

Interactional Feedback and the Impact of Attitude and Motivation on Noticing L2 Form

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Abstract

A number of second language (L2) studies have recently discovered the positive impacts of interactional feedback (IF) in L2 development by connecting the underlying processes such as noticing. The current study followed a two-fold purpose: first to examine the impact of IF on noticing question forms in Iranian L2 classroom context and secondly to investigate the possible effects of motivation and attitude on noting IF. IF was provided to experimental group learners in response to their production problems with question forms. Learners' noticing was assessed through on-line learning journals, introspective comments while checking with audiotapes, and questionnaire responses. Learners' motivation was also assessed using Gardner's (1996) attitude/motivation test. The results point to a positive relationship between IF in the classroom and the learners' reports about question forms of English. The results also confirmed the existence of a positive correlation between motivation and noticing.

Keywords: Interactional feedback, Noticing, Motivation

1. Introduction

Input and output are two main requirements of L2 acquisition which must be attended alongside. However language learning history has been witnessed overemphasis on one at the expense of the other. Once input or language exposure was considered as the sole source of language learning (Krashen's 1982, 1985 input hypotheses), yet later language use was overemphasized (Swain's 1985, 1995 output hypotheses). So it seems that a compromise between these two extremes is inevitable that may be provided by sociocultural approach. This new trend considers learners as neither processors of input, nor producers of output, but as speaker/hearers involved in developmental processes which are realized in interaction (Ohta, 1995). Interaction, as one of the main components of communicative classroom's activities, serves a two-fold purpose for language learners: achieving automaticity and receiving feedback which provides a means for hypotheses testing (Swain, 1995).

But how does interaction helps such goals to be achieved? Many studies have been conducted to answer the question (Gass & Vorins, 1985; Long, 1981; 1983; 2007; Pica, 1987, 1988; Pica, Doughy & Young, 1986), among which Long's (1981, 1983, 2006) studies leading to Interaction Hypotheses seems to best describe interaction and its contribution to language learning. According to updated version of the hypotheses negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the native speakers (NSs) or more competent interlocutors, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, output and internal cognitive capacities in productive ways. Interaction, according to this hypothesis, triggers adjustment in the less competent interlocutors' production, so it can be regarded as a useful means for giving feedback to language learners. This issue, i.e., giving feedback during interactional conversation, has been the main theme of many studies (e.g., Ellis, 1994; Mackey, 2006, 2000; Gass & Vorins, 1994), the majority of which has proven the existence of a positive relation between L2 development and IF through a collaborative adjustments in language learners' production. From Schmitt's view (1996), these so-called adjustments from learners' side are necessarily done when they consciously notice the gap between their inter language and L2 forms. However there are controversies in this regard and some other scholars like Tomlin and Villa (1994) view noticing as facilitator of the process. Regardless of these controversies, there is a consensus that noticing forms through interactional feedback contributes positively to L2 development. Among the main techniques used for international feedback, i.e., prompt and recast, the former is more helpful due to lower ambiguity (Long, 1996). However beside ambiguity, a wide variety of other factors may affect noticing of IF, including the characteristics and abilities of the teacher, frequency and duration of feedback and other contextual variables.

Moreover, keeping all these factors constant, we may observe considerable differences in learners' noticing (Swain & Lapkin, 1995). These differences are studied under the label of individual differences (IDs), such as working memory, motivation or grammatical sensitivity in noticing interactional feedback, which was the secondary motive for the current research. Among the IDs, motivation is of main significance due to the fact that it is usually considered as the main excuse for success and failure of language learners. Furthermore, motivation is the most widely investigated and the only manipulatable learner variable (Dornyei, 2005).

