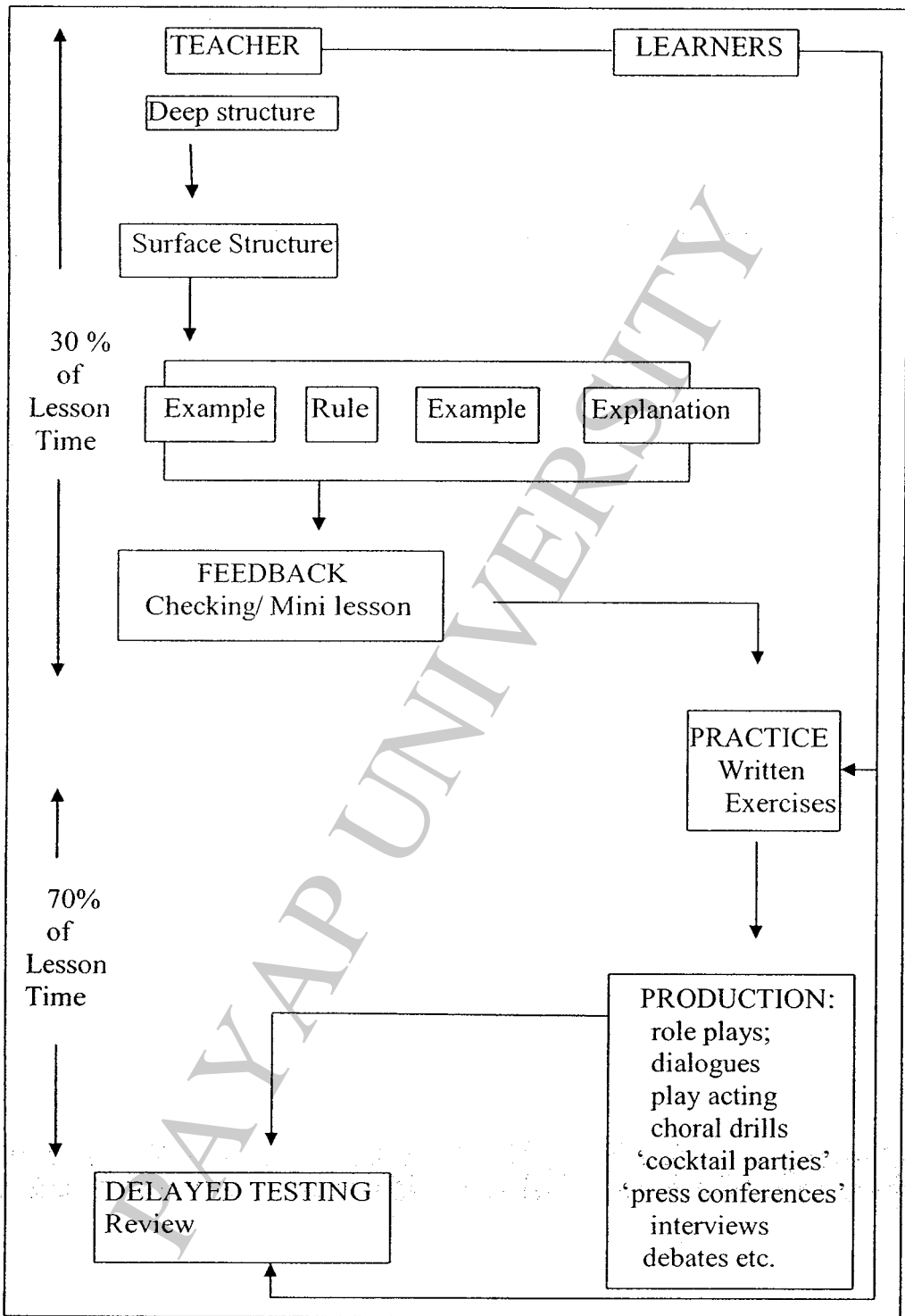
Figure 2. Model Explicit Grammatical Instruction Procedure for
EFL Classrooms.

