



Explicit Instruction of English Articles: An Appraisal of Consciousness-Raising Instruction and Processing Instruction Frameworks

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The instructed acquisition of the English articles (EAs) has proved to be an ordeal for L2 learners, irrespective of their L1 background. Research suggests that as EAs are non-salient, misusing them may not spark a tangible breakdown in communication. The current study attempted to investigate the short- and long-term effects of explicit instruction on the retention of EAs. Participants were university-level Farsi-speaking EFL learners from three intact groups, namely “processing instruction” (PI) as a deductive intervention, “consciousness-raising instruction” (CRI) as an explicit-inductive intervention, and a “control” group. The PI group received explicit training on the target rules and processing challenges represented by the EAs, coupled with structured input activities. In the second group, through a so-called PACE model as a subcategory of CRI, the focus was on co-constructing the rules. The treatments were followed by three posttests at different intervals. The within-groups analysis of results revealed that CRI had a rather short-term effect on the learners’ productive ability, whereas PI had a late-emerging impact on their receptive performance. Nevertheless, the analysis of between-groups differences indicated that neither of the experimental conditions outdid the control group during any of the posttest phases. The implications for pedagogy and future research are discussed.

Keywords: consciousness-raising instruction, English articles, explicit instruction, processing instruction, The PACE model

Introduction

There is no denying that the acquisition of English articles (EAs) is a perplexing and tricky aspect of English language grammar for non-native speakers; mutually experienced by learners from [+article] and [-article] first languages (A. Y. W. Chan, 2019; Zhao & MacWhinney, 2018). Ironically, while EAs are an omnipresent aspect, their accurate use remains exceedingly elusive even long after other linguistic elements have been mastered. One underlying cause of this impotence has been ascribed to the concept of *language transfer* whereby L1 rules tend to influence the acquisition of the L2. Another reason behind the learners’ sluggish progress stems from EAs’ unstressed (*a/n* and *the*) or invisible (*zero article*= \emptyset) occurrence. They represent abstract notions that are at times too difficult to infer from the input. Hence, researchers subsume them under late-acquired morphemes. To compound the problem, the inaccurate use of EAs is unlikely to lead to any tangible misunderstanding or communication breakdown (Ellis, 2006).



Putting the foregoing arguments into perspective, it may seem necessary to provide learners with opportunities to pay deliberate attention to this persistent acquisitional challenge. Put another way, such morphosyntactic aspects may require explicit intervention to be properly noticed.

Among different categories of explicit intervention, “processing instruction” (PI), proposed by VanPatten (1996), has especially gained traction over the recent years. Processing Instruction helps learners to create a mental representation of the language by altering their default strategies and promoting the effective processing of the target forms. As another major category of explicit intervention, consciousness-raising instruction (CRI) attempts to intentionally direct learners’ attention to the formal structures of the target language such that they can detect the gaps between their interlanguage system and the target language (Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1985). CRI’s impact on L2 acquisition has also been represented through a number of theoretical and empirical studies. The corollary of these studies is suggestive of CRI’s overall facilitative role (e.g., Atai & Khatibi, 2010). One rather recent subcategory of CRI, known as the PACE model, involves learners’ conscious attention to the features of the target language and discussion of form from the meaning and use perspectives, using interesting cultural texts. It is held that instruction will be more constructive when it is conceptualized in a guided discovery framework (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2010; Vogel et al., 2011).

Another theme to be underscored here concerns the deductive and inductive nature of grammar teaching. Proponents of the inductive approach maintain that deep processing and active engagement by learners is necessary for the incorporation of new knowledge. Advocates of the deductive approach, however, argue that learners may misinterpret the target rules or fail to discover them without explicit representation of the target forms. Moreover, regarding the types of the inductive approach, that is, implicit-inductive versus explicit-inductive, the former has been criticized for relying on pure induction and precluding the teacher from assisting the learners. Looking back at the literature on explicit instruction, the PACE model is considered as a guided explicit-inductive category while PI is classified as deductive. Therefore, given the inconclusive role of pedagogical assistance, it seems reasonable to examine the comparative effects of PI versus the PACE model in light of their divergent natures. Moreover, with regard to the role of instruction in the acquisition of EAs, research findings are highly variable. Umeda et al., (2019) argued that explicit instruction is unlikely to convert into implicit knowledge over the long haul. Nonetheless, some studies found no remarkable effects for explicit instruction (e.g., Lopez, 2019; Snape & Yusa, 2013). Taken together, there is a lack of consensus on both the short-term and the long-term effects of explicit instruction. The main thrust of the current study, therefore, was to investigate and compare the short- and long-term effects of PI versus CRI on Iranian English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ retention – operationalized here as recognition and production – of EAs. In the following section, we present an in-depth investigation of the foregoing lines of research.

Literature Review

The Article System and L1 Transfer

The role of L1 has been extensively discussed in the domain of second language acquisition (SLA). It is held that L2 grammar is constrained, at least in part, by the parameters of the L1 (Ellis, 2006). Farsi has an overt indefinite article while lacking a marker for the definite article (see Appendix A for an example-based discussion and comparison of the article systems in English and Farsi). Consequently, learners may be unable to readily figure out the functions of *the* in English. As illustrated above, Farsi speakers do not use the definite article with generic nouns or noun phrases, whereas English speakers do. Furthermore, in Farsi, the definite article is used only with singular nouns, while in English, it is used with both singular and plural nouns. Contrary to English which uses the indefinite article only with singular nouns, Farsi applies it with both singular and plural nouns. Thus, with plural or generic nouns, Farsi speakers are

generally expected to omit or substitute ‘the’ (Momenzade & Youhanaee, 2015). Rezai and Jabbari (2010) maintained that Farsi-speaking learners’ use of EAs is subject to fluctuation; an observation they attributed to the ‘interpretability hypothesis’. According to Tsimpli and Dimitrakopoulou (2007), interpretable features are readily accessible to L2 learners while uninterpretable features are difficult to identify and analyze from the input due to persistent L1 interference. Therefore, based on this hypothesis, both English and Farsi have similar features of articles on the conceptual level, but they differ in terms of phonetic representations. This discrepancy may hinder the production of accurate target forms, leading to their misuse or omission.

Explicit Instruction of Articles

SLA research has shown that there is no one-to-one form-meaning connection between articles across languages, and due to the mismatch between syntactic and semantic features, direct pedagogical intervention may become a matter of necessity. The concept of explicit instruction builds on direct learning which entails deliberate attention as an integral part of L2 acquisition. Table 1 presents an overview of explicit instruction typology.

