Universidad de Murcia

Departamento de Filología Inglesa

**Activity Sequencing Patterns in the
Teaching of English as a Foreign Language.
An Analysis Based on Three 20th Century Samples**

*(Patrones de secuenciación de actividades
en la enseñanza de inglés como lengua extranjera.
Análisis basado en tres muestras del siglo XX)*

Master's Thesis
(Tesis de licenciatura)

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ALM: Audio-Lingual Method

SLT: Situational Language Teaching Method

P-P-P: Presentation, Practice, Production

1. INTRODUCTION

One of the main concerns in contemporary foreign language teaching methodology lies in the search for procedures which trigger the inclusion of variety in materials. Indeed, different researchers have highlighted the value of diversity as one of the fundamental elements to enhance motivation, both in general learning contexts (Alonso Tapia 1991: 46) and in foreign languages learning (Skehan 1989: 49; Sánchez 1993: 101; 2001: 107; Ur 1996: 215; Tomlinson 1998c: 18; Harmer 2001: 308). As Sánchez (2001: 112) points out, the source of this variety may come from the number of activities in each lesson; the content of those activities; their underlying procedure and their varied sequencing. The latter is the one to which I will address my attention, since its variety will favour the richness of the different types of activities in turn.

My impression from the reality of foreign language classrooms is that the structuring of the presentation of materials and patterns of action suffers rare modifications in a formal academic setting. A classic scheme emerges, which has been called "school model" by Sánchez (1993: 95; 2001: 116). It invariably follows the cognitive order of presentation-explanation-practice-consolidation-transference. In the particular context of foreign language teaching, it is usually known as the "P-P-P" (Presentation-Practice-Production) model, which Tomlinson (1998b: xii) defines as "an approach to teaching language items which follows a sequence of presentation of the item, practice of the item and then production (i.e. use) of the item". Within the framework of Communicative Language Teaching, the steps or phases of this pattern can be materialized in diverse procedures in classroom materials and practices, i.e, they can adopt different formats by means of dissimilar types of activities but the underlying structure of presentation of materials is always the same.

To my surprise research is empirically inexistent and scarce in theoretical proposals regarding activity sequencing in foreign language teaching materials. Up to the present date, the scarce contributions and proposals about sequencing do not substantially turn aside from this traditional school model, either because of their similarities in their cognitive order or because of the rigidity in their organizational procedures.

The purpose of this essay is to start opening the way to (in my opinion) this long-standing need in foreign language teaching by means of the analysis of related past practices in activity sequencing. To my knowledge this is the first study of these characteristics. Previous non-data reference as to the structuring of exercises prior to the 1980s can be found (Johnson 1994, 1996; Cook 2001, Howatt 2004). However, the present study constitutes the first empirical-based comparison of activity sequencing patterns drawing on actual extracts of units from pre-communicative methodology materials.

I firmly believe that in order to undertake some sound research on a specific aspect of foreign language methodology, a historical study of the subject must be firstly carried out. Indeed, the critical examination and understanding of earlier procedures not only allows for a better understanding of these. It inevitably results in a much more enlightened perception of both current methodological trends and attitudes towards old routines. (For example, in the case of sequencing, this almost unattended feature in contemporary foreign language methodology research may be a valuable parameter to untangle the present scholarly disenchantment for *Audiolingualism, Situational Language Teaching* and the *Direct Method*, just to name one practical application). On the basis of these two pieces of information, historical comparative studies may well act as a trigger for future research in turn.

By way of unveiling the past picture of sequencing I thus hope, as a subsidiary aim, to shed some light on the contemporary practice of activity arrangement patterns in foreign language teaching materials.

With these two general purposes in mind, my immediate objective is to offer a diachronic analytical comparison of the activity sequencing structures supplied in the following three well-known English as a Foreign Language twentieth-century coursebooks (in chronological order):

Berlitz, M. D. (1931). *M. D. Berlitz Method for Teaching Modern Languages. English Part. First Book* (439th ed.). London: Berlitz School.

Eckersley, C. E. (1938). *Essential English for Foreign Students*. London: Longmans, Green.

Alexander, L. G. (1967a). *First Things First. An Integrated Course for Beginners. New Concept English*. (Vol. 1). London: Longmans.

In order to accomplish this objective, I will use the P-P-P framework as my analytical tool precisely due to its overwhelming presence in the last quarter of the twentieth century up to now.

The structuring of the content of my essay will be as follows: Firstly, I will clarify what I understand by *sequencing* (section 2). Part 3 will comprise an introductory materials description, and will be subdivided in two sections: the rationale for the selection of the historical period studied (early-and-half- twentieth century) and the rationale for the examination of the specific coursebooks above (as well as their level and the precise units to be analysed). The account of my methodological procedure at a pedagogical level will constitute the fourth part. The P-P-P model will be depicted in the field of foreign language learning with its corresponding merits and disadvantages. This section will be followed by the report of the cognitive psychological foundation of the P-P-P in part five. Due to its importance and length, this area will constitute a whole section in its own right. My historical comparative analysis will be included in part six, the final but most extensive one. The examination of each manual will comprise the following elements: a background section with the language teaching contextualization of the period; a description of the structure of the materials; the specific analysis of the units selected, with the psychological reflections included; in the case of Berlitz's and Eckersley's coursebooks, I will also add an internal comparison between the lessons studied in terms of activity typology and sequencing patterns (since more than one unit will be examined in these two materials. See section 3.2). In Eckersley's manual, owing to the higher number of lessons analysed, a concluding remark will be equally incorporated.

A conclusion encompassing a critical summing-up of the results of the analysis plus implications for current didactic procedures in materials will be supplied at the end.

2. OPERATIONALIZATION OF *SEQUENCING*

I understand by *sequencing* the ordering or distribution of activities ("how" the content is offered) within a didactic lesson or unit in a given language teaching coursebook. Before proceeding to dissect this definition, firstly I consider it necessary to remark that in this study the terms *activity*, *exercise* and *task* will be used interchangeably for stylistic purposes. On the other hand, the terms *lesson* and *unit* will be equally interchanged. By any of the two I refer to "the set of activities bounded together by a common focal content" (Doyle 1986: 399). To me this "content" can be linguistic, cultural, pragmatic, etc. The lesson for which it acts as its unifying conductor and which may extend from one to several classes is explicitly and clearly separated from other lessons.

The above operationalization of *sequencing* is radically opposed to the widespread definition found in the literature, which virtually restricts sequencing to the ordering of the content (or the learning "what"; either structures, notions, functions, communicative abilities, tasks) to be acquired within the general or long-term nature of syllabus. Within this context both "sequencing" and "grading" have been indistinctly used by many authors as synonyms (such as Richards, Platt and Platt (1995) being one of the most illustrative cases). However, these terms refer to two related but clearly differentiated concepts. *Grading* alludes to difficulty (either linguistic or of a psycholinguistic/cognitive nature) as the parameter of content arrangement. *Sequencing* refers then to the overall organization of that syllabus by means of several criteria, one of which is complexity (*gradation*).

Sánchez (2004a: 178) distinguishes four areas with which my conceptualization of sequencing of activities is related: methodology of coursebooks and the principles of ordering accordingly advocated; human knowledge-processes sequence; variety of teaching action aimed to foster students' motivation; the degree of motivation enclosed by a certain activity. The major area of the present study focuses on the first one, though the second one will be extremely important and thus referred to in the account of the cognitive psychological theory underpinning the P-P-P model.

3. MATERIALS SELECTED

3.1. Rationale for the historical period covered

In validity terms, two control variables have been employed for the sake of the homogeneity of the materials selected. Firstly, the period of time, which covers the consistent introduction of foreign languages into the official curriculum. The requisite of the teacher as demanded by the classroom context associated to the curriculum constitutes the second control variable.

For the purposes of my present essay, I have solely concentrated on teaching materials dating from early twentieth-century onwards. I believe that this is the most coherent option due to the basic characteristics of the textbooks analysed. They are focused on the teaching of English as a Foreign Language[1] and are aimed to be used, at least in their primary conception, in classroom settings (either at secondary, university, private institutions or academies…). These constitute the most basic context for the learning of foreign languages in developed countries nowadays. It should be remarked that before the nineteenth century the private study of modern or vernacular languages was the norm, despite some exceptional formal appearances in schools in the second half of the eighteenth century (Howatt 2004: 10). Linguistic learning was restricted to Latin in grammar schools. The absence of any official regulation in modern languages will account for the diversity of their materials types in both linguistic and procedural objectives: descriptive and prescriptive grammars (which attempted to teach vernacular languages by adjusting them to the Latin syntactic system); dialogue books, glossaries and dictionaries... For a detailed account of these teaching and learning tools in English as a foreign language, the reader is addressed to Howatt (2004); for specifically Spanish to Sánchez (1992) and for a compilation in other languages, to Puren (1988) and to Sánchez (1997).

The official educational curriculum of most European countries started to include the teaching of national languages in the nineteenth century (see Howatt (2004: 153-155), for the English situation and Sánchez (1997: 97-98) for a concise overview of the Spanish, German and French ones)).

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[1] Unless otherwise explicitly stated, in this essay "second language learning/teaching" will be used as a synonym for "foreign language learning/teaching". By this I mean a context in which the language studied is not normally used for communication and has not an official co-existence with another language.

Of course, independent professional and scholarly authorised materials for modern languages could be found prior to this reform, above all in private tuition circles. Until the nineteenth century, however, there did not exist a governmental, global and systematic concern for specialized foreign language teaching materials especially devised at a classroom setting in the sense that we understand them today, i.e., with their content and methodology carefully designed on the basis of official requirements at a state or even at a European level (as the current *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages,* 2001).

For my specific purposes in the selection of the texts to be analysed, this classroom-setting characteristic is remarkably important. It immediately evokes the presence of a didactic figure (essential in a school context), which will act as the unifying feature among the different coursebooks examined. This explains why I have dispensed with commercially successful materials intended for self-study. An illustrative example is the 1851 *Nuevo Curso de idioma inglés* based on the Robertson (interlinear) method, whose forerunner was Ascham's 1570 "double translation method" (Sánchez 1997: 87).

3.2. Introductory description of the materials. Rationale for their selection. Level and units analysed

This part is intended as an introductory profile of the materials studied in terms of the justification for their selection, the levels and units analysed. The analytical section as such will provide a more comprehensive description of the textbooks and units examined as well as a more detailed account of the corresponding methodology that each coursebook is characteristic of so as to better contextualize the later analysis.

All the coursebooks selected constitute representative examples of the most important foreign language methodological trends before the 1980s. The last twenty years of the nineteenth century saw the popularity of Berlitz's methods (which is the commercial method of the *Direct Method*, the product of the revolt against the Grammar-Translation procedures). Both spread out until the first quarter of the twentieth century. Berlitz's method never completely lost its popularity and its schools remained famous and attended throughout three quarters of the twentieth century. Eckersley's text embodies the academic principles of the scholarly Reform

Movement together with the practical guidelines from the Direct Method. The former took place between the last fifteen years of the nineteenth century and the first twenty years of the last one, and attempted to displace the traditional method. Eckersley's course nevertheless equally contains certain seeds from the latter. His material remained extremely famous from the date of its publication (1938) until the 1950s, when it was replaced by more explicitly situationally-based courses such as Hornby's or especially Alexander's courses. The latter constitutes the best example of the Situational Language Teaching trend which ranged from the mid 1950s until the 1980s. It was the structural British version of the overwhelmingly popular American Audio-Lingual Method, of which *Modern Spanish* (1960) and *Spanish Basic Course* (1961) are two excellent models. Audio-Lingualism and its countless variants would be present in foreign language teaching methodology until well entered the 1980s, and they are still very popular among many teachers and published materials.

For the purposes of adding reliability to my analysis, all these materials are equivalent in terms of their linguistic level and the place in the coursebooks of the units chosen to be examined. Firstly, they all belong to the elementary level, since this is the one for which the original textbooks were devised for. More advanced texts exist in Eckersley's and Alexander's cases, but not quite in Berlitz's, which accounts for my decision to stick to beginners. Two coursebooks were Berlitz's market selling scope, and neither of them catered for advanced or even high-intermediate levels (Howatt 2004: 224). This should not be surprising since one of the main tenets of Berlitz's materials was object-based lessons, the employment of which recedes around the intermediate level.

Secondly, I have concentrated on lessons which are located in the middle of the materials, since the units placed in this position are supposedly less marked and more "neutral" than initial and later ones, i.e., they are more representative of the overall methodology. Regarding *First Things First*, I equally decided to focus on a single teaching unit (number 36 out of the overall 72) after the authoress and her thesis director verified the remarkable similarity of pattern throughout the whole textbook. In the remaining pair of materials I have not proceeded likewise. In Berlitz's case, one middle unit was selected from each of the two differently separated parts that the coursebook is composed of. The same remark applies to *Essential English*, with the peculiarity that besides the two distinct part-structure, every lesson is followed by a

grammar comment which deals with the structural and lexical patterns of that previous unit. Thus in order to avoid the risk of neglecting the whole picture, I have analysed four units in Eckersley's manual (two from the first part and another two from the second). Consequently, the overall number of lessons examined amounts to seven.

I humbly acknowledge that it may result noticeably complicated to achieve a 100% degree of reliability in this type of analysis due, in the first place, to the number and position of lessons examined. Certainly, small deviances with respect to the middle units may exist in other lessons placed at the beginning and end; but as was recently hinted at above, a synthetical and holistic perspective offers a unifying picture of the units structure. Secondly, the practical operationalization of the stages in sequencing is not always so clear-cut. Other researchers may not fully concur with the categories distinguished by the authoress, which should not be that surprising since (once again, to my knowledge) this is the first historical study on this subject and its field of knowledge is humanistic. At any rate, I have tried to offer a comprehensive description of my theoretical framework and procedure so as to diminish these caveats as much as possible.

4. PEDAGOGICAL DESCRIPTION OF MY ANALYTICAL TOOL: THE P-P-P MODEL OF SEQUENCING

4.1. Operationalisation of the P-P-P model

As stated in the "Introduction", P-P-P is the label assigned in the field of foreign language teaching to the general school-model (Sánchez 1993, 2001, 2004a) that underlies the structuring of activities in academic institutions of learning and is translated into a repetitive scheme both in textbooks as well as in teachers' usual procedures of presentation of activities. This author (Sánchez 2004a: 181) conceptualizes such a model in the following chart (translated from Spanish), which offers the purpose and general strategy of procedure for each stage. The examples of activities corresponding to each phase are included in square brackets and belong to Read (1985):

STEP 1. [build-up of appropriate situational and linguistic contexts for new language; listening to and initial repetition of model sentences]
1.1. Presentation.
Exposition to the learner to new materials, whichever the nature of the latter (written or oral texts, grammar questions or rules, vocabulary lists, etc.) Presentation of such materials in whichever modality to facilitate a working framework in which the following activities will be circumscribed.
1.2. Explicitness
This presentation of materials may be followed by the reasoned explanation or explicitness of certain characteristics which emphasize the objectives at which these materials are directed. Nevertheless, it should be pointed out that this sub-phase is not included in certain methods, such as the audiolingual one (which overtly bans it).

STEP 2. [drills (choral and individual); 2, 3, 4 line dialogues; information gap and opinion gap]
2.1. Controlled and directed practice:
Varied manipulation of the presented materials. The students' attention is explicitly or implicitly attracted to the specific objectives in question through tightly controlled activities.
2.2. Repetition- and consolidation-based practice:
Consolidation of knowledge through varied types of practice (repetition, substitution, transformation or transference to parallel contexts). These classes of practice require the employment of structurally similar elements to those practised in 2.1. or the activation of what has previously been learnt.

STEP 3. [games, role plays, discourse chains, discussions, information and opinion gaps, etc.][2]
Production stage:
Autonomous use of the previously acquired knowledge through activities that require not only the employment of the learned elements, but also the *creation* of new models that may be achieved by means of the interrelation of already known features used in a partial different way, or through rules application, etc.

Chart 1. Sánchez's description of the "school model" of teaching applied to language pedagogy (2004a)

It can easily be observed that this model can be reduced to the three phases of Presentation (steps 1.1 and 1.2), Practice (steps 2.1 and 2.2.) and Production (step 3). According to Sánchez (2004a: 183), this pattern is mostly associated with the deductive mode of learning; the presentation phase, for instance, normally follows this mode in the sense that the concepts are explained before practised. However, this stage does not necessarily need to be deductive and can be materialized in diverse procedures, as I will discuss in the analysis of the units. In fact, all the steps or phases of this sequence can adopt different formats by means of dissimilar types of

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[2] From my reading of the previous chapters to Read's summary of the P-P-P model in *At the Chalkface* (edited by Matthews, A., Spratt, M. and Dangerfield, L., 1985) and further literature, I assume that there is no clash between the use of information and opinion gaps in both the practice and the production stage. In the former, these types of exercise are meaning-based but discrete-item constrained, whereas in the latter freer communication with longer and unrestricted utterances is allowed.

activities. The stages can even be interrupted by short transitions, overlaps between stages, comments or exercises that distort the linearity of the action (Sánchez 1993: 95; 2001: 116), but the underlying structure of presentation of materials is always the same. The ensuing repetition of patterns over and over again will result in absence of variety, which is in turn probable to account for the lack of motivation on the learners' part.

Since its development in the 1970s and 1980s, especially with the boom of the Situational Language Teaching method, the school model as described by Sánchez (1997) or defined by Tomlinson (1998b: xii) has been the approach followed by most commercially produced textbooks and is still widely accepted among many teachers. Indeed, it constitutes the recognized sequence of the "mainstream English as a Foreign Language (EFL) style" as described by Cook (2001: 227). Let us turn now our attention as to the qualities of this model to get a deeper understanding of its popularity:

4.2. Positive qualities of the P-P-P model

General and second language psychological learning principles support this pattern. Sánchez (1993: 95; 2001: 116, 2004: 183) argues that this school model fairly corresponds to the assumptions on the principles of adult human knowledge acquisition (even though at the same time he argues in favour of the introduction of sound-based variety in the area of language learning). In fact, this model has been empirically validated particularly in the fields of mathematics and reading, as is argued by Rosenshine and Stevens (1986: 376). Together with this experimental support obtained from real data, these authors drew on the contributions of the information processing cognitive approach.

As for foreign languages, the particular stages of Presentation and Practice are purported to be beneficial (Hedge 2000: 159, 167). The former is claimed to exploit students' existing knowledge as well as to allow for noticing features, especially high-frequent ones; it can provide information as to the stylistic and communicative use of language as shown in spoken and written texts. Practice is alleged to allow for further and extensive input for learners who are able to test out their hypotheses about the functioning of the language system and refine their interlanguage.

Practical pedagogical factors are also professed to back the P-P-P model. The predictability of the patterns of actions ensuing from its application allows for teachers' comfort (and their leadership in class too). Effectively, novelty demands continuous effort: plans of action require daily changing and it is not an easy task to find a certain number of the latter which are available to this end. Students also "benefit" from it because it gives them a feeling of security as to the sequence of events and the procedure for presenting the content in the foreign language classroom (Sánchez 2001: 111). Indeed, this is one of the pieces of explanation advocated by Cook (2001: 210) for the still-current popularity of the Audio-Lingual Method.

On the other hand, this sense of security that the P-P-P structure provides accounts for its "trainability" and thus for its generalized use in teacher training courses, which is reinforced thanks to the quantitative type of learning that it assumes. Immediately connected to the latter aspect is the unproblematic testing that it allows (Skehan 1998: 94).

Nonetheless, the P-P-P model has also been criticised at a theoretical level by applied linguists, the causes of which need to be contemplated here as well:

4.3. Negative qualities of the P-P-P model

One of the most outstanding pieces of criticism used against the structuring of this organizational working scheme is the observation that general (and foreign language) learning does not always necessarily have to follow such a rigid path. As Sánchez (1993: 101) suggests, we have to account for the fact that sometimes we are capable of assimilating new knowledge without any need of practice at all and without the help of explicit explanation too. Along the same lines is located Johnson's (1996) view, who offers an account of L2 learning and acquisition framed within Anderson's proposal (on which I will draw next). Furthermore, in the specific field of foreign languages, the unimodal way of learning (Tomlinson et al 2001: 87) that implies its strict application results in its ignorance of other styles as the kinaesthetic, visual or musical ones.

On the other hand, it had previously been argued that the inalterable nature of the P-P-P approach involved an enhancement of the learners' confidence in the classroom. This feeling of security is misleading since it is not the only and

overriding factor that intervenes in foreign language learning. As Sánchez (1993: 97, 2001: 111, 2004: 183) remarks, the rigidity of the repetitive working patterns is probably a brake upon the development of positive attitudes on the learners' part.

The fiercest piece of criticism is targeted at the purest form of the P-P-P model where only discrete items are considered. It presumes that teaching equals learning and that the latter takes place in a linear way (Skehan 1996: 50), in the sense that once the units of language are presented and explained, they do not require further experiencing. In other words, strict applications of the P-P-P pattern in materials ignore recycling. This is the key pedagogic factor through which learners are able to progressively *automatize* language. The assumption that underlies rigid implementations of the P-P-P is that practice will automatically result in acquisition (Ellis 1988: 36). It is perfectly feasible, however, that practice has a delayed effect. Learners cannot be expected to learn a new feature and be able to use it in the same lesson. They might be able to rehearse the feature or to retrieve it from short memory, which does not mean that learning has actually taken place.

Besides the delayed effect of instruction, the rigid application of P-P-P neglects another important fact also linked to its assumed linear type of learning: the concept of readiness to learn, closely associated with the "multidimensional model" (Pienemann 1984), later called the "processability model" (Pienemann 1998). It is not the place here to provide a full account of Pienemann's research, but I will supply the basic insights for a better understanding of this specific criticism to the P-P-P model.

Pienemann's findings established the distinction between a developmental (an immovable linguistic items learning route) and variational (variable from student to student) dimensions of learning. The former is constrained by strategies of language processing. This means that developmental features are acquired sequentially because the expansion of each feature can only take place when the necessary processing strategies have been activated, i.e., when the learner is ready to do so. What this concept illustrates, together with the notion of the practice delayed effect, is that students follow a natural and, most importantly, gradual developmental sequence of acquisition which may not be replicated by a static Presentation-Practice-Production of linguistic items found in a textbook (Hedge 2000: 150).

Contemporary dislike of the P-P-P model of sequencing is beautifully summarised in Scrivener's words (1994: 15), for whom it "is fundamentally disabling, not enabling".

Despite all these hard pieces of criticism, some authors take a more sympathetic attitude towards P-P-P. Furthermore, it is not uncommon to find nowadays textbooks that employ such an approach and that reintroduce previously taught features in later lessons for the sake of recycling, besides materializing the stages in diverse procedures and formats in classroom practices, an aspect which could be argued to foster students' motivation. This is the case, for example, of *English File Upper Intermediate* (O.U.P). Together with this, we should consider the transitions naturally present between activities or phases of a lesson. For instance, Doyle (1986: 406) reports that approximately 31 major transitions take place daily in elementary classrooms.

Indeed, I definitely agree with Hopkins' (1995: 11) statement, especially regarding intermediate and higher levels, that "no language course these days offers an undiluted diet of the dry meaningless P-P-P structured lessons that so many commentators like to set up as a straw-man foe" (quoted in Harmer 2001: 82).

Most importantly for us, despite not primarily taking into account the essential affective factor of motivation, the P-P-P pattern is by no means arbitrary, but correlates with the psychological processes that underlie the acquisition of cognitive skills (to which language learning is considered to belong). Since this research simultaneously constitutes the psychological rationale of such a sequencing pattern and of my methodological tool, I will next offer a related account. I will include the general implications from this research for dealing with the criticisms depicted above, especially the rigidity concerning the one-and-only route to general and language learning.

5. P-P-P AND COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY LANGUAGE LEARNING THEORY

The last quarter of the twentieth century has witnessed quite a remarkable explosion of several cognitive psychological theories on second language acquisition, either primarily intended for this area or adapted from general learning

accounts. In this strand of investigation, learning is a cognitive process, because it is claimed to embrace internal representations that monitor and guide performance. Besides, to learn a second language is to learn a skill, as different elements of the task must be practised and integrated into fluent performance, which requires the automatization of subskills (McLaughin 1987: 133). In this section I will pay attention to Anderson's skill-based model of learning in particular. His "Theory of Production Systems" or "ACT" (1982, 2000) is premised on the view that language learning is analogous to other types of complex cognitive skill acquisition (such as geometry learning, the primary area to which his model was intended). The ensuing implication is that foreign language teaching may usefully be founded on a skill training methodology.

5.1. Rationale for the selection of Anderson's model of learning as the psychological framework of the P-P-P model

There exist several reasons for which I have decided to opt for Anderson's model as the psychological framework of my analytical tool:

1. It draws on the generally accepted distinction in contemporary cognitive psychology between declarative and procedural knowledge as to the best way that knowledge is presented in memory. Declarative knowledge is defined as "knowing the facts" or the "what", whilst procedural knowledge is instrumental or practical, i.e., it refers to "knowing how to do things".

2. The usefulness of Anderson's model in particular is that it provides a helpful framework for a model of learning by explicitly indicating the successive stages towards language expertise, in terms of proceduralising knowledge which has previously been declarativized (*DECPRO* in short). Anderson (1983, 2000) describes the process of acquisition of cognitive skills in the following way: declarative knowledge is automatized and transformed in procedural knowledge through the three different phases (in this order) of cognitive elaboration, associative and autonomous.

3. Probably due to the appeal of his explicitness of the actual ordering of the learning sequence, Anderson's model has been applied to Second Language Acquisition by O'Malley, Chamot and Walker (1987), O'Malley and Chamot (1990) and Johnson (1994, 1996). Interestingly, in their application of

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Anderson's account to second language learning strategies, O'Malley and Chamot found evidence for the declarative/procedural distinction as well as a progression from declarative to procedural processing over time (as accounted for in Johnson 1996: 88).

4. *DECPRO* as a learning sequence can easily be identified with the widespread employed foreign language teaching P-P-P sequence.

5. Paradoxical though it may seem, its rigidity or only-one admitted route to mastery may be used as the starting point for recognizing other learning paths by way of differentiation or alteration of the original pattern. Acquisition, for instance, implies direct proceduralization.

6. A non-cognitive consequence of 5) is that motivation can, therefore, start to be catered for. Indeed, if psychological paths to learning are not always inflexible, the teaching ordering of the P-P-P phases should not necessarily be so either. Varied and sensible use of sequencing could emerge as a key element in the initiation and increase of learners' positive attitudes in an academic context.

Before proceeding with a description of Anderson's model (section 5.3.), I will next depict the declarative and procedural knowledge in a more complete way (section 5.2.) in order to better understand his account as well as the pedagogical implications derived from points 4) and 5) (5.4.) The following three parts are fundamentally based on Johnson (1994, 1996).

5.2. Declarative and procedural knowledge in more detail

There exist two different theories for the representation of knowledge in memory: declarative and procedural.

The former has two components: a store of data and a general program to utilize such data. When parts of the data base are required to carry out a specific action, a general set of interpretative procedures ('rules') is employed so as to apply the data to achieve a given chosen end. Johnson (1996: 82) provides the second language learning example of English present perfect formation: the related rules are kept in memory and employed every time as needed. If the present perfect of "he works" was required, learners would recourse to memory concerning how to form the third singular of "have", and would follow "he has" with the participle of "work"

formed by adding "ed". Thus the correct functioning of declarative knowledge depends on the crucial feature of *generativity*, which allows the learner to go beyond data already met. The opposite undesirable situation occurs when a student has access to a set of particular present perfect verbs but lacks a data base in the form of generalized rules on the actual construction of this tense.