2.6 Teacher Cognition in Grammar

From the perspective of the truism that one cannot give what one does not have, it becomes pertinent to discuss what teachers of EFL (should) know about grammar and grammar teaching; what they believe about grammar----its effectiveness or otherwise, and their classroom practices in regard to teaching their learners grammar. The interaction between the personal realities of cognition, behaviour and environment is a vital factorial interplay determining success or otherwise on a given task (Faerch, 1985). In the strict context of pedagogy, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk (2001) say that teacher efficacy greatly depends on the extent to which they believe their efforts will have positive effects on student achievement.

Teacher cognition in grammar encompasses a range of psychological constructs including what language teachers think, know and believe and its relationship to instructional decisions and practices (Borg, 2003). Grammar teaching as an important aspect of a teacher's brief requires good Knowledge About Language (KAL). Wray (1993) avers that every trainee ESL/EFL teacher should be taken through thorough training in grammar. It is believed that an explicit understanding of the grammar of English plays a major role in the effectiveness of EFL/ESL teachers' work. Teachers of English at whatever level of teaching, (including trainee primary school teachers) are expected to be familiar with metalanguage descriptions, structural analyses and are to possess average ability to understand and explain the content and structures of English (Williamson & Hardman, 1995). In a study conducted, Bloor (1986) tested the metalinguistic knowledge of 63 trainee teachers as they were preparing to enter for some linguistic courses at two British universities, to give them the opportunity of displaying their familiarity with grammatical terms and concepts related to linguistic issues. He found that they demonstrated "...fairly widespread ignorance", (p. 159). According to him, whereas non-native EFL/ ESL teachers are only comfortably above average in what they know about grammar, native English teachers are much worse. According to a study centering on metalanguage in the UK, Andrews (1999a), found that while non-native teachers had a mean score of 70%, native English teachers had a mean score of 41%. Brumfit, Mitchell and Hooper, (1996), describe as "patchy and idiosyncratic" (p. 86), the knowledge of many teachers (in the United Kingdom), about grammar.

Forming an important part of teacher cognition in grammar, teachers' beliefs represent grammar teachers' worldview of grammar and grammar teaching. Chandler (1988), from fallouts of a study he conducted described the attitude of teachers like this in the UK as one of "confident ignorance" (p. 23). Teachers' beliefs in grammar teaching include those aspects about their attitudes to grammar teaching which reveal how they believe foreign languages are learnt and what they think about corrective feedback (Shulz, 1996; McCargar, 1993). Eisenstein-Ebsworth & Schweers (1997) used questionnaires with a total of 60 university teachers of ESL in New York and Puerto Rico with informal interviews with 8. Most of the teachers thought grammar should be taught while the Puerto Rican teachers were more in favour of conscious instruction than the New York group. The Puerto Rican teachers were reported to have claimed

that grammar was regarded by them as a viable way of language learning and, having been familiar with it saw no reason to abandon it.

To avoid the lack of confidence that usually goes with teachers' ignorance of grammar, Borg (2003) suggests the need for language-teacher preparation programmes to dedicate substantial time to the development of trainees' declarative knowledge in this area of study.

As the literature search in this chapter gradually approaches the end, the next section will be looking at auxiliary verbs in the Verbal Group system. As previously mentioned, in order to understand how teachers approach the teaching of grammar in Chiang Mai city schools, Auxiliary Verb structures or forms have been set as a collective example of other grammar structures taught in these schools during grammar lessons. The section illustrates the scope, meaning, functions and other details about auxiliary verbs in English as they relate to this study.

2.7 The Verbal Group and Auxiliary Verbs

Auxiliary verbs are being examined in this section because they form the basis of assessing how language teachers in Thailand have been teaching explicit grammar.
The Verbal Group (VG) is a system that encompasses the action element of the English clause structure and contains the different types of verb available for different functions in English. Swan (2005:76) asserts that "...English verbs do not have many different forms; the maximum (except for *be*) is five (e.g. *see, sees, seeing, saw seen*)." In other words, the verbal group contains verbs which "... are the part of speech that denote action or 'the doing of something' " (Metcalfe and Astle, 2005, p. 35) Whereas this definition reveals some characteristics of the verb, it is needful to add that a verb may also denote a state of being, for example,

- He is a man.
Here, *is,* is a verb in the sentence.