TABLE 1
Different Kinds of Explicit Instruction (from Ellis, 2015, p. 244)

<i>General types of explicit instruction</i>	<i>Instructional approaches</i>	<i>Theoretical basis</i>
Deductive	Presentation-practice-production	Skill-learning theory (DeKeyser, 1998)
Deductive	Integrated instruction	Transfer appropriate processing (Lightbown, 2008)
Deductive	Concept-based instruction	Sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Throne, 2006)
Deductive	Comprehension-based instruction (as in Processing Instruction)	Input processing theory (VanPatten, 1996)
Inductive	Pattern practice	Behaviorism (habit formation) (Skinner, 1957)
Inductive	Consciousness-raising instruction	Theory of Instructed Language Learning (Ellis, 1994)

Several studies have shown the beneficial effects of explicit instruction on EAs’ acquisition. Nevertheless, Ellis (2006) pointed out that EAs are difficult to teach as they involve complex functions and abstract notions that are not easy to infer both explicitly and implicitly. Though not as widespread as acquisition studies, exploring instructional approaches toward EAs has been of interest to a number of SLA researchers. Zhao and MacWhinney (2018) drew on the Competition Model as a theoretical framework for analyzing the cues to article usage and for designing computer-aided article instruction. They investigated the effect of explicit instruction with and without metalinguistic feedback on the acquisition of the article system through using cues in a three-phase study. The overall findings indicated that explicit instruction adopting form–function mappings relevant for native-like article choice is feasible through the strategy of “cue focusing”. Umeda et al. (2019) examined the impact of explicit instruction on Japanese learners’ ability to determine the differences between the indefinite and definite articles in generic contexts. The results revealed that the explicit knowledge of EAs was unlikely to morph into implicit knowledge over time, suggesting that explicit instruction could merely have a transient effect.

In some studies, however, explicit instruction has proved even less propitious. For instance, Lopez (2019) investigated the short- and long-term effects of explicit instruction on the acquisition of EAs, focusing on the specificity concept. Fifty Chinese lower-intermediate learners of English were divided into three groups: 1) *standard instruction* (n =18), 2) *specificity instruction* (n =15), and 3) *control* (n =17). At the posttest, the second group to whom definiteness and specificity were explicitly taught gained lower scores than the other groups. Lopez concluded that explicit instruction may not have much of a role in the acquisition of definiteness and specificity. Similarly, a study by Snape and Yusa (2013)

evaluated the effect of explicit instruction on the recognition of EAs by high-intermediate Japanese university students. The findings indicated no difference between the experimental and the control group. Despite a non-significant outcome, the analysis showed that the participants of both groups performed equally well in selecting the indefinite rather than the definite article. Summing up research on instructed acquisition of EAs, a handful of studies (e.g., Umeda et al., 2019) have demonstrated measurable short-term progress and a few others have reported long-term progress (e.g., Akakura, 2012). As noted above, still, there are studies that failed to find any considerable effect for explicit instruction whatsoever (Lopez, 2019; Snape & Yusa, 2013).

Processing instruction

The role of input in SLA has been hypothesized to be crucial. It is held that no individual can acquire a L2 without adequate engagement with input (e.g., Benati & Lee, 2008). Attention to the role of input underpins the so-called comprehension-based approaches to instruction. Grounded in a rigorous theoretical base, *Processing Instruction* (PI) is a more recent initiative that fits within comprehension-oriented approaches. It is premised on VanPatten's (1996) *input processing* model which stresses how input can be transformed into intake, taking into account the three ingredients of language acquisition: input, input processors, and Universal Grammar mechanisms. It also attempts to account for the process in which a L2 learner makes the primary connection between a target form and its meaning. VanPatten (e.g., 2017) insists that PI is more of an aid, and constitutes an 'intervention', rather than a method or an approach. According to VanPatten (2002), applying a type of explicit instruction which focuses on learners' processing strategies may be more efficient than instruction in which learners are required to constantly generate the target language. For this reason, PI aims to push L2 learners to alter or deactivate their default strategies in order to develop a stronger form-meaning connection (Benati, 2019). Since the goal of PI is to help learners with language intake, it tends not to involve their production of the target forms during the input processing phase. As VanPatten (2002) propounded, the input processing model consists of three important components: 1) learners are provided with an explicit explanation about a specific linguistic structure or form; 2) they are notified about a certain processing problem which may negatively influence the way they process the structure or form during comprehension; and 3) they are given structured input (SI) activities. Structured input activities manipulate input in order to push the learners away from non-optimal and default processing strategies and to engage them in processing of the form (Benati & Lee, 2008). Processing instruction uses two types of SI activities: *referential* and *affective*. According to a core principle in VanPatten's input processing model known as "primacy of meaning", learners initially tend to derive meaning from the input before they process it for form. In addition, they are more likely to process meaningful grammatical forms before non-grammatical forms, irrespective of redundancy (Benati, 2019; Benati & Lee, 2008). As such, since EAs are non-salient in themselves, learners may prefer to prioritize more meaningful and salient units.

Consciousness-raising instruction (CRI) and the PACE model

Proponents of CRI subscribe to the view that exposing learners to comprehensible input is essential, but not ultimately sufficient for successful acquisition to take place. Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1985) hypothesized that CRI functions as a highlighter of particular target grammatical structures, expanding L2 learners' awareness and empowering them to integrate these structures into their developing interlanguage system. The sociocultural theory supports explicit instruction on the grounds that it mediates the internalization of L2 communication. Within this perspective, adopting a story-based approach for language learning that focuses on natural discourse and engages learners in comprehending longer samples of discourse has been proposed. This instructional sequence, advanced by Adair-Hauch and Donato (1994) is referred to as the PACE model. Similar to the CRI's principles, this model utilizes induction and discovery learning processes to maintain an optimal balance between instructional support

and learner agency. It intends to tap learners' explicit knowledge through a co-construction phase which involves their intellectual effort for certain analytic tasks, while adjusting the teacher's assistance to particular areas of difficulty. Furthermore, it inspires learner-teacher collaboration and encourages discussions about the lesson's grammar. Through questioning techniques, the teacher guides learners through grasping the underlying features and co-constructing the rules (Adair-Hauck & Donato, 2010). According to Adair-Hauck and Donato (1994), the acronym PACE stands for four steps including presentation, attention, co-construction, and extension activities.

Deductive versus Inductive Instruction

In the domain of grammar instruction, whether to teach target rules explicitly before a practice activity (a deductive approach), or to present contextualized practice before focusing on rules (an inductive approach) has been a matter of debate (Erlam, 2003). To put it in a different perspective, the deductive approach entails the teacher presenting the target grammatical forms through examples at the beginning, followed by learners' application of the forms. The inductive approach, however, can be applied both implicitly and explicitly. In the implicit-inductive approach, the target forms are taught only through natural exposure to the language. The explicit-inductive approach draws learners' attention to the target forms through typographically enhanced instructed materials so that the learners would be pushed to discover the rules and be able to state them explicitly. In light of the proposed theoretical background, the following research questions guided our study:

1. To what extent do PI and CRI have any immediate and/or delayed effects on Farsi-speaking EFL learners' recognition of English articles?
2. To what extent do PI and CRI have any immediate and/or delayed effects on the learners' production of English articles?
3. To what extent do PI and CRI have any immediate and/or delayed effects on the learners' overall retention (i.e., recognition and production) of English articles?
4. How does PI compare with CRI in terms of facilitating the retention of English articles in the short and long terms?

Method

Participants

The participants consisted of eighty-five (12 males and 73 females) Iranian undergraduate students from three intact classes whose ages ranged from 19 to 22. They were majoring in English language and literature at Vali-e-Asr University of Rafsanjan in southeastern Iran. They were all native speakers of Farsi who were admitted on the basis of their ranking obtained at a highly competitive countrywide entrance examination. Although a randomized participant selection was not possible, each class was randomly assigned to one of the three conditions: PI ($n=30$), CRI ($n=30$), and control ($n=25$).