Conversely, knowledge is not stored in a separate compartment in the procedural representation. It is implanted in direct procedures for action which allow instant access to a particular form. In computing terms, learners have a "program" which informs them that the present perfect of "work" (third singular) is "he has worked". Accordingly, procedural knowledge has the advantage of being *fast* and *less attention-demanding,* but is also *high-risk.* However, the declarative representation is *low-risk* precisely thanks to the conscious attention involved: unconscious applied rules are high risk because already-formed wrong productions are extremely difficult to modify. At the same time, this bonus of declarative knowledge is counteracted by the slowness involved: each time an operation is done, the relevant information must be transferred into the working memory from the long-term one and kept in the former while the function is being performed. Nevertheless, the *generativity* of the declarative type of knowledge allows for *economy*, since data about the formation of language aspects need storing only once.

The *generativity* quality of declarative knowledge is extremely important as it will allow for declarative knowledge being a useful starting point for the development of proceduralization or readily available forms. Indeed, the former constitutes a data base shaped as generalized rules on the actual formation of different linguistic patterns, as was recently mentioned with the present perfect example. This is one of the two roles of declarative knowledge, the other one being database of knowledge, useful for language in general, and for certain tasks such as many forms of writing (Johnson 1996: 104). See section 5.4. for a more detailed explanation of this function of declarative knowledge.

Consequently both declarative and procedural knowledge are important for overall language mastery. Besides, in accordance with their respective advantages and disadvantages, they are necessary for different kinds of language activities, as is argued by Bialystock in 1982 (from Johnson 1994: 122; 1996: 85). For example, procedural knowledge may well account for spontaneous oral conversation since in this case immediate access to knowledge is primary and, consequently, a higher

degree of *automization* (in Johnson's (1994, 1996) terms) is demanded. In contrast, such speed of production is alleged by this researcher not to be so often required in writing, for which having a declarative-knowledge data-base of rules to refer to and operate seems to be more beneficial. At the time that Bialystock was writing (1982), her claims were definitely reasonable. However, the great computer development revolution in the last decade of the twentieth century has revolutionized the channels of language. To me email composition and on-line chatting are far more similar to spontaneous oral conversation than to time-allotted, planned writing.

Once declarative and procedural knowledge have been conceptualized in more detail, we can now turn our attention to their manipulation in Anderson's model.

5.3. Anderson's learning model in action

Johnson (1994: 122) offers the following examples of a production in his succinct but extremely clear account of Anderson's model (1982):

P1   IF the goal is to form the present perfect of a verb and the third person is third singular, THEN form the third singular of *have*.

P2   IF the goal is to form the present perfect of a verb and the appropriate form of have has just been formed, THEN form the past participle of the verb.

P3   IF the goal is to form the third singular, present perfect of the verb *change*, THEN form *has changed*.

The learner begins by consciously applying general rules like P1 and P2, and relates them to knowledge held in a memory data base (cognitive elaboration phase). With time, the learner starts developing PK (that is, *proceduralizes* the knowledge in the associative stage). In other words, declarative facts get better known and are gradually turned into procedures. These are progressively combined into one, thus reducing the amount of memory involved in such a way that the proceduralized knowledge is finally shaped in a form like P3 (autonomous stage), which can be applied with speed.

As Johnson (1996: 97) states, the model therefore involves a static progression from declarative to procedural (*DECPRO*) for all learning (non-linguistic skills, L1 and L2) and all learners. One learns declaratively first (by means of the teachers'

action in second language learning), then automatizes over time. This path, which clearly evokes Krashen's (1982) "learning", removes any chance of directly acquiring procedural encodings.

However, real-life experience shows that this is a partial picture of the overall phenomena, a fact that Sánchez (1993: 101) reminds us of as I stated in the criticisms targeted at the P-P-P pattern of sequencing. In Johnson's terms, Anderson's formulation is too strict and we should consider the possibility that "in the mastery of skills in general, we may directly proceduralise knowledge, without going through the declarative" (1996: 97). In the case of language, this second path to expertise corresponds to Krashen's (1982) "acquisition" (represented as *PRO*), and is probably the one followed by people with urgent communicative needs who immediately need forms ready to use. This route involves two great dangers: the fact that declarative knowledge will never be achieved and the risk of fossilisation, since already proceduralized forms, if wrong, are extremely difficult to modify as they quickly become automatized. Thus the remedial action on the part of language teaching is to ensure that declarative encoding follows the acquired procedures. In other words, the real and only options of what should take place in a formal setting are *PRODEC*, and of course, *DECPRO*. To complicate matters further, Johnson (1996: 101) later affirms,

> If one considers learning as opposed to teaching there are other reasons why DECPRO and PRODEC cannot be presented as the only versions of what occurs. It may certainly be argued that the language learner does not exclusively follow either one or the other of these sequences, but mixes the two.

Thus the complete conceptualization of the psychological framework for my analytical tool (P-P-P) is now fully unveiled. Indeed, the manipulation of Anderson's original model has proved to be effective in revealing an alternative mastery route (the acquisition-based *PRO*), and, in turn, to expose its desirable translation into teaching terms (*PRODEC*). The richness of the whole framework has finally been achieved by the acknowledgement of the combination of both didactic arrangements (*DECPRO* and *PRODEC*) in the formal-setting-based language learning process.

5.4. Relationship between *DECPRO*, *PRODEC* and the P-P-P model

When declarative knowledge is considered to be the foundation for proceduralization, the essential relationship between *DECPRO* and the P-P-P model is as follows (Johnson 1996: 103-104): the first P (presentation) is mostly devoted to declarativization, while proceduralization corresponds to the other two (practice and production). The "presentation" can be materialized either explicitly or implicitly so as to ensure that the rule in question will be internalized. As examples of presentation techniques, Johnson (1996: 107) offers explanation, key sentences, dialogues, passage and teacher action. I am providing the reader with this list on purpose because it already hints at different operationalisations of the same phase, on the basis of the deductive and inductive modes of learning (explanation and teacher action on the one hand and the remaining ones in the other) and of the reliance on textual materials against teacher procedures (explanation and teacher action contrasted with key sentences, etc.). This ample range of presentation procedures is a phenomenon that I will definitely have to take into account in my analysis. As to the practice activities, these would be sufficiently direct so that the delicate declarative knowledge will not be damaged. Accordingly, the learner would work with non-personal but ready-made meanings. The production stage, however, would allow for more spontaneous and creative language use.

It follows that the same correspondence between the declarative and procedural types of knowledge and the Ps phases will emerge in *PRODEC*.

It should be pointed out that the second role of declarative knowledge (database) is considered to be better placed after automatization has taken place as it usually deals with complex, rather abstract language phenomena. Obviously, such declarative knowledge cannot be the foundation for ensuing proceduralization, as simplicity and concreteness are vital features of the former for this process to occur. Thus the risk of hindering the proceduralization progression with declarative complexities is minimized (Johnson 1996: 104) if the latter is located after proceduralized forms. The linguistic complexities may well be introduced to the student in the form of consciousness-raising (CR) exercises (Johnson 1996: 113), a pattern also followed in *PRODEC*. Thus it is *DECPRODEC* which will come into play, a phenomenon that will add further flexibility to the teaching sequence strategy and, by default, to the activity ordering structure.

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The relationship between the methodologies underlying the textbooks examined with the different language learning paths (*DECPRO, PRO*) and their (desirable) equivalent teaching techniques (*DECPRO* and *PRODEC*) will be conveniently indicated in the actual analysis.

6. ANALYSIS OF THE ACTIVITY SEQUENCES FROM THE UNITS IN THE TEXTBOOKS SELECTED

6.1. Berlitz, M. D. (1931). *M. D. Berlitz Method for Teaching Modern Languages. English Part. First Book* (439th ed.). London: Berlitz School

6.1.1. Historical background of the Direct Method

"The Berlitz Method is an imitation of the natural process by which a child learns its mother tongue". This is the opening sentence of the Preface in *The Berlitz Method for Teaching Modern Languages. English Part* (1892: 2).

Berlitz (1852-1921) was a German emigrant to the United States who carefully arranged the conversational method so successfully employed by another emigrant, Sauveur (1826-1907), and thus managed to expand it to the whole world. The name of Berlitz will always be associated with the *Direct Method* even though he himself did not invent it. As Howatt (2004: 227) clarifies, this designation specially applies to its "conversational objectives", although in some other situations it is understood as an umbrella term which encompasses all the tenets from the Reform Movement at the beginning of the 19th century. Indeed, some researchers such as Stern (1983: 457) offer several names: "reform method", "natural method", "psychological method", "phonetic method", and acknowledges that the label which was to win the battle at the end is 'Direct Method'. I will indistinctly refer to this method either by its "Berlitz" or "Direct" name.

The above statement clearly shows the latter as an inheritor of the so-called "Natural methods for language teaching" (Sánchez 1997: 106-110; Howatt 2004: 210-228) or "Teaching in a practical way" trend (Titone 1968: 8-10), which have always been present in the history of this subject (Sánchez 1997: 109). I consider it

essential to supply a review of the natural methodology for a better understanding of the principles behind the *Direct Method*. In turn, this will enable us to better disentangle those underlying Eckersley's and Alexander's materials, which accounts for the following detailed report.

6.1.1.1. Early exponents of the Natural Methodology

P. J. F. Luneau de Boisgermain was the first to define so concretely the idea behind this notion (translated from the original French, quoted in Titone (1968: 20-21)):

> When we want to learn a language, I think that we have to proceed as a child whom we want to teach to speak its mother tongue; and that it is necessary to follow in this new study solely the instinct from the mothers who teach how to speak to their children. When Nature has given the child's organs the facility to utter the different sounds of the voice, a mother teaches him or her the words of her language, one after another. She repeats them until the child has retained them and starts making use of them. Mothers do not employ either masters or grammars to this end. They talk to their children: they put words into the latter's memories. I want us to proceed like them when we want to learn a foreign language. The masters of foreign languages only see pronunciation and grammar in the study of languages. They are interested in stressing the importance of their work very much.

In effect, "natural methods" are in stark contrast to "artificial approaches" (Sánchez 1997: 109). Learning a new language does not consist in steeping oneself in explicitly and deductively taught rules or of undertaking rational, analytic exercises such as translation of highly cultivated authors' works. This was the general rule at the school setting. It was heavily influenced by such a way of Latin teaching from the early Renaissance onwards, when this classical language was displaced as the normal vehicle for communication by vernacular ones. This didactic model was superimposed to the teaching of the latter as well due to the aura of prestige that embraced the "mental gymnastics" (as skilfully called by V. Mallison, quoted in Titone (1968: 26)) supplied by Latin learning in the academic context, a phenomenon that approximately lasted until the 1800s.

Contrary to this situation, language learning is considered to be a natural course of action remarkably similar to that undergone by a child in his/her L1: the child does not study language. S/he simply learns it by listening and then by talking,

orally practising and imitating what has been heard. Oral skills are primary in the natural approach.

Sánchez (1997: 50) and Howatt (2004: 210) cite the French dramatist Montaigne[3] as the most distinguished early example of Natural Teaching. Montaigne's father desired the best education for his son and decided that the best way to achieve this aim was to make him a native-speaker in Latin. Thus he entrusted his child's bringing to a German man ignorant of French but extremely fluent in Latin. Montaigne learned it in the way described above, and as soon as he was sent to school at the age of seven he noticed a worsening in his command, which he bitterly describes in his 1580 *Essay on the Education of Children* (quoted from Howatt 2004: 211):

> My Latin immediately grew corrupt, and through lack of practice I have since lost all use of it. The only service that this new method of education did me was to let me skip the lower classes at the beginning. For when I left the school at thirteen, I had finished the course- as they call it- and really without any benefit that I can now note in its favour.

John Locke (1632-1704), the English philosopher, equally highlights the merits of the Natural methodology. In his *Some Thoughts Concerning Education* (1693), he stresses that this is the fundamental one, applicable to all in the early stages (Howatt 2004: 211).

Despite Locke's advanced support for the Natural approach and Montaigne's famous anecdote in the history of foreign language teaching, Comenius (1592-1670) was the real pioneer of the *Direct Method* according to Titone (1968: 14). Indeed, though he was not strictly concerned with language teaching alone, he was the first author to explicitly state the principles of the linguistic inductive didactics (mostly applied to adults): "Every language must be learned by practice rather than by rules, especially by reading, repeating, copying, and by written and oral attempts at imitation" (quoted in Titone 1968: 14).

However, contrary to the order promoted in the natural methodologies, Comenius seemed to place speech as the last of the four skills (Kelly 1969: 216). This aspect was probably due to the at-the-time academic standards in the teaching of Latin, which was a language taught as an end rather than as a communication means

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[3] The full references of the following works mentioned in this section -Comenius' (1633, 1658), Locke's (1693), Mointaigne's (1580) and Rousseau's (1762)- can be found in Howatt (2004: 380-405).

at the Renaissance. What is more, we can infer from the introductions to *Janua Linguarum Reserata Aurea (The Golden Gate to Languages Unlocked,* 1633) and *Orbis Sensualium Pictus* (*The World in Pictures*, 1658) is that by the device of reading aloud, reading and oral comprehension were drilled together, within the same skill of understanding. Later came writing and finally speech.

At any rate, Comenius provided the characteristic that has remained as the most idiosyncratic foundation stone of the *Direct Method*: picture-teaching, which will be later included under the more encompassing term of "object-based lessons":

> Pictures are what most easily impress themselves in a child's mind, to remain lasting and real. Children need to be given many examples, and things they can see, and not abstract rules of grammar.
> (*Linguarum Methodus Novissima*. In Titone 1968: 14)

> Words must not be learned separately from things, for the word can neither exist nor be understood without the thing. But to the extent that word and thing are joined, they exist somewhere and fulfil a certain function.
> *(Didactica Magna*. In Kelly 1969: 13-14)

This idea was retaken by Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746-1827), whose work originated "the modern tradition of natural approaches" (Howatt 2004: 215). Pestalozzi was greatly influenced by Jean-Jacques Rousseau's *Emile or on Education* (1762). Rousseau believed that Nature was the one and only real educator of all God's creatures, but mankind had spoiled it with artificial instruments such as manuals. A very telling-tale quotation from this publication is "I hate books. They only teach one to talk about what one does not know" (from Howatt 2004: 215).

6.1.1.2. Pestalozzi

Pestalozzi developed Comenius' foundation concept of "object lessons", for which he is generally known in the history of language teaching, although similar to his predecessor he was not solely concerned with this subject. From Comenius he also inherited "a Pied Piper quality of magic that seems to have fascinated children" (Howatt 2004: 216). That is why he should not only be remembered for his contribution with object lessons, but also for his facility to motivate his students through conversation. Though abundant in practical strategies his books lack coherence and structuring (Sánchez 1997: 109).

Object-lessons resemble L1 learning, which is what attracted Pestalozzi's attention most. Indeed, this is the manner that mothers teach their children to become familiarised with their surrounding entities and their names. This type of instruction starts with the contemplation of an everyday life item. A sequence of questions and answers emerges for the exploration of such an object on the children's part. Howatt's (2004: 217) example is a cup: " 'What is it made of?'; 'How big is it?'; 'What can it be used for?'; 'What colour is it?'; 'Are all cups alike?', etc.". It is essential to connect the language with reality and not the other way around, following Rousseau's affirmation (1762/1991: 180), quoted in Howatt (2004: 217)): "Things"! Things! I shall never repeat enough that we attribute too much power to words. With our babbling education, we produce only babblers". This is the underlying philosophy of the *Direct Method*.

Adapted into the classroom environment, the Natural approach will contain the following techniques, which can easily be identified with the procedures of the *Direct Method* (Sánchez 1997: 109, translation from Spanish):

> a) The teacher must start by pointing to the objects around him/her and making the student repeat the names of those objects. Then, the words are written on the blackboard and practice will follow consisting of sentences that imply the recombination and variants of those elements.
> b) Writing will be introduced as an efficient method to fix the spoken language.
> c) The exposure to language will be intense: listening to readings, describing objects, stories…
> d) Only then are we allowed to introduce grammar in an inductive way: students must deduce them from the preceding practice.
> e) Graded readings will be supplied from simple to complex texts in such a way as to sustain motivation.

Thus the order of skills advocated by natural methodologies in general is listening-speaking-reading-writing.

6.1.1.3. Nineteenth-century developments in language teaching: Ahn and Ollendorff's practical Grammar-Translation Method courses; individual pre-reformers; the Reform Method

As mentioned above, the teaching of modern languages at the public school system before the 1800s was founded on that of Latin. Howatt (2004: 151) declares

that most modern language learners were individual scholars who were simply interested in gaining a proficiency of the reading skill applied to highly cultivated texts in the second language by means of a laborious study of its grammar and the use of dictionaries. No room was reserved for oral skills. This situation did not cater for the needs of the new language learner that emerged after the 1800s. Indeed, the Industrial Revolution at the end of the 18th century brought with itself a dramatic change in means of transport and economic patterns. Among other consequences, this was translated into emigration waves on the part of people who either searched for better jobs or escaped from hunger, as happened with the Irish potato famine which provoked a massive emigration to the USA, the new promised land of prosperity to which millions of Europeans arrived for good with unfettered hopes. They could not afford the expensive grammar schools, which on the other hand were incompatible with their needs: rapid oral fluency in the foreign tongue.

This historical context accounts for the language teaching reforms that took place between 1830s and 1900. Individual curious persons and scholars wove the most extraordinary restructuring that has ever taken place in the history of this topic. After my review of the Natural approach, I equally feel it necessary to provide an account of the different trends with which this reorganization was shaped in order to better understand the tenets of the *Direct Method* as well as the latter's impact on *Audiolingualim* and *Situational Language Teaching*.

I have divided such trends into two different blocks. In the first place mention needs to be made of the "halfway house" (as called by Howatt (2004: 158)) embodied by Ahn's (1796-1865) and Ollendorff's (1803-1865) works. Both represented simplified and practice-focused versions of the pure Grammar-Translation method applied at schools (Ahn's 1834 book title *A New, Practical, and Easy Method* is significant enough). Ollendorff's manuals, though initially based on Ahn's, are more systematic and carefully designed. They became extremely famous, until the point that they were reprinted throughout fifty years.

Ollendorff follows a deductive methodology though lighter than the rational and analytical version of the genuine Grammar-Translation method. His lessons do not start with a long list of abstract grammar rules but with short phrases that illustrate the structural objective of the unit, followed by a bilingual list of words that are often thematically arranged to exemplify the previous grammatical patterns. At the end there exist loads of short-sentence-translation exercises that aim at practising

the content developed before in the form of question and answer. These contain grammatical points connected with the communicative reality of language, not with the study of classical or prestigious authors:

> Can you work without speaking? - I can work, but not study Spanish without speaking.
> (Lesson forty-three in *Ollendorff's New Method of Learning to Read, Write, and Speak the Spanish Language* (1895: 180)).

I have purposely quoted this extract since it well reflects one of Ollendorff's three principles. The teacher should present the content by means of question and answer or an interaction parameter between him/herself and the students. Oral skills come to the fore from the very beginning of the units. In this way the learners become accustomed to the new phonetic system. What is more, each question or point contains the answer to be supplied by the students in an almost self-contained way, i.e., the lesson starts with the answer to the questions proposed later. Finally, the questions and points are introduced in accordance with the principle of progression, from simple to complex. Ollendorff was the first author to be explicitly concerned about gradation, which would later be retaken by the *Audio-Lingual Method* together with his question-and-answer format of structures. Each lesson is referred to the previous one through the employment of an already used word or grammatical point. This use arises out of the need to employ such a word or grammar point, a need that has previously been guessed (Sánchez 1997: 102; Howatt 2004: 160).

As Sánchez (1997: 102) rightly notes, Ollendorff has been named as one of the most characteristic names of the traditional approach or Grammar-Translation Method. In this line of thought scholars such as Titone (1968) and Richards and Rodgers (2001) may be found. However, both Ahn and Ollendorff constitute an important reaction against the teaching traditionally considered grammatical (form analysis, speculation and memorization). Significantly, Ollendorff suffered the scorn from the academics, who branded his work as lightweight. More interestingly, these author's materials were very much favoured by natural method supporters as he places the emphasis on practice, and not on any kind or simply translation but oral practice. The following quotation from Howatt (2004: 162) supports Sánchez's aforementioned view:

> Intrinsically, the method is so ordinary that it is sometimes difficult to see what all the fuss was about. Each new lesson had one or two new grammar rules, a short vocabulary list, and some practice examples to translate. Boring, maybe, but hardly the horror story we are sometimes asked to believe. However, it also contained seeds which eventually grew into a jungle of obscure rules, endless lists of gender classes and gender-class exceptions, self-conscious 'literary' archaisms, snippets of philology, and a total loss of genuine feeling for living language. The really bad grammar-translation coursebooks were not those written by well-known names such as Ahn and Ollendorff, but those specially designed for use in secondary schools by ambitious schoolmasters. The two discussed below, by Tiarks and Weisse, are typical.

Nevertheless, Ahn's and Ollendorff's materials are still driven by grammar as the unifying conductor between lessons, which accounts for their middle point status in the teaching reforms during the nineteenth century.

Indeed, this period equally witnessed a revival of the "true" Natural Methods, which frame the second block of developments in language didactics. In turn, this is divided into three separated but connected groups.

The first one is composed of individual pre-reformers as labelled by Richards and Rodgers (2001: 7-9) and Howatt (2004: 166-186) or illustrative figures from the natural methodology (as classified by Sánchez 1997: 110-132). The second one is the Reform Movement, while the third group is constituted by the *Direct Method* itself, with its immediate origins and Berlitz's developments.

Within the first category Howatt distinguishes Claude Marcel (1793-1876), Jean Joseph Jacotôt (1770-1840), Thomas Prendergast (1806-1881) and François Gouin (1831-1896). Sánchez includes Nicholas Gouin Dufief (1776-1834) and Richard S. Rosenthal (who was a peer of Prendergast) together with the two last authors.

All of the pre-Reform approaches were known by the name of their creators and did not enjoy contemporary popularity due to their non-membership to the academic circles. None of these specialists had a commercial impact with the exception of Gouin, who according to Titone (1968: 33) was "a happy source of inspiration for the later work of the Direct methodists". Due to space limitations I will only comment on Marcel and Gouin, the most noteworthy influences on the *Direct Method* in my opinion. For a detailed account of Dufief's *Nature displayed in her mode of teaching languages to man … Adapted to FRENCH* (1804); Jacotôt's

Enseignement universel, Langue maternelle (1823)*; Enseignment universel, Langue étrangère* (1830); Prendergast's *The Mastery of Languages, or the art of speaking foreign languages idiomatically* (1864) and Rosenthal's *Meisterschaft System* (1883), the reader is addressed to Sánchez (1997: 110-114); Titone (1968: 21) and Howatt (2004: 169-170); Sánchez (1997: 114-116) and Howatt (2004: 175-178) and Sánchez (1997: 117-122) respectively.

The Rational Method of Marcel is worthwhile mentioning due to the great scholarly wisdom that impregnates his major two-volume work, *Language as a Means of Mental Culture and International Communication* (published in 1853). Marcel referred to child language learning as a model for language teaching: "The method of nature is the archetype of all methods, and especially of the method of learning languages" (1853/I: 216). He was the first author to overtly differentiate between modern receptive skills ("impression" according to him) and productive ones ("expression" as he called them), which he labels as the four branches of language learning (reading, hearing, speaking and writing), as reported in Howatt (2004: 171). Marcel equally proposed that reading be taught before other skills, and tried to locate language teaching within a broader educational framework (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 7). What really interests us from the point of view of his closeness with the later *Direct Method* is his advice to the teacher (quoted in Howatt (2004: 172):

> The instructor must frequently repeat the same expressions, and always accompany them with looks, tones, gestures, and actions which explain them. The language of action, thus used comfortably to the process of nature, is, as an explanatory means, preferable to translation, which would create confusion by the mixture of the two idioms.
>
> (Marcel 1853/I: 331)

He was also wise in indicating the kind of students to whom these strategies should be applied: young learners (following Rousseau). Indeed, the method does not seem to be very convenient for older and intermediate and advanced pupils. Significantly enough, Berlitz solely devised materials for elementary/pre-intermediate levels (see section 3.2.).

Gouin is a very enlightening figure in the history of language teaching, even if his actual method was so restrained that it failed to become applied on its own by practising teachers. Indeed, Gouin established a basic (but advanced for his time)

psychological theory of language learning and a linguistic theory of language which he captured in his major work: *The Art of Teaching and Learning Languages* (1892).

Gouin defined his method after his observations on his nephew's L1 learning, which coincided with the child's uncle's hopelessness after all his unsuccessful efforts to learn German. Following a visit to a mill with the little one, Gouin remarked that the latter "manifested an immense desire to recount to everybody what he had seen" (1892: 37), which he did by means of a sequence of events of play and talk (Stern 1983: 152). His observations led him to conclude the following deductions. Firstly, the child learns initially by listening and then by speaking. Secondly, he learns by action. Thirdly, he does not use isolated words or phrases but whole sentences. Fourthly, according to the arrangement of the events represented by these utterances, the verb is the most important part and not the noun (contrary to the usual position held, among others, by Ollendorff). Fifthly, such sentences describe sequences of actions or ends-means series which are founded on a sequence of cause and effect. In turn, the relationship underlying cause and effect is temporal: the actions which constitute the cause come before the effect and so on. This means that the whole is coherent and logic. Translated into L2 learning, this insight reveals that on the basis of this understanding of this ongoing process, the learner will be able to understand the language being used (Sánchez 2004b: 45). In other words, by associating language with such an order, the man is able to infer the meaning of linguistic elements he is exposed to as it follows the laws of Nature.

In Gouin's words (1892: 90),

> The most ordinary judgement knows how to discern that which goes before from that which comes after, knows how to distinguish the cause from the effect, the end from the means, the whole from the part.
> […]
> Who says "method" says "order".

From these reflections Gouin reached the conclusion that language learning was facilitated through using language to fulfil events consisting of a sequence of connected actions on the two primary related relationships of cause and effect and temporality. Thus Gouin applied this idea for school use and the "Gouin series" were born. Kelly (1969: 114) brings in a technical name for such a procedure: the "cycle" or "action chain", which together with *pattern drills* and the *chiria* constitute the strategies to practise grammar within speech.

A celebrated example of such series is the one linked with the activity of opening the door (Gouin 1892: 129-130):

I walk to the door	I walk.
I walk near to the door.	I draw near.
I draw nearer to the door.	I draw nearer and nearer.
I get to the door.	I get to.
I stop at the door.	I stop.
I stretch out my arm.	I stretch out.
I take hold of the handle.	I take hold.
I turn the handle.	I turn.
I open the door.	I open.
I pull the door.	I pull.
The door moves.	moves
The door turns on its hinges.	turns
The door turns and turns.	turns
I open the door wide.	I open
I let go of the handle.	I let go

A nicely shaped summary of the classroom procedure behind the series is found in Lado (1988: 15):

> The teacher would say and act, "I walk toward the door, I walk. I draw near the door, I draw near; … I get to the door, I get to;" and so forth, and when the sequence was clearly understood, he would do the same in the second language.

Stern (1983: 99) shrewdly points out the contradictions among researchers regarding Gouin's series effect. While Kelly (1969: 115) dismisses the method as backed up by few followers, most authors agree on its great impact (Titone 1968: 33; Sánchez 1997: 130; Brown 2000: 44; Howatt 2004: 185). Titone highlights its success in both England and America, whereas Sánchez explicitly asserts that it did not establish solid roots in the United States as opposed to England, the Low Countries, Sweden and Norway. The secret to Gouin's success was, according to Brown (2000: 44), the fact that language was "so easily understood, stored, recalled, and related to reality".