In the categories of the verbs (in the verbal group) are the principal, main or lexical verbs which show tangible or physically verifiable action, e.g. *speak*, *read*, *understand*, and others. The verb element consists of different categories of verb and it is an essential element in the English clause structure since the different categories of verb provide meaning for the sentence where the verb occurs.

The structure of the basic English sentence recognizes four elements namely the Subject, Verb, Object and Adjunct (Roberts, 1968). Verbs as members of the Word Class typically express a state or process. This group of verb words has different forms and indicates aspect, tense, person and number (Thornbury, 2006).
Main verbs, also known as principal or lexical verbs, are full verbs that demonstrate substantive or imaginable action and include *go, dance, write eat*, and so on. These verbs have different tense forms and can also be categorized, in terms of being regular or irregular, for example, *want* and *go*, respectively; and in terms of being *stative* or *dynamic*, e.g., *speaking, hearing*---where *hear* as a stative verb does not permit an *ing*

as long as it is a verb and not a gerundive nominal. In the verbal group is the type of verbs called Auxiliary Verbs otherwise expressed as helping verbs. Auxiliary verbs give semantic and syntactic information about the main, lexical or principal verb which, by default, follows it. Usually, the extra meaning of an auxiliary verb changes the basic form of the main verb to achieve any of the following functions: progressive, passive, modal or dummy, for example,

- He gave Anna the book (declarative, active)
- Anna was given the book (declarative passive).

2.7.1 Auxiliary Verbs

In a structure with a full verb, (a non-auxiliary verb), one or more auxiliary verbs may come in tow:
(a) I *will* go
(b) I *will be* going
(c) I *will have been* going
In some cases, some auxiliary verbs act as both main verbs and at other times, as auxiliary (Roberts 1968; Zandvoort, 1958), for example:

- She is a woman
Here *is* is as a main verb (the only tangible-action word in the clause)
- She is talking about a woman
Here, *is* is auxiliary, (helping *talking*)

The verbs in this category include *be* and its variants: *is, was, are, were* and *am*; *do, does* and *did;* and, *has, have* and *had* Opdyke, (1987). However, the auxiliary verbs that function mainly as auxiliary (and never as main verbs) are also called secondary auxiliary verbs and are mainly modal auxiliaries. This means it is not structurally possible to have *will* or *shall* as the only verb at the verbal group level of a sentence:
(d) She *will* London next month. (wrong)
Making *will* function as auxiliary to *leave* (a main verb), makes sense:
(e) She *will leave* London next week.

Helping verbs have no meaning on their own. These auxiliaries are of two major types: primary helping verbs (which are further subdivided into three, including *be* and its variants: *been, being, is, was, are, were,* and, *am* as the first; *have, has* and *had* as the second and the third sub division is *do,* including its variants *does* and *did,* all possessing positive, negative and contracted forms, for example, *do* (positive); do *not* (negative) "don't" (contracted form). *Have* and *be* are auxiliaries of tense while *be* is an auxiliary of voice (Roberts, 1968). While the foregoing are primary auxiliary verbs, modal helping verbs form the second type of auxiliary verbs and are called, 'secondary' auxiliary verbs. They include:
Will-would; may-might; shall-should; can-could; must-had to; ought to-had to; need-need; dare-dared-------- present and past forms respectively. *Had to* is however, not a modal auxiliary verb (Ashade, 2007; Zandvoort, 1958).