Despite the growing interest and ongoing progresses in this research area, there is a lack of such studies in Iranian L2 classroom context and only few researchers (e.g., Hazar, 2008) have dealt with the issue. So the initial driving force behind the current research was the existing gap for interactional feedback studies in Iranian L2 classroom context. Examining the literature, I also found that the most uncovered part in this research area is investigating the possible impact of IDs, such as motivation on noticing interactional feedback, which was the secondary motive for the current research. As a result I have chosen this learner variable to examine its possible effects on noticing the question form of English during interactional feedback. However before dealing with the study, feedback, noting and motivation should be examined precisely in the literature.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Feedback background

Over the last few years, the role played by corrective feedback in language acquisition has become a highly controversial issue. In the field of first language (L1) Acquisition, researchers (e. g., Brown, 2000; Ferris, 1999; Saxton, 1997) express strong reservations concerning the effect that negative evidence has, if there is any at all. In the field of L2 learning, however, there appears to be a growing consensus among the majority of researchers concerning the significance of the role played by negative evidence in the process (e.g., Ammar and Spada, 2006; Shaofeng, 2010; Oliver, 2000; Mackey, 2006). In the following sections of this review, the meaning of corrective feedback will be discussed, and empirical studies that explore the impact of interactional feedback on SLA will be reviewed. It will be followed by examination of studies regarding the impact of IF on noticing.

2.1.1 Interactional feedback (Operationalization)

Feedback moves can be classified as one of three types: explicit correction recasts or prompts (Lyster, 2002). If we take error correction explicitness as a continuum, explicit correction will fall in its one end, prompts in another end, and recasts in the midway between these two extremes. In the case of explicit correction the teacher supplies the correct form and clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect. For recasts, the teacher implicitly reformulates all or part of the students' utterance. Prompts on the other hand, include a variety of signals including elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests and repetition, all of which push learners to self repair by generating their own responses (lyster and Mori, 2006).

In the current study, interactional feedback concerns prompts and recasts, which together are referred to throughout the paper as interactional feedback. These two feedback types were used as complementary moves with different learners in different discourse contexts. The following example of classroom interactions illustrates this issue. As it can be seen in the example error treatment sequence begins with a learner utterance that contains a grammatical error, so the teacher initiates the feedback by repetition, which is a prompting technique. When it doesn't work, teacher uses recast.

Student: "How many people there are?"

Teacher: "How many people there are?" (Repetition)

Student: "Yes..... Hmm....how many people there are?"

Teacher: "Are there" (Recast)

Student: "Oh How many people are there?"

2.1.2 Interactional feedback and second language acquisition

Studying the role of IF in L2 development is a relatively new trend in SLA research. It takes as a starting point the assumption that language learning is stimulated by communicative pressure, and examines the relationship between communication and acquisition and cognitive mechanisms (e.g., noticing, attention) that mediate between them (Gass, 1997). However, how does this so called stimulation takes place? There have many attempts to justify the issue; initially, the interaction hypotheses proposed that comprehensible input that arises when the less competent speaker provides feedback in his/her lack of comprehension assists acquisition (long, 1993). Later on other scholars (e.g., Pica, 1994; Swain 1995, 1998, 2005; Mackey, 1998; Lightbown & Spada, 1990) conducted studies confirming the positive role of interaction in comprehensibility and in turn in L2 acquisition. However, recently Van Lier (1996)

and likeminded scholars have moved beyond the concept of input to affordance, examining social interaction from another perspective. As Van Lier's perspective implies, interaction is more than a source of comprehensible input, or input as a feedback. Interaction from this second view also provides learners with the opportunity to use the target language, that is, to output. Below I will firstly examine these two approaches in more details.