Instrumentation

The required data were collated through a series of tailor-made tests, including a pretest, an immediate posttest, a delayed posttest (two weeks' follow-up), and eventually another delayed posttest (four months' follow-up); each of which involved both recognition and production items. The test contents, which consisted of 20 recognition items followed by 12 production items, were mostly extracted from a number of authentic contemporary English course books. The production section consisted of ten objective (gap-filling) items and two short writing prompts (see Appendix B). Moreover, in order to distract the students'

attention from the target structure (i.e., EAs), some items pertaining to the countable and non-countable nouns were also included. All rounds of the tests were identical in terms of content and the number of items. Nevertheless, on each testing phase, stems and distractors were counter-balanced. The participants were given a total test time of 45 minutes. The reliability of the test computed through Cronbach's Alpha for the 30 objective items (including recognition and production) was an acceptable $\alpha = .71$. The two prompts were anonymously rated by two independent Ph.D. holders in *applied linguistics* with adequate experience in assessing writing. The rating process concerned both missing and misusing of English articles by the participants. The inter-rater reliability was computed to be $r = .65$, indicating a respectable correlation. A separate cadre of experts consisting of a Ph.D. holder in general linguistics and another Ph.D. holder in applied linguistics examined the items in terms of content validity. They made a number of helpful comments, which were taken into account before administering the tests. It must be noted that for the two written production items (prompts), the 'target-like use analysis' formula (Pica, 1994) was used to calculate the accuracy scores.

Procedure

Prior to the intervention phase, written consent was obtained from university administrators and the participants who contributed to this project. All students were offered extra credit – albeit minimal – for their participation. Initially, the teacher (one of the authors of this paper) who was granted class time by resident lecturers at the respective university, carried out a pilot study to estimate the timing required for the experiment as well as to identify and prevent the potential problems that were likely to occur. The piloting assisted the researchers with the idea that for PI treatment, further examples were required to be practiced by the learners. Moreover, the researchers found that they needed more lucid questions to draw and orient learners' attention during CRI treatment.

At first, to make sure all participants were homogeneous in terms of proficiency level, they were given a mock Oxford Placement Test (OPT) (version 2001). The test which was administered in the paper-and-pencil format consisted of 60 multiple-choice grammar and vocabulary items. According to the classification offered by the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), the learners' level was identified as intermediate which equates to B1. One month after administering the OPT and a week before starting the intervention, all groups were given a pretest to ascertain their extent of familiarity with the target structure. The treatments were followed by an immediate posttest, and two delayed posttests.

Treatments

A week after administering the pretest, the instructional sessions were launched. In both experimental conditions (PI and CRI), the instruction was conducted over two weeks (eight sessions overall), spanning nearly 40 minutes per session. The grammar explanations used in the treatment sessions were mostly extracted from "*New Total English*" (Roberts et al., 2011) and "*English Grammar Digest*" (Aronson, 1984). Upon consulting these textbooks, the researchers extracted a well-organized list of the usage categories associated with all types of articles (definite, indefinite, and zero) to fit into the treatment program. As the students were found to have sufficient competence in English, the instructional content was delivered to them through this medium.

PI group

During the first session, the participants in the PI group were exposed to a series of *PowerPoint* slides via a video projector involving explicit explanations of the usage of EAs as well as some supporting examples. The teacher explained the rules one by one and gave additional examples when necessary. Then, an additional slide containing explicit information about common processing problems that may

occur while generating EAs was presented to the class by the teacher. In other words, the teacher briefed the students on the reasons why they may commit errors when using EAs. Afterward, through a referential activity, as a kind of SI activity, the students were given a handout containing a passage about the city of Dubai. The passage was followed by a task in which the class were required to choose the correct answer from two available options on their own. Following that, the affective SI activity began whereby students were given two sentences about Dubai and were asked to check the true or false boxes on the basis of their own common sense judgment. Then, the passage was displayed on the screen and the participants took turns to respond to the items individually. Shortly after, the correct answers were presented on the screen. To verify the affective activity, the teacher randomly selected a handful of students to read their answers out loud. Since in affective activities there is no right or wrong answer, the students expressed their personal opinions. The purpose of such an activity was to make sure that they had comprehended the meaning and attended to the form. The second session was managed in the same way as the first. However, the SI activities incorporated a text about the city of Melbourne. It is worth noting that since PI aims to alter the default strategies in order to engender input through establishing form-meaning connections, the students were never directly asked to produce the target structure.

CRI (PACE) group

As stated earlier, this study aspired to capitalize on the PACE model as a subcategory of CRI. In session 1, the teacher began to read aloud the text about Dubai (as in the previous group), calling on the class to listen. Upon completion of reading, the students were asked to retell the main points. Meanwhile, the teacher helped them to memorize the text by asking a number of questions in order to make sure that the text was properly comprehended. Then, the text was represented on the screen and one student volunteered to read it out loud. After that, the teacher moved on to the next slide which was the same passage; however, the EAs were underlined, colored, and bold-typed. The students were also given printouts of the passage. Next, they were asked to pay closer attention to the highlighted items for a few moments in order to find out the differences in the usage of article types, and develop some rules about them. The teacher then, provided the students with some guiding questions to facilitate their intellectual efforts during rule formation. She also asked them to reason about the constructed rules. In other words, with the teacher's assistance, the students co-constructed the rules. Then, the grammar rules were shown on the screen, and the teacher read them out one by one, while alluding to her explanations of the passage in order to make sure they were properly comprehended. Finally, as an extension activity, the teacher raised a number of questions such as:

T: *'Have you ever been to Dubai?'* and *'What do you like about Dubai?'*

The second session was run similarly to the first throughout all stages, involving a passage on Melbourne (see Appendix C for the administered classroom activities to the PI and CRI groups).

Control group

The students in this group did not receive any pre-planned instruction on EAs. In fact, they were exposed to their regular undergraduate subjects which consisted of general English courses. As a rule, these courses were prerequisites for their subsequent esoteric subjects in the third and fourth years of education in the English literature undergraduate program. Nevertheless, they took the same tests as the other two groups.

Results

In order to track within-groups changes across the four tests, a series of one-way repeated measures ANOVAs were carried out. For comparing between-groups' performance, however, the data were submitted to a multi-variate analysis of covariance (MANCOVA) test, assuming pretest as the covariate. The data were checked to see if they complied with the normality assumption, whereby no violations were observed. Secondly, in order to make sure that there was no statistical difference between the groups prior to the intervention, a one-way between-groups ANOVA was conducted for the pretest; the results revealed no difference at the .05 level, $F(2, 82) = .11, p = .89$; CRI ($M = 24.47, SD = 3.37$), PI ($M = 24.63, SD = 3.70$), control ($M = 24.92, SD = 3.49$).

Research Questions One, Two & Three

As regards the first three research questions, we examined the effects of the two explicit frameworks on the learners' recognition, production, and overall retention of EAs respectively.