Nevertheless, Gouin's method does not escape from criticism. Some of those remarked by scholars include the exaggerated analysis of speech and behaviour into "micro-segments". Hornby (1898-1978), one of the precursors of *Situational Language Teaching*, adapted Gouin's series for the teaching of patterns at early

stages, but he warned readers that Gouin often exaggerated the technique by including every tiny action in the sequence, which made the whole thing absurd (Howatt 2004: 321).

Other pieces of criticism are directed at the excessive use of translation, especially in the beginning levels (Titone 1968: 36); and the weak link between the sentences in his series and the daily life communicative reality (Sánchez 1997: 130). In a word, Gouin's materials may facilitate acquisition and sentences memorization, but those sentences are difficult to be admitted as relevant for real communication needs.

Clearly enough, Gouin's influence remains for various characteristics and insights rather than for a strict and only application of his method. Certainly, the *Direct Method* inherited the notion of teaching meaning in a wider context and of associating language with action so as not to translate, although Gouin's actual procedure included teacher's first readings of the series in the L1 and ignored either realia or pictures (Titone 1968: 36) - unlike Comenius and Pestalozzi. As we will see later, in his development of the British structural teaching coin (*Situational Language Teaching Method*), Hornby equally adapted Gouin's idea of the 'series' to organize the patterns to be taught in sequences (Howatt 2004: 298); besides, the French Structuro-Global Methodists drew on Gouin as well in their ordered sequence of pictures depicting a situation.

Indeed, Gouin's major lasting impact is represented by the approval of his method by the early-twentieth century psychologists who were attempting to accept or reject teaching methods on psychological grounds (Kelly 1969: 12). These specialists particularly endorsed the greater strength of the relationship between meaning and activity if the action was being described while it was being acted out. This accounts for Gouin's influence on the Total Physical Response Method (Asher 1969, 1977, 2002).

Ultimately, as reported by Richards and Rodgers (2001: 8) and Howatt (2004: 166-167), the fact that Marcel, Prendergast, Dufief, Rosenthal and Gouin did not belong to academic circles of education seriously hindered the expansion and acceptance of their ideas.

From the 1880s onwards, the Reform Movement came to the fore in the shape of figures such as the English Henry Sweet (1845-1912), the German Wilhem Viëtor (1850-1918); the French Paul Passy (1859-1949) and the Danish Jespersen (1860-

1943), who provided the intellectual leadership for the definite boost of the reformist developments. This constitutes the second branch of the revival of naturalistic approaches, "unique in language teaching history" according to Howatt (2004: 187). The above-mentioned scholars joined up their efforts to found a solid phonetic science as well as to attract other teachers and researchers into this big enterprise of restructuring language teaching from a serious academic point of view, which was reflected, among others, in the foundation of the International Phonetic Association in 1886 (IPA).

The principles of the Reform are beautifully summarised in Howatt (2004: 189), and show the importance attached to phonetics: "the primacy of speech, the centrality of the connected text as the kernel of the teaching-learning process, and the absolute priority of an oral classroom methodology".

Sweet was a key personality in this phenomenon, "the man who taught phonetics to Europe" (Howatt 2004: 199). He argued that sound methodological principles should be based on a scientific analysis of language and a study of psychology. In his monumental work *The Practical Study of Languages* (1899), Sweet advocated the arrangement of what is to be taught in terms of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing and of grading the materials from simple to complex (in a much more scientific base than Ollendorff). There exist several tenets in Sweet's philosophy which are closely linked with the principles of the Reform and whose illustration will help towards a better understanding of the latter.

Firstly, his support for the psychological theory reigning at the end of the nineteenth century: *associationism*, according to which the student's main task was to form and maintain correct associations both between linguistic elements with the language, and between these elements and the outside world (Howatt 2004: 203).

Associationism accounted for the preference of Sweet and his other colleagues for the text as the mode of the presentation of the linguistic content to the learners. They scorned the single-sentence-based unit of teaching abundant in school materials such as Ollendorff's and Gouin's as the non-contextualized isolated sentences prevented the students from creating the right associations. Lists of disconnected words and isolated sentences stretched together in bizarre sequences giving way to Sweet's label of 'the arithmetical fallacy', whereby a real-life example such as "The philosopher pulled the lower jaw of the hen" was possible in structure but surreal in meaning. Only after the complete study of a coherent and connected text on the

students' part could they start to inductively infer the grammar rules and lexical senses since these were contained in such texts, resembling the natural methodologies (Sánchez 1997: 123).

The text principle partially explains a cardinal point in the Reform Movement which was to be, together with the use of objects, the characteristic 'per se' linked with the *Direct Method*: the rejection of translation. In 1884, the German scholar Franke wrote on the psychological principles underpinning the direct association between forms and meanings in the foreign language and offered a theoretical rationale for a monolingual approach to language teaching (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 11). Thus he encouraged the use of object lessons, a device that though already suggested two centuries before by Renaissance humanists was thought to be a new discovery by these end-nineteenth century academics. Translation, then, should be avoided as it is connected with non-contextualized sentences and because it results in 'cross-associations'.

These principles (primordial role of speech and phonetics, oral skills before reading and writing, avoidance of translation, text-based approach, inductive mode of learning grammar and vocabulary by means of generalization from the texts or through gestures, pictures and definitions in the target language) constitute the foundation stones of Applied Linguistics (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 10).

The above assumptions become reflected in the following classroom techniques indicated by Stern (1983: 459). It should be remarked, though, that besides the fact that this author does not treat the Reform Movement and *Direct Method* as two separate -though related- sections, he seems to account for these as a single trend. That is the reason why in point number 7 the Direct Method is alluded to in reference to the emphasis on phonetics. Truly, Berlitz's materials will not contain explicit notes about pronunciation in the lessons themselves (contrary to those by Eckersley as will be seen later), though the former did include phonetic work apart and would make use of a text (or dialogue) in later stages of learning:

> 1. The standard procedure involves the classroom presentation of a "text" by the teacher. The text is usually a short specially constructed foreign language narrative in the textbook.
> 2. Difficult expressions are explained in the target language with the help of paraphrases, synonyms, demonstration, or context.
> 3. To elucidate further the meaning of the text the teacher asks questions about it, and the students read the text aloud for practice.

4. Grammatical observations are derived from the text read and students are encouraged to discover for themselves the grammatical principle involved.
5. Much time is spent on questions and answers on the text or on talk about wall pictures.
6. Exercises involve transpositions, substitutions, dictation, narrative, and free composition.
7. Since the Direct Method class involves much use of the spoken language, stress is also laid on the acquisition of a good pronunciation. This is why in the early stages of the history of the Direct Method phonetics – specially phonetic transcription - was regarded as an important part of this method.

Simultaneously with these scholar reforms, the origins of the genuine *Direct Method* were being conceived from the tenets of the natural approach and attempted to make second language learning identical to that of the mother tongue.

6.1.1.4. Sauveur

G. Heness was one of Pestalozzi's students. He emigrated to the United States in 1865 to teach German through his object-teaching lessons to the children of a group of the staff at Yale University. He also needed to include French in his classes, and found Lambert Sauveur (1826-1907) for that purpose. Their courses included a hundred hours of intensive oral instruction, two hours a day, five days a week, for four and a half months a year (Howatt 2004: 218). They were extremely successful, and in 1869 they moved to Boston where they opened a School of Modern Languages. Once again they prospered. Sauveur has ended up by outweighing Heness' figure, probably due to the fact that only Sauveur's explanatory work of their method has survived: *An Introduction to the Teaching of Living Languages without Grammar or Dictionary* (1874a). This was supposed to be a teacher's guide to his "coursebook" (*Causeries avec mes élèves*, 1874b) following Howatt (2004: 218)). The enthusiasm for the naturalistic principles of learning is repeatedly constant in both works. The students did not start the *Causeries* until they had spent at least a whole month on exhaustive oral interaction in the target language for which questions as a means of eliciting language were used (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 11). The materials were laid down in the format of a "conversation" or dialogue, which is very different from what we would understand for a textbook nowadays. Here is an extract from the *Causeries*:

Here is the finger. Look. Here is the forefinger, here is the middle finger, here is the ring-finger, here is the little finger, and here is the thumb. Do you see the finger, madame? Yes, you see the finger and I see the finger. Do you see the finger, monsieur?-Yes, I see the finger.- Do you see the forefinger, madame?-Yes, I see the forefinger.-And you, monsieur? Etc.

Sauveur (1874b: 10). From Howatt (2004: 219).

Sauveur was a genial language teacher who could hold the attention of his students for hours and really managed them to understand everything he said in the foreign language. To achieve this aim he led the discourse to the directions he wanted to "on-line": he connected everything in his speech, especially the new vocabulary, which was grasped thanks to the contextualization, question and answer, objects and concrete ideas… (Sánchez 1997: 141). No wonder his materials were so difficult to be used by other teachers, due to their great demands on oral proficiency and creativity, which was recognized by scholars from that period such as Kroeh (1887) (as recounted in Sánchez 1997: 142 and Howatt 2004: 221).

In his *Introduction*, Sauveur explained the two principles that underpinned his teaching. Firstly, the asking of what he called "earnest questions". This plainly means that he was genuinely looking for an answer, whether known or unknown by him or another teacher (such as for example, what the time is (Howatt 2004: 220)). The second principle of linguistic organization in the use of classroom language was coherence: "to connect scrupulously the questions in such a manner that one may give rise to another". (Sauveur 1874b: 28; quoted in Howatt 2004: 220). In this way he was successful in making his learners understand what he was talking about as question and answer were related by means of communicative coherence, even if they lacked grammatical coherence (Sánchez 1997: 142).

Here there exists a certain link with Gouin and Ollendorff. Regarding the former, students understood the elements of the sentence other than the foregrounded verb thanks to their constant appearance in every line and the logic behind the action depicted. As for Ollendorff, he also used the interaction parameter with the peculiarity that the answers were self-contained in the questions and thus the probability of making structural mistakes was reduced. More emphasis was placed on grammar correctness (even if the examples were straightforward), and the utterances did not necessarily relate to daily-life objects or current situations in the classroom; besides, the textbook was used from the very beginning.

Because of all the above cited characteristics, Sauveur's method became to be known as the "Natural Method" (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 11; Howatt 2004: 221). As can be deduced from Sauveur's indications and principles, implementing this method at a large-scale in schools was an extremely complicated task. This mission was undertaken by the German Maximilian Delphinus Berlitz (1852-1911), another immigrant himself in the United States too. His first school was founded in Rhode Island, and thirty years later he had constructed a network of his own language schools, scattered both in the United States and Europe, up to the point that by 1914 he owned two hundred schools.

According to the "Official History of the Berlitz Organization" (1978), this immense success was also due to another immigrant, Nicholas Joly, a Frenchman who taught French without any recourse to English. French and German were the initial languages of this big enterprise and were later accompanied by English, Spanish, Russian, Dutch, Danish, Italian, etc.

Berlitz was not an academic methodologist; however, he enjoyed excellent systematizing qualities which he applied to basic language materials organized on "direct method" ideologies. As was asserted in the Preface to his 1914 edition of the *M. D. Berlitz Method for Teaching Modern Languages, English Part, First Book,*

> The Berlitz Method is the systematized application of the psychological process which enables a child to learn its mother tongue; it is adapted, however, to the different stages of mental maturity reached by a youth or adult.

I will exemplify the systematization in section 6.1.2. as well as in the analysis of the units.

This idiosyncratic feature allowed for the materials to become simple, ordered and replicable anywhere in the world thanks to a similar same type of no more than two differentiated lesson formats which allowed for a predictable routine. This happened in the first book of his materials. (It should be remembered that Berlitz's coursebooks consisted of a series of two volumes and that they were intended for elementary and pre-intermediate learners, as it was difficult to apply them to advanced learners due to their methodology. They catered for the basic needs of a

new world of industry and international trade and travel). Proof of the sameness of lesson structure, at least in the dialogue layout, is provided in his 1914 edition of his work (p. 5):

> The entire stock of words used in the book is given principally in the form of conversations between the teacher and the student; whilst in the arrangement of the lessons our aim has been to give the most necessary and the most useful first, so that if the student discontinues at any point, he will be able to turn what he has acquired to practical use.

Besides, there existed a standard framework explained in two different places. Firstly, he devised a series of standard guidelines which are still used in contemporary Berlitz schools:

1) Never translate: demonstrate
2) Never explain: act
3) Never make a speech: ask questions
4) Never imitate mistakes: correct
5) Never speak with single words: use sentences
6) Never speak too much: make the students speak too much
7) Never use the book: use your lesson plan
8) Never jump around: follow your plan
9) Never go too fast: keep the pace of the student
10) Never speak too slowly: speak normally
11) Never speak too quickly: speak naturally
12) Never speak too loudly: speak naturally
13) Never be impatient: take it easy

(Titone 1968: 100-101).

Secondly, Berlitz never wrote a book about his didactic theory as Sauveur did (Sánchez 1997: 143), but his textbooks always contained a fairly similar preface (some aspects could vary from one edition to another) which accounted for the rationale behind his method and provided key general teaching precepts.

In the Preface for the 1931 edition of the same work recently quoted, the following "fundamental principles of the Berlitz Method" are clearly stated:

1. Direct association of Perception and Thought with the Foreign Speech and Sound.
2. Constant and exclusive use of the Foreign Language.

These unequivocally reflect the influence from the Reform Movement in the psychological aspect of associationism, which explains the monolingual approach adopted here and advocated by Franke. Perhaps this constitutes the best explanation

of the term "direct method" (it was never used by Berlitz, who employed his proper name to refer to it). This label is smartly dissected by Lado (1988: 12):

> The learner should understand the language "directly": through contact with it rather than through the mediation of the native language as in Grammar – Translation Method. Native speakers use their language without translating it; they "think" in the language and understand it directly.

Berlitz takes pain at describing the reasons for his rejection of translation (1931: 1-2, the extract being identical to the one found in the 1914 edition) :

1. In all translation-methods, most of the time is taken up by explanations in the student's mother tongue, while but few words are spoken in the language to be learned. It is evident that such a procedure is contrary to common sense.
2. He who is studying a foreign language by means of translation, neither gets hold of its spirit nor becomes accustomed to think in it; on the contrary, he has a tendency to base all he says upon what he would say in his mother tongue […] thereby rendering the latter unintelligible or, at least, incorrect.
3. A knowledge of a foreign tongue, acquired by means of translation, is necessarily defective and incomplete; for there is no means for every word of the one language, the exact equivalent in the other. Every language has its peculiarities, its idiomatic expressions and terms […] which cannot possibly be rendered by translation. Furthermore, the ideas conveyed by an expression in one language are frequently not the same as those conveyed by the same words in the other.
These undeniable facts suffice to show clearly that all translation-methods are deficient, and prove that every language must be learned out of itself.

On the other hand, the means of attaining the end reflected in his principles are equally supplied (1931: 1):

I.   – Teaching of the Concrete by Object Lessons.
II.   – Teaching of the Abstract by the Association of Ideas.
III.   – Teaching of Grammar by Examples and Ocular Demonstration.

These means are overtly present in the structure of the First Book of Berlitz's 1931 work: the first part consists of the "Preparatory Lessons" or "Object Teaching" and the second one is composed of the "Elementary Reading and Conversation" or "Teaching through Context".

The influence from all the Naturalistic tradition is extremely clear, starting from Comenius and his reliance on realia (equally supported by Rousseau), visual demonstration, examples and precepts as well as the association of ideas to teach the

abstract, immediately inherited from the Reform Movement. In this last feature Berlitz's disciples strive to explain the justification of such a procedure (1931: 5):

> What cannot be taught by means of object lessons is elucidated by being placed in proper context; i.e., the new words are used among previously learned expressions in such a manner that the meaning of the new becomes perfectly clear from its connection with what precedes and follows; this is in accordance with the established mathematical principle of finding the value of the unknown X through its relation with the known quantities A and B. In the more advanced lessons, new words may frequently be explained by simple definitions containing the vocabulary previously acquired.

Apart from the teaching of the tangible items by object-lessons, demonstrations, pictures; the use of association of ideas for conceptual vocabulary; the exclusive use of the L2 and the inductive learning of grammar, the above tenets and means stood for other certain classroom principles and techniques. These equally highlighted oral skills in the naturalistic line. In fact, on p. 6 of the Preface to his 1892 edition of the above-mentioned work, Berlitz stated,

> All new words and expressions should be written on the blackboard but only after they have been practised a little. The student must at first learn through the ear, in order to acquire a good pronunciation.

The ensuing list is a combination of the reports of such techniques by Celce-Murcia (1991b: 6); Sánchez (1997: 143) and Richards and Rodgers (2001: 12):

1. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.
2. Oral communication skills were built up in a carefully graded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
3. New teaching points were introduced orally.
4. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught.
5. Correct pronunciation and grammar were emphasized.
6. Lessons begin with dialogues and anecdotes in modern conversational style.
7. Literary texts are read for pleasure, and are not analysed grammatically.
8. The target culture is also taught inductively.

9. Rejection of grammatical explanations, at least until a minimum degree of language command has been achieved.

The essential differences with the Reform Movement were the ensuing ones: the *Direct Method*'s much more often presentation of new content through dialogues, with the resulting support for the sentence as the unit of teaching instead of the text; its non-explicit inclusion of pronunciation drills in the materials, and its rigid implementation of the monolingual approach. In the Reform Movement, the L1 was also forbidden though it was allowed in order to explain new words or to check comprehension (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 10).

It should be remarked that the question-and-answer strategy or the conversational approach is not a novel procedure despite its fame thanks to Ollendorff's, Sauveur's and especially Berlitz's pedagogy. Indeed, as Kelly (1969: 49 and ff) fascinatingly conveys, they date from the Greek philosophical texts (long monologues sometimes interrupted by the pupil's enquiries or observations). In the Middle Ages their application to foreign languages was called "colloquium", though the term "dialogue" gradually took on both meanings, especially in the Renaissance, where the sentences were shorter and attempted at representing real conversation, not merely exchanges of questions and answers. Hence the great popularity of the "books of dialogues" to learn the vernacular languages in non-formal settings or private education circles. For a related account the reader is directed to Sánchez (1997) and Howatt (2004), as stated in section 3.1.

All the aforementioned dogmas and strategies resulted in the *Direct Method* being considered the natural method "par excellence". Maybe the following metaphor from Berlitz (1931: 4) is the best one to summarize the combination of the natural philosophy combined with systematization:

> The instruction by the Berlitz method, is to the student what the sojourn in a foreign land is to a traveller. He hears and speaks only the language he wishes to learn, as if he were in a foreign country. He has, however, the advantage that the language has been methodologically and systematically arranged for him.

As Richards and Rodgers (2001: 12) and Brown (2000: 45) remark, the Berlitz Method was mostly accepted in private schools thanks to highly paid

teachers, very motivated students, small classes and the ensuing individual attention. Besides the intensive effort on the latter's part, non-native instructors or young inexperienced ones and restrains on budget and classroom facilities made it more difficult to adapt it to secondary public contexts. Berlitz's schools still remain famous around the world, but by the end of the first quarter of the twentieth century, the use of the *Direct Method* in non-commercial institutions had declined both in Europe and in the United States. The following quotation is very representative of the discontent of the period:

> The Reform has fulfilled its mission. It has laid the ghosts of the grammatical method, which made a fetish of the study of grammar with excessive attention to translation from and into the foreign language. Reading formerly served chiefly as a handmaiden to grammar, and was too exclusively limited to historical-literary works. Speaking ability was kept in the background and correct pronunciation was neglected. Such an antiquated method of teaching is now once and for all impossible. But what the grammatical method neglected, practical and correct use of the spoken language, the reform method has pushed to extremes. In making mastery of the spoken language the chief objective, the nature and function of secondary schools was overlooked, because such an objective under normal conditions of mass instruction is only attainable in a modest degree. The reform method requires not only a teacher who possesses a perfect mastery of the foreign language, but makes such claims on his nervous and physical energy as to entail premature exhaustion. Average pupils, not to mention weaker ones, do not justify the demands made by the oral use of the language; they soon wary, are overburdened and revolt. Early adherents of the new method, after their enthusiasm has been dashed by stern realities, have gradually broken away
> (Buchanan and MacPhee 1928: 19 ff. In Titone 1968: 39-40).

Consequently, most language curricula returned to the Grammar Translation Method or to a "reading approach" that emphasized reading skills in foreign languages. In fact, in France and Germany direct method techniques with more controlled grammar activities substituted for it (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 13) and in England, during the interwar years, it resulted in a "compromise approach" (Stern 1983: 457). Spoken language was still favoured, but translation and grammar explanation were not completely forbidden. The acknowledgement of this "compromise approach" will be very valuable for the analysis of Eckersley's units, as will be subsequently seen.

Besides logistic factors, the *Direct Method* was criticized for its weak theoretical foundations too. At a psycholinguistic level, Lado (1988: 14) rightly

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argues that it overemphasized and deformed the similarities between naturalistic first language learning and classroom foreign language learning due to the differences in cognitive maturity between children and adults. The latter may benefit from formal grammar teaching. From an applied linguistic point of view (language theory), Richards and Rodgers (2001: 12-13) contend that it lacked a rigorous basis. Hence the criticisms by the more academically-based proponents of the Reform Movement, who considered the *Direct Method* as "the product of enlightened amateurism" (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 13).

Certainly, Sweet had already pointed out the faults of such a naturalistic approach, which coincide with those indicated by Lado:

> The fundamental objection to the natural method" was that "it puts the adult into the position of an infant, which he is no longer capable of utilizing, and, at the same time, does not allow him to make use of his own special advantages… the power of analysis and generalization- in short, the power of using a grammar and a dictionary"
>
> (Sweet 1899/1964: 75)

Despite all these flaws, the *Direct Method* will be remembered for marking the beginning of the "methods era" (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 14). Indeed, during the 1920s and 1930s, British renowned applied linguists (Harold Palmer (1877-1949) being the most famous one) enhanced the principles from the Reform Movement and combined them with a meticulous scientific revision of the *Direct Method* procedures. Palmer is regarded as the founder of "the development of ELT [English Language Teaching] as an autonomous profession" and as the creator of the *Oral Method* (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 36; Howatt 2004: 244). This would later give way to the *Situational Language Teaching* trend developed by A. Hornby (1898-1978) in the 1950s in order to compete with the emergent American version of structuralism, the *Audio-Lingual Method*. Both made use of the Direct Method's sentence-unit-of-teaching and of its new pre-Second-World-War production of grammatical exercises.

6.1.2. Structure of Berlitz, M. D. (1931). *M. D. Berlitz Method for Teaching Modern Languages. English Part. First Book*

The reader is addressed to Appendix A.1 where a copy of the contents of Book 1 is included.

Similar to what is going to happen with Eckersley's *Essential English*, this Book 1 is divided into two distinct parts. This already constitutes a sign of the systematization exercised by Berlitz alluded to in the "Historical Background of the Direct Method", which in turn accounts for my decision of analyzing two lessons (one per part) instead of a single unit as will be the case in Alexander's *First Things First.*

The first part in the Berlitz Method is called the "Preparatory Lessons" or "Object teaching". Obviously, these lessons deal with concrete materials and ideas which are easily shown through objects already existing in the classroom or wall-pictures, in correspondence with the didactic means "Teaching of the Concrete by Object Lessons" and "Teaching of Grammar through Examples and Ocular Demonstration". The guidelines of this part are intended to help the teacher conduct his or her lesson and are not to be seen by the students, in such a way that the former can resort to drawings, gestures, mimes, etc. to convey meaning. Indeed, on p. 10, just before starting the first lesson, there is a publicity note which reads as,

> We call the teacher's attention to our large coloured wall-pictures, which we have had designed by a renowned artist. These pictures represent everything referring to the topics of daily conversation. They will be a great help in making even the elementary lessons interesting and effective and give the teacher a better opportunity to illustrate the different objects, dimensions, places, positions, etc.

There are twelve lessons in this initial part. Significantly enough, despite the manifested abhorrence for explicit grammar rules and deduction as the mode of learning, the contents are clearly separated into a Vocabulary and a Grammar sections, following the systematization of this Natural Method by Berlitz. For example, my unit for analysis (number seven) encompasses "possession" under Vocabulary, and "Possessive pronouns, the possessive case. The verb "to have", the progressive form of verbs" below Grammar. Effectively, even though "the Berlitz

Method is to the student what the sojourn in a foreign land is to the traveller", the language "has been methodically and systematically arranged for him" (p. 4 of the Preface).

All the units from this first part follow the same pattern in activity typology for the introduction of the material. Accordingly, I will not offer now an overall description of a standard unit as a portrayal of lesson seven in the analysis will be supplied in detail.

The second part is titled as "Elementary Reading and Conversation (Teaching through Context)". Undoubtedly, this readily corresponds to the didactic means of "Teaching of the Abstract by the Association of Ideas" and, similar to the initial part, "Teaching of Grammar through Examples and Ocular Demonstration". In effect, by way of reading the texts or dialogues (as will be seen next), the samples illustrating certain structural and lexical behaviours become contextualized and thus are inductively learned, practised or revised by the students; at the same time, the teacher can resort to verbal (non-printed) examples as in the first section.

The appearance of reading texts after the twelfth unit is a sign of the Berlitz's Method backing of the natural methodologies regarding the order of skills: listening-speaking-reading-writing. It coincides with Gouin's related pedagogical decision (italics in the original):

> Before everything else, it must be understood that the eye and the hand only take possession of the exercise *after* the ear has entirely conquered it for itself and transmitted it to the mind. Indeed, change the order, and begin by the writing, or even by the reading lesson, as is now everywhere done, and the lesson ceases to be fruitful.
>
> Gouin (1892: 133)

This second part comprises seventeen lessons, the contents of which are not overtly subdivided into grammar and lexis but appear either combined in the same unit or isolated in a specific one most of the times. The first lesson ("The Clock and the Watch") is an illustrative example of the former case: the contents here are "Telling the time; comparative and superlative degrees of Adjectives". The remaining units either focus on grammar or lexis alone. For instance, the third one ("Day and Night") introduces the "sun, moon, stars, light, dark, etc., the cardinal points" and units five ("What did we do in the past?"), six ("What have we done before now?") and seven ("What shall we do in the future?") specifically concentrate

on "Conversation for practising the Imperfect Tense", "Conversation for practising the Perfect Tense" and "Conversation for practising the Future Tense" respectively. Finally, there exist three units where no explicit mention as to linguistic items is made: number nine ("The Departure"), number twelve ("In London (continued)"), number sixteen ("The Family") and number seventeen ("Letters, etc.").

It should be observed that the fact that the lessons explicitly appear as focusing on a particular element(s) does not mean that recycling of previous structural and lexical points is ignored. Certainly, this is the situation of the lesson to be examined: number eight ("Travelling"). "Names of countries, etc." is the label that includes the contents highlighted; however, as will be thoroughly indicated in its respective analysis, many more other particles introduced in previous units are revisited.

Contrary to the first part where sameness of activity types and structuring of units is the rule, in this second section certain related differences may be appreciated, both within and across the units. Regarding the latter, except for the last two lessons ("The Family" and "Letters, etc."), all the other units consist of an oral introduction in which the teacher supplies the key terms and structures, either in a monologue or dialogue manner (between him/herself and the students); a subsequent part titled as "Reading and Conversation" and a final one which comprises the "Exercises".