2.1.3 Interactional feedback and noticing

Interaction can be seen as a window through which to view important aspects of the L2 learning process, and as a facilitator of many of the processes (Mackey & Gass, 2006). It connects input, internal learner capacities and output in productive ways (Long, 1996; Pica, 1994; Gass, 1997). It is through interaction that a learners' attention is focused on a specific part of language especially on those mismatches between target language forms and learner- language forms (Mackey, 2000). This issue have been the focus of many studies and attention and noticing have been identified two cognitive processes that mediate input and L2 development through interaction (e.g., Gass and Vorins, 1994; Robinson, 1995, 2001, 2003; Long, 1996; Gass, 1997; Mackey, 2000; Philip, 2003). However what are attention and noticing? Are there any studies to examine the nature of these cognitive processes? Over the past two decades, researchers in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) have become increasingly interested in concepts traditionally associated with cognitive psychology such as memory, learnability, and connectionism. Attention, as one of the main psychological concepts, has become especially important because of its crucial role in so many aspects of SLA theory such as input, processing, developing, variation and instruction. Most of the literature on attention also addresses the concept of awareness. The two concepts are increasingly connected and in classical psychology attention and awareness are often viewed as two sides of the same coin (Truscott, 1998). Attention and in particular awareness have been identified as two cognitive processes that mediate input and L2 development through interaction (Mackey, 2000). In other words negotiated interaction can help to direct the learners' attention towards a mismatch between target form and learners' interlanguage (i. e., noticing the gap, Schmidt and Forta, 1986). This process is best described by Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (1990, 1993, 1995) according to which "learners' must consciously notice input in order to become intake". Since then a considerable amount of research has addressed the issue of noticing in SLA (e.g., Alanen, 1995; leow, 1997; Leow, 2002; Swain and Lapkin, 2002; White, 1998; Tomlin and Villa, 1994). Most of these researches indicate the existence of a positive relationship between noticing and second language learning. However there is some difference in the amount of weighting on the noticing. Tomlin and Villa (1994) as an example believe that noticing (i. e., detection with awareness) isn't necessarily prerequisite for registration and it is likely to take place at detection without awareness.

2.2 Motivation and L2 acquisition

Motivation has been a focus of SLA research for many years. Dornyei, (2002, p. 8) identifies motivation as "why people decide to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity [and] how hard they are going to pursue it. The initial impetus in L2 motivation research came from social psychologists working in Canada, most notably from Wallace Lambert, Robert Gardner (1972), who viewed second languages as mediating factors between different ethno-linguistic communities and thus regarded the motivation to learn the language of the other community as a primary force responsible for enhancing or hindering intercultural communication and affiliation. These researchers adopted a social psychological approach that was based on the main tenet that students' attitudes toward the specific language group are bound to influence how successful they will be in incorporating aspects of that language. Later on Gardner (1985) examined factors that affected French and English-speaking Canadians learning the language of the other community. His studies support the theory that integrative motivation (wanting to learn a language in order to identify with the community that speaks the language) promotes SLA. This motivation seems to promote SLA regardless of the age of the learner or whether the language is being learned as a second or foreign language. Even if individuals do not have this positive attitude toward learning the language, they may have instrumental motivation-that is, they may want to learn the language to meet their needs and goals, such as to get a job or to talk to their children's teachers (Oxford & Shearin, 1994). Whatever the learners' motivation, research seems to support the practice of teachers discovering and responding to learners' needs and goals when planning instruction (Dornyei, & Csizer, 1998; Weddel & Van Duzer, 1997). Teachers can facilitate motivation by helping learners identify short-term goals and reflect on their progress and achievements. For example, teachers can provide learners with self-assessment checklists to identify skill strengths and weaknesses, weekly checklists to track their progress on meeting a learning goal, and self-reflection tools (e.g., learning diaries) to help learners build autonomy and take charge of their learning (Marshall, 2002). Recent research looks at how instructional contexts also affect motivation. A learner's motivation may vary from day to day and even from task to task (Dornyei, 2002; Dornyei & Kormos, 2000). Using varied and challenging instructional activities helps learners stay focused and engaged in instructional content (Dornyei & Csizer, 1998). Research examining how to improve learner motivation suggests

that social factors (e.g., group dynamics, learning environment, and a partner's motivation) affect a learner's attitude, effort, classroom behavior, and achievement (Dornyei, 2002). Therefore, teachers should create an environment that is conducive to learning by encouraging group cohesion in the classroom. Pair and group work activities can provide learners with opportunities to share information and build a sense of community. Research also suggests that teachers cultivate opportunities that continue to stimulate language use when learners are not in class (Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1994). Project work provides learners with a bridge between practice in and outside of class. In addition, projects provide opportunities for learners to work with others to accomplish tasks, using English in real-life situations. Research on the relationship between motivation and second language acquisition is ongoing. Current research looks at instructional practices that teachers use to generate and maintain learner motivation and strategies through which learners themselves take control of factors that have an impact on their motivation and learning, such as lack of self-confidence, change of goals, or distractions (Dornyei, 2003; Noels, Clement, & Pelletier, 2003).