Recognition tests

In order to compare the participants' performance across the four recognition tests, a one-way repeated measures ANOVA was run after selecting the *split data* tab on SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) to obtain each group's performance data independently. With regard to the assumption of sphericity, the p values were .9 for the CRI, .3 for the PI, and .3 for the control conditions respectively. Therefore, we could safely assume that the data distribution constituted no violation of that assumption. While the descriptive data can be seen in Table 2, one point of note here is that during the second delayed posttest, we encountered participant attrition to some extent as the test was administered in four months' time.

TABLE 2
Descriptive Statistics for Recognition Tests

	<i>Group</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Pretest	CRI	11.93	2.38	30
	PI	11.43	2.51	30
	Control	10.96	2.31	25
Immediate posttest	CRI	12.47	2.98	30
	PI	11.83	3.05	30
	Control	11.32	2.13	25
Delayed posttest1	CRI	12.56	2.75	27
	PI	12.19	2.88	27
	Control	12.54	2.68	24
Delayed posttest2	CRI	13.33	3.20	15
	PI	13.56	1.80	18
	Control	12.07	2.17	14

Comparing performances over time, the first ANOVA test revealed that for the CRI group, there existed no significant difference from Time 1 through Time 4; Wilks' Lambda = .61, $F(3, 12) = 2.55, p = .10$. Similarly, non-significant results were found for the control group, Wilks' Lambda = .55, $F(3, 11) = 2.98, p = .08$. However, for PI, significant effect for time was found, Wilks' Lambda = 0.49, $F(3, 15) = 5.09, p = .01, \eta_p^2 = .50$, suggesting a large overall effect size. Moreover, the results for the PI group illustrated that the significant differences lay between Times 1 and 4, and also between Times 2 and 4. In other words, as presented in Table 3, the PI group exhibited some improvement from the pretest to the second delayed posttest, and from the immediate posttest to the second delayed posttest (also see Figure 1 for the performance of the PI group).

TABLE 3
Pairwise Comparisons (Bonferroni post hoc tests for recognition)

Group	(I) time	(J) time	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Processing instruction	1	2	1.000	-1.661	2.661
		3	1.000	-2.821	1.710
		4	.031	-3.643	-.134
	2	3	.368	-2.628	.517
		4	.015	-4.395	-.383
		3	.319	-3.248	.581

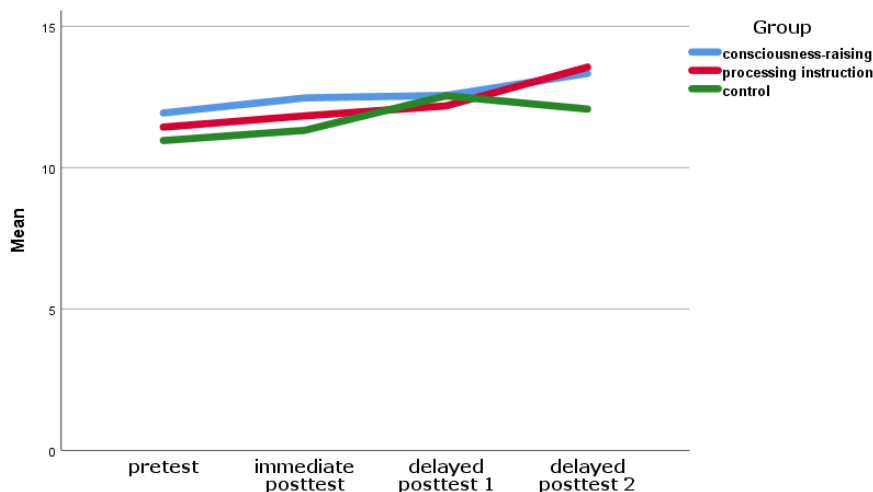


Figure 1. Recognition tests.

Production tests

A second one-way repeated measures ANOVA was run to compare the groups’ mean scores on the production tests from Time 1 through Time 4.

TABLE 4
Descriptive Statistics for Production Tests

	Group	Mean	SD	N
Pretest	CRI	12.57	2.22	30
	PI	13.23	2.51	30
	Control	14.00	2.08	25
Immediate posttest	CRI	13.87	2.57	30
	PI	14.37	2.14	30
	Control	13.84	2.17	25
Delayed posttest1	CRI	13.37	2.22	27
	PI	14.11	2.50	27
	Control	13.67	3.04	24
Delayed posttest2	CRI	13.73	1.98	15
	PI	14.00	2.19	18
	Control	14.00	2.38	14

The scores (see Table 4) suggest that the three conditions’ performances vary by a very narrow margin in terms of language production. Nevertheless, the multivariate tests revealed the existence of statistical differences between the test times within the CRI condition only, Wilk’s Lambda = .72, $F(3, 12) = 4.75$, $p = .02$, $\eta_p^2 = .27$. In other words, no difference was found between the other two groups’ scores across the four rounds of tests: PI (Wilk’s Lambda = .83, $F(3, 15) = 2.42$, $p = .10$), and control (Wilk’s Lambda =

0.98, $F(3, 11) = 0.15, p = .86$). More detailed analysis (see Table 5) indicated that in the CRI group, only the difference between Time 1 (pretest) and Time 2 (immediate posttest) turned significant. Figure 2 illustrates the positions of the groups across the tests.

TABLE 5
Pairwise Comparisons (Bonferroni post hoc tests for production)

Group	(I) time	(J) time	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Consciousness-raising Instruction	1	2	.013	-2.897	-.288
		3	.123	-2.110	.184
		4	.258	-3.171	.505
	2	3	.477	-.481	1.741
		4	.870	-.790	2.390
		3	1.000	-2.382	1.582

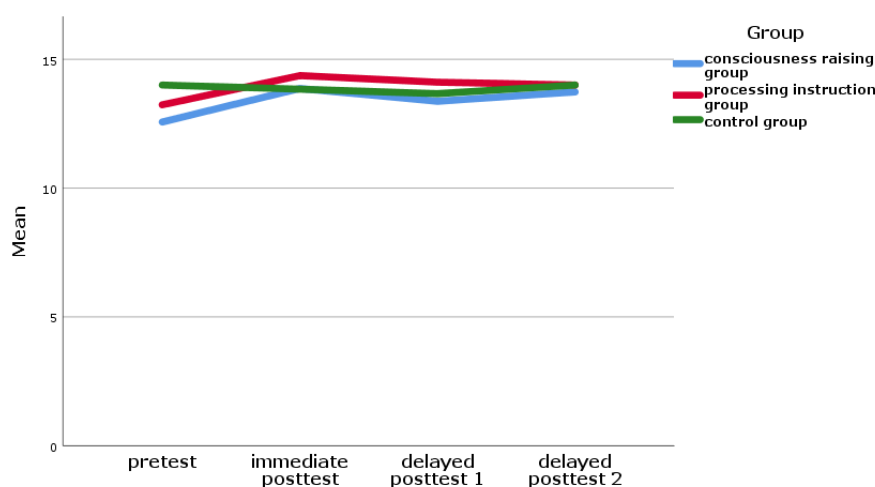


Figure 2. Production tests.

Aggregate results (recognition and production)

Table 6 represents the overall performance of the three conditions of our experiment. The results here indicate that unlike the control condition (Wilks' Lambda = .65, $F(3, 10) = 1.78, p = .21$), statistical difference has been found between the test times for the CRI group (Wilks' Lambda = .49, $F(3, 12) = 4.04, p = .03, \eta_p^2 = .50$), as well as the PI group (Wilks' Lambda = .46, $F(3, 14) = 5.35, p = .01, \eta_p^2 = .53$).