The "Family" and "Letters, etc." do not contain the "Oral Introduction". The first directly introduces a dialogue with all the relative terms, followed by the "Exercises" activity. "Letters, etc.", as the very name implies, constitutes a collection of model letters such as "Invitation to dinner", "Acceptance of invitation", "Invitation to the Opera", "Telegrams" and short notes. Exercises are not included here. Because these deviances concerning the overall structure of the rest of lessons are solely found in these last two ones, I have decided to analyse unit eight out of the overall seventeen despite the fact that seven units fall above and nine below of my selected lesson.

With respect to the divergences within units, "Reading and Conversation" include either a text in a narrative form or a dialogue, following Stern (1983: 459) statement about the techniques of the *Direct Method*: "The standard procedure involves the classroom presentation of a "text" by the teacher. The text is usually a short specially constructed foreign language narrative in the textbook". Half of the lessons (one to four and fourteen to fifteen) encompasses a text, whereas the other ones include a dialogue. This somehow appears to contradict Stern's (1983: 459)

statement about the techniques of the *Direct Method*, since he seems to strongly endorse the generalization of texts strategy as the ordinary strategy: "The standard procedure involves the classroom presentation of a "text" by the teacher. The text is usually a short specially constructed foreign language narrative in the textbook".

Since no overt guidelines are offered as to the procedure the teacher has to carry out with these exercises, in my opinion the heading "Conversation" is misleading. Indeed, if the activity really focuses on the reading skill, there is no place for conversation unless this is considered as oral work in the sense that the students would read the passage or dialogue aloud. This is the first strategy reported by Larsen-Freeman (2000: 30) in her actual observation of a modern Direct Method-based class. The "Conversation" part actually takes place in the ensuing "Exercises", which consist of questions about the text as well as about the students' general knowledge or opinion. The order of skills favoured by the *Direct Method* is then respected, since listening and speaking have been already attended in the "Preparatory Lessons" as well as in this "Oral Introduction". After all this aural/oral work, reading comes followed by more speaking practice, in such a way that reading is developed on the oral skills.

This receptive skill continues to be practised in Book 2 (1934), which is mostly devoted to its practice. I believe it necessary to provide a succinct account of the structure of this second book to complete the picture of the *Direct Method* regarding the order and emphasis of skills. The manual is divided into three parts. The first one reintroduces the "Indicative Mood" with sixteen lessons titled as the modern situations or topics ("At the Hotel"; "Buying Furniture", etc.) as well as the "Conditional and Subjunctive and Would, etc. expressing habit" in five units, organized around topics ("An Excursion into the Country"; "Effective Punishment"…). The configuration of this first part is very similar to the "Teaching through Context" section of Book 1 except for the "Oral Introduction": after a reading text in the form of a dialogue, several exercises or questions about it are included. The Second Part is composed of two blocks: twelve "Anecdotes and Extracts" ("Too Much of a Hurry"; "Lord Chesterfield to his Son"…) and five "Historical pieces (Dickens)" ("Ancient England", "King Alfred", "The Battle of Hastings"...). Both narrative and dialogues are the format of the short texts, which are immediately followed by several questions. Thirteen "Advanced Readings" (some examples being "The Man in Black", "Letter to Baretti", "Extracts from

'Julius Caesar'") integrate the third part, where no exercises are provided but the longest texts are supplied.

Clearly, Book 2 focuses on reading skill, which acts as an indirect or contextualized revision of structural notions in the first part but which later turns to a more development of the skill itself. No overt specifications are given as to the mode with which the questions have to be answered: orally or written. For the sake of speculation, it could be possible that the learners would do some written practice after so much oral and visual work, even if this practice did not cover all the facets of writing and consisted of answering questions with short utterances. At any rate, this does not really make a great difference to the point that I wanted to highlight through this report on Book 2: the overall listening-speaking-reading-writing order of skills advocated by Berlitz's coursebooks.

Following the "Elementary Reading and Conversation" units come three appendices in Book 1: Appendix I ("Supplementary Exercises"); Appendix II ("Table of important irregular Verbs") and Appendix III ("Practice on Elementary Sounds". The contemporary stress on phonetics is found apart from the main core of the textbook).

The methodological and systematic arrangement that Berlitz boasts about finds its culmination in this classical part added to many explicit grammar books. As Howatt (2004: 226) asserts, Berlitz wrote a number of short reference grammars to accompany his most popular courses. This shows that despite the pompous statements in his Preface about the qualities of his child-learning-based method, he was forced to cater for a need never ignored by a great majority of adult students. Effectively, despite the at–the-time-scholarship rejection for the Grammar-Translation Method and its explicit inclusion of deductive grammar rules in a proper textbook (either with higher or lesser emphasis, as in Ollendorff's case), many learners still believe(d) in the benefit from the language base provided in this way. This accounts for the still great popularity of grammar books among students and thus from the related overt information included in non-structural-founded texts, such as the grammatical appendix to book I of the lexical course *Cobuild English* (Willis and Willis 1989; reported by Cook (1996: 168)).

In fact, Berlitz's appendices, though much shorter in extension, remind us of those included in Ollendorff's. *Ollendorff's New Method of Learning to Read, Write, and Speak the Spanish Language* (1895) comprises a large appendix at the end of the

manual (pp. 401-551). It contains, among others, "Ortography. Spanish Alphabet"; "Reading Lessons" (which comprise the pronunciation of all the words line by line); a grammar review of the verb which encompasses "numbers and persons", "moods", "tenses" and charts illustrating verbs from the three conjugations; another grammar review for the rest of the particles of the sentence arranged in the classical order (article, noun and adjective, pronoun, verb, participle, adverb, preposition, conjunction and interjection). There is also a "Table containing the verbs that govern certain prepositions", which "is copied from the Grammar of the Spanish Academy" and consists of a bilingual list with the Spanish verbs on the left column and their corresponding English translation in the right one. The appendix is closed by a section called "Modelos de cartas mercantiles y familiares".

In Berlitz's case (1931), the appendix is by no means as extensive as in Ollendorff's, though certain similarities may be appreciated if only for their emphasis on grammatical items, particularly appendices one and two. In the former, there exist six exercises, all of which practise structures and the third one also deals with vocabulary. The initial activity consists of answering the questions that follow, using pronouns in place of the words printed in italics (p. 99) [4]. It revises the contents from the third lesson ("personal pronouns"):

1. Do you want to write *your exercise?*. [5]

The second activity is a very traditional one that was disliked by Alexander (1967a: xiv) and which can still be found in many contemporary textbooks: "Put words expressing quantity or number in place of the dashes". It practises the adverbs of quantity introduced in lesson nine and consists of a proto-gap filling composed of twenty-seven isolated and semantically disconnected sentences:

11. Who has the ___ money, you, I, or Mr. Morgan? Mr. Morgan has the ___.

Curiously enough, Berlitz was making use of a type of exercise categorized as pattern practice by Lado (1964: 101). Lado labelled gap-fillings as "completion

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[4] From now onwards we will make reference to the original pages where the specific extract from the unit in question is being analysed. In order not to confuse the reader with the allusion to the pages of this essay, the latter will always be introduced by signal verbs and phrases such as "see p. x", "as observed on p. y", etc.

[5] Italics in the original.

exercises": "They are incomplete sentences or phrases with enough context to determine the material that is required to complete them". No mention is included as to a larger piece of discourse beyond sentences such as complete, coherent fragments of texts. Thus this is one of the instances in which Brown's claim (2000: 74) fits in perfectly: the *Direct Method* may have been disregarded at the end of the first quarter of the twentieth century by researchers and public institutions, but *Audiolingualism, Situational Language Teaching* and the French Structuro-Global Methods employed the new class of grammatical exercises that the *Direct Method* firstly created. Indeed, this second exercise together with the ensuing ones are representative examples of Lado's "conscious-drill choice" (1964: 105). The latter constitutes the preceding stages of *pattern practice* (also known as *drill practice, pattern drill* or *structural practice* according to Stern (1983: 464) and is conceptualized as "rapid oral drill on problem patterns with attention on something other than the problem itself" (Lado 1964: 105). It could be argued that the *Direct Method* laid the foundations for pattern practice and Audiolingualists developed it. As Kelly (1969: 109) affirms,

> Pattern practice was slow in being accepted by the teaching profession. Its use in textbooks before the Second World War was rare, although it was taken up by some of the Direct Methodists. […] Schweitzer recommended drilling oral patterns in class, following them with loaded questions which would force the pupil to use the patterns and the vocabulary given. By now [Audiolingualism time] it was the structural use of pattern practice that was to the fore.

Since we will find more examples of the technique of drilling to rehearse structures both here and in Eckersley's material apart from the *Situational Language Teaching* strand, I will now provide a definition of it even if this notion is mostly associated with the Audio-Lingual Method, in which section I will equally comment upon drills and relate them to the latter method's behaviourist psychology of learning.

Drills, as defined in the *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* (1995: 117), are a strategy based on guided repetition and practice, and consists of two basic parts: a *cue* or call-word (*stimulus*) supplied by the teacher and a *response* by the students based on repetition, substitution, or transformation.

The *Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* offers the following chart as an illustration of the kinds of drills indicated:

Type of drill	Teacher's cue	Student
Substitution drill	We bought a book. pencil	We bought a pencil.
Repetition drill	We bought a book. We bought a book.	We bought a book. We bought a pencil.
Transformation drill	I bought a book.	Did you buy a book? What did you buy?

The third activity (pp. 101-102) corresponds to Lado's (1964: 98) "Multiple substitution drill", and is somehow similar to the substitution drill. It "involves simultaneous substitution of more than one element per response". The exercise is headed by some examples ("My watch is made of gold. I have a golden watch") and later practice invites students to answer what several objects are made of, such as "the table, the window, your boots", etc. and to complete four sentences (equally to the first exercise) such as: "Have you a silver watch? No, I have a ____ one (golden)".

The practice in the fourth activity on p. 102 (similar to the first one) is composed of ten sentences in which the learners have to complete the apostrophized words (possessive determiners):

7. Are these o' handkerchiefs? No, they are not o'.

Exercise number five (pp. 103-104) belongs to Lado's (1964: 101) "synthesis: from two simple sentences which supply the lexical information in a given order, a complex sentence pattern is constructed and practiced". In this case the combination into one sentence of two independent ones by means of relative pronouns is at stake, and has not previously been offered before. Accordingly, and in the inductive line followed by the *Direct Method*, several examples without any explicit rules are provided at the beginning:

We eat many things; they are called eatables.
The things (which) we eat are called eatables.
[…]
(Make one sentence of each pair, similar to those in the preceding examples.)
1. What is the title of the book? We have read it.

Learners will have to supply "What is the title of the book which we have read?"

The instructions in the last activity of the first appendix number six (p. 105) require students to "construct questions for the following answers" (thirty-seven in total). Different structures are revised, such as prepositions and adverbs of place, indicative present singular of the verb "to be" (unit three); the verb "have" and the progressive form of verbs (lesson seven)…:

> 9. I am writing.
> 34. On the upper floor.

It represents an identical example of Lado's (1964: 99) "transformation" type of practice:

> This is not a conversation even though it involves questions and answers. Nobody speaks in this order. The exercise is merely a way to practice the production of questions by supplying answers as controlling stimuli.

Appendix II occupies a single page (106), which is filled in by a "Table of important regular verbs" in the present, imperfect and past participle alike; present; imperfect and perfect tenses (for example, "I lay - I laid - I wear - I wore - I have ridden" (respectively)).

Finally, Appendix III (pp. 107-111) proposes "Practice on elementary sounds". It includes the vowels, diphthongs, consonants, e.g.:

<div align="center">o</div>

pole, pose, home, hope, spoke, rose, stone, rope, host, most, gold, sold

<div align="center">ai, ay</div>

sail, rail, nail, rain, pain, paint, grain, claim, wait, maid, paid, day, may, pay, gray, play, way, stay, hay, lay, pray.

<div align="center">d, t</div>

ride, rite, tried, trite, side, site, dry, try, teem, deem, doe, toe, cold, colt

6.1.3. Analysis of units from Berlitz, M. D. (1931). *M. D. Berlitz Method for Teaching Modern Languages. English Part. First Book*

As explained in section 6.1.2., I am going to examine two different units, each of which belongs to the two neatly separated parts that this First Book is composed of: the "Preparatory Lessons" or "Object teaching" and the "Elementary Reading and Conversation" or "Teaching through Context".

In accordance with my reliability parameter of choosing middle units, I have selected unit number seven from the first block out of its twelve ones and unit number eight out of the overall seventeen ones (the specific reasons for the latter decision were accounted for in the same part on p. 45).

6.1.3.1. *Analysis of lesson seven ("Preparatory" or "Object-Teaching" lessons)*

The language contents of this unit are stated in the "Synopsis of the Lessons contained in the First Book" as follows: "Possession" for vocabulary and "Possessive pronouns, the possessive case, the verb 'to have', the progressive aspect of verbs" for grammar (see Appendix A.1. for the synopsis and Appendix A.2. for the text of lesson seven).

In practice, the above contents are typographically arranged in three distinct parts. The first one deals with possession; the second one with the verb "to have" and the third one with the progressive aspect of verbs or present continuous as we would call it nowadays. This is the first hint of Berlitz's systematization that will be seen in the present analysis, in the sense that the linguistic objectives are not chaotically presented but appear in a careful order.

Another sign of such a well thought-out organization is constituted by the fact that this lesson recycles elements from previous units:

> *This is my pencil* (line 1)
> *My tie is black* (line 8)
> *The pupils have books. You have a pencil, I have a pencil, we have two pencils* (lines 35-38)
> *I am taking a book* (line 43)
>
> (Berlitz 1931: 20-21)

52

Line 1 retakes demonstrative pronouns ("this") and the verb 'to be' seen in lesson 3 ("Ind. pres. sing. of "to be". […] demonstrative pronouns"). Colours, which had been studied in lesson 2 (the vocabulary of which was "colours and dimensions") are revisited in line 8. Personal pronouns (which had firstly appeared in lesson 3 together with the demonstrative ones) and the notion of plural contrasted against singular (introduced in lesson five ("Plural")) are reinforced from lines 35 to 38 and in line 43 respectively.

After these preliminary notes, I will proceed to examine each of the three parts delimited before on its own. The reader is addressed to Appendix A.2 where s/he can find the original extract of the lesson with every five lines by me for a better and quicker location of the examples quoted. This does not apply to the last part (the "progressive aspect" one) due to its arrangement in thematic areas at the end and its overall organization with brackets that facilitate the spot of lines. When considered appropriate by the authoress, the whole material of the unit will be included at the beginning of its respective analysis as well.

It should also be pointed out that in accordance with the principle of prevalence of oral skills before the written ones, this specific unit was not to be seen in a printing format. It could be argued that it acted as a sort of an on paper reminder for the teacher, in a similar way to Sauveur's *Causeries* (Howatt 2004: 218).

6.1.3.1. a. "Possession" Part


```
             This is my pencil and that is your pencil.
             My pencil is black; your pencil is red.
             Mr. Johnson's book is brown; Mrs. Coleman's book
         is black.
5            Is this Mr. Johnson's book? Yes, it his book.
             Is that Mrs. Coleman's book? Yes, it is her book.
             Whose pencil is this? It is my pencil.
             Whose book is this? It is your book.
             Whose pen is this? It is Mrs. Coleman's pen.
10           My tie is black; your tie is gray [sic]
             My hat is brown; your hat is black
             What is the colour of your tie? My tie is gray
             What is the colour of Mr. Sweet's hat? His hat
         is black.
15           What is the colour of Mrs. Bingham's gloves?
         Her gloves are brown.
             Open your book, please. You open your book
         and I open my book. What do we do? We open
```

our books. What do Mr. Smith and Mr. White do?
20   They open their books. Do they open their books?
         Yes, they do.
                  You close your book and I close my book. What do
         we do? Do we close our books?
                  Take your pencils. Do these gentlemen take their
25   pencils?

This "Possession" part is chiefly moulded under an inductive presentation format (P1) which readily corresponds with Sánchez's (2004a: 184) *Step 1.1.: Presentation* in the form of a dialogue, i.e., with full sentences as established by Berlitz, whose questions and answers seem to be uttered by the teacher him/herself most of the time. I am making the case for such an argumentation due to the fact that throughout the whole dialogue the answers appear immediately after their questions except for lines 22-23 and 24-25. Accordingly, there exist scarce instances of practice or P2, which in this case is very controlled and belongs to Sánchez's *Step 2.1. Controlled and directed practice*, as the learner's attention is explicitly directed to the linguistic elements without any sort of free response or manipulation, transformation or basic transference to equivalent contexts. I am extensively dealing with this issue owing to its immediate effect on sequencing and its psychological considerations. At any rate, I would like to highlight from the very beginning the fact that these and the rest of my observations are all fruit of my deductions from my knowledge of the principles of the *Direct Method* and the preface of this work due to the aforementioned absence of "proper" lesson plan guidelines.

Compare lines 10-14, 17-21 against 22-23 and 24-25 for an illustration of the near "monologue" carried out by the teacher in the two latter groups of utterances:

10   My tie is black; your tie is gray [sic]
                 My hat is brown; your hat is black
                 What is the colour of your tie? My tie is gray [sic]
                 What is the colour of Mr. Sweet's hat? His hat
         is black.
         […]
                 Open your book, please. You open your book
         and I open my book. What do we do? We open
         our books. What do Mr. Smith and Mr. White do?
20   They open their books. Do they open their books?
         Yes, they do.
                 You close your book and I close my book. What do
         we do? Do we close our books?
                 Take your pencils. Do these gentlemen take their
25   pencils?

As can be appreciated, the question "Do we close our books?" (line 21) is not followed by its answer, similar to "Do these gentlemen take their pencils?" (lines 24-25). In all the other cases, the opposite situation had happened: "What is the colour of your tie? My tie is gray [sic]" (line 12); "What is the colour of Mr. Sweet's hat? His hat is black" (lines 13-14); "What do we do? We open our books. What do Mr. Smith and Mr. White do? They open their books. Do they open their books? Yes, they do" (lines 17-21). An identical structural pattern from these latter examples is called for learners' production in lines 24-25. From "What do we do? We open our books" (lines 18-19), there comes with the antonym verb "close": "What do we do? Do we close our books?" (lines 22-23). The same applies to "What do Mr. Smith and Mr. White do? They open their books. Do they open their books? Yes, they do" (lines 19-21) and "Do these gentlemen take their pencils?" (lines 24-25). As proof of the influence of the *Direct Method* in the later *Audio-Lingual Method* and its variants, this type of exercise is found in Lado's 1964 work under the clean name of Question-and-answer exercise:

> In the question-and-answer exercise the responses or answers are governed by the form of the question and by some situation or information that is known to the student.
>
> (Lado 1964: 100)

Clearly, the situation here is a classroom-enacted one, in the sense of having adopted real objects and characters or persons immediately accessible to the learners. This is the germen of Hornby's *Situational Language Teaching* method (which he started out in 1950) when the term "situation" still did not cover its current meaning of a certain circumstance in real life, such as "at the station", "at the cinema", etc.

Arguably, the pair "What is the colour of your tie? My tie is gray [sic]" may induce us to think that the answer is responded by a student due to the change in person (from "your" to "my"). The same observation applies to lines 2 and 12. However, though this possibility is not categorically denied, I believe that in this circumstance it is the teacher who would utter both and would make use of gestures (pointing to him/herself and to a student) to illustrate the pattern. What is more, as this text is a guide, the colour of the teacher's and learner's tie may not be black and grey respectively but other colours; the former will have to improvise on-line as stated in the general Berlitz's principles.

Thus most of this "Possession" part is a demonstration acted out by the teacher with the help of objects ("tie", "book"), colours ("black", "grey", "brown") and real people or characters depicted in the wall pictures ("Mr. Johnson", "Mrs. Coleman", "Mr. Sweet", "Mrs. Bingham"). I am not sure about the latter due to the absence of specifications. The possessive pronouns and possessive case are presented throughout the whole text with more emphasis on the former towards the end.

The mode of delivery is, of course, through listening, in accordance with the tenet of oral work first. As another sign of the impact of the *Direct Method* in the later *Audiolingualism*, this aural exposition is the first technique mentioned by Lado (1964: 95-96), which is previous to oral practice/repetition:

> It is understood that the student does not invent the target language. He must listen to good models. […] Listening is assumed to be most effective when it is in preparation for speaking.
>
> Lado (1964: 95)

The impact on *Audiolingualism* and *Situational Language Teaching* is also obvious in the use of speech patterns. The interaction is extremely confined: nobody really speaks in full sentences in real life; but, deep down, even if Direct methodologists repudiated (explicit) introduction of grammar, what is at stake here is structures.

This presentation resembles Gouin's initial stage of listening through miming except for the latter's first use of the L1. The scarce amount of P2 does not relate to Gouin's in the format, since he opted for the repetition of sequences of actions instead of the question-and-answer activity. On the other hand, the material is equally similar in format to Ollendorff's oral interactions between teacher and student, though he does not employ realia and resorts to formal deductive illustrative examples of rules to be seen in the textbook from the beginning. This comparison of the *Direct Method* between Gouin's and Ollendorff's methods will be applicable for the two subsequent sections.

In all, this "Possession" part reflects the general guidelines devised by Berlitz, especially:

1) Never translate: demonstrate
2) Never explain: act
3) Never make a speech: ask questions
5) Never speak with single words: use sentences

The sequencing pattern of this first part from lesson seven is, then, P1-(P2) (the brackets meaning considerable lighter presence of practice).

6.1.3.1. b. "Verb 'to have' " Part

Take a book. *You have* a book in your hand. *I have* a pen in my hand. What have I in my hand? What have you in your hand?

30 Mrs. Bingham *has* a hat on her head. What has Mrs. Bingham on her head? I have a black coat. Mr. Sweet has a gray [sic] coat. You have a blue dress. Have I black coat? Has Mr. Sweet a black coat? Have you a black dress?

35 You have blue eyes. I have brown eyes. Have you blue eyes or brown eyes? You have blond hair. I have black hair. Have I black hair? What colour are my eyes? What colour are your eyes?

You have a pencil; I have a pencil; we have two pencils. The teacher has a book. The pupils have

40 books.

What have you? What have I? What have we? What has the teacher? What have the pupils?

Have you a book? {
Yes, I have *a book.*

No, I have *no book.*
Yes, you have *a pencil.*

Have I a pencil? {

No, you have *no pencil.*

This part is richer in the amalgamation between (inductive) P1 and P2, which once again correspond to Sánchez's *Step 1.1. Presentation* and *Step 2.1. Controlled and directed practice* respectively.

Both P1 and P2 are present in the six paragraphs that are contained in this section. The existence of such paragraphs is by no means by hazard, but show once again the systematization carried out by Berlitz.

In the first paragraph (lines 26-28), the first and second persons of singular with the verb "to have" are introduced, which are clearly marked by their italics printing. The Presentation phase is constituted by affirmative statements that offer the verb "to have" with the help of objects: "Take a book. *You have* a book in your hand. *I have* a pen in my hand". Similar to the "Possession" part, the teacher may want to improvise and choose other objects. Immediately afterwards, the questions

implying the answer of the direct object appear and, contrary to what happened in most of the Possession part, no answer follows them: "What have I in my hand? What have you in your hand?". From this I infer that the students, prompted by the teacher's questions, would have to respond with the same statement initially supplied ("You have a book in your hand. I have a pen in my hand"). Lado's (1964) question-and-answer technique comes to the fore, as it will do in the rest of this part.

At the same time, the first paragraph recycles the possessive demonstratives recently studied in the previous section ("your hand"; "my hand") as well as personal pronouns (seen in lesson three). This aspect represents another sign of Berlitz's conscientious design.

The above features (objects and realia with the resulting probable improvisation on the teacher's part; recycling of personal pronouns; tight question-and-answer activity) will be repeated in the remaining paragraphs.

The second one (lines 29-34) introduces the uses of "to have" in the third person of singular: "Mrs. Bingham *has* a hat on her head" (extremely short instance of inductive Presentation or P1), which is followed by the question (P2) aimed at eliciting the same previous statement as an answer: "What *has* Mrs. Bingham on her head?"

After this initial intense short mixture between P1 and P2 comes a series of three affirmative sentences. These act as a further presentation of the verb "to have" in the third person singular and as an instant recycling of the use of such a verb with the first and second persons in singular too: "I have a black coat. Mr. Sweet has a gray [sic] coat. You have a blue dress". The yes-and-no questions that ensue would probably require a full answer: "Have I a black coat? Has Mr. Sweet a black coat? Have you a black dress?" This time possessive demonstratives have not been reinforced.

The third paragraph (lines 34-37) practises the first and second persons of singular in quite a similar structure as the second section. The peculiarity of the third one resides in the recycling of possessive demonstratives ("What colour are my eyes? What colour are your eyes?"). A combination between P1 and P2 is equally observed.

The whole of paragraph four (lines 38-40) constitutes the step of Presentation for the verb "to have" in the first and third persons of plural. Besides, it embodies a revision of the employment in the first, second and third persons of singular together

with the numbers (studied in lesson five): "You have a pencil; I have a pencil; we have two pencils". The fifth paragraph contains the questions or controlled practice (P2) arranged in exactly the same order as their previous corresponding affirmative statements: "What have you? What have I? What have we? What has the teacher? What have the pupils?"

This part is finished off with an example of Palmer's "sentence patterns", a concept that he presented to the members of IRET (Institute for Research in English Teaching (Tokyo)) at their Eleventh Annual Conference in 1934 (Howatt 2004: 274). This is an illustration of how closely the *Direct Method* affected Palmer's methodology, especially at the beginning of his career as later he turned to the Reform Movement principle of the text-based technique. This specific influence is reflected in Palmer and his daughter's work *English Through Actions* (1925), which included a compendium of speech drills (Howatt 2004: 267). Sentence patterns that underlay grammatical drills were to become a key component of the modern language teaching approaches for the next forty years or so and they will be present in Alexander's (1967a) unit, where a more complete account of such a notion will be provided.

Sentence patterns were not a Palmer's or the American Fries' invention, though. Truly, they had appeared in the early 1500s, Erasmus' *Colloquia* (1523) being one of the works that contained them (Kelly 1969: 101). Similarly, their typographical arrangement in substitution tables, either with brackets delimitating the related example sentences (which is not the twentieth century trend according to Kelly (1969: 109)) or in ruled boxes was not new and had been discovered in the period within which Erasmus' *Colloquia* was conceived. Palmer was ostensibly unaware of these facts.

The pattern depicted in this case is the affirmative or negative response with the verb "to have" with countable nouns: "Have you a book? Yes, I have *a book*./No, I have *no book*. Have I a pencil? Yes, you have *a pencil*./No, you have *no pencil*". It had briefly been introduced before with "Have I a black coat?" (lines 30-31). From the text it seems as if this portrayed the phase of Presentation (P1) since no further questions are shown in order to elicit the answers. Obviously, we could speculate about the possibility of teachers' developing the procedure and including related controlled practice.

At any rate, this appreciation makes little difference to the overall sequencing model that underlies this second part. Even if the end looks as if constituted by P1, all the preceding paragraphs have displayed a good deal of P1 and P2 combined throughout. This is in stark contrast to the linear and uninterrupted pattern of the first part (P1 accompanied by slight instances of P2), but overall I dare say that the differences do not amount to that much.

In a nutshell, this second part embodies the inductive principles advocated by Comenius, which are reflected in the following techniques (Celce-Murcia 1991b: 4):

- Use of imitation instead of rules to teach a language
- Have your students repeat after you
- Help your students practice reading and speaking
- Teach language through pictures to make it meaningful

Reading practice will come in the "Elementary Reading and Conversation Lessons". The above exercises were devised to teach use rather than analysis. In my general conclusion I will shape what this concept of *use* really means within nowadays standards. For the time being "use" denotes speaking practice from the beginning of instruction instead of formal deductive study of rules.