3. Methods

3.1 Participants

To accomplish the current study, 80 male second grade learners of Talesh Imam Khomeini High School were given a homogeneity test. This test comprised four kinds of tasks namely, story completion, elicitation, picture sequencing and spot the differences. The aim of the test was to recognize 40 required students who were much less acquainted with question forms of English. Afterwards these students were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups to participate in the experiment.

3.2 Materials

As it was stated earlier, the first material for the current study is tasks about question forms, which was exploited as the pretest or homogeneity test. As the second step we needed instruments for the measurement of noticing. There are four measures for collecting data on noticing L2 forms on the current study. On each of four measures, noticing was operationalized as a learner's report indicating a mismatch between the target language form and the learner's non-target like production or comprehension. During the study all of the interactions in each of the classes were recorded so that each learner report of noticing could be traced the actual classroom interaction in which it recorded. The four measures are as follows: (a) learning journals (Appendix A) which was filled out during class time. The learning journals have been introduced during the semester to the participants, so they haven't had any problems to fill them. The second measure of noticing was oral stimulated recall protocols (described in Ericsson and Simona 1987 and Gass and Mackey, 2000). Stimulated recall is a technique used to collect learners' introspections about the learning process. The procedure is that following a language learning experience, language learners are presented with a stimulus and are asked to report their thoughts at that time (Gass & Mackey, 2000). In this case, audio tapes recorded from the three sections of treatment were played to reorient learners to the time of interaction for determining whether the interactional feedback they received promoted noting the target forms. Our third measure in this research was focused L1 questions. Written L1 (or L2, whichever the learner felt more comfortable) responses to the focused questions about subordinate clauses and nature of classroom activities was used to obtain responses that were not constrained by the learners' proficiency in English. The fourth measure was final L2 questionnaire or the post-test. The post-test comprises tasks which were designed to elicit information about what they may have been noticing during the experimental period, as well as assess the likelihood of any extra experimental input. Gardner's (1996) Aptitude motivation battery test, which has been elaborated in literature review, was also used for determining the participants' attitude and motivation for language learning.

3.3 Procedures

This study required 40 homogeneous learners who also had least familiarity with the targeted grammatical structure, namely question forms of English. This was done using a homogeneity test which was administered beforehand for 80, 2nd grade high school students. As it is clear a larger sample sizes give more accurate results, yet due to the limitations, a larger sample size was impossible. The second step in the current study was random assignment of 40 students to control and experimental groups. As the next step for investigating the first research question, experimental group received the treatment and control group a placebo. In this way both experimental and control groups were provided with the same linguistic input, with the difference being opportunities for interactional feedback. For the control group the teacher avoided providing interactional feedback except in response to direct requests. Daily audiotapes of the control class confirmed that the input the control group received was comparable to that of the experimental group and that opportunities for learners to produce output were similar for both classes. In fact, the control group received the same input and had the same opportunities to report noticing as the experimental group, but very seldom received interactional feedback. For addressing the issue of noticing, four measures of -