TABLE 6
Descriptive Data (aggregate of recognition & production)

	Group	Mean	SD	N
Pretest	CRI	24.47	3.37	30
	PI	24.63	3.70	30
	Control	24.92	3.49	25
Immediate posttest	CRI	26.33	4.35	30
	PI	26.17	4.26	30
	Control	25.00	3.30	25
Delayed posttest1	CRI	25.96	4.11	27
	PI	26.26	4.76	27
	Control	26.13	5.01	24
Delayed posttest2	CRI	27.07	4.28	15
	PI	27.35	3.06	17
	Control	26.38	3.86	13

TABLE 7
Pairwise Comparisons (production and recognition scores combined)

Group	(I) time	(J) time	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Consciousness raising instruction	1	2	.013	-6.174	-.626
		3	.041	-3.060	-.051
		4	.086	-5.596	.263
	2	3	.188	-.359	2.892
		4	1.000	-1.415	2.882
		3	1.000	-3.037	1.970
Processing instruction	1	2	1.000	-2.192	1.721
		3	.405	-4.174	.880
		4	.014	-4.427	-.396
	2	3	.148	-3.124	.301
		4	.016	-4.023	-.330
		3	1.000	-2.805	1.275

As shown in Table 7, for the CRI condition, the difference between Times 1 and 2, and also between Times 1 and 3 turned significant. In addition, for the PI condition, the difference between Times 1 and 4, as well as Times 2 and 4 became significant. In total, from a within-groups perspective, CRI had a rather short-term impact whereas PI was identified with a late-emerging impact on the overall retention of EAs.

Research Question Four

To find the answer to the fourth research question regarding the between-groups comparison of CRI and PI in the short and long term, a MANCOVA test was performed. Before reporting the results, the homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices index was checked to make sure the data would meet the assumptions. The value of Box’s M was checked to be acceptable, 4.819, $p > .001$.

TABLE 8
MANCOVA Test (between-subjects effects)

Source	Dependent Variable	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group	immediate posttest	2	22.805	2.49	.09
	delayed posttest 1	2	.812	.059	.94
	delayed posttest 2	2	3.54	.254	.77

As seen in Table 8, there was no difference between the three groups’ scores on any of the posttests. In other words, in spite of obtaining higher points nearly on all posttest phases, neither of the experimental groups was statistically superior to the control group (also see Figure 3).

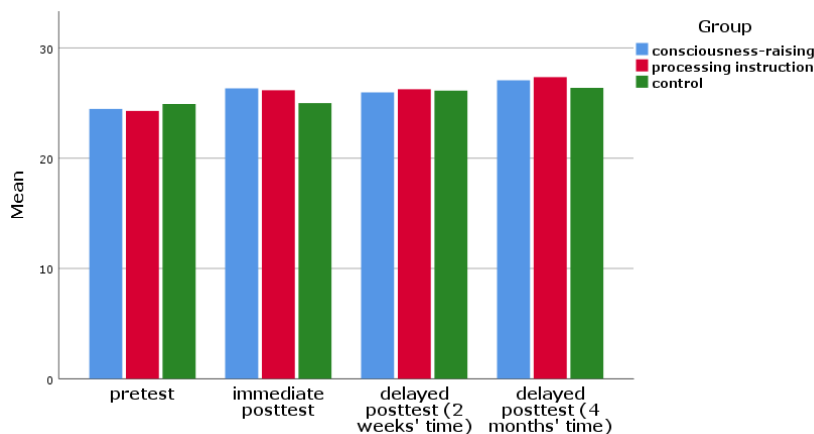


Figure 3. Groups’ overall performance.

Discussion

This study set out with the aim of assessing the short- and long-term effects of explicit instructional frameworks, namely PI and CRI on the retention of English articles. With respect to the efficacy of PI on the recognition and production of EAs, the results revealed that, no evidence of short-term learner improvement was detected. In fact, the learners exhibited no immediate improvement after undergoing PI treatment. Rather, the gain in scores surfaced at the second delayed recognition posttest. Hence, as a subcategory of comprehension-based instruction, PI is likely to tap the receptive ability in the long run. This outcome may, in part, emanate from the nature of the grammatical feature in question. Whereas the present study chose to focus on EAs as an acquisitionally inflexible aspect, many previous studies on PI had decided otherwise. In fact, it has been underscored (e.g., Nassaji, 2017) that PI's utility is often affected by the type and complexity of the target feature. The non-significant immediate results can support what Benati and Lee (2008) observed to the effect that learners process more meaningful and salient forms sooner. At this juncture, our conclusion is that grammar instruction involving PI may have only a long-term effect on the recognition of non-salient elements including the EAs, while it may have both short and long-term influence on the acquisition of more salient features such as object pronouns (e.g., Erlam, 2003; VanPatten, 2002), or the past simple tense (e.g., M. Chan, 2019), among others. As Nassaji (2017) put it, explicit instruction may facilitate the development of implicit knowledge "by making learners more likely to notice the forms in subsequent input" (p. 214). Although Shintani et al., (2013) point to the benefits of comprehension-based instruction for receptive knowledge, they acknowledge its superior effects in the short rather than the long term; an outcome which was not corroborated in the current experiment. The inconsistent effects of explicit instruction may, in part, emanate from the nature of the grammatical feature in question. According to DeKeyser (2005), it may be difficult to teach explicitly the straightforward-looking EAs which happen to fulfil complex functions. Bearing these functions in mind, the English article system may express the highly abstract notions which are often difficult to infer both explicitly and implicitly. Furthermore, the participants in the present study, had not experienced receiving such explicit grammar instruction in article system in such a short period of time. Therefore, it is conceivable that the intensive lessons on article usage might have caused some confusion as discriminating between indefinite, definite and generic contexts is a subtle task.

Moreover, on the efficiency of PI, as demonstrated by a considerable number of earlier studies, the current experiment discovered no significant improvement at the immediate and delayed production posttests. This finding was somewhat reflected in Shintani's (2014) meta-analysis where the effects of PI versus production-based instruction (PBI) on grammar acquisition were appraised. Interestingly, the results of the meta-analysis showed that PI outperformed PBI in the receptive tests. However, there was no significant difference between the two categories on the productive measures. According to VanPatten (1996, 2017), PI is predicated on input processing and helps L2 learners strengthen form-meaning connections while it is not initially intended to involve the learners' rule-formation capacity. Moreover, on the basis of what Shintani (2014) asserted, receptive tests are easier to tackle as they elicit a process that is cognitively consistent with VanPatten's input processing model. On balance, this and a good number of preceding studies imply that PI may have little in-depth effect on the *production* of grammatical features, irrespective of their complexity. It is worthy of note that the PI's durable impact had also been demonstrated by VanPatten and Fernández (2004) in their first attempt at evaluating whether the intervention can fulfill the goal of providing learners with new strategies for processing input. The experiment enabled the learners to successfully interpret sentence-initial pronouns accurately eight months into the treatment time.