6.1.3.1.c. "Progressive aspect" Part

This section reveals the same typographical layout as the last piece of section 6.1.3.1. b: sentence patterns illustrated by example sentences arranged in substitution tables with brackets to depict the relation or focal point in question of each sample.

To start with, the second and first persons of singular (in this order) plus the first one in plural are expressed in six blocks (two per person) of two sentences each. The first three blocks are affirmative statements in which the initial sentence appears in the present while the second one contains the feature studied: the progressive aspect or, more specifically, the present progressive or continuous. The second lot of blocks displays the questions for each pair of sentences in the previous groups in exactly the same order of tenses:

{   You take a book.   I take a book.

You are taking a book.   I am taking a book.

{   We take books.

We are taking books.

{   What do you do?   What do I do?

What are you doing?   What am I doing?

{   What do we do?

What are we doing?

Since the questions are not followed by their answers as opposed to the related section in the second part (where the questions are directly introduced without a previous demonstration of their respective answers), I believe that this is an indication of the underlying intention to make students respond to the interrogative statements. Once again, due to the absence of overt instructions I cannot be sure that the teachers could provoke the elicitation of questions as well. What I dare say from common sense and from my study of the *Direct Method* is that the odds were against the learners silently listening to the teacher all the time.

The same remarks in printed layout and activity typology apply to the rest of sections that this "Progressive aspect" part is composed of. As a result of the latter element, the sequencing pattern that emerges is inductive P1 followed by P2 (very controlled practice) correspondingly to the second section. Consequently, both phases will appear intermingled all the way throughout likewise.

The second of such groups in this final part introduces this linguistic feature in the third persons of singular and plural, while simultaneously revising the personal pronouns studied in lesson three and the possessive demonstratives of the first part of the same unit:

{   The teacher opens his book   What does the teacher do?

He is opening his book.   What is the teacher doing?

{   The pupils open their book.   What do the pupils do?

They are opening their books.   What are the pupils doing?

The third group of sentence patterns is headed by the title: "The theatre". Identical typographical arrangement and activity kind considerations apply here, with the addition of the "yes/no" type of questions besides the "wh"-ones (which solely focus on the action expressed and not on its confirmation). This class of interrogative sentences appear at the end of the other ones ("Do you go to the theatre?" together with "Where do you go?", for instance). First and second persons of singular plus the first person in plural are reviewed again:

<div align="center">The theatre:</div>

I go to the theatre.   You go to the theatre.

{

I am going to the theatre.   You are going to the theatre.

<div align="center">We go to the theatre.</div>

<div align="center">{</div>

<div align="center">We are going to the theatre.</div>

Where do I go?   Where do you go?

{

Where am I going?   Where are you going?

<div align="center">Do I go to the theatre?</div>

<div align="center">{</div>

<div align="center">Am I going to the theatre?</div>

Do you go to the theatre?   Do we go to the theatre?

{

Are you going to the theatre?   Are we going to the theatre?

The last section, entitled as "The church; the school" revises all the persons. The first ones are the third person of singular and plural. The personal pronouns are equally recycled:

<div align="center">The church, the school:</div>

Mr. Goodman goes to church.   Where does Mr. Goodman go?

{

He is going to church.   Where is he going?

Charles and George to school.   Where do they go?

{

Charles and George are going to school. Where are they going?

The third person of plural together with the second one of singular/plural are then practised:

{

The pupils take lessons.	What do the pupils do at school?
You are taking an English lesson.	What are you doing?

Finally, this "Progressive aspect" section is rounded off with the recycling of the first persons of singular and plural:

{

I speak French, German and Spanish.	What languages do I speak?
We are speaking English in the class.	What languages are we speaking in the class?

As can be appreciated, though not explicitly stated by means of headings, the division and grouping of substitution tables is done in accordance with the persons and number. Hence another sign of Berlitz's systematization besides the recycling of elements supplied in previous lessons (personal pronouns) and within the same lesson (possessive demonstratives).

Three general conclusions, enlightening of the philosophy that underpins the *Direct Method*, may be derived from the preceding analysis. In the first place, this lesson conforms to the order of skills listening and speaking before reading and writing. In fact, only the two former ones are practised, a situation that will change in the "Elementary Reading and Conversation Lessons", where reading will come to the fore.

The second conclusion is closely linked with the previous one. Indeed, there exists a remarkable degree of comprehensible input (in Krashen's 1982 terms) in the teachers' and the students' utterances, which being controlled reproduction could actually serve as input for the rest of the class as well. However, the procedure followed is distant from Krashen' (1985) and Krashen and Terrell's (1983), who argued for a silent phase at the beginning of instruction after which students would be ready to speak. This "incubation period" had already been postulated by Palmer's 1917 *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages*. In this work, he distinguished among the "Introductory" (which contains this "incubation period" feature); "Intermediate" and "Advanced" Stages of learning (Howatt 2004: 273). According to Kelly (1969: 214) it seems that both listening and reading were taught during the

Introductory Stage: "It is an undoubted fact that the active use of language under natural conditions is invariably preceded by a period during which a certain proficiency is attained in its passive aspect".

The fact that this lesson (and all the preparatory ones) does not abide by this factor constitutes another difference of the *Direct Method* with the Reform Movement scholars, who coincided with Palmer's stance. Sweet stressed the importance of spoken interaction, but in a dissimilar way as the naturalists: spoken work should come at the end of the class. In Howatt's words (2004: 205), "He had little time for 'natural methods' based on conversation in the classroom" as these could never been based on the favourable conditions of L1 learning.

Thirdly, the lack of a proper Production phase or P3 is appreciated. The examples are revealing enough of the strict control exerted over the students' practice. On the one hand, the utterances are extremely short, though this is somehow understandable due to the elementary level of the lesson; however, there is no explicit room for any creativity or personalization (basing myself solely on the material; another story is how the teachers would actually proceed with the sentences). Negotiation of meaning (even if slight) is completely absent too. In other words, there does not exist a proper P3 stage which could at least simulate transference to real-life situations. Nobody speaks in such robot-like utterances under such artificial and "ideal" circumstances. Background noise, interruptions on the listeners' part to show their reaction to what has been heard, rapid speech, ellipsis, redundancies, etc., come on the scene in genuine interactions. Far were still the times when with the development of the Communicative Approach and second language learning researchers would contribute alternative choices for beginners that would prevent repetition of unnatural exchanges.

This absence of P3 provides the starting point from which I can propose the psychological considerations as to the pattern of sequencing of lesson seven. Except for the "Possession" or first part, a blend between P1 and P2 has been constantly observed due to the inductive demonstration of rules and vocabulary by means of examples and illustrative sentences (P1 or Sánchez's step 1.1.) and through answering very similar questions to the previous representative statements, most of which constitute the response to such questions (P2 or Sánchez's *Step 2.1. Controlled and directed practice*).

As I have indicated in section 6.1.1., the *Direct Method* by tradition belongs to the natural methodologies to language teaching. These are parallel to Krashen's concept of *acquisition* (in contrast with formal learning) or to *the acquisition path for mastering language proficiency* (Johnson 1994: 123-124). Accordingly, Johnson (1996: 172) concedes the possibility that most "naturalistic" acquisition approaches are exemplars of _ _ P. Thus they ignore formal presentation and practice and depend on a notion similar to free production. Johnson equally warns that presentation and practice do play a role in this scheme. The former would naturally appear in the input and the latter during the incubation or silent period.

This would apply to the situations of immersion such as that of immigrants where the linguistic learning concerns either the official language of a country or the co-official one (i.e., second language contexts as Canada or India); it could also be observed in other immersion circumstances such as bilingual schools in nations where the language learned is foreign (i.e., non-second), such as English schools in Spain.

In the light of the preceding analysis of the unit, I do not quite agree with this interpretation. A very important fact constantly highlighted is the repeated amalgamation between P1 and P2 in lesson seven. As was contended before, the immediacy between one and another leaves hardly any place for the incubation period to thoroughly occur (if at all), as the latter is obstructed by the persistent presence of P1 or input/exposure to language. This equally applies to the "Possession" part where P1 was predominant since the silent period needs to be longer than a single section (or unit) of a given lesson. Input or listening-based approaches, such as TPR, encourage the absence of students' oral production until twenty hours of instruction have passed (Islam 2003: 263).

From the initial Ps outline supplied by Johnson, the final P should include both declarativization and proceduralization, although in a different route as the (formal) learning path. Instead of *DECPRO*, we would have *PRODEC* here. However, this author wisely points out that "many acquisition approaches to L2 mastery may in fact be represented as being PRO only" (Johnson 1996: 100). This is due to the fact that in this case the learner jumps the declarative stage to directly proceduralise encodings; in my case, very basic encodings due to the constraints of the examples provided, which prevent any ability to perform a long interaction or any other kind of oral exchange (speech, debate, etc.). This peculiarity adds to the reason why Johnson

(1996: 100) maintains that "if we concern ourselves not just with what occurs, but with what should occur, then the only acceptable alternative to DECPRO is not PRO but PRODEC". Johnson makes such a case for the danger that the only-*PRO* situations risk of not developing declarative knowledge and thus, once productions are formed, if wrong, are dramatically difficult to change, giving way to the phenomenon of fossilisation, as was indicated on p. 18.

Consequently, instruction has the onus for developing a declarative base after this proceduralization, whatever its format (inductive or deductive; see pp. 82-83 for my operationalization of types of presentation).

Thus in lesson seven of 1931 Berlitz's textbook the activity sequencing pattern is pedagogically depicted in the following stages. Firstly, there exists P1 (inductive aural presentation to language without explicit (but nevertheless equally present) focus on form). The second phase is P2 (controlled practice). The corresponding psychological structure is merely *PRO* as the didactic strategy of interaction (short exchanges of question and answer) and its own contents are extremely restrained and basic respectively. No declarativization stage is allowed due to the constant combination between P1 and P2.

On the other hand, it is certain that the fundamental pedagogical principle of recycling of elements attended to in previous units appears in lesson seven as has been described with detail. Recycling is a fundamental pedagogical tenet derived from the "delayed learning" and "readiness" learning precepts. Indeed, the process of reaching language mastery is influenced by the students' readiness to learn certain features and by the unavoidable fact of the effects of instruction not being straightforward (see the discussion of these concepts on p. 12). For this reason more and more researchers (Tomlinson unpublished manuscript; Ellis 1990, 1994; Islam 2003, etc.) advocate that students should not be forced to speak before they are ready to do so, as this would seriously hamper their learning with extra-cognitive load before they are capable of producing meaningful language without conscious attention to linguistic features. Premature production equally gives the illusion of pupils being able to accurately reproduce what they have been taught thanks to retrieval from their short memory, but as they have not acquired the suitable language and stored it in their long-term memory they subsequently fail on later occasions. Hence the need for recycling, which is catered for in Berlitz's unit seven, though due to the date of the book it is doubtful that he and his followers were aware

of this. Besides, the form of introduction of new and already-seen materials (brief statements followed by short questions and answers), where no overt focus on form exists, somehow overshadows this quality of recycling, which on the other hand seems to be compulsory in Berlitz's material to be able to progress in the linguistic contents offered. For example, objects (studied in lesson three) become ideal candidates to demonstrate the verb "to have" (e.g. "You have a *pencil*" (line 39)).

6.1.3.2. *Analysis of "Travelling" lesson ("Elementary Reading and Conversation or Teaching through Context" lessons)*

The title of this lesson is self-explanatory of the subject that will be dealt with. The synopsis of the book solely includes "Names of countries, etc." as the linguistic elements to be concentrated on. Besides this, names of cities, localization of both nations and capitals, measurements and means of travelling will be comprised as well. See Appendix A.3. for the text of the "Travelling" lesson.

6.1.3.2.a. Oral Introduction

The unit begins with a fifty-eight-line "Oral Introduction". It constitutes a perfect example of the especially constructed teaching texts as the standard procedure indicated by Stern (1983: 457) and of the means (besides the substitution tables) whereby Palmer introduced the *sentence patterns* (Howatt 2004: 272).

This introduction is very similar in Ps arrangement to the second and third parts of lesson seven: P1 and P2 appear interwoven all the time through the teacher's affirmative statements and subsequent questions about the reality portrayed in the assertive utterances. Sometimes the latter are longer than a simple sentence and depict the explanation of concepts besides illustrating linguistic elements. Likewise, the configuration of P1 will be Sánchez's *Step 1.1. (presentation*: inductive type of course) and that of P2 will be his *Step 2.1. (controlled and directed practice)*.

Further, not only are new items offered but also a great deal of recycling from others studied in the first part of the book or in the preceding lessons of the second one, both in the assertions (P1) and the questions (P2).

For organizational purposes, I will examine the sequencing structuring of the text while simultaneously pinpointing the recycled features so as to better illustrate their appearance in both P1 and P2.

This passage, designed to be listened to by the students, is composed of thirteen paragraphs.

The first paragraph goes from lines 1 to 8. Its content presumably indicates that it was to be uttered by the teacher with a world map so that students could better follow his/her explanations.

> London is the capital of England. What is the name
> of the capital of France? Of Germany? Paris is a large
> city. It is the largest city of France.
> What is the name of the largest city in Europe?
> 5   What is the name of the largest city in America?
> Is Scotland north or south of England? Is Brighton north or south
> of London? What country is south of France? What country
> is north of Italy? Is Austria east or west of Germany?

As can be seen, the first and second lines already contain instances of P1 and P2: "London is the capital of England" and "What is the name of the capital of France? Of Germany?" respectively. Indeed, the vocabulary element at stake here is "capital", introduced and practised through the so widely used question-and-answer technique in Berlitz's coursebooks.

The second, third and fourth lines continue with the oral revision of superlative adjectives, which were studied in the "The Clock and the Watch" lesson. P1 concerns the affirmative statement in the sense of aural exposure to language, whereas P2 emerges in the questions, so that students revise this structure from their general background knowledge ("What is the name of the largest city in Europe?"). This peculiarity was absent in the "Preparatory Lessons", though the basic work organizational schemes remain the same.

This P2 is followed by more occurrences of practice the topic of which is the geographical situation of cities and countries. In a certain way, these interrogative sentences could also point to P1 in the sense of presenting the names of such cities and countries in English: Austria, Germany, Scotland… No proper positive statements have been supplied possibly due to the fact that part of the linguistic material is already known by the learners: the cardinal points (offered in lesson "Day

and Night"): "What country is south of France?; Is Austria east or west of Germany?"

The second paragraph is largely integrated by P1 (lines 9-15) with P2 coming from lines 15 to 18:

> Brooklyn is near New York. San Francisco is far from
> 10 New York. Brighton is not far from London; it is only
> 50 or 60 miles from London. New York is far from London;
> more than 3000 miles. In England and America we measure
> distances by miles; in France, Italy, and other countries we
> calculate distances by kilometres. A mile is a little more
> 15 than a kilometre and a half (1609 metres). What is the
> distance between London and Brighton? What is the distance
> between London and New York? What is the distance
> between Paris and Bordeaux? (363 miles)

The presentation phase encompasses the recycling of prepositions and adverbs of place, which were studied in the third lesson of part one: "Brooklyn is *near* New York. San Francisco is *far* from New York". At the same time, this P1 is introducing the lexical item "mile", which is thoroughly explained ("A mile is a little more than a kilometre and a half (1609 metres)"). This time it could be argued that a theoretical exposition is on the stage, though seemingly lighter than a grammar one due to the explanation of concepts and not of rules. This phenomenon will also apply to paragraphs four, five, six and seven.

In the questions that follow, this concept will be the target of practice (P2), always with the use of concrete names probably accompanied by the visual support of a map.

Lines 19 to 22 represent paragraph three:

> If we go from one country to another, from one city
> 20 to another, we travel. Do the English travel much? Do they
> travel more than the French? Do you travel during Summer?
> Are there many English travellers in Italy?

P1 is much lighter in emphasis here. It is aimed at supplying the meaning of the verb "to travel": "If we go from one country to another, from one city to another, we travel". Similar to the previous extract, this verb is later practised with questions that revise the auxiliary "do" as well as adverbs of quantity (unit ten) and the "there is/are" structure (lessons four; eight and nine of the first part respectively): "Do the

English travel much? Are there many English travellers in Italy?". At the same time, this practice provides the opportunity for including the noun "traveller" from its corresponding verb.

The above presentation sentence equally reinforces the learning of the conditional subordinate conjunction "if", which was inserted in lesson twelve.

"If" and "to travel" are further exercised in paragraph four (lines 23-31):

> We can travel by railway (by train), by boat or by air.
> From Paris to Rome you go by train. From Southampton
> 25   to New York we go by boat (in a steamer). If you travel
> by rail, you make a journey. If you travel by boat, you
> make a voyage. How long does it take to go from Europe
> to America? About a week (6, 7 or 8 days). How long does
> it take from here to the Hotel Savoy? It takes about
> 30   a quarter of an hour to walk there. How long does it take
> to walk from here to the railway station?

This extract is mostly constituted by presentation (lines 23-29), which offers means of transport vocabulary (both the names and the related verbs: "If you travel by rail, you make a journey; If you travel by boat, you make a voyage"); additional names of cities ("Rome", "Southampton"); and the structure "How long does it take from X to Y?". As mentioned above, I cannot be sure about the actual use of maps, but it seems to be a strong possibility.

Recycling of numbers ("(6, 7 or 8 days)") -seen in lesson five- and the introduction of a new use of the verb "can" may be observed too: "We can travel by railway…". Modal verbs such as "can", "shall", "will" and "must" had been studied in lesson twelve. In the particular case of "can", only the modalized meaning of "ability" was expressed: "I close the door, the door is closed. I *cannot* go out. I open the door, the door is open" (Berlitz 1931: 30). Now learners are inductively introduced to the sense of possibility.

The only instance of P2 is the question that appears at the end and is aimed at practising the answer to "How long does it take" by drawing on the pupils' extralinguistic context: "How long does it take to walk from here to the railway station?"

The fifth paragraph (lines 32-33) exclusively contains a presentation phase in which more travelling lexicon is provided, most likely with realia:

Before starting on a journey by train you look at the
time tables. In a time table you see what times the trains
arrive or leave.

On the contrary, the sixth paragraph (lines 35-40) includes half of P1 and half
of P2. The former revises the "there is/there are" structure again and introduces time
vocabulary ("a.m. (in the morning)") and train lexis too: local, express, slow trains as
well as their characteristics (how often they stop). This time it could be argued that a
theoretical exposition is on the stage, though seemingly lighter than a grammar one
due to the explanation of concepts and not of rules:

35   There is a fast train which leaves at 6 o'clock a. m.
(in the morning). There is a slow train leaving at noon.
Express trains do not stop at all stations, but local trains
stop at every station. Do you like to travel by local trains?
Do express trains stop very often? Are there any
40   expresses between the large cities?

These notions are practised in three questions. The first one addresses the
students' personal likes, so that it revises the verb "to like" (comprised in lesson
eleven of the initial part). The remaining two ones are common-sense questions with
the sole objective of reinforcing the instant preceding vocabulary and the "there
is/there are" item: "Do you like to travel by local trains? Do express trains stop very
often? Are there any expresses between the large cities?".

A lesser presence of P2 is observed in the seventh paragraph (lines 41-46),
where P1 develops the concepts of the previous extract in a theoretical way, such as
carriages and cars or coaches, dining cars, etc:

In express trains you generally have a dining car and
sleeping cars. Is there a dining car on an ordinary train?
A train consists of a number of carriages (in America:
cars or coaches). In Europe there are different classes of carriages.
45   Is a third-class carriage in France as good as a third-class
in England?

The first question is directly concerned with the preceding content, whereas
the last one stimulates the learners' use of their immediate background knowledge:

"Is there a dining car on an ordinary train? Is a third-class carriage in France as good as a third-class in England?".

Paragraph eight is only composed of an enumeration of European cities, probably undertaken with a map if my deduction about its employment is right. This P1 is ensued by paragraph nine, an imperative sentence (which could be transposed to a question) where students are required to supply some names of cities. The same pattern of content will apply to paragraphs ten and eleven (countries) and twelve and thirteen (continents):

Cities: London, Liverpool, Manchester, Brighton, Edin-
burgh, Glasgow, Dublin, Paris, Lyons, Berlin, Vienna, Rome,
Milan, Leningrad, Moscow, Brussels, The Hague, Geneva,
50   Copenhagen, Stockholm, Madrid.
Give the names of some European cities.
Countries: England, Ireland, Scotland, France, Germany,
Austria, Hungary, Russia, Switzerland, Italy, Spain, Belgium,
Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, the United States, Brazil,
55   the Argentine Republic, China, Japan.
Give the names of some countries.
Continents: Europe, Asia, Africa, America, Australia.
Give me the names of the Continents.

6.1.3.2.b. Elementary Reading and Conversation

As mentioned on p. 46, the title "Elementary Reading and Conversation" is not accurate if we strictly follow the material in the textbook, unless this "Conversation" is understood as reading aloud. I have my doubts about this interpretation owing to the unequivocal stance of the *Direct Method* towards speaking (formulating utterances, even if constrained). Indeed, under this "Elementary Reading and Conversation" heading comes a reading text alone after which a section called "Exercises" ensues. These are composed of thirty-nine questions, presumably to be delivered in the oral mode in accordance with the pre-eminence of the related type of skills.

The whole of this reading is another perfect example of the technique followed in the *Direct Method* regarding the use of an artificially designed text aimed at showing certain structures and vocabulary. Hence the unnaturalness of the conversation, far from a real-life one where ellipsis, redundancies, hedges,

interruptions, etc. are normal. This is exactly what happens with this extract, which involves a dialogue between two people (A and B). Although my following interpretation will be refined at the end when the psychological structure of this unit is dissected, I will classify this extract within Sánchez's *Step 1.1. Presentation* (P1) for the time being. I believe that this initial analytical categorization should not clash with the "Oral Introduction", where all the language elements were shown and practised. I would argue that this second text encompasses further presentation in a visual way of the linguistic items provided in the "Oral introduction". Somehow it represents a reinforcement of the preceding section for later oral practice in the exercises, which could possibly contain a slight degree of reading "proto-practice" if the students were to see the questions before orally answering them. Thus the distribution of skills in accordance with a naturalistic methodology is complied with: listening and speaking in the "Oral introduction" plus reading in the "Elementary Reading and Conversation" part and additional speaking work in the exercises. The insertion of reading in the middle is understandable from the perspective of the students' more advanced learning stage in this second part of the coursebook.

Besides, this specific passage recycles features already studied in previous lessons of the first and second parts of the book. Likewise, it introduces uses of such specific points which were not dealt with before. I consider this fact to support my interpretation of this section as P1 or written exposure to language. The latter element is undertaken in an inexplicit way, i.e., the students' attention is not overtly drawn to this language matters by any typographical device such as bolding, italics, or headings with the pertinent questions, etc., perhaps because the author was not interested in this at the time. At any rate, it is clear that Berlitz's method, at least in this unit there is a complete absence of the modern approaches to consciousness-raising tasks (see, for example, Rutherford and Sharwood-Smith -1988- and Fotos and Ellis -1991- among others). I dare say that the same remark applies to the rest of Berlitz's materials from my examination of the remaining units and of those of Book 2). There will be a qualitative jump (even if basic) in this phenomenon in Eckersley's units, which will be conveniently indicated.

Similar to lesson seven and the oral introduction of this current lesson, the whole e passage is supplied now as well as in Appendix A.3. for a better location of the sentences, which I have numbered following the progression from the oral introduction. For structuring purposes, I will respect the order of the dialogue and

will highlight the most important phenomena (reinforcement of the aspects from the initial part, recycling of elements from preceding units and presentation of new uses of already studied features) in each paragraph or line.

A. - Will you go to London with me?
60   B. - With much pleasure. I have never visited the
great Metropolis and I do not want to leave England
without having been in London.
A. – Very well, we can start to-morrow, if you
like.
65   B. – Yes, certainly. We can stay there a week and
then go to Paris.
A. – That is a good idea. Crossing the Channel in
fine weather is not at all disagreeable.
B. – And the trip is not very long.
70   A.- Which is the best route for the Continent?
B.- If you prefer a short Channel passage, we
can go by way of Dover and Calais or Boulogne and
Folkstone; the crossing takes only from one hour
to an hour and a half. Otherwise we can go via
75   Newhaven and Dieppe. By the latter route the crossing
takes longer but the railway trip is shorter.
A.- I would*) rather go via Dover and Calais.
I have been told that channel crossings are often very
rough.
80   B.- We can decide that question later.
A.- At what time shall we start to-morrow? Have
you a time table?
A. – Here is one.
A.- Let us see; shall we take the express train
85   that leaves Southampton at 9.15 a. m. ? We shall be
in London at 11.45.
B.- That is a fast train. We shall arrive before
noon and have plenty of time to go to a good hotel
and, afterwards, to take a look at some of the prin-
90   cipal streets.
A.- Very well, shall I meet you at your room
at halfpast eight, or will you call for me at my room?
B.- I prefer you to call for me, as I have
a great deal to do to get ready for the journey. I
95   must therefore leave you now. Good-bye, see you to-
morrow.

Line 59 contains a new use of "will": "Will you go to London with me?" "Will" here means "willingness", i.e., "the individual(s) denoted by the clause subject is/are willing to" (Toolan 1998: 49). In other words, subject A is asking subject B to accompany him and is inquiring him whether he is willing to do it. This is one of the two modalized senses of "will" distinguished by this author, the other

being probability. Moreover, Toolan (1998: 51) indicates an unmodalized meaning of future, which is the one presented in the previous lesson ("What shall we do in the future?"). Some examples of this future meaning of "will" found in that lesson are: "*You take* a lesson *every day.* Tomorrow *you will take* a lesson" (italics in the original); "In what month will the Opera close? (p. 55).

Lines 60-62 present the revision of three particles: the frequency adverb "never" which was introduced in the lesson "The Weather" of the second part together with the "I do not want to" and the "without + ing verb" structures seen in unit twelve of the preparatory ones:

> 60 B. - With much pleasure. I have never visited the
> great Metropolis and I do not want to leave England
> without having been in London.

The next pair of interventions offer a different meaning of "can" as seen in lesson twelve. The sense depicted there was that of "ability to do something", e.g. "I close the door, the door is closed; *I cannot* go out. I open the door, the door is open; *I can* go out" (Berlitz 1931: 30. Italics in the original). Conversely, in the "Travelling" unit the modalized sense is that of "suggesting a possibility":

> A. – Very well, we can start to-morrow, if you
> like.
> 65 B. – Yes, certainly. We can stay there a week and
> then go to Paris.

Demonstrative determiners (studied in lesson three) plus the employment of lexicon ("trip") from the immediate previous part is observed from lines 67-69:

> A. – That is a good idea. Crossing the Channel in
> fine weather is not at all disagreeable.
> B. – And the trip is not very long.

Lines 70-76 include the revision of the superlative degree of adjectives as introduced in the lesson "The Clock and the Watch" (*best, longer, shorter*); and that of the conditional subordinator "if", which was offered in both lesson twelve and in the oral introduction. Besides, the structure "to take time" inserted in this latter part is equally practised, together with travelling vocabulary ("railway trip"):

70   A.- Which is the best route for the Continent?
            B.- If you prefer a short Channel passage, we
       can go by way of Dover and Calais or Boulogne and
       Folkstone; the crossing takes only from one hour
       to an hour and a half. Otherwise we can go via
75   Newhaven and Dieppe. By the latter route the crossing
       takes longer but the railway trip is shorter.