learning journals, stimulated recall protocols, focused questions on learners' L1 and L2 questionnaire, which have been elaborated in the previous section, were exploited. The next step was the measurement of learners' noticing question forms both in experimental and control groups. Incidents of noticing of form were identified when learners' reports indicated that they were aware of the fact that their production or comprehension of form was problematic or that the form was new to them. As noted above, four measures of noticing were used in this study to collect as much information as possible about noticing. This procedure, known as triangulation in the literature (e. g., Mackey, 2000; Mackey and Gass, 2006; Swain and Lapkin, 1995), helps researchers to gather more accurate data. In this way learning journals and stimulated recall protocols were compared and examined with audio recordings of classroom data. If an experimental group learner reported noticing the same episode both in the stimulated recall and on learning journals, it was only counted as one instance of noting. Since the stimulated recall interview took place after the final post-test, any double reporting of noting could not have impacted measures of learning in this study. As illustrated in the literature review section, some researchers discuss different types of noticing, indicating different levels of attention and awareness, and representing different cognitive processes. While such questions are beyond the scope of current study, the coding reported here was designed to be sensitive to the continuum (and uncertainties) involved in studying noticing. Another problem to noticing data is that a learner might not provide a report of noticing but this cannot be taken to clearly demonstrate that the learner did not notice, so each report was considered in its related context. If a learner reported noticing in at least two-thirds of the possible contexts, they were considered to have 'high' reports of noticing. This practice was followed in order to avoid binary categories such as 'no noticing' that are difficult to support. The scale, used for this purpose, was developmental sequence for question formation in ESL identified by Pienemann and Johnston (1987), and illustrated in (Appendix B). This sequence was adapted by Spada and Lightbown for their 1993 study of the effects of instruction on question formation and has also been used by a number of SLA researchers, including Mackey, 1999 and Mackey & Philp, 1998. A. Mackey and J. Philp, Conversational interaction and second language development: recasts, responses and red herrings? *Modern Language Journal* (1998), pp. 338–356. Full Text via CrossRef View Record in Scopus Cited By in Scopus (86) endent coders for determining more and less noticed learners. Inter-rater reliability was 85 percent based on simple agreement. This work was followed by Chi-square test to determine whether the difference between the control and experimental groups in terms of their highly noticed learners is significant or not. To address our second research question, after administration of Gardner's (1996) aptitude/motivation test, the correlation between motivation and noticing was calculated.

3.4 Design

The current study challenged the following research questions:

1. Does interactional feedback promote noticing L2 forms in Iranian L2 classroom context?
2. What is the impact of motivation in noticing interactional feedback?

For the first research question, independent variable is interactional feedback and dependent variable noticing L2 forms. However in the second research question motivation become independent variable and noticing dependent. To carry out this study a pretest or homogeneity test has been administered beforehand, then students were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. Treatment was interactional feedback which was put on experimental group and placebo to control group. And finally a post-test was administered to both groups. So the current study enjoys an experimental design. The schematic representation of the design is shown in Figure 2.

3.5 Statistical analysis

Considering the kind of codified data for noticing and the aforementioned research question, as well as the design of the study, Chi-square test was employed to examine the significance of difference between noticing level of experimental and control groups. Further *Pearson Product Moment Correlation* was exploited to determine the go to gather-ness between motivation and attitude on noticing.

4. Data Collection and Analysis

4.1 Data analysis

The first research question asked: 'Does interactional feedback promote noticing L2 forms in Iranian L2 classroom context?' As can be seen in Table 1 and Figure 1, the reports from sixteen out of twenty learners in the experimental group indicated high level of noticing question forms. However for the control group, who didn't receive form-focused interactional feedback but who received equivalent input and output, the learners' report indicated substantially less noticing of question forms. Only seven out of twenty reported high levels of noticing. These data point to an association between provision of feedback and learners' reports about noticing in this L2 classroom context, suggesting that when interactional feedback is provided to on L2 forms, learners report noticing those forms

more than when feedback is not provided. A chi-square analysis (table 2,3) combining the two groups in terms of noticing the questions forms also points out the likelihood of a significant relationship between interactional feedback and noticing ($\chi^2 = 8.286$, $p = 0.004$). The second research question asked ‘What is the impact of motivation on noticing interactional feedback?’ As it was elaborated earlier, to investigate our second research question, firstly a motivation test was administered to experimental group. As the second step the relation between motivation and noticing scores of experimental group was examined using scatter graph and correlation coefficient. As Figure 3 represents below 4000 level of motivation, distribution of motivation and noticing scores gives an initial impression of the existence of a positive go-togetherness between the two sets of scores. However for levels higher than 4000, noticing reaches its maximum level (5) and remains extant. Although the distribution of scores shows a visible tend of correlation between motivation and noticing, scatter plots don’t give us any quantitative measure of the degree of the relationship between the two variables. As a result Spearman’s rho correlation was conducted for finding a qualitative measure of the exact degree of the relationship. As the (table 4) represents, correlation value for motivation and noticing is (.699) with significance at the .01 level of confidence. This information confirms the existence of a strong relationship between these tests.