2.7.2 Copular Verbs

The verb *be* in its various forms is the most commonly used copular verb. A Copular verb is one in the small set of verbs, including *to be*. (Thornbury, 2006). Copular verbs are also called linking verbs and are known by the following complements: A noun phrase, for example,

> 1. Those are *my brothers*

or an adjective / adjectival phrase, for example:

> 2. My brothers are *intelligent*

or, even an adverbial item:

> 3. My brothers are *in Macau*

Here in the three examples, *are* is the linker or copular verb.
Copular verbs usually express current state, (e.g. *I feel tired*). As aforesaid, whereas *to be* is the commonest copular verb, the following lexical verbs also express current attribute: *appear, look, feel, seem, smell*---each, having an adjective complement.

Copular verbs also express a resulting attribute, e.g.
He gets/ becomes angry easily.
Here, *gets* and *becomes* are the copular verbs; *angry*, an adjective (complement), is the attribute. Thai learners of *be* or *to be* have an opportunity to compare lexical-copular verbs with auxiliary-copular ones, thereby getting a fairly comprehensive view of the relationships between auxiliaries and principal verbs in the English structure.

2.7.3 Functions of Auxiliaries

The functions of English auxiliary verbs include, the manipulation of active sentences into passive structure; forming progressive aspect *ing* with present or past auxiliary forms, expressing emphasis, for example, with *do* and its variants, acting as *operator* for changing a declarative statement into an interrogative one, using transposition of, for example *can* for achieving negation; using *not* with an appropriate auxiliary, and forming tag questions (Stageberg, 1965).

2.8 Related Research

It is acknowledged that no single theory of language teaching can be taken as authoritative (Bowen, Madsen and Hilferty, 1985; Omaggio, 2001; Brown, 2002). However, much research has been carried out to determine the usefulness of different approaches to the teaching of grammar. Takashima and Ellis (1999) concluded, after their study about the effectiveness of explicit grammar teaching in a Japanese University that it was effective. Zhou (1991) documented a similar study with Chinese

students and reported that explicit grammar teaching was effective and welcome by Chinese learners. Purpura (2004) submitted that:

> In sum, the majority of studies surveyed showed a clear advantage for learners receiving explicit grammar instruction. Formal explicit instruction seemed to help learners develop their interlanguage at a more rapid pace; it helped them achieve higher ultimate levels of grammatical ability. (p. 44).

Uchibori *et al* (2006), after studies in Japan revealed that explicit teaching of grammar was highly effective with Japanese learners of English.

In another breath, several studies have debunked Krashen's (1993) claims that instruction is of little value in language acquisition. Ellis (2001) claims that instruction is effective for learned knowledge and acquired knowledge. Green and Hecht (1992) carried out studies on learner cognition of grammar in Germany, Norris and Ortega (2000) carried out a meta analysis of 49 studies; Macrory and Stone (2000) experimented with British students using the French language, and Robinson (1996) all reported that grammar teaching is an effective means of language learning.

Since it has been shown in the literature how profitable explicit grammatical instruction could be for learner accuracy and fluency, it becomes only intriguing that English learning in Thailand (by the same explicit grammar method) has been ineffective. It is this seeming mystery that challenged my curiosity and interest in finding out----through this study----why explicit grammatical instruction is not effective in Thailand.

2.9 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter is about literature search to underpin grammar and explicit grammatical instruction. This chapter offers the basis for comparing what theory says and what teachers do in respect to grammar teaching in Thailand. It provides the theoretical framework for fairly understanding the workings of explicit grammar instruction. It has been seen, how historically grammar evolved into the contemporary school curriculum having first been defined from the perspective of being a subject and object of study; its place in language learning; its diverse underlying issues of who, when and what to teach and the different pedagogical approaches it offers. The chapter discusses the usefulness of grammar, its implementation------as based on research findings and suggestions by theorists-----and makes a brief foray into discussions on auxiliary verbs (which is this study's basis for evaluating how teachers in Thailand implement explicit grammatical instruction). The chapter examines, in view of the need for teachers to be conversant with concepts of grammar, teacher cognition and the extent to which this is likely to affect the implementation of this grammar pedagogy. This chapter includes a hypothesis and two models of explicit grammar instruction implementation, fashioned from my understanding of research findings and theories in the literature.