On the other hand, the "Teaching of the Abstract by the Association of Ideas" principle is appreciated in lines 77-79:

            A.- I would*) rather go via Dover and Calais.
       I have been told that channel crossings are often very
       rough.

The footnote signalled by the asterisk compels the teachers to demonstrate the meaning of "would" by reference to already known items:

       For the present don't speak of "would" or "should" as conditional mood,
       but explain the meaning by giving a synonymous expression; as, "I would
       rather – I like better"; "I should like to have – I want, I wish", etc.

The verb "to like" and the superlative degree of adjectives ("better") had been studied in lesson eleven and in "The Clock and the Watch" unit respectively. As for "I want, I wish", these had been introduced in lesson twelve.

Besides, the extract above contains the frequency adverb "often" which was supplied in "The Weather" unit.

Line 80 is exactly the same case as 63 and 64 regarding the meaning of the modal verb "can":

80   B.- We can decide that question later.

As for sentences 81-83, a variety of characteristics may be observed:

            A.- At what time shall we start to-morrow? Have
       you a time table?
            A. – Here is one.

Firstly, the structure "at what time…" (seen in "The Clock and the Watch" lesson); the verb "to have" (studied in lesson seven) and the pronoun "one" (provided in unit three) are revisited again. On the other hand, "time table" is reinforced from the "Oral introduction".

The next exchange is also a juicy one due to the following reasons. Firstly, it practises lexicon included in the immediate previous section ("express train", "fast train", "leaves", "arrives"). Secondly, this fragment contains the unmodalized future sense of "shall" (equal to that of "will" and introduced in the previous lesson too) and presents its "asking for someone's opinion (in suggestions)" meaning for the first time:

> A.- Let us see; shall we take the express train
> 85   that leaves Southampton at 9.15 a. m.? We shall be
> in London at 11.45.
>   B.- That is a fast train. We shall arrive before
> noon and have plenty of time to go to a good hotel
> and, afterwards, to take a look at some of the prin-
> 90   cipal streets.

The "shall" in "Shall we take the express train that leaves Southampton at 9.15 a. m. ?" denotes the latter value, while the examples are indicators of simple future; they could be interpreted as "The train shall arrive/arrives in London at 11.45" and "The train shall arrive/arrives before noon", since the two people depend on the train action to claim what time they would be arriving somewhere. When the present simple tense can be substituted for "shall" and "will", the unmodalized future meaning comes to the fore (Toolan 1998: 50-51).

"Shall" appears with a slight different modalized meaning from the above in line 91, where it denotes "asking somebody's opinion" (in offers this time). Concerning "will", it is pointing towards the fact of asking someone to do something (line 92):

> A.- Very well, shall I meet you at your room
> at halfpast eight, or will you call for me at my room?
>   B.- I prefer you to call for me, as I have
> a great deal to do to get ready for the journey. I
> 95   must therefore leave you now. Good-bye, see you to-
> morrow.

The modal verb "must" is equally recycled in line 95 with the same meaning with which it was presented in lesson twelve: "I am obliged to". Besides, the term "journey" is revised from the "Oral introduction".

Of course, personal pronouns (supplied in lesson three) are reviewed during the whole dialogue.

I have purposely and extensively dealt with the language of this extract and its organization to highlight another indicator of Berlitz's systematization and careful arrangement of the linguistic contents in his coursebook. Indeed, the picture that has emerged clear enough is that of the practice of structural and lexical items aided by the contextualization of a dialogue, which consequently lacks spontaneity. Most importantly, a dramatic effect on the disentanglement of the specific function of this text in the didactic activity sequence and thus on its role in the psychological structure will be appreciated owing to the differing qualitative nature of the linguistic content supplied. This aspect will be discussed in detailed after the analysis of the "Exercises" part.

6.1.3.2.c. Exercises

The "Exercises" section consists, as mentioned before, of a series of questions seemingly to be responded in the oral mode in keeping with the title of the preceding part (section 6.1.3.2.b) and the emphasis on speaking practice advocated by the *Direct Method*.

These interrogative sentences, though, are not equal in terms of content. Out of the global thirty-nine ones, twenty are directly related to the gist of the preceding dialogue, while eight are addressed at the learners' personal opinion and the remaining ones deal with general or common-sense knowledge. The reader is again referred to Appendix A.2 where the whole exercise is included. From the examples quoted it will become clear that grammar and vocabulary from previous units and the present one are recycled.

An example of the first class of questions are the following ones:

2. What journey does Mr. A. propose to Mr. B.?
14. How long does Mr. B. wish to stay in London?
24. Which are the principal routes from England to France?
35. At what time will Messrs. A. and B. start?

Clearly, this type of questions belongs to those included in Masuhara's (2003: 341-343) category of "Reading Comprehension-based Approaches" to reading.[6] More specifically, they correspond to those named by Nuttall (1996: 188) as of "literal comprehension" as referred to reading again, whose answers are readily available in the text before) [7]. In other words, this type of questions does not allow any room for (personal or writer's) interpretation, for developing reading strategies and wisely employing students' schemata, and for making a judicious combination of both bottom-up and top-down approaches to reading.

The personal questions straightforwardly refer to the learners' habits or preferences about travelling:

1. Do you travel in Summer?
6. Does it give you pleasure to travel?
7. Does it give you pleasure to take a walk in fine weather?
32. By what trains do you prefer to travel, by express trains or local trains?
33. Why?

There are also queries about other facts which have nothing to do with travelling and which are sparingly spread out in the exercises:

9. Do you wish to take a lesson to-morrow?
10. Do you wish to have a great deal of money?
13. Are you willing to remain here for the next two hours?

As can be seen, the focus on form is still paramount due to the emphasis on structures and vocabulary, either seen in this current unit or in the seventh one.

However, some degree of personalization is added in this lesson compared to the seventh one, if only because the grammar and lexicon revisited were studied at other points and require the students' exercitation of their long-term memory assuming that they really stored them rightly. Such is the case of "why" (studied in lesson twelve); "summer" (introduced in "The Year" unit); "give pleasure in 'fine weather'" (supplied in "The Weather" lesson); "to take a lesson" (from unit "What did we do in the past?").

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[6] Masuhara (2003: 347-350) equally distinguishes the "Language-Based-", the "Skill/Strategy-" and the "Schema-based-" approaches.
[7] Nuttall (1996: 188-189) also differentiates "Questions of involving reorganization or reinterpretation", "Questions of inference"; "Questions of evaluation"; "Questions of personal response" and "Questions concerned with how writers say what they mean".

The third class of questions are inherently related to general or common-sense knowledge as I have pointed out above. Some of them are intrinsically related to the text:

31. Where can you see at what time the trains arrive and leave?

But the great majority do not treat the adult learners they are addressed to as cognitively mature or even intelligent enough:

18. Is England surrounded by water?
20. Must we take a boat to go to England?
29. Is the sea calm when the weather is bad?

Thus the status of this "Exercises" part regarding sequencing could be regarded as Sánchez's *Step. 2.1 (controlled and directed practice)* plus perhaps a slight degree of *Step 2.2. (Repetition- and consolidation-based practice)* owing to the following aspects derived from the personal opinion questions. They somehow point to a very basic activation of what has previously been learnt or, at least, presented. Repetition of new and already structures in the productive mode is encouraged. However, this does not neutralises the great control exercised over all the types of questions.

I will establish the overall pattern of sequencing of this "Travelling" unit in the following section.

6.1.3.3. Comparing unit seven and "Travelling" lesson in activity typology and sequencing patterns

SEQUENCING IN LESSON 7		SEQUENCING IN "TRAVELLING" LESSON	
Exercise/Part	Ps	Exercise	Ps
Possession part: affirmative statements plus questions	P1-(P2) (inductive P1)	Oral introduction	P1-P2 throughout (P1 mainly in the inductive mode)
To have part: affirmative statements plus questions	P1-P2 throughout (inductive P1)	Reading and conversation	Inductive indirect/contextualized P1 (visual exposition to language seen in "Oral Introduction" plus exposure to new linguistic uses of already studied features from the preceding unit) P2 (receptive practice of language from "Oral introduction")
Progressive aspect part : affirmative statements plus questions	P1-P2 throughout (inductive P1)	Exercises	P2 (questions: oral practice based on the previous passage)

Chart 1. Activity typology and sequencing patterns in Berlitz's lesson seven and "Travelling" lesson

The first outstanding coincidence between one and another lesson is the absence of the P3 phase or production. This observation, together with the overall parallelism of activity types in the two units (brief inductive presentation intermingled with questions plus the section solely devoted to queries in the second unit), leads us to conclude that identical psychological appreciations may be appreciated in both lessons. Besides, the "Travelling" unit equally recycles elements from previous units in all its three parts. Thus at a first glance *PRO* would be the psychological account of the second lesson. However, it is true that the latter's certain divergences need serious mentioning, as these will change the overall affinity between one and another sequencing model in some way.

Indeed, the more advanced stage of the second unit probably accounts for its longer extension and for its inclusion of a reading passage absent in lesson seven. Likewise, the "Oral introduction" contained theoretical explanations of notions supported by concrete concepts and objects, a phenomenon that did not happen in

lesson seven. At any rate, this initial part certainly simultaneously acted as inductive presentation plus controlled practice with the questions to be responded, in the same way as the whole of unit seven. Globally, then, the "Oral introduction" and lesson seven correlate in terms of the activity typology (teacher's spoken presentation of the contents by means of illustrative sentences and avoidance of rules and the L1 plus questions about his/her talk) and the sequencing pattern. This consists of P1 (inductive aural introduction) and P2 (controlled practice due to the high control exerted over the learners' production, both in content and length of answers).

The major deviance comes with the reading section in the "Travelling" lesson, absent in the unit seven. At this point the qualitative linguistic differences of the reading passage mentioned above exert their influence in this analysis. Certainly, the language included in that passage is not qualitatively the same. On the one hand, there exists recycling of elements from the "Oral Introduction" (even if not very abundant as has been shown above: some means of transport vocabulary and certain isolated constructions ("to take time"). Reviewing of features from previous units (frequency adverbs, superlative degree of adjectives, personal pronouns, demonstrative determiners, time expressions, the modal verb "must") is equally observed. On the other, novel uses of items from the preceding lesson (modalized senses of "will" and "shall") are likewise present.

In my opinion the two roles of declarative knowledge described in sections 5.2. and 5.4. are to be considered here. Concerning recycling, the psychological place of this passage could be interpreted in two didactic ways which depict a single declarative conceptualization.

Firstly, if we regard the extract as visual or written exposure of the prior linguistic elements, this reading passage could accordingly be argued to belong to a general initial sequencing phase of P1-P2 whose first block is the "Oral introduction". The ensuing text or second block would act as an additional presentation in a written mode which accompanies the earlier aural one. Thus from this viewpoint this extract would be categorized as belonging to Sánchez's *Step 1.1. Presentation,* a version which was indicated at the beginning of the analysis of the "Elementary Reading and Conversation" (section 6.1.3.2.b).

Framed within this perspective, this passage constitutes an example of what I call indirect/contextualized presentation, as opposed to a non-contextualized or explicit/direct one. For the former I understand the format of this stage in which the

language is contextualized (i.e., introduced in a text, whether spoken or written); if no related linguistic exercises precede (pre-reading/listening vocabulary activities or structural ones) and if no explicit presentation of language (whether the approach is deductive or inductive) appears, then I consider this presentation to be inductive, since students will have to infer or deduce the rules or lexical behaviour as embedded in the text. It will also be indirect due to two reasons: firstly, the above-mentioned contextualization of language; secondly, the practice with the receptive skills as the paramount objective and introduction of language as a subsidiary one in many cases. The second condition, though, needs not being present for this type of introduction to occur, as is the case with lesson seven and the "Oral introduction" of this current unit (where no rehearsal of listening follows this initial presentation).

For non-contextualized or explicit/direct P1 I understand language which is readily introduced without the support of a text, either deductively in the form of rules or vocabulary lists to be studied or inductively in the form of contrastive examples or sentences showing structures or lexis behaviour which has to be deduced by the students (discovery learning).

These two distinctions are very important since they pinpoint different approaches to language learning and teaching and are thus essential to unmask the place of a certain activity within a given sequence, as will be seen in Eckersley's two types of units and in Alexander's lesson.

The second position related to the recycling of features is to consider this written exposure as a version of P2 not normally found in the literature: strengthening receptive (not productive or at least reproductive) practice of the contents previously orally introduced and practised in the "Oral Introduction".

Johnson (1996: 171) argues that presentation and practice are just small steps to proceduralization. This observation together with the peculiar characteristic of receptive practice mode leads me to conclude that whether we abide by the first interpretation or the other, the extract presumably provides underpinning declarative knowledge in an inductive and written way so that it reinforces the previous one obtained in the other lessons. The students' attention is drawn to structures and lexis (disguised through a conversation format), if only for their printing and the ensuing possibility to actually see the material and not simply listen to it. Later, the exercises or questions would constitute the controlled practice and further reinforcement in a productive-skill manner.

As regards the introduction of new uses of items that belong to the immediately preceding lesson, the function of declarative knowledge may arguably change to that of data base. In section 5.4., I have commented upon the complex and intangible nature of some declarative knowledge, which is better apprehended after proceduralization has taken place so that there is no danger of interference. Truly, the level of this course is elementary; as such, we might believe that additional senses of "will" and "shall" other than the traditionally-firstly-offered of future are cognitively demanding at this stage. Still far from the modern *consciousness-raising* approaches, the only tools for students to become aware of these new connotations were two: their actual noticing in the input text (which lacks any typographical aid for this purpose, contrary to Eckersley's dialogue and comment units) and the teacher's action. This does not contradict Johnson's claim that complexities are better located after proceduralization with the ensuing psychological sequences being either *DECPRODEC* or *PRODEC*. Undeniably, in our case this phase had taken place in the previous lesson with the corresponding practice of the future sense of "will" and "shall".

Globally, Johnson (1996: 98, 172) identifies acquisition approaches as *PRO*, as repeatedly cited before. In Berlitz's case and specifically this unit I do not believe that such a categorization is fully representative of the actual psychological structure at stake. The natural approach here is not thoroughly natural viewing its implementation in a formal setting and Berlitz's pains to systematize his course, reflected in the recycling of elements from the same units and previous ones and the introduction of new forms. Evidently, all these aspects are not so overtly present (and perhaps even noticed by practitioner teachers at the first quarter of the twentieth century) as in contemporary materials, which underlie modern research about the value of recycling and consciousness-raising approaches.

Thus in order to compromise with, on the one hand, the phenomenon recently outlined and, on the other, with Johnson's absence of *PRODECPRO* and his depiction of acquisition approaches as *PRO*, I believe that the most satisfying final representation of the psychological path of the "Travelling" lesson is *decPRO*.

Deliberately in small letters, *dec* stands for the P1 in the "Oral Introduction" plus that of the reading passage in the role of reinforcing declarative knowledge and in its database function in the introduction of new uses of previously studied items. *PRO,* as the major cognitive phase in the sequence*,* corresponds to the P2 in the

"Oral Introduction" plus the light practice in the reading text of earlier elements from the initial section and other units together with the more definite practice-focused "Exercises" section. Though P2 exists in the first part of the lesson, I do not consider it preposterous to comprise all the practice material into the single and final stage of *PRO* since the reading passage contains an important degree of recycling (practice). Together with its position as a second activity, this provides a teaching link with the ensuing large manipulation of the exercises.

After this examination I am able to provide my conclusive version of the didactic activity sequencing in the "Travelling" lesson: *Steps 1.1. Presentation and 2.1. Controlled and directed practice* (P1-P2) in the "Oral introduction". This is followed by *Step 1.1. Presentation* of new employments of modal verbs plus further presentation or receptive practice of prior elements (P1-P2) for the reading passage. The "Exercises" part represents Sánchez's steps *2.1. Controlled and directed practice* with some hints of *2.2. consolidation-based rehearsal*.

As a final succinct remark, I would like to conclude by remembering the appendices at the end of the coursebook (see pp. 47-51 for a more detailed account of these three appendices). The first one is simply explicit focus on form practice, whereas the second one is a table of irregular verbs and the third one provides isolated-sound pronunciation exercises. Solely the content of appendix two would truly account for (very limited) declarative knowledge following the overall (controlled) practice. It would thus embody a testimonial presence, a fact that does not affect my study of the sequencing patterns in both lessons.

6.2. Eckersley, C. E. (1938). *Essential English for Foreign Students. Book 1*

6.2.1. Historical background of *Essential English for Foreign Students*

This part is greatly indebted to Quinault (1967: 2-3); Howatt (1984: 216- 217) and Howatt (2004: 232, 237, 239, 240).

C. E. Eckersley (1893-1967) was a schoolteacher at the Polytechnic Boys' School in Regent Street in London, one of the most prestigious of the public sectors establishments. His long-lasting reputation rests on *Essential English for Foreign*

Students, Book 1 of which appeared in 1938, followed by Books 2-4 between 1940 and 1942.

As Quinault (1967: 2) indicates in his memoir devoted to Eckersley, at the same time that his latest books of this series appeared the Second World War had started and Britain became full this time of refugees and allied soldiers anxious to learn English as soon as possible. Eckersley was asked to write a special course for them, *English for the Allies* (1943). Together with the success of *Essential English*, he decided to stop his teaching career and to devote himself exclusively to the preparation of textbooks for foreign learners.

His coursebooks appealed to the large number of refugees that were well-educated and who needed the English practical oral command of everyday life. This was not reproduced in Michael West's *New Method* (1927), a series of simple materials with a good deal of vocabulary research underneath. Following Howatt (1984: 335), during his experience as an officer in the Indian Education Service, West came to the conclusion that a reading knowledge of the language was of paramount importance, which was translated into a strict control of lexis (as we will see in more detail shortly).

In fact, Eckersley represented a branch of the profession, which is more numerous today than in the twenties, engaged in the teaching of English to foreigners resident in Britain or visiting the country temporarily. Howatt (2004: 231) locates this context together with three others, the whole of which conform the foundation phase (1900-1946) in the process of the construction of English Language Teaching as an autonomous profession. According to the same author (Howatt 2004: 232), Eckersley's context was still small in size before 1939, but would eventually come to dominate the picture [8]. I believe it necessary to provide a brief report of the remaining three contexts that configure this first phase as they all will leave their mark in Eckersley's materials, specifically the second and third ones (as we will see in the lesson analyses). For much more complete information, the reader is addressed to Howatt (2004: 231-241):

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[8] Howatt (2004: 231 and ff) distinguishes two other phases in the configuration of the profession of English Language Teaching: a second stage (1946-70) marked by the emergence of applied linguistics "as a source of new ideas and priorities" (p. 231) together with the steadily influence of the United States; and a third phase (1970 onwards) characterized by the attempts to teach students to use language for real-life communication.

1. Secondary schools in Europe, characterized by the period of the Reform Movement and the key British contribution to phonetics. The main representative was Daniel Jones (1881-1967).

2. Adult education in Europe. The principal figure is Harold Palmer (1877-1949), who follows the lines of Berlitz's Direct Method teaching since the 1880s, especially in terms of native speakers.

3. Basic schooling in the Empire. From 1920s onwards, the beginnings of "English as a second language" are witnessed. The main character is Michael West (1888-1973).

Both West and Palmer bestrided the inter-war period, though there was another publication of interest to practising teachers: Faucett's *Oxford English Course* (1933). According to Howatt (2004: 239), this work was "a major ELT milestone" since it had the modern format of current textbooks and acted as a model for many future courses, especially after 1945. Its greatest competitors were West's *New Method* and Eckersley's *Essential English*. As I have recently mentioned, it had a marked influence from West as well as from Palmer (even if Howatt (2004: 237) affirms that this link was "rather tenuous"). Regarding Palmer's impact, since I will more thoroughly discuss it in the analyses, I will only advance the intellectual's psychological principle of habit formation together with associationism, as well as the emphasis on spoken language, phonetic transcription and the "text-based" approach (Howatt 2004: 276) used for devising a repetitive typology of activities (pronunciation practice, comprehension questions, retelling, etc.).

Concerning West's effect, both Quinault (1967: 2) and Howatt (2004: 237) point out that perhaps through their common publisher (Longmans, Green), Eckersley had become interested in the work begun by Michael West to implement the principles of word counting to the teaching of English as a foreign language. As Quinault (1967: 2) skilfully recapitulates, the purpose of *Essential English* was to introduce the learner "to the two thousand most commonly-used words of the language in four stages of five hundred words each, from which he could then go on to acquire full English". In his Preface, Eckersley states from the very beginning that the new linguistic research in his period "of a planned vocabulary in language teaching is embodied in *Essential English*. The whole of this present volume is written within a vocabulary of 650 words." (p. vii). For an explanation of the

apparent contradiction between the differences in the number of words asserted by Quinault (500) and Eckersley himself (650), the reader is addressed to the last part of section 6.2.2. (p. 90).

Indeed Eckersley was among the first authors to apply the *Carnegie* word list. As recently mentioned, West was attracted to the studies that involved the control of vocabulary in creating and grading reading materials. Following Howatt (2004: 236), this research topic brought West and Palmer together with Faucett on a project funded by the Carnegie Corporation (1934). The result was a draft list of around 2,000 'general service' words which was published as the *Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection* in 1936. "The General Word-List of the Interim Report has been the basis of this book", affirms Eckersley (p. x). The final outcome was West's *The General Service List of English Words* (1953) – after frequency statistics had been supplied by Lorge, an aspect added by Howatt in his 1984 edition (p. 336). I am purposely supplying this detailed description as it will be crucial for the background of the *Situational Language Teaching* Method.

However, as unquestionably stated by the latter researcher (2004: 237), the Carnegie compilers (Palmer, West, Faucett and Thorndike as well) were interested in creating reading materials for overseas school children, not in describing everyday conversation in Britain. The latter was exactly the need of the adult refugees to whom Eckersley firstly taught during the evenings and who then became the target audience of his materials. That is the reason why in his coursebooks this author was forced to complement the *Carnegie Word List* with daily life terms which it ignored. "Bacon", "beef", "luggage", "potatoes" and "trousers" are some of Eckersley's examples (as reported in his 1955 book edition, p. 13; reported in Howatt (2004: 260)). In his 1938 edition (p. ix), this author had already complained about the inclusion of such type of common words (together with "cigarette", "marmalade", "taxi", "aeroplane") in the eighth thousand count from a previous list 10,000 words in *A Study in English Word Values*, by Faucett and Maki (1932)[9]. This work had paved the way for the *Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection.*

Curiously enough, Eckersley himself (p. x) does not solely attribute the rationale of the *Carnegie Word List* to reading skill demands, but also contemplates

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[9] Main title: *A study of English word-values statistically determined from the latest extensive word-counts, providing teachers and students with a means of distinguishing indispensable, essential, and useful words from special words,* compiled by Lawrence Faucett and Itsu Maki. (1932). Tokyo, Japan: Matsumura Sanshodo.

the necessity to cater for the needs of tourists; for the practical teaching requirements seeking to teach "plain" English; and for the student who wants a solid basis from which he can continue his learning of the language as a whole.

At any rate, Eckersley immediately warns us that the fact that his work has been based on the General Word-List of the Interim Report "does not mean that every word in the book is included in the list" (p. x)[10]. The 'essentialness' of his textbook is all aimed to teach " 'real' " English". This "real English" is taken as "a starting-point for an ever-increasing mastery of conversational and literary English". The "modern, adult and sophisticated" outlook of his material justifies his decision (despite the fact that "every word has been tested against the frequency lists") of including in the first 500 such words as "aeroplane" and "cinema", "bus-conductor", "marmalade", "theatre" and "tennis-racket", which had been omitted in the *Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection*.

This "essentialness" feature is not only restricted to vocabulary but also grammar in such a way that structures are introduced in a simple and gradual manner; "every new construction is explained and illustrated as soon as it is used". (p. xi).

In spite of these links with the linguistic traditions and the research of the time, *Essential English* had "original touches that made it unique" (Howatt 2004: 239), an impression shared by Quinault (1967: 3) as well. Eckersley created a multilingual group of learners (Pedro, Olaf, Jan, Lucille, Freda, and Hob) who discuss their linguistic worries and problems among them and with their teacher, the kind Mr. Priestley. The lessons are held in the latter's house, where the class sits round the table. This simple and imaginative tool allowed Eckersley to mix grammar with practice in informal English conversation, which consisted in samples of everyday dialogue with the language needed to talk about English (as will be observed in the analysis of the units). The result of the combination of this meetings of learners and the ensuing idiosyncratic language approach was a more stress-free and cheerful atmosphere than the severely pedagogic texts of some of the rival courses (Howatt 1984: 216), e.g. Faucett's 1933 *Oxford English Course* and Hornby's 1954-1956 *Oxford Progressive English for Adult Learners*.

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[10] From here until otherwise indicated, all the quotations belong to p. x of the Preface.

Certainly, Eckersley decidedly believed in the extreme importance of what contemporary researchers and materials authors such as one of the world's most recognized authorities (Tomlinson 1998d, Tomlinson 2003b: 19) consider the most important factor for successful language learning: "affect":

> I firmly believe that one of the first essentials of a book is interest. "No profit grows where is no pleasure taken," and every effort has been made to cover the pill of learning with the jam of gaiety". [...] Essential English is not only "English without tears" but may even be "English with tears-of laughter" (pp. xi-xii).

This spirit of the conception of his textbook explains its structure: There exists two parts: Part 1 ("The Essentials") and Part 2 ("Conversations in Mr. Priestley's study"). And Eckersley categorically distinguishes both: "So in Part II (page 129), as soon as the preliminaries are mastered, the reader is introduced to Mr. Priestley, his household and his group of students" (p. xi). In his presentation of the students, Eckersley states: "I want them to tell you funny stories, to write letters and sing songs for you. I want you to like them, to feel that you know them and that they are friends" (p. 115).

I will provide an account of the structure of both parts in the next section. Owing to their distinctive features, I believe it necessary to analyse one unit of each one as in the case of the Direct Method (sections 6.1.3.1. and 6.1.3.2).

It was such the appeal of *Essential English* that it continued in print for around twenty years until it was replaced by more explicit and modern situational courses such as Alexander's *First Things First* (1967a), which will be examined later on. Contrary to nowadays' sense (different scenarios and topics: at the station, etc.), Eckersley made use of a single "situation": a meeting of learners in their teacher's house who talked about different subjects.

The success of *Essential English* cannot only be attributed to its original approach to teaching but also to historical factors. Following Howatt (2004: 244-245), after the war in 1950 there was a demand for materials for teaching English as a Foreign Language and adaptations and reprints of older pre-war works like Faucett's *Oxford English Course* and Eckersley's *Essential English* was the solution undertaken until the economical circumstances improved in the mid-1950s. The first full-scale course from this period was Hornby's *Oxford Progressive English for Adult Learners* (1954-1956). It was universally known as 'the Hornby course', and a

new edition of its immediate rival, 'the Eckersley course', appeared in 1955. Hornby's textbooks, with a detailed Teacher's guide, were entirely and carefully linguistically organized and thus attracted serious students and diligent "false beginners"; Eckersley's material offered the motivational side of the coin. This quality remains clearly maintained by Quinault (1967: 3) at the end of his memoir:

> Its characters, the teacher Mr Priestley and his family, and his students, Jan, Lucille, Olaf, Pedro, Frieda and Hob, have become familiar to generations of learners in every continent. What was the secret of this popularity? It was, I think, the product of a warm and lively personality with a natural flair for English teaching and a ready sense of humour.
> […]
> There must now be many thousands of students all over the world who would testify to his success.