4.2 Interpretation

The purpose of this study was to determine whether interactional feedback was associated with learners’ reports about noticing and, if so, whether there are any contribution between learners’ attitude and motivation and their noticing. The results suggest that noticing and interactional feedback are related. There was also a positive relationship between motivation and noticing. However, there are some complexities in studying noticing as an abstract phenomenon which must be taken into account when we want to interpret the results. The main complexity relates to the operationalization and measurement of noticing. As noted in the review of the literature, debate exists about how to best operationalize and measure the noticing of L2 form. The analysis reported here was intentionally conservative about assumptions about noticing. This study was detailed in terms of multiple measures, but was also cautious in terms of counting and coding. Thus, claims made on the basis of these data and interpretations are necessarily tentative. This approach for operationalizing noticing has been used in a number of prior research projects (Mackey, 2000, 2006; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Silver 2000). Another interesting issue in the current study relates to the different levels of noticing. The current study unequivocally associated higher levels of short-term learning with higher reports of noticing and was based on learners’ self-reports on a range of different measures. In this way, only the higher reports were the basis for the judgments about noticing, however it would be a mistake to equate paucity of data with the notion that there was no noticing. As several researchers have pointed out in the past, nothing does not equal zero (Hudson, 1993). So in the current study the terms “more” and “less” noticed was exploited to and noticing was viewed along a continuum rather than a fixed occurrence. Regarding the second research question, it was an attempt to investigate the possible role of motivation in language learning using a process-oriented procedure. As the figure 3 depicts, there is a considerable tend of correlation between noticing and lower levels of motivation (below 4000). However for the higher levels of motivation (scores above 4000), noticing gains its momentum and becomes extant. This finding is inline with previous studies (e.g., Clément & Gardner, 2001; Cohen & Dörnyei, 2002; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; MacIntyre, 2002), confirming the stimulant role of motivation in language but this time in a process-oriented manner. It was also an step forward to bridge the existing gap for researchers who investigate the role of individual learner variables in noticing interactional feedback. The results proved the existence of a positive correlation between motivation and noticing as a mediating variable between interactional feedback and second language learning.

5.1 Restatement of the problem

Giving feedback and its quality has always been the subject of many controversies in SLA. There have always been many questions around the issue challenging its quality, type, frequency and time. Recently along with the advent of communicative language teaching and sociocultural thinking, interactional feedback has been the focus of many researchers (Mackey, 2000, 2006; Ellis, 2002, 2004, 2007; Gass, 1997, 1998). These studies have mainly confirmed the existence of priority of interactional feedback over other ways. However there is a lack of such studies in Iranian L2 context, which was the initial motive for the current research. Secondly, there seems to be a gap for studies that examine the impact of individual learner variables on interactional feedback, which was my second deriving force. So the following research questions were formulated:

1. Does interactional feedback promote noticing L2 forms in Iranian L2 classroom context?
2. What is the impact of motivation in noticing interactional feedback?

The hypothetical answers to these questions were:

There is a positive relationship between interactional feedback and noticing of L2 forms in Iranian L2 classroom context.

Motivation contributes positively to noticing L2 forms.

To operationalize the study, question form forms of English was taken as language development measure and data for noting interactional feedback were collected using four measures based on the self-reports of the learners. For the second research question Gardner's (1996) attitude, motivation test was administered to the experimental group and correlation between learners' motivation and noting was calculated.

The results of the study confirmed the positive effect of interactional feedback on noting L2 forms, so the first hypothesis was confirmed. The results of this study also showed the existence of a positive correlation between motivation and noticing international feedback.