On the basis of our several assessment timelines, CRI had no considerable impact on the learners' recognition ability. However, some short-term improvements were observed in their productive ability. This is consistent with Vogel et al.'s (2011) study where they observed the positive impact of PACE lessons on the learners' short-term improvement in using EAs. The findings in this segment of our experiment are in agreement with a number of previous studies (e.g., Mohammed, 2004) that observed

some positive impact for CRI in the short term. The absence of long-term effects for CRI is reflective of Shintani et al.'s (2013) assertion that triggering consciousness and noticing is not necessarily conducive to acquisition. Thus, on the one hand, target forms *can* be noticed and transferred to the learners' long-term memory, depending on how frequently they are noticed, while on the other, there is no guarantee that the noticed forms would always be imprinted on memory in their entirety. Therefore, the short-term improvement in the CRI condition may be attributed to the paucity of sustainable presentation of or exposure to the EAs' usage during the short treatment span. Specifically, we could argue that the discovery learning stage, typical of CRI which is integral to PACE lessons, may have positively affected the productive knowledge of EAs. Moreover, the significant productive development may be attributed to what Adair-Hauck and Donato (2010) claim that the model examines language in contextualized and smaller installments rather than through a list of separate and decontextualized rules. Hence, it can be concluded that teaching EAs becomes more feasible via an engaging and contextualized syllabus. As we acknowledge Adair-Hauck and Donato's (2010) proposition that the target form will become internalized when learners are provided with the opportunity to employ them in communication, it is necessary to take stock of the EAs' non-salient and complex functions as potential barriers to internalization. Salience and linguistic complexity along with other elements such as frequency, and transparency of form-function mapping vary across structural forms, thereby influencing the effects of instruction (Nassaji, 2017).

As another objective of this study, a between-groups' comparison was drawn between PI and CRI as two explicit instructional protocols. The results indicated that the PI, the CRI and the control groups were not significantly different from one another. This rather unremarkable outcome is reminiscent of Lopez's (2019) work who investigated the short- and long-term effects of explicit form-focused instruction on the acquisition of EAs, where no difference was found between the experimental and control groups. The findings of the present study are also in accord with Snape and Yusa's (2013) who investigated the effects of explicit instruction on definiteness, genericity and specificity of EAs, and found no significant difference between the experimental and control groups. We reiterate that the article system harbors highly abstract notions that do not easily lend themselves to internalization. That said, the between-groups findings are inconsistent with studies that found some kind of difference between the experimental and control conditions (Akakura, 2012; Umeda et al., 2019). Arguably, these dissimilar results may also be contingent upon the choice of the explicit instructional category. After all, as noted earlier, explicit frameworks and approaches abound in the literature.

Regarding the nature of grammar instruction, our findings imply that explicit manipulation is more likely to benefit short-term development when it is taught inductively, as seen in the PACE condition. Furthermore, the analyses support the long-term retention of EAs' through deductive explicit instruction (i.e., PI). Such findings are partially in line with those of Erlam (2003) who found the superiority of deductive instruction over inductive in the short and long terms. This may confirm the idea that learners tend to misinterpret non-salient forms or even fail to distinguish them in the absence of explicit representation of the target rules.

The analysis of the writing prompts lends support to the observation of Momenzade and Youhanaee (2015) who explored the role of L1 transfer in article acquisition. They found that Farsi-speaking learners encounter more difficulty using the definite rather than the indefinite article. Furthermore, in the current study, the participants were seen to omit or avoid using the definite article. Rather, they preferred to use (\emptyset) in the context where '*the*' was required. Therefore, the findings provide support for Jafarpur (1979) who concluded that since there is no overt form for indicating definiteness in Farsi, it is not surprising that Farsi-speaking learners of English make omission errors. In a similar way, the outcome of the present study mirror Tsimpli and Dimitrakopoulou's (2007) interpretability hypothesis. Cross-linguistic discrepancies may complicate matters for learners in producing the accurate target form, thus leading them to misuse or omit them. In other words, previous research (e.g., Chrabaszcz, & Jiang, 2014) indicates that learners with a [+article] L1, often transfer those rules to L2 under the interpretability hypothesis. In English language, the definiteness feature of the article system is interpretable at both conceptual and phonetic levels. However, in Farsi, the definiteness feature is interpretable only at the

conceptual level due to a dearth of an overt form representing definiteness. Therefore, one possibility that could have partly overshadowed the impact of both instructional frameworks might be attributed to the substantial spillover effect of L1 transfer.

Conclusion

Taken together, apart from the long-term impact of PI on the learners' receptive retention, and the short-term impact of CRI on their productive retention, the evidence from descriptive and inferential statistics support the idea that explicit instruction of the article system did not have very dramatic results. It was also the case that L1 transfer played an active role. One implication drawn from our findings is that Farsi speakers (an estimated 110 million people situated mostly in Iran, but also across Tajikistan, Uzbekistan, Iraq, Russia, Azerbaijan and Afghanistan) with a [+article] background may not have much success in accurately producing EAs when they are taught through PI. However, this category of explicit instruction appears to be beneficial when used by language teachers focusing on the learners' receptive internalization. In other words, deductive instruction through PI may cater for receptive aspects of retention while explicit-inductive instruction characterized by CRI appears more likely to benefit the productive dimensions of learning for those with [+article] L1 backgrounds. Amongst the issues that emerged from the findings of this study was the role of L1 transfer. As shown, the participants' L1 had an obvious role in their correct use of the definite article. Therefore, syllabus designers as well as language teachers should take into account the similarities and differences between learners' L1 and L2 prior to taking pedagogical decisions. Instructional materials currently employed within the Iranian mainstream education and practiced across myriads of classrooms carry little awareness of the developments and insights offered by a good deal of recent research on the impact of instructed second language acquisition (also see Rezai & Jabbari, 2010). Hence, Iran's education authorities and policy-makers are advised to take into account research-based developments in their future curriculum planning endeavors, particularly with respect to the instruction of EAs. We believe that this chasm warrants in-depth investigation. Prospective researchers could focus on the ailing system of L2 education in Iran by using several pedagogical clues offered in this study in order to tease out the challenges confronted by the teachers and learners. Moreover, this study may have provided some additional evidence for the researchers who work on any area germane to grammar acquisition as well as the typology of explicit instruction. As far as theories surrounding instructed SLA are concerned, other form-focused and/or implicit approaches may prove to be more conducive to the acquisition of EAs, which should be taken into consideration by future researchers. The adoption of graded readers through input enhanced techniques is one such possibilities which could be a workable option for treating inflexible morphosyntactic aspects, and ultimately stand L2 learners in good stead.

It needs to be borne in mind that the present study was subject to a number of potential limitations. One limitation which could have affected the outcome was the instructional timeline. Although the timing was not conventionally inadequate, we nonetheless recommend future endeavors to allow more time for the intervention process due to the emphasis laid on the decisive role of the extent of instruction. Moreover, this study suffered from subject mortality. We faced the issue of absenteeism during the administration of the last delayed posttest, which might have impacted the results, particularly with respect to the long-term effects of instruction. Meanwhile, we should also be wary of the fact that no matter to what extent learners are exposed to explicit instruction, EAs are an all-pervasive and indispensable part and parcel of English syntax, even within the smallest linguistic units. Hence, we assume that exposure of any quantity or proportion to the English text on the part of the learners could well compromise the internal validity associated with the role of instruction. Researchers should bear in mind that controlling for EAs as a target structure is a major challenge. This limitation could affect the external validity of any experimental research concerned with the instruction of the article system.