6.2.2. Structure of *Essential English Book 1*

Part 1 is composed of 24 lessons: 14 plus 10 grammatical comments which start on Lesson V and appear every two or three units (see Appendix B.1.). It effectively deals with the essential grammar and vocabulary, and does so firstly in a very simple way which evokes the elementary level manuals of the Direct Method in terms of the inductive mode of learning (pictures, objects, teacher's gestures, questions and answers, pronunciation drills) although this is mixed with explicit and brief grammar summaries, a feature banned in the pure application of the Direct Method.

As an illustration of this markedly similarity with this latter method, I will briefly describe Lesson III. The sameness of the initial units of Part 1 will be constant in later units of the same part and in those of the second one.

In Lesson III the associationism principle (association of meaning and foreign language directly) advocated by Sweet as one prominent figure of the Reform Movement clearly underlies the explanation of the vocabulary and forms of the unit (pp. 20-21): *that, door, window.* This can be appreciated in the drawing that precedes the content of the unit. The teacher appears pointing to objects in the classroom ("That is a door") and the students pointing and repeating the same utterance (what Lado (1964: 96) will later call "oral repetition" as the most basic type of pattern practice). This procedure instantly evokes Gouin's movements and is the immediate forerunner of Hornby's classroom-based situation technique, upon which I will be

commenting in section 6.3.1.4. It is equally used in an interrogative format ("Teacher: 'What is that?' (pointing to the door); Class: That is a door' "), i.e., in a question-and-answer exercise. In order to learn questions with the pronoun "who", the teacher uses an identical strategy as the latter by referring to pictures in the two previous lessons ("Teacher: Who is in the bed in picture number 3? Class: The boy is in the bed' "). A very concise grammar rule indicating the use of "who" for people and what for things plus examples of the two categories follow this initial explanation or P1, inductive on the whole: no explicit grammar rules but repetition aided by gestures and pictures.

The second explanation deals with the questions whose answers are affirmative and can be answered in two ways: in a full form or in a shortened way, which means that the learner needs to know which pronoun ("he", "she" or "it") is the correct one. Once again, no overt inclusion of rules is presented but just constant repetition of questions and answers whose content are examples from objects in the classroom and from pictures of the previous units as well ("Is the train in the station? Yes, the train is in the station, or Yes, it is"; "Is the boy in bed? Yes, the boy is in bed, or Yes, he is"; "Is the girl in the classroom? Yes, the girl is in the classroom, or Yes, she is").

As a mark of the significance of the Reform Movement, a Pronunciation Drill follows this inductive presentation. It deals with the vowels and diphthongs.

Eckersley's independency from both the *Direct Method* and the Reform Movement comes with a Grammar Summary in which very clear and brief rules explain the use of "who", "what", "he", "she" and "it". It also offers a reminder of the affirmative and interrogative modes introduced in the two previous inductive presentations ("Affirmative: That is; The man is...; Interrogative: Is that?; Is the man...?"). Since this grammar summary appears in the L2, Eckersley's coursebook cannot be completely considered to belong to the "compromise policy" recommended in the interwar years as described by Stern (1983: 457). This consisted in keeping certain techniques and the emphasis on the oral language from the *Direct Method* without banning translation or grammatical explanation in the first language. On the other hand, Kelly (1969: 47) acknowledges that,

> Vernacular explanation was not regarded as inevitably evil by many Direct Methodists. Laudenbach, for instance, devoted a large section of his prize-winning essay to it. Palmer heartily agreed with this stand, while being under the impression that he was, in fact, contradicting the Direct Method.

The last part of Lesson 3 is entitled as "Exercises", which are very similar to the preceding pieces of explanations and are very typical of both the *Direct Method* and *Audiolingualism*. This section could be regarded as P2 or Practice in a controlled way, since no freedom of personal answer on the part of student is allowed but just the repetition of previous learned structures. The first exercise demands the pupils to answer the questions ("who is in the motor-car?"). The second one requires responding the questions affirmatively using "he", "she" or "it" in the answer ("Is this a pencil?"). The third type is a "transformation drill" type of activity, where the learners have to transform affirmative patterns into interrogatives ("This is a bad egg. Is this a bad egg?").

The final exercise of this practice part is a dictation. It is very brief (simply four lines) and repeats structures learned and practised throughout the whole unit ("That is the door. The pencil is in the book. She is in the classroom"). Dictation is an activity typical of the *Direct Method* as indicated by Larsen-Freeman (2000: 31), Stern (1983: 459) although considered sporadic by Sánchez (1997: 147), probably due to the fact that this author was referring to Berlitz's pure Direct Method version as intended for and for elementary stages. Eckersley's book and this specific lesson belong to such a level, but the mixture of influences from the traditional approach in the explicit statement of rules and the Direct Method techniques make his work somehow a peculiar mixture. At any rate, Eckersley complies in his lesson with the order of skills preached by the Reformers and Direct Methodists: speech first with stress on pronunciation; reading and writing exercises come last and are based upon initial oral practice.

Later units of this Part 1 will recourse to second language narratives, comprehension questions, pronunciation drills, dictation (techniques which belong to the Reform Movement following Titone (1968: 39) and which are characteristic of the *Direct Method* again according to Stern (1983: 457, 459) and Larsen-Freeman (2000: 30-31)). The comments -if applicable- will consist of longer scheduled-form structural summaries (what Palmer called *substitution tables*, which will be equally present in Alexander's unit. A more detailed report of Palmer's concept of *sentence patterns* and *substitution tables* themselves will be offered in section 6.3.1.4. These summaries are followed by grammatical exercises and dictations.

Part 2 (see Appendix B.1.) contains 12 units distributed as follows: 7 lessons in which we can see the students "conversing, singing songs, and telling jokes" (p. xii) with 5 comments which start from unit 26 every two lessons:

> But each conversation is planned to demonstrate some point in grammar, construction, vocabulary and idiom, and all those matters are discussed in the lesson that follows the conversation. At the same time the student and teacher are given an opportunity of testing, by means of the copious exercises that follow the conversation and the grammar lesson, how far the lesson has been understood
>
> (p. xii).

Due to the sameness of format of this part, an outline of it will now be omitted since I will provide a description of a full lesson in the analysis.

Finally, Eckersley included the whole list of the "Vocabulary of Essential English" divided into two sections. The first one is the "General Word List", which adds an asterisk next to the words that the compilation did not include, such as *bacon*). It contains all the words (451 in total since the inflected forms and common derivatives have been included under the "head" word) that have been employed in the "conversations in Part II and in those lessons in Part I that are not concerned with explanation of grammar". The "Additional Word List" (second section) comprises those words used for explanation of structures. The influence from the Reform Movement can be observed in the International Phonetic Association phonetic transcription of both lists.

6.2.3. Analysis of Units from *Essential English Book 1*

6.2.3.1. First Part

For Part 1, and following my procedure of selecting middle units, I am going to study Lesson XII (the text and activities) and its corresponding lesson XIII or grammar comments out of the whole 24 units that this part is composed of. The typology of activities and of patterns of action (presentation and practice) readily corresponds to lesson 3. See Appendices B.2. and B.3. for the texts of Lessons XII and XIII respectively.

6.2.3.1.a. Analysis of Lesson XII

This unit constitutes a perfect example of the *Direct Method* in advanced lessons in combination with the ideology from the Reform Movement: in all, a reaction against the Grammar-Translation Method represented by authors such as Tierks and Seidenstucker. From the Reform Movement, Sweet's advocacy for the text-based approach; Sweet's, Viëtor's and Jespersen's enthusiasm for phonetics and Franke's psychological principle of associationism may be appreciated. The effect of the *Direct Method* is best exemplified by the figure of Harold Palmer, who represented a careful amalgamation of the *Direct Method* and the Reform Movement tenets as stated in section 6.1.1. As can be seen in this lesson, Eckersley definitely supported the association principle, the employment of phonetic transcription and the "never translate" guideline (Palmer's related attitude being moderate, as stated by Kelly (1969: 47) and Howatt (2004: 273)). At the same time, this unit reflects the influence of Palmer's "sentence pattern" (upon which the unit of teaching of the *Direct Method* was based and which clashed with the text-based approach advocated by Sweet). Lesson XII equally reveals Palmer's backing for the habit-formation learning principle and his employment of the substitution table.

I would like to remark that in Eckersley's textbook, as a course conceived for students, there is no Teacher's book with explicit guidelines except for the Preface from which I have extensively quoted. This means that from the type and order of arrangement of exercises the principles from the *Direct Method* and the Reform

Movement unquestionably seem to underlie this unit. However, some related standard procedures stated by authors such as Stern (1983); Sánchez (1997); Larsen-Freeman (2000); Richards and Rodgers (2001); and Howatt (2004) are not overtly expressed in the printing of the coursebook. When suitable, I will indicate them as I consider that it is not prepostereous to believe that Eckersley and practising teachers did put those strategies into practice.

The lesson is headed by its lexical objectives (p. 64): *Bathe, water, sands, swimming, big, rock, other (another), together, with, arm, tennis racket, hand, their, play, sister, brother, small.*

The first activity (p. 64) consists of eighteen numbered sentences that describe what is happening in a black and white picture on p. 67 [11]. Though disposed in this way, I believe that this is a classic example of a specially constructed second-language narrative (as stated under the procedures of the *Direct Method* by Stern (1983: 458)) or a whole text presentation by the teacher (the basic approached followed in the Reform Movement (Howatt 2004: 203)): in effect, it describes the totality of the drawing. The description and the picture enact some sort of situation (at the hotel in the summer), which could somehow be regarded as a basic predecessor to Alexander's 1967a sequences of pictures and their corresponding dialogues.

From the indication in the first sentence ("1. The boys and girls are at the seaside. (*See picture, p. 57*)"), I believe that this text was to be read aloud by the teacher while the students were looking at the picture, especially because the drawing is three pages later. To me, that means that the collocation of the drawing isolated from its describing sentences is intentional. In other words, this would be conceived as a simple listening or exposition to oral language which would act as a picture-supported inductive presentation of the objectives of the lesson and particularly of the grammar ones. These are the present progressive and the possessives, the latter ones being discussed in lesson thirteen: "12. He is a Swedish boy. His brother is sitting on the sands. 13. Two of the girls have tennis rackets in their hands" (p. 64). In this inductive presentation or P1 it is very probable that the students would assimilate the unknown vocabulary by looking at the drawing or at the teacher pointing at the picture to identify the specific action in each sentence. The instructor

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[11] Actually, the book refers to p. 57 but I consider that this to be an editing mistake since the sentences unambiguously describe the drawing on p. 67.

could also mime or utter definitions containing terms in L2 already familiar to the learners.

Stern (1983: 459) claims that students read the text aloud for practice and that from there they discovered the grammatical observations. It could be argued that in Eckersley these ones would be more stressed in the following "Oral practice" where students engage into a question-and-answer activity. Larsen-Freeman (2000: 30) states that reading aloud comes as the first exercise of all, thus contradicting Eckersley's system if my interpretation of the procedure of the first activity is correct. Larsen-Freeman's affirmations are based on an actual and modern Direct Method class observation. This is one of the instances of the absence of explicit teacher's guidelines in which from common sense we would have to guess that practising teachers would proceed in their own way. The most sensible manner seems to be that after the listening part, students would be allowed to read aloud the text for practice, especially for the activity that follows: a pronunciation drill.

In effect, similar to Lesson 3, a pronunciation drill ensues this initial presentation (p. 65) in accordance with the early versions of the *Direct Method* (Stern 1983: 459), heavily influenced by the tenets of the Reform Movement. Vowels and diphthongs are practised by means of words employed in the previous sentences. For instance, [æ] s**a**nds, r**a**cket, h**a**nd; [ɛə] th**ei**r.[12] Thus the emphasis so far has been on speech (listening and pronunciation).

After this pronunciation drill comes the section entitled as "Exercises". The first one is called "Oral Practice" and reads as: "Answer the following. Make your answers complete sentences" (p. 65). The answers require practising the present progressive in affirmative and negative modes in both singular and in plural by means of another substitution table. Once again, there are no overt indications as to the procedure of the exercise, but the arrangement of such a substitution table on the page next to the one that includes the picture (where the descriptive sentences cannot be seen unless the page is turned over) and the heading of the activity ("Oral practice") make me believe that students would probably look at the drawing for the answer. At any rate, it does not seem unreasonable to venture that some teachers would allow them to have a look at the printed text. In all, exercise 1 is a very controlled drill where no freedom of answer is permitted. Repetition and imitation

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[12] The characters in bold are as in the original. This also applies for lessons XIII, XXXI and XXXII.

are dominant, in the line of the habit-formation principle advocated by Palmer exemplified through his sentence patterns (of the present progressive in this case): "Is the waiter/the waiters smoking a cigarette (cigarettes)?" (p. 66). In fact, Eckersley states as a footnote on p. 65 that the exercise gives 120 sentences.

The second activity requires the students to answer questions with more amplified content than simply "yes" or "no" as there are "wh"-questions ("what", "who") too. In some way, the first exercise has acted as a contrived preparation of content (truthfulness of statements) for the answers of the second one. For instance, if one of the boys is swimming to a big rock and another one is looking at the aeroplanes ("Is the boy swimming? Yes, he is swimming; Is the boy looking at the aeroplanes? Yes, he is looking at the aeroplanes" (p. 66)), then the answer for question number 3 in the second activity ("what is one of the boys doing?") or number 4 ("what is another of the boys doing?") comes as "He is swimming to a big rock" or "He is looking at the aeroplanes" (p. 66).

Equally to the first exercise, the sixteen questions in the second one are extremely controlled in content and are designed to practise the new forms and grammar forms: "1. Where are the boys and girls?"; "13. What have two of the girls in their hands?" (p. 66), etc. This activity corresponds to what Masuhara's (2003) labels as the category of "Reading Comprehension-based Approaches" to reading and to Nuttall's "literal comprehension" group as was seen in the "Exercises" section of the "Travelling" lesson in Berlitz's coursebook. Here the answers are readily available in –this case- the visual text (accompanied by the printed one three pages before). In my opinion, the works of these two researchers, though focusing on reading, can perfectly be transposed to listening as well as is our current case. By force of repetition and imitation, these two exercises have prepared the ground for the third one, which consists of retelling the whole story portrayed in the drawing without the help of the printed sentences: "Look at the picture on p. 67, then describe the picture as fully as you can". The shade of the Reform Movement in the figure of Palmer (habit formation as the core of his methodology, which would be later retaken by the Audiolingualists (Howatt 2004: 273)) can be appreciated at this moment. In fact, it could be argued that these interrogative sentences are even more restrained in content than those of the "Travelling" unit in the *Direct Method* textbook, where personal opinion questions were asked. Certainly, however, the structural focus was as high as in the remaining ones.

Therefore the oral skills are emphasized in this lesson. Indeed, the controlled oral practice (P2) represented in activities 1 and 2 is culminated with a speaking practice which, though not so controlled as the former exercises, it is still very contrived in the content. Through the previous repetition it could be very probable that students would not add nothing particularly new. That is why I consider this speaking practice to be P2 and not P3, due to its position and the previous constrain since transference to parallel contexts, interaction, personalization or negotiation of meaning (as characteristics of production activities or P3) would be absolutely absent. All of the pupils would already know the stereotyped description provided by their classmates.

The last activity is a dictation, an exercise that contrary to the elementary manuals of the *Direct Method, Audiolingualism* and the *Situational Language Teaching* trend was offered in every unit from the very onset. It is a very repetitive activity in terms of content. The same objectives (the present progressive and possessives together with the lexical terms highlighted at the beginning of the lesson are practised with sentences very similar to the initial listening presentation and the following three practice activities: "At the seaside there are some English boys and girls. They are staying with their fathers and mothers at the hotel". An equivalent observation from the previous activity regarding its P2 category applies here.

Consequently Eckersley, in the same way as his lesson 3, abides by the order of skills advocated by the *Direct Method* and the Reform Movement. Speech comes first through a) the aural skill within the initial listening presentation or P1; b) the pronunciation drill; c) the oral/aural skills present in the practical exercises or P2, which imply both listening and speaking; d) the oral skill, with the retelling activity. Upon this initial oral practice, reading and the writing exercises are finally developed: the former through the very sheer fact of seeing the questions of exercises one and two, and the latter by means of the dictation.

I have just outlined the pattern of the sequencing of the activities of this unit: first, inductive presentation (P1) through listening; second, practice (P2) with the pronunciation drill and the rest of exercises. Activities one and two are more controlled and contrived in the length of answer than the retelling one, but still the rigidity of the possibility of answers of the latter leaves no room for free production. The dictation represents controlled practice due to the similarity of content regarding the previous exercises and the lack of autonomous writing skills.

The correspondence of this arrangement with Sánchez's (2004a) model is as follows. The inductive presentation correlates with *Step 1.1. Presentation or exposition to the learner to the new materials* (in this case, through the listening mode). The remaining activities are examples of Step *2.1 or Controlled and Directed practice*, since as I have just purported the students' attention is explicitly focused on the objectives of the lesson through firmly guided activities. Activity 3 (the retelling one) could somehow be considered an intermediate case between Steps 2.1. and 2.2 since it implies repetition and reinforcement of the previous vocabulary and structures but keeps high control over the student's response and omits any transfer to parallel contexts. The same remark applies to the dictation, which has identical characteristics to be worked upon in the written mode.

In Johnson's terms (1996: 170-171), the underlying psychological configuration is a *learning* sequence or *DECPRO*, at least in the declarativization stage, whose aim is that of the first P whilst proceduralization being that of the subsequent two. However, in Eckersley's case there does not exist the final stage of the P-P-P model or P3 as may be concluded from the previous analysis. This is a perfect example of what Johnson (1996: 171) considers "traditional" teaching, which is in fact a two-P model. It should be pointed out that "traditional" here should be understood in the sense of a language teaching methodology that persisted throughout most part of the twentieth century embodied by the ALM and its variants. This is not to be confounded with the Grammar-Translation Method.

Thus presentation and practice are just small beginnings to the task of proceduralization; a great deal more effort is required for automatization to be achieved. In my own interpretation, this lesson portrays a long declarativization strategy with some brushstrokes of primary proceduralization, which accounts for *DECpro* instead of *DECPRO*, similar to the remaining units originally classified as *DECPRO* (see p. 198). Indeed, I would dare say that the principles of "delayed learning" and "readiness to learn" account for this simple initial proceduralization in Eckersley's lesson XII. It is plausible that students could retell the story "accurately" from short memory, but could not use the structures and vocabulary appropriately and automatically when genuinely communicating outside of the classroom. In other words, the linguistic retention in the learners' long-term memory would be missing unless they revised the specific linguistic items and practise focusing on the message -and not on the form- under real operating conditions (following Johnson's

terminology). Truly, this lesson belongs to "The Essentials" part of Book 1, the elementary level, where linguistic resources are scarce. However, this does not mean that a more degree of "beginners" production could not have been added, at least in such a way that mere and (possibly) meaningless repetition for the students would not have been the axis of the speaking activity. What we are attending to here is *output reproduction* instead of *outcome production* (Tomlinson, personal communication), exactly in the same way as the seventh lesson of the *Direct Method*. Interesting options for alternative beginner materials based on the Total Physical Response (TPR) Plus approach, which was developed by Tomlinson (1994) from Asher's TPR (1977), may be found in Islam (2003: 265-272). The speaking activities "do not require learners to produce language orally from an acquired store of language that is not fully developed" (Islam 2003: 265). The reader is also addressed to Johnson's (1996: 144-149) beginner information-gap activities, which undergo a gradual cognitive and interaction complexity degree.

I will deal with this issue in much more detail when we arrive at the dissection of the unit of *First Things First* (a representative example of the SLT).

6.2.3.1.b. Analysis of Lesson XIII

Let us turn now to the analysis of Lesson XIII, which is designated as "Grammar (Comments on Lesson XII)". This is what Sánchez's labels as *Step 1.2. Explicit reasoning*. It is here where Eckersley definitely deviates from the standard practice of the *Direct Method* ("never explain, demonstrate") and the Reform Movement in his global treatment of grammar. As Kelly (1969: 41) puts it, "The most important concept from the *Direct Method* was the emphasis on inculcating language behaviour and avoidance of rules in the classroom, even if they formed the basis of the course planner's thinking". However, both the *Direct Method* and the Reform Movement did not reject the treatment of grammar altogether: as was stated in the comments to the grammar summary of lesson 3, we should not forget the "compromise policy" of the interwar years and Palmer's positive stance towards vernacular explanation; some practitioners even favoured explanation in the L1 (Stern 1983: 459). Significantly, even Berlitz wrote a number of short reference grammars to accompany his most popular courses (Howatt 2004: 226). Still, Berlitz's

textbooks (especially elementary ones) where mostly devoted to vocabulary than to grammar.

Where Eckersley does not coincide with the *Direct Method* and the Reform Movement is in his additional mode of delivery of grammar. The preceding inductive lesson XII is invariably ensued by a deductive, explicit list of rules worded in the L2 as in unit 3. The grammar comments are about the possessive adjectives and occupy pp. 68, 69 and the beginning of p. 70. Eckersley's pedagogical flavour influenced by his target audience (see above on p. 89) can be readily appreciated in Lesson XIII thanks to two factors. The first has to do with the layout. The series of rules are very clearly stated thanks to a tidy presentation. There is a spacious arrangement together with a clean typographical organization, with the key words such as "pronoun" and the text of the rule itself in bold. The examples that follow each rule contain the main illustrative items in a square and their relationship with other key elements is neatly expressed by means of lines, whereas the number and gender of those main features are indicated by italics (see Appendix B.3. with the unit).

The second factor has to do with the simplicity of the metalanguage, length and clarity of the rules. First there is a reminder of what a pronoun is, almost in a dialogue format: "A **pronoun** is a word used instead of a noun. You have already learned the pronouns *I, you, he, she, it, we, they*" (p. 68). This is ensued by the corresponding possessive adjectives of each one together with their genders. Then, four rules follow, which describe the concordance between the noun or pronoun with the possessive adjective in gender and number:

> I. If the noun or pronoun is singular number, the possessive adjective is singular number.
>
> e.g. The ⬚man⬚ is looking at ⬚his⬚ { boy
>   { boys
> |_____|
>   (singular)   (singular)

(p. 68)

The same applies for the plural number, the masculine and the feminine genders.

On p. 70, the last rule of all is a summary of the four preceding ones and already subtly hints at the contrastive analysis purported by Fries in the 1940s and 1950s (about whom I will talk in section 6.3.1.3.):

> In short, the *number* and *gender* of the possessive adjective depends on the **possessor** and **not** (as in French, German, and other languages) **on the thing possessed**.

We should not forget that the date of Eckersley's publication is 1938, far from the flowering of the most radical approach of the *Direct Method*, obstinate in its opposition towards comparison due to the reaction against the Grammar-Translation method in the late nineteenth century (Kelly 1969: 56).

Subsequently to this deductive explanation of rules, two exercises follow to specifically practise the possessive adjectives without any oral practice or visual aid.

The initial one (p. 70) is a very traditional activity found in the second activity of the first Appendix in Berlitz's 1931 manual (see p. 48): Lado's "completion exercises" (1964: 101). It reads as "Put in the omitted possessive adjectives. Make them agree with the subject". Once again, it consists of twenty isolated and semantically disconnected sentences, some of them referring to the drawing on lesson XII:

> The girl has a tennis racket in ___ hand.

But others have nothing to do:

> The teacher is in ___ classroom, teaching ___ class.

No comment is made about the possibility of two correct answers.

The second exercise is a dictation to be rewritten in three different modes from the one printed, which appears in the first person singular (p. 71):

> II. Write out the piece of dictation:
> a)   in the third person masculine, i.e., beginning "He is staying..."
> b)   in the third person feminine, i.e., beginning "She is staying..."
> c)   in the third person plural, i.e., beginning "They are staying..."

The sentences are similar to those of activity 1 ("I am staying at the hotel at the seaside") while others are different ("My dog is sleeping under the table").

Once again, we can appreciate here, as in lesson XII, Palmer's psychological principle of habit formation, a prelude of the Audiolingualists who were just about to start a new revolution in language teaching. Though the discrete-item structural exercises do not belong to this strand, the repetitive dictation does so, and in the order advocated by the Direct Methodologists, the Reform Movement and then the Audiolingualists: writing is the last of all skills practised (after the previous oral work in Lesson XII).

The model of sequencing of activities that emerges in this Lesson XIII is fairly similar to Lesson XII. However, it is not equally comparable to the preceding one due to its idiosyncratic grammatical nature. What appears here is an initial deductive presentation of rules (instead of the inductive, implicit and intuitive mode) or P1 followed by a very discrete-item structural and controlled practice exercise (P2) and a repetitive retelling in the writing mode, with no freedom of personalized content but a contrived text. The correlation with Sánchez's model (2004a) would be the following one. The initial deductive presentation corresponds to *Step 1.2. Explicitness (a reasoned explanation or explicitness of certain characteristics which emphasize the objectives)*. The exercise would be representative of *Step 2.1 Controlled and directed practice* since the students' attention is explicitly attracted to the specific objectives in question through a tight, discrete-item activity in our case.

In a certain way, the dictation, as in the oral retelling of Lesson XII, could be regarded as a middle case between Steps 2.1 and 2.2. In effect, once again repetition exists, but the possibility of personalized content and the transfer to parallel contexts (simply the person in the use of the pronoun) is minimal.

Similar to Lesson XII, there is no P3 or production. I believe that this is intentional on the author's part due to the peculiarity of this unit (and the others called as "Comments" of "The Essentials" part) which are explicitly devised to review or consolidate the grammatical objectives of the previous lessons. However, when we reach the end of the analysis of Lesson XXXII (the "Comments of Lesson XXXI"), we will see that this observation does not exactly apply.

As to the psychological path underlying this sequence, I consider it to correspond to that of Lesson XII (*DECPRO* in the sense of declarativization with slight hints of proceduralization).

6.2.3.2. Second Part

Following my reliability criterion of choosing middle units, out of the twelve ones of this second part I am going to analyse the seventh one (Lesson XXXI) and its corresponding "Comments" (Lesson XXXII).

6.2.3.2.a. Analysis of Lesson XXXI

From p. 176 until p. 180 there is an initial inductive presentation or exposure to input which consists of dialogues separated into four sections according to the grammatical and lexical objectives that head each one. The thread of the whole story is not interrumpted; in a non-narrative form, then, the students weave a short account of anecdotes and "worries" driven by the topic of clothes (which ones they like, where they buy them, what their budget is...). In this way and correspondingly to Lesson XII, Eckersley deviates from the usual practice of the *Direct Method* and the Reform Movement, where narratives were used. In this sense, the shade of the grammatical tradition was still lurking in academic settings; indeed, as dialogues were associated with speech they were automatically excluded (Kelly 1969: 122). Interaction in the form of short questions and answers already existed in the *Direct Method*, but Eckersley was among the first authors to specifically include printed dialogues or conversations in his coursebooks. Maybe his return to this ignored format in the formal context allowed him to include the motivational component that made his manuals so famous and accounted for their enduring publication.

This specific dialogue is an illustration of the climate of friendship among classmates who are very different. Each one has particular characteristics that differentiate him or her from the others and make them be easily recognizable by the learners.

The reader is addressed to Appendix B.4. where s/he can read the whole unit. For the purposes of a better understanding of my selection of extracts I feel it necessary to provide a succinct account of the personality of each character as provided by Eckersley in his Lesson XXIII (pp. 115-120).

There are two girls (Lucilla and Frieda) and four men (Jan, Olaf, Pedro, and Hob). Lucilla is a rich, pretty, party-girl, and does not work much. Frieda is Swiss, rather quiet but very kind and nice. Jan is clever, punctual and hardworking. Olaf

(who does not appear in this lesson nor does Mr. Priestley) is a non-talkative, strong and fit tall guy. Pedro is Spanish. He is very handsome and well-dressed since he is very wealthy. He is also very intelligent and cultivated. The last one, Hob, is like the "clown" of the group: he is a good eater and sleeper (especially at the class), knows lots of stories and "he is always wanting to tell them to you" (p. 118).