5.2 Implication for pedagogy

Interaction as a useful part of L2 classroom activities assists language learners to receive comprehensible input, output and feedback (Pica, 1994). However this valuable opportunity has nearly ignored and forgotten in Iranian L2 classrooms, and unfortunately our L2 classrooms are confined to reading passages and grammatical roles, which don't satisfy the complex needs and uses of language that modern life poses to people. This issue, yet, hasn't much to do with teachers and much of the responsibility is on the shoulders of curriculum designers. When curriculum and course books limit teachers to grammar and reading, and teachers always complain about time lack even for finishing it, we shouldn't expect them to go beyond it. So curriculum designers should go beyond words and put them into practice. The results from the second part of the study also showed the existence of a considerable correlation between motivation and learners' reports of noticing. Motivation as one of the main components of individual learner variables is mediated by "cognition" and "society" (Wesley, 2007). This fact makes teachers' responsibility stronger. Some ideas to foster motivation to learn in the classroom are suggested: (1) teachers should view learners as "active socialization agents capable of stimulating...learner motivation to learn", (2) classroom climate should be valued, (3) various task dimensions work, tasks should be moderately challenging and yet achievable, (4) tasks with specific, short-term goals can help learners to succeed, (5) teachers should offer extrinsic rewards with caution. So for having successful language learners we should get learner motivation fully activated both in classroom and their individual lives

5.3 Suggestions for further Research

As it was stated in the limitation part, the current study was only confined to question forms of English, so the future researches might examine other language forms. In addition, future research would benefit investigating the relative effects of international techniques like negotiations and recast. Moreover there is a gap for researches that investigate the role of other learner variables like working memory or grammatical sensitivity in the relationship between noticing and second language learning.

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Table 1. Learners' noticing level according to their reports

Groups	Experimental Group	Control Group
Noticing Level		
Less noticed	4/20	13/20
More noticed	16/20	7/20

Table 2. Noticing-Group Cross Tabulation

		GROUP		Total
		No. IF	IF	
NOTICING More noticed	Count	7	16	23
	Expected Count	11.5	11.5	23.0
	% within GROUP	35.0%	80.0%	57.5%
Less noticed	Count	13	4	17
	Expected Count	8.5	8.5	17.0
	% within GROUP	65.0%	20.0%	42.5%
Total	Count	20	20	40
	Expected Count	20.0	20.0	40.0
	% within GROUP	100%	100%	100%

Table 3. Chi Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig (2-sided)	Exact Sig (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	8.286 ^a	1	.004		
Continuity Correction ^b	6.547	1	.011		
Likelihood Ratio	8.634	1	.003		
Fisher's Exact Test				.010	.005
Linear-by-linear Association	8.079	1	.004		
N of Valid Cases	40				

a. Computed only for a 2*2 table

b. 0 cells (.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.50.

Table 4. Correlations

			Motivatio n	Noticing
Spearman's rho	Motivation	Correlation Coefficient	1.000	.699(**)
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.001
		N	20	20
	Noticing	Correlation Coefficient	.699(**)	1.000
		Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.
		N	20	20