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Appendix A

Standard English language has three article types: indefinite (*a/an*), definite (*the*), and zero (\emptyset). "A/an" is used with indefinite nouns, does not refer to a specific thing, and refers to one of many out of the whole group of that thing:

1. I ate *a* banana.

The definite article is used with a definite noun in which both the speaker and the listener know what they are referring to:

2. Thank you for *the* banana.

The article system can also be encoded for genericity whereby the zero article is used to make a generalization of something:

3. (\emptyset) Bananas are yellow.

The concept of genericity in English can be expressed by using *a/an*, *the*, or (\emptyset). Therefore, depending on the context, for example, the definite article in the sentence "*The bananas are yellow*" can be used with both generic and specific nouns. In other words, in one context, *the bananas* may be considered as some definite and known bananas, whereas in another context, they may be regarded as a whole and as a kind of fruit. Besides the general usage of EAs on the basis of definiteness and genericity, there are conventional features as well. As an example, "the" is used with the names of specific rivers, seas, oceans, deserts, and some countries:

4. a) *The* Amazon River
b) *The* Republic of Ireland

Similar to English, Farsi or Persian (i.e. the language of Iranians, among others) incorporates the article system and shares the concept of definiteness. According to Jafarpur (1979), the indefinite article in Farsi is marked in three ways, using a) the prefix *yek*, b) the suffix *-i*, c) or both:

5. a) *yek* ketaab khæridam.
b) ketaabi khæridam.
c) *yek* ketaabi khæridam.

I bought *a* book.

However, Farsi does not include an overt definite article in its formal writing. Instead, an enclitic *-e* is used to mark definiteness:

6. *sib* tu dæst-*e* man æst.

The apple is in my hand.

Moreover, the concept of genericity in Farsi can be denoted in two ways: bare singular or bare plural nouns:

7. *gol-ha* ra doost daræm / *gol* ra doost daræm

I love flowers. (generic)

Nevertheless, depending on the context, when the speaker refers to some specific flowers, bare plurals can be interpreted as definite.

8. *gol-ha* ra doost daræm

I love *the* flowers. (specific)

Appendix B

Recognition and Production Tests

- Circle the correct options in italics.

- 1) We're going to drive right across *Sahara Desert/ Europe*.
- 2) We need some glues/ glue to fix this vase.
- 3) Where are you going to put all your *furnitures/ furniture*?
- 4) I once went on a boat on the *Lake Victoria/ Rhine River*.
- 5) Bad news *don't/ doesn't* make people happy.
- 6) My sister works in *Netherlands/Denmark*.
- 7) What *awful / an awful* weather.
- 8) Most of the people in our village go to *the church/ church* near the road.

- Circle the incorrect part (There is only one answer for each item).

- 9) Anne's house is the first on left.
- 10) The air is full of smoke, carbon monoxide, and many other substance.
- 11) Where shall I put books? On the floor.
- 12) Water turns into the ice at 0c.
- 13) Regular garbages will typically contain many things that can be recycled: jars, glass bottles, magazines, etc.
- 14) The books are expensive in my country.
- 15) It took me a lot of time to finish my homeworks. I had a lot of assignments.

- Read the passage and choose the correct answers.

It all feels blissfully remote when you step off Caledonia ferry after (16) ___ two-hour area journey from (17) ___ west coast of (18) ___ Scotland. You are welcomed by grazing sheep and kindly islander collecting building card boxes of (19) ___ boat arrival is (20) ___ major social event.

- | | | | |
|---------------|--------|-----------|--------|
| 16) a) any | b) (-) | c) one | d) a |
| 17) a) this | b) (-) | c) the | d) a |
| 18) a) to the | b) the | c) in the | d) (-) |
| 19) a) the | b) one | c) any | d) (-) |
| 20) a) the | b) (-) | c) one | d) a |

- Fill out the blanks with a/ an, the, or no articles (-).

- 21) I saw ___ interesting documentary on TV last night.
- 22) A: What's ___ most interesting place to visit in your town?
B: Probably ___ museum. It's ___ oldest building in my town.
- 23) ___ basketball is a sport.
- 24) ___ animal needs a regular supply of food.
- 25) ___ Lut Desert
- 26) ___ bird has wings.
- 27) ___ Nile River
- 28) ___ Indian Ocean

A- Write at least two sentences about each of the following tourist attractions:
Mount Everest, Caspian Sea, Eiffel Tower, Taj Mahal.

B- Describe the most interesting place you have visited so far (40-50 words). Write down specific details about the place.

Appendix C

Part A:

a) The CRI group's slides and treatment materials: Session 1

(-) Dubai

Fifty years ago, (-) Dubai was just a small fishing village on the Persian Gulf. Today it is one of the most exciting new cities of the twenty-first century.

Reasons for success

There are several reasons why (-) Dubai has become the world's latest hotspot. One is its location. It is situated midway between (-) Europe and (-) Asia. Another very important reason is opportunity. The wealth from oil has been invested to create an ultra-modern city and a financial center.

A global city

(-) Dubai is one of the seven United Arab Emirates (UAE) cities. It is ruled by crown prince (-) Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid al-Maktoum. He has declared that he wants to make (-) Dubai a pioneering global city. To this end, the country has invested more than \$100 billion in new projects.

Ten million tourists

(-) Dubai's 10 million tourists come for the beaches but especially for the stores. There is an annual Shopping Festival in (-) January and (-) February that attracts 3.5 million people who spend nearly \$2.5 billion. If the beach and the desert lose their appeal, visitors can always go (-) skiing at (-) Ski Dubai.

What's next?

(-) Marines, (-) gyms, (-) sports stadiums—all these are under construction.
(-) Dubai is getting better, but the best is yet to come.

- Make up rules to explain how to use **a, an, the, and no article (-)**.

'a' and 'an' is used...

- 1) When something is one of many.
- 2) When it's the first time someone/something has been mentioned.
- 3) To say what something is.

Use *an* before a word that starts with a vowel sound (**a, e, i, o, u**). If it does not start with a vowel sound, use *a*.

'The' is used ...

- 1) Before any noun (singular, plural, or uncountable) that is identified as special or specific, a particular item or items.
- 2) When something is the only one.
- 3) With superlative form of comparison.
- 4) If the title includes States, Kingdom and Republic.
- 5) Before the name of specific rivers, seas, oceans and deserts.

No article (-) is used...

- 1) With a plural or uncountable noun to talk about things in general.
- 2) With the names of people, books, plays.
- 3) With towns, cities, lakes, countries, and mountains.

Exceptions:

- the Netherlands / the Philippines / the Czech Republic / the US / the UKs
- 4) With Sports or games: soccer, tennis, skiing, baseball, golf, football.
- 5) Before meals, days, months, and century.

Extension activity

1. Have you ever been to Dubai?
2. What do you like about Dubai?

b) The CRI group's slides and treatment materials: Session 2

(-) Danni's travels throughout (-) Melbourne

(-) Melbourne is where I grew up; so it obviously means a lot to me. It is located in **the** southeastern part of (-) Australia, and that is constantly evolving. (-) Melbourne people, like all Australians, enjoy travelling and their increasing experience of other countries means local tastes have changed. **The** city has become much more universal.

One of **the** best places to visit is **the** Crown Casino, which features more than forty eating places all under one roof. Someone told me that in Melbourne you can sample **the** cuisines of 75 different countries; I haven't managed to eat my way through them all, but it's **a** wonderful challenge.

A little while ago, my friend joined me. It was fun showing him all **the** familiar landmarks and also going to places I've never been before. From (-) Melbourne, we took **the** Great Ocean road, **a** 150-mile highway that is **a** scenic delight. You pass through **an** area that includes **the** world-famous Twelve Apostles rock formations, **the** Otway rainforest, and **the** Bells beach. We loved spending time on **the** beach. It really was **an** amazing summer.

The flight to Australia is **a** long one but perfectly comfortable if you follow **a** routine like mine. I get on board and immediately change into my flight pajamas.

- Make up rules to explain how to use a, an, the, and no article (-).

Extension activity

1. Have you ever been to Melbourne?
2. Among the places mentioned in the text, which one do you like visiting?

Part B:

a) The PI group's slides and treatment materials: Session 1

English articles

Definition

Articles are special modifiers that appear before nouns or noun phrases. They help clarify the meaning of the noun in your sentence. In other words, articles are used before a noun to show whether the noun refers to a particular or to a general example of something.

Types

In English, there are mainly two article types: *the* and *a* and (its variant *an*, used before a word that starts with a vowel sound which are a, e, I, o, and u).

A noun may also appear without an article (-) in front of it.

'a' and 'an' is used...

1) When something is one of many:

e.g., I saw an old man with a dog.

2) When it's the first time someone/something has been mentioned:

e.g., There is a car in front of my house.

3) To say what something is:

e.g., It's a new shopping mall.

He is a teacher.

Use *an* before a word that starts with a vowel sound (**a, e, i, o, u**). If it does not start with a vowel sound, use *a*.

For example: A man

An elephant

'The' is used...

1) Before any noun (singular, plural, or uncountable) that is identified as special or specific, a particular item or items:

e.g., It was the only photograph that he had of his grandmother.

She thanked me for the information.

I used to enjoy the chicken sandwiches that my mother made for me.

2) When something is the only one:

e.g., The moon goes around the Earth.

3) With superlative form of comparison:

e.g., It's the best restaurant in town.

The city hall is the tallest building in town.

4) If the title includes States, Kingdom and Republic:

e.g., The United States

The United Kingdom

The Republic of China

5) Before the name of specific rivers, seas, oceans and deserts:

e.g., *Steamboats are used to transport people to various destinations along the Mississippi River.

*The Pacific Ocean

No article (-) is used...

- 1) With a plural or uncountable noun to talk about things in general. Compare:
e.g., I love flowers. (= flowers in general)
I love the flowers in my garden. (= the specific flowers in my garden)
- 2) With the names of people, books, plays.
e.g., I have read Romeo and Juliet.
- 3) With towns, cities, and countries, lakes, and mountains.
e.g., (-) Vietnam
(-) Tokyo
(-) Everest

Exception:

The Netherlands / ...

- 4) With Sports or games: soccer, tennis, skiing, baseball, golf, football.
e.g., Every Saturday they play football.
- 5) Before meals, days, months, and century.
e.g., I never have breakfast.
I was born in September.
Let's have dinner.

Be careful!

English articles convey no new information. Since they are unstressed, their omission or substitution will not change the meaning of the utterance drastically.

Note: You will always need an article (a, an, the, and no article (-)) before nouns or noun phrases.

Structured Input Activities:

Referential Activity:

***Choose the correct option.**

1) The/(-)Dubai

Fifty years ago, 2) the/(-) Dubai was just 3) a/the small fishing village on 4) the/a Persian Gulf. Today it is one of 5) the/a most exciting new cities of 6) the/(-) twenty-first century.

Reasons for success

There are several reasons why 7) the/(-) Dubai has become 8) the/a world's latest hot spot. One is its location. It is situated midway between 9) (-)/an Europe and 10) (-)/ an Asia. Another very important reason is opportunity. 11) The/a wealth from oil has been invested to create 12) an/(-) ultra-modern city and 13) a/the financial center.

14) A/the global city

15) The/(-) Dubai is one of 16) the/a seven United Arab Emirates (UAE) cities. It is ruled by crown prince 17) the/(-) Sheikh Mohammed bin Rashid al-Maktoum. He has declared that he wants to make 18) the/(-) Dubai 19) a/the pioneering global city. To this end, 20) the/a country has invested more than \$100 billion in new projects.

Ten million tourists

21) The/(-) Dubai's 10 million tourists come for 22) the/(-) beaches but especially for 23) the/a stores. There is 24) (-)/an annual Shopping Festival in 25) a/(-) January and 26) a/(-) February that attracts 3.5 million people who spend nearly \$2.5 billion. If 27) the/(-) beach and 28) the/a desert lose their appeal, visitors can always go 29) the/(-) skiing at 30) the/(-) Ski Dubai.

What's next?

31) The/(-) Marines, 32) the/(-) gyms, 33) the/(-) sports stadiums—all these are under construction. 34) the/(-) Dubai is getting better, but 35) the/a best is yet to come.

Affective activities

- Check true or false based on your opinion.

- 1) Dubai is one of the most attractive and promising cities in the world. True False
- 2) Dubai is only suitable for pleasure, not for living. True False

b) The PI group's slides and treatment materials: Session 2

Structured Input Activities:

Referential Activity

*Choose the correct option.

1) the/(-) Danni's travels throughout 2) (-)/the Melbourne

3) (-)/the Melbourne is where I grew up; so it obviously means a lot to me. It is located in 4) the/(-) southeastern part of 5) (-)/ an Australia, and that is constantly evolving. 6) (-)/the Melbourne people, like all Australians, enjoy travelling and their increasing experience of other countries means local tastes have changed. 7) The/a city has become much more universal.

One of 8) the/(-) best places to visit is 9) the/(-) Crown Casino, which features more than forty eating places all under one roof. Someone told me that in Melbourne you can sample 10) the/(-) cuisines of 75 different countries; I haven't managed to eat my way through them all, but it's 11) a/the wonderful challenge.

A little while ago, my friend joined me. It was fun showing him all 12) the/(-) familiar landmarks and also going to places I've never been before. From 13) (-)/the Melbourne, we took 14) the/a Great Ocean road, 15) a/(-) 150-mile highway that is 16) a/the scenic delight. You pass through 17) (-)/an area that includes 18) a/the world famous Twelve Apostles rock formations, 19) the/(-) Otway rainforest and 20) the/(-) Bells beach. We loved spending time on 21) the/a beach. It really was 22) an/the amazing summer. 23) (-)/The flight to Australia is 24) the/a long one but perfectly comfortable if you follow 25) a/the routine like mine. I get on board and immediately change into my flight pajamas.

Affective Activities

- 1) Bell beach is one of the places I would like to visit. True False
- 2) Iranians, like Australian, enjoy traveling. True False