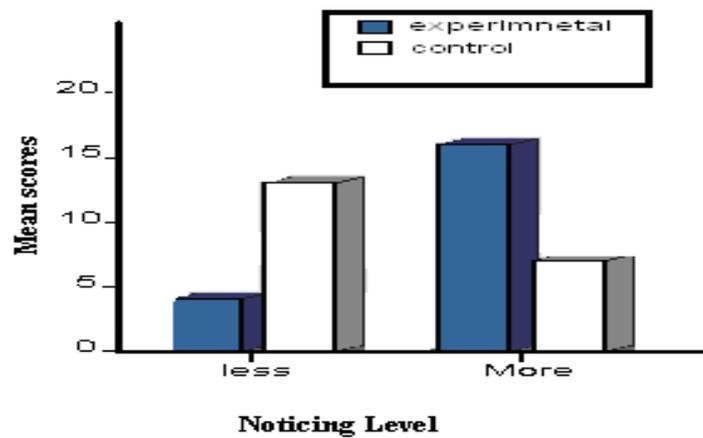


Figure 1. Noticing level for the control and experimental groups

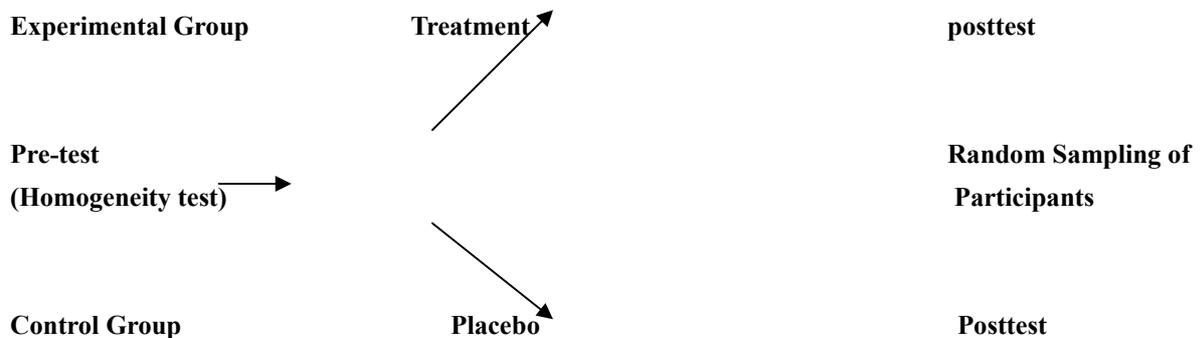


Figure 2. The schematic representation

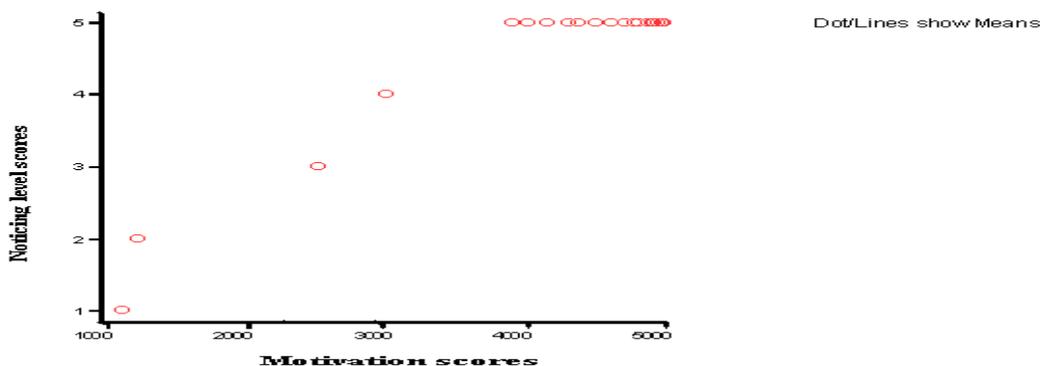


Figure 3. Scatter graph for motivation and noticing scores

Appendix A:

Sample Learning Journal

Learning Journal (adapted from Mackey, 2006)

What are you noticing about	Who said?			Was this new to you?		
	teacher	course book	classmate	Yes, new	No, I heard of it.	No, I knew it.
1-						
2-						
3-						
4-						
5-						

Appendix B: Developmental Stages for Question Form Development

Stage 1. Single words or sentence fragments

One astronaut outside the spaceship?

Stage 2. Canonical word order

It's a monster in the right corner?

The boys throw the shoe?

He have two house in the front?

Stage 3. Wh-fronting and Do-fronting

How many planets are in this picture?

Where the little children are?

What the dog do?

What color the dog?

Do you have a shoes on your picture?

Does in this picture there is four astronauts?

Stage 4. Pseudo inversion

a. Inversion in uin-questions with copula

Where is the sun?

b. Inversion in yes/no questions with auxiliaries other than *do*

The ball Is it in the grass or in the sky?

Stage 5. Do-second: Inversion with do in wh-questions

How many astronauts do you have?

Awe second: Inversion with other auxiliaries in wh-questions

What's the boy doing?

Stage 6. Question tag

You live here, don't you?

Negative question

Doesn't your wife speak English?

Subordinate clause

Can you tell me where the station is?

Note: Adapted from the developmental stages described in Pienemann and Johnston (1986).