From the headings of each dialogue it could be argued that in Eckersley's Lesson XXXI (and in his whole Part 2) the dialogues themselves are somehow the rudimentary predecessors of the *consciousness-raising* tasks developed, among others, by Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988). These do not require students to produce the target structure, but the texts are carefully constructed so that students can discover by themselves the different underlying rules and lexical uses (Hedge 2000: 160). It is here when the already mentioned difference with the "Reading and Conversation" section of the "Travelling" lesson in Berlitz's coursebooks emerges. In Eckersley's material, the headings in bold with the lexical and structural objectives draw the learners' attention (in Schmidt's 1990, 1995b terminology) to the key items of the dialogues. Effectively, consciousness-raising activities help the learner to notice a gap, i.e., a specific feature of the language in context, which will act as a first step towards its acquisition. In Rutherford's words (1987: 18), quoted in Hedge (2000: 163):

> The role of C-R [consciousness raising] ... is ... one in which data that are crucial for the learner's testing of hypotheses, and for his forming generalizations, are made available to him in somewhat controlled and principled fashion.

The ensuing exercises in the same lesson will focus the students' attention more on these elements, though not in the usual contemporary manner where textbooks explicitly demand learners to envisage the rules after comparing examples extracted from texts or sentences. In fact, Lesson XXXII or the "Comments" to Lesson XXXI represent a typical deductive grammar compilation and overt revision and consolidation of the objectives previously inductively presented and later practised. As Eckersley claims in his Preface, "each conversation is planned to *demonstrate* some point in grammar, construction, vocabulary and idiom, and all those matters are discussed in the lesson that follows the conversation" [my highlighting].

It should be pointed out, though, that in the dialogues the learners' awareness is explicitly driven towards the headings, which do not completely encompass the linguistic objectives revised Lesson XXXII or "Comments". What matches is certain terms which are identical in form but different in syntactic function (such as "suit", "cut", "dress") and several lexical items. Lesson XXXII or "Comments" incorporates the interrogative forms with "did"; short replies with "did/didn't" ("did you?"), the past tense of a number of verbs (all the others studied so far had been remembered in Lesson XXVI) and the Saxon genitive. There is also a reminder of short answers with "so" ("So did I"). Thus these aspects, though included in the dialogues, are even more remote from the typical consciousness-raising tasks in Lesson XXXII.

Therefore it may be assumed that the initial dialogue in Lesson XXXI acts as an *inductive indirect/contextualized presentation* of the objectives of the lesson, despite the explicit attention calls to some lexical elements.

Once again, we face the problem of not having explicit teaching guidelines as to the mode of delivery of this dialogue. Since there are no pictures (with the exception of two upon which I will comment later) it could be possible that the teachers themselves read the dialogue or that even certain students, taking on the different roles of the participants, read it aloud. It could even have been completely the other way around, i.e., all the students silently reading the dialogues. But within current of the teaching methodology of the time I dare say that this was the least viable possibility of all.

This latter option is the first teaching step that Larsen-Freeman (2000: 26) recorded in her observation of a Direct Method class. We should not forget, though, that my study is driven by the actual materials and not by the classroom implementation by teachers (due to the logical date of my data). Larsen-Freeman offers analytical descriptions of contemporary applications of the Grammar-Translation, the Direct and the Audio-Lingual Methods. Still, I believe her information to be a plausible alternative due to the level of the book and the length of the dialogues (five pages and a half). At any rate, if read aloud by the students, the reading skill would be developed through practice with speaking (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 26) and there are enough exercises to develop the oral skill subsequently.

I will indicate now the spotlighted features of the heading of each dialogue and illustrate them with representative extracts that contain instances of these elements. Sometimes the whole of the intervention of each character will not be supplied for

the sake of not repeating all the dialogues, a copy of which can be found in the lessons of Appendix B.4 as indicated before.

In the first exchange there only appear Frieda, Lucille and Hob, whose utterances will stress *dress, why, cut, style, bright, quite, suit, clothes, buy, expensive, same, once* (p. 176):

> FRIEDA: Did you see the *dresses* in Harridge's? [...]
> LUCILLE: [...] I didn't like any of them.
> FRIEDA: Didn't you? *Why* not?
> LUCILLE: I didn't like the *cut* or the *style* of any of them [above on the next page appears the drawing of a tailor with the sentence: *The tailor cuts the* cloth so that the student notices the difference between *cut* as a noun and *to cut*]
> FRIEDA: [...] We are *quite* different and what *suits* you doesn't *suit* me.

The second dialogue comprises the same characters and the key words are "suit", "last", "understand", "wear", "believe", "really", "true", "great". At the same time, items from the previous dialogue are also repeated, in a sort of enclosed-lesson recycling of elements [13]. Hob's irony at women's stereotypes about clothes is just one of the instances of the humour that Eckersley wanted his materials to be impregnated with:

> HOB: <u>Why</u> don't you buy good <u>clothes</u>? My *suit* [as a noun, which should desirably be noticed by the learners] *lasts* six years, not six weeks.
> LUCILLE: Oh, you don't *understand*. [...] She [a woman] can't *wear* the same old things time after time.
> HOB: Why [...]? I always think that a woman *believes* what she wants to *believe*, not what is *really true*.
> LUCILLE: [...] Have you any other *great* thoughts, Hob, to give us?
> HOB: [...] You are like the woman in the story.
>
> (p. 178).

The third dialogue consists of Hob's telling a story, an additional element to sustain the learners' interest. Again, terms from the preceding two conversations are added together with the new ones: "doctor", "air":

> HOB: [...] She went to a *doctor* because she wanted to <u>believe</u> that she was not very well. The doctor said, "You must take cold baths, go out in the fresh *air* and <u>wear</u> light <u>clothes</u>."
> [...]

---

[13] I have underlined the repeated features and included the new ones in italics.

Well, she went home and said to her husband, "The *doctor* says I must go for a holiday to the seaside, then to the mountains, and I must get a lot of new, light <u>dresses</u>."

<div align="right">(p. 179).</div>

In the last dialogue Pedro and Jan come on the scene. Similar to the three previous intercourses, reappearance of already seen words are mingled with the new ones: *just, already, quick, tailor, expensive, such, address* (p. 180):

> JAN: I want a new <u>suit</u>, Pedro; can you tell me a good tailor? You are always very well <u>dressed</u> [now it appears as a verb].
> PEDRO: I got this <u>suit</u> at Bernard Snip's in Savile Row. He's a very good man. Here's the *address* [as a noun] if you want it.
> [...]
> HOB: These are two clear fellows! They pay fifteen pounds, or seven pounds for a <u>suit</u>. I paid thirty shillings for my <u>suit</u>- and they think I'm not clever!

In the same way as Lessons III and XII, the immediate exercise following the text or dialogue is a practice (P2) pronunciation drill (pp. 180-181). The influence from the early versions of the *Direct Method*, prompted in turn by the high academicism of the Reform Movement, still held heavily in Europe. Vowels and diphthongs are once again practised with words employed in the dialogue, e.g.: [i:] bel**ie**ve; [i] **ex**pensive; [Λ] **o**nce (and here there is a footnote indicating "Pronounced [wΛns]"). The same happens with [u:] in s**ui**t ("pronounced [sju:t]" and with the diphthong [ou] in cl**o**thes ("Pronounced [klouðz] or [klouz]").

I stated at the beginning that it is possible that the teacher or even certain students read the dialogue aloud, which would imply listening on the rest of the learners' part. Together with this pronunciation drill this directs the emphasis towards oral skills, even in the case of students watching the printed text while listening to it.

Thus the stress so far has been on speech (aural skill and pronunciation).

After this pronunciation drill comes the section entitled as "Exercises". Here there is a difference regarding Lesson XII since the first one is a gap-filling activity (pp. 181-182) very much alike the one found in Lesson XIII (the grammar comments to the previous unit). It consists of twenty independent sentences with one or two gaps each one. The missing words are mostly those highlighted in the heading of the dialogues (e.g. no. 15. "A woman b_____ what she wants to b_____ not what is _____ _____). But there are also terms which do not belong to such a category,

such as example no. 4: "I like _____ colours". In this exercise it seems to be very possible that the students would be looking at the dialogue at the same time to complete the gaps. Besides, the plausible previous teacher's gestures, mimes and drawings to solve out their students' lexical doubts might have helped as well, and even those provided while performing the activity. As can be seen in no. 15, some of the gaps sparingly contain the initial letter of the omitted word. In my opinion this detail, together with the whole design of the exercise, aims at reinforcing vocabulary, in a different way as the gap-filling activity that Larsen-Freeman (2000: 31) reported for her observation of the Direct Method (this authoress recorded the occurrence of this exercise after question-and-answer and conversation tasks. Its aim was students' inductively discovering of the underlying grammar rules). This gap-filling, then, belongs to the category of very controlled P2 or Sánchez's *Step 2.1. Controlled and directed practice* since the pupils' attention is explicitly focused to the lexical objectives through the tightness of such a sentence-based cloze.

The second activity did not appear in Lesson XII. It reads as "Use each of the following words in a sentence" (p. 182). There are twenty items, exactly the same ones that needed filling in exercise one. Once again, the lack of explicit instructions as to the skill to be used demands me to guess whether the sentences would be spoken or written. From the emphasis on oral work inherited from the *Direct Method* and the Reform Movement I dare say that teachers would probably choose the speaking skill, especially after the "compulsory" reading focus of the previous gap-filling.

On the other hand, from the rigid control applied in activity one there appears a slightly less restriction here due to the personalization touch of the current exercise, where students can create a new sentence on their own. However, the linguistic centre of attention is still reduced (a discrete single item employed in a single sentence). Although I am speculating now, it could be possible that due to the previous work with the whole dialogue and the first activity itself all the sentences created would not be radically different from this overall context. That is the reason why I consider this activity to be a perfect example of controlled practice (P2) or Sánchez's *Step 2.2. "Repetition- and consolidation-based practice* due to one of the lines of the conceptualization of such a stage, but framed within the context of an elementary level: "These classes of practice require the employment of structurally similar elements to those practised in 2.1. or the activation of what has previously

been learnt". To be fair, I consider this second activity to be a borderline case since the "Consolidation of knowledge through varied types of practice (repetition, substitution, transformation or transference to parallel contexts)" (Sánchez 2004a: 181) is a bit too premature. Definitely, I do not regard the creation of single sentences for the reasons mentioned above to be illustrative of P3 or the production stage since no real creativity in longer pieces of connected discourse exists (taking into account the learners' language grade).

What I am advocating is that by repetition in different modes (one-item-gap-filling, creation of single sentences with the word in question) the aim of teaching is students' learning specific linguistic features in a non-communicative manner as we would understand it nowadays.

The third exercise (pp. 182-183) consists of answering questions related to the dialogue, i.e., what is commonly known as "comprehension questions". These also appeared in Lesson XII and share the same characteristics: they belong to Nuttall's category of "questions of literal comprehension" (1996: 188) and also to Masuhara's "Language-Based Approach" (2003). The questions are arranged in the same content order as in the dialogue, in such a way that after answering the twenty of them the complete story has been wholly reproduced (e.g. "6. What was it about the dresses that Lucille didn't like?"; "12. What was Hob's "great thought" about women?"; "20. What did Hob pay for his suit?"). The same appreciation as to the oral or written mode of delivery of the answers as in exercise two applies here. I believe that due to the stress on spoken language the responses would probably be oral, although by common sense this does not mean that teachers would forbid their students to read the dialogue if in doubt, or that even the teacher would not him/herself reread it aloud. This exercise could be regarded as one which belongs to Sánchez's *Step 2.2. Repetition- and consolidation-based practice*, especially after the two previous tasks. Oral practice (though controlled and rejecting any place for creativity) comes on the scene after previous tighter activities in students' response.

Similar to Lesson XII, the last before the final activity is a retelling exercise but in a role-play format thanks to the appearance of different characters instead of relying on a single picture to describe. The heading reads as: "With one student as the doctor, one as the woman, and another as her husband, give Hob's story". This clearly is a contrived type of roleplay which will be later found in the *Audio-Lingual Method* and its variants. Characters and content are very precisely defined and there

is no room for any inventiveness in the exercise. According to Littlewood (1981: 49-50), this type of roleplays are examples of "pre-communicative language practice" (which prepares them towards "communicative activities", where more varied and freer forms of interaction are produced in the classroom). In fact, the author establishes a continuum which links pre-communicative and communicative roleplays on the basis of the nature of the control exercised by the teacher and learner creativity:

Control	Performing memorized dialogues
	Contextualized drills
↕	Cued dialogues
	Role-playing
Creativity	Improvisation
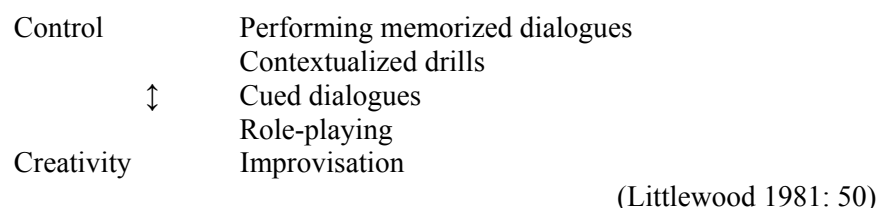
<div align="right">(Littlewood 1981: 50)</div>

Clearly, the retelling of Hob's story belongs to the first group ("Performing memorized dialogues") as no other context or cues (not to mention "Role-playing controlled through situation and goals" (Littlewood 1981: 55)) are provided for the performance of the exercise. On this occasion it could even be argued that this last "proper" speaking activity is yet more contrived than the picture-description in Lesson XII, where more content was provided for speaking practice. Thus the roleplay could be considered to be P2 or to fit in Sánchez's *Step 2.2. Repetition- and consolidation-based practice: Consolidation of knowledge through varied types of practice (repetition, substitution, transformation or transference to parallel contexts)*, especially due to the this researcher's addition of "These classes of practice require the employment of structurally similar elements to those practised in 2.1. or the activation of what has previously been learnt". This specification particularly concerns the questions and answers of the third activity ("13. What did the doctor tell the woman?; 14. What did the woman tell her husband?") as the students, though in the third person singular, had to answer exactly the same content as in the roleplay.

Equally to Lesson XII, the last activity is a dictation, which confirms the prevalence of oral skills first and writing as the last of all. This time the seven sentences are not so literal from those of the dialogue as was the case of the description of the picture in Lesson XII. I attribute this to the more advanced stage of this Lesson (number XXXI) compared to the former one examined. Of course, the

vocabulary and grammatical structures are very similar to those used in the dialogue, but the dictation directly "speaks" to the learners by employing the pronoun "you": "If you want a good suit you must go to a good tailor". […] It wears well and you always look well dressed in it". I believe that this dictation represents an example of practice (P2); and that correspondingly to the roleplay activity it belongs to the same Sánchez's category (Step 2.2.) stressing, of course, the written mode.

Finally, and similar to Lesson XII, there is no trace of a P3 activity.

6.2.3.2.b. Comparing Lessons XII and XXXI in activity typology and sequencing patterns

SEQUENCING IN LESSON XII		SEQUENCING IN LESSON XXXI	
Exercise	Ps	Exercise	Ps
Text	P1 (inductive indirect/ contextualized presentation).	Dialogue	P1 (inductive indirect/ contextualized presentation).
Pronunciation Drill	P2 (very controlled practice).	Pronunciation Drill	P2 (very controlled practice).
I. Oral practice	P2 (controlled practice)	I. Put in the word omitted	P2 (very controlled practice).
II. Answer the following questions	P2 (controlled practice) Nuttall's category of "questions of literal comprehension" (1996: 188); Masuhara's "Reading Comprehension-based Approaches" (2003: 341-343).	II. Use each of the following words in a sentence	P2 (consolidation-based practice)
III. Look at the picture on p. 67, then describe the picture as fully as you can.	P2 (controlled-consolidation-based practice)	III. Answer the following questions	P2 (consolidation-based practice) Nuttall's category of "questions of literal comprehension" (1996: 188); Masuhara's "Reading Comprehension-based Approaches" (2003: 341-343).
Dictation	P2 (consolidation-based practice in the written mode)	IV. With one student as the doctor, one as the woman, and another one as her husband, give Hob's story.	P2 (consolidation-based practice)
		Dictation	P2 (consolidation-based practice in the written mode)

Table 2. Activity typology and sequencing patterns in Eckersley's *Essential English* Lessons XII and XXXI

The typology of activities and sequencing pattern in Lessons XII and XXXI are very alike. There exist some slight differences, though. Regarding the first feature, the former unit follows an inductive presentation in the format of an aural text describing a picture in contrast to the latter lesson, where four (aural) dialogues are employed; the substitution table is absent in Lesson XXXI, which in turns offers a gap-filling and a make-a-sentence-with-each-word exercise which are not present in Lesson XII. For the rest, everything remains the same: a pronunciation drill immediately after the aural text, a question-and-answer technique, retelling/roleplay, dictation. Both units respect the tenets of the *Direct Method* and the Reform Movement: speech first (text listening and pronunciation drill) followed by more aural/oral activities (though in Lesson XXXI a gap-filling and the sentence-making tasks come after the pronunciation drill). Nevertheless, the reading implied here together with that of the question and answer exercise means that this skill is developed upon the oral ones and finally writing is exploited throughout the dictation in a repetitive mode considering the rest of the activities: it simply consists of transferring into writing what has been orally practised.

As to the sequencing pattern, the overall model is virtually the same with some changes in the number and type of practice naturally due to the higher amount of activities in the more advanced lesson. In Lesson XII I had considered the inductive presentation or P1 as correlated with Sánchez's *Step 1.1. Presentation or exposition to the learner to the new materials* (in this case, through the listening mode) and the other exercises (the pronunciation drill and the question and answer activity) were regarded as representatives of P2 or *Step 2.1 or Controlled and Directed practice* due to their constrain in students' production. The retelling exercise was labelled as a middle case between Steps 2.1. and 2.2 (P2 anyway) since it implied the repetition inherent to the latter stage, but maintained high control and ignored any transfer to parallel contexts. The dictation fell into the same category.

In Lesson XXXI, the dialogue is also viewed as inductive P1 and the pronunciation drill as very controlled practice. However, there exist a gap-filling and a make-a-sentence-with-each-word exercises (both of which are illustrative examples of controlled and directed practice) before the question-and-answer activity. This did not happen in the other lesson, and has made my categorization of the latter exercise different for the reasons explained on p. 111 (its later place in the sequencing after

the previous controlled lexical practice somehow logically demands a reconsideration of its role in the sequencing).

Since my conclusion as to the lack of the P3 stage in Lesson XXXI and its corresponding psychological reflections are identical as those of Lesson XII, I consider it not necessary to repeat them now.

6.2.3.2.c. Analysis of Lesson XXXII

The title of this lesson mirrors that of number XIII: "Comments on Lesson XXXI" and especially deals with the grammatical features of the previous unit. Similar to Lesson XIII, not all the features (but even different ones) accounted in Lesson XXXI are discussed in unit XXXII.

As was mentioned in the study of Lesson XIII, this type of "Comments" units represent the compromise policy adopted in the interwar years, where structural overt explanations were not completely banned. This is the key element that differentiates Eckersley from the pure versions of the early Reform Movement and *Direct Method* and of the later *Audio-Lingual Method,* the *Situational Language Teaching strand* and their variants. Eckersley provides his/her students with inductive, demonstrative lessons with no reference to metalinguistic terms or obvious reasoning or analytical accounts. Then, each of these lessons is followed by discussions and explanations of the aims of the previous units, in the form of reminders or of new rules to be learnt. Correspondingly to Lesson XIII, the layout of this "Comment" unit is arranged in a very tidy way.

This lesson is larger than unit XIII (six pages: 184-189), probably due to the more advanced stage of the students. It starts with a section devoted to verbs as single discrete items (pp. 184-185). Firstly, the author draws students' attention to the fact that in unit XXXI there appeared more examples of past tense of irregular verbs (p. 184), e.g: [14]

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[14] From now onwards all the italics of the examples, whether inserted in the text or separated, are included as in the original until otherwise indicated. In this particular case, not all the examples are comprised.

Present   *Past*
think   thought [1]
buy   bought [2]

[1] Pronunciation [θɔːt] [2] Pronunciation [bɔːt]

Notice the importance of pronunciation even in the grammar discussion lesson.

In the same way, the next part is devoted to more regular verbs, such *dress-dressed, believe-believed, suit-suited*, etc. On p. 185 there is a third part called "Nouns from verbs" which is ensued by this call of attention (all the examples from the original are added):

Some of these verbs, or some form of the verb, can be used as nouns, e.g.:

Verb	*Noun*
to dress	a dress
address	address
cut	cut
think	thought *(from the past tense)*
believe	belief

And then follows five pairs of examples (a verb and its matching noun) with the corresponding metalinguistic term in brackets after each sentence, for instance:

(a) A bad tailor can never *cut* a suit well (*verb*).
(b) I could see by the *cut* of his suit that it came from a good tailor's (*noun*).

This is one of the instances where Eckersley's manual can certainly be considered traditional in the sense of the Grammar-Translation Method and classical grammars (give or take some obvious differences, of course, since the examples are tried to be simulated from real life and are not pretentious at all). Not only does he provide the rule, but he also provides ready-made examples for the students to simply look at in the purest deductive analytic approach. Indeed, the time was not ripe yet when applied linguists in the late eighties and nineties would advocate the employment of consciousness-raising activities (see p. 73) and discovery learning on the psychological grounds that what is precisely discovered by the learner him/herself lasts longer in his/her long-term memory. In this case, the pupils could have had the pair of sentences without the metalinguistic terms in brackets and then the piece of explanation so that they could confirm their hypotheses. The same

observation applies to the call of attention that follows these examples: "The verb *to suit* has quite a different meaning from the noun *suit*". Curiously enough, no further explanation ensues; moreover, a similar consciousness-raising exercise in which students must have distinguished between, on the one hand, nouns and verbs and on the other, the noun and verb with a divergent meaning could have been provided as well.

The third part is called: "Interrogative of the past tense" (pp. 185-187). Contrary to the unadulterated styles of the *Audio-Lingual* method and its variants, the explicit rule appears before a substitution table (p. 186): "The interrogative of the past tense is formed with *did* and the infinitive of the verb". The substitution table is arranged in the following way:

Affirmative				*Interrogative*		
	danced					dance?
	played					play?
I	dressed			I		dress?
you	came			you		come?
he, she {	went	**Did**	{	he, she {		go?
we	saw			we		see?
they	knew			they		know?
	understood					understand?

Immediately afterwards come eighteen examples in both the affirmative and the interrogative mixing content related and non-related to the dialogue. There is even a case which reminds us of Lesson XII: "All the children bathed in the sea. Did all the children bathe in the sea?" Another instance is: "Jan thought Pedro was well dressed. Did Jan think that Pedro was well dressed? In a footnote Eckersley warns his/her learners that "well dressed" is an adjective.

Following the examples there appear three calls of attention regarding short answers using the auxiliary (p. 187): "Note the short form of the interrogative on p. 176. 'I came down Bond Street and Oxford Street'. '*Did you*?' 'I didn't like any of them.' *Didn't* you?' ". Besides this explicit, deductive noticing we also find instances of recycling in the same mode of delivery. This recycling might be regarded as the precursor of modern ones carried out by current materials, and is cleverly contrasted against the same construction but in a different tense. In my opinion, this is one of Eckersley's instances of pedagogical aptitude since he directly "speaks" to the

learner and reminds him or her of an analogous construction in a previous lesson and draws his/her attention to a similar one in the unit before the current one. The approach might be analytical, deductive but he took care for his/her students to know the *essentials* of "real" language:

> In Lesson XXI you had the construction:
> "I get up at half-past seven - *and so does* my husband".
> In Lesson XXXI you have the same construction in the past tense:
> "I walked here". "*So did I*".

"The genitive of nouns" (p. 187) constitutes the fourth section of this grammar lesson. This time it starts with the related extracts from the text followed by a simple rule:

> Did you see those dresses in Harridge's?
> [...]
> The 's is used with the name of a firm or company because the word "shop"
> in understood, i.e.
> In Harridge's (shop)
> [...]

On p. 188 the fourth part deals with an extension of meaning of "taste". Eckersley acts in the same way as with the short answer with the observation on p. 185 as the verb "to suit" and the noun "suit", where he only warns his students about the difference in meaning but does not provide them with an answer:

> Note an extension of the meaning of *taste*.
> "Your taste in clothes isn't my taste".
> Compare this with the meanings on page 172.

This represents another example of recycling with the peculiarity of those cases in which the same terms are shown with different functions and meanings (Tomlinson unpublished manuscript, p. 11). Eckersley does not spoon-feed his/her learners this time and addresses them to p. 172, where the more literal sense of "taste" (related to food) is shown.

However, in the last section the author resorts to the same device as in the construction of the interrogative form of verbs with "did" and overtly states the denotations of the adverb "quite" (perhaps due to its absence in preceding lessons):

There are two meanings for *quite*:
1. Entirely (as here).
    We are quite different and what suits you doesn't suit me.
2. Rather.
    Your work is quite good, i.e. it is not really good, but it is not bad.

This type of example can still be found in many successful contemporary grammar books such as Murphy's series of *English Grammar in Use* (for instance, *Basic Grammar in Use,* 1993). I am expressly acknowledging this because when I have observed the possibility of Eckersley giving a new perspective to some exercises by means of the consciousness-raising approach, it was not my intention to criticise him negatively. We should not forget that the first date of publication of this material was 1938. Indeed, his "Comments" lessons are another sign of his sensible didactic attitude: the layout is extremely carefully designed, with each section very well delimited from the other ones. There is no an overwhelming accumulation of disordered grammar points but only several at a time. The rules are simple and exemplified by short extracts from Eckersley's previous dialogues or texts, not from cultivated language, as well as the sentences from the exercises. The two latter aspects remind us of Ollendorff's simplified versions (1835, 1838/1841, 1848, etc.) of the pure Grammar-Translation strand. Ollendorff's textbooks, though, did not contain so many explicit clarifying notes about certain structural and lexical behaviours.

After this explanation comes the section called "Exercises". It contains five, the first, third, and fourth of which disclose a very audio-lingual flavour. Indeed, they are grammar drills and belong to what Lado (1964) categorizes as "transformation" activities. Eckersley, then, was a precursor of the *Audio-Lingual* and *Situational Language Teaching* methods of language teaching. Identical exercises will be found in *Modern Spanish* (1960), *Spanish Basic Course* (1961) and in *First Things First* (1967). Lado defines "transformation" as follows:

Transformation practice, as the name implies, takes one pattern as stimulus and transforms it into another pattern in the response.
[…]
S: The students are busy.
R: Are the students busy?
[…]

This is not a conversation even though it involves questions and answers. Nobody speaks in this order. The exercise is merely a way to practice the production of questions by supplying answers as controlling stimuli.

Lado (1964: 99)

Owing to their membership to the same class, I will deal with these activities irrespectively of the variation in the actual order of presentation in the lesson. The first exercise (p. 188) includes fifteen sentences, the third (p. 189) twelve and the fourth (p. 189) ten. I will offer the heading of each activity together with the first example to be transformed (except for the last one):

I. Put the following into the past tense:
   1. He comes to the class every day.

III. Make the following sentences interrogative:
   1. She danced from seven o'clock to midnight.

IV. Make questions to which the following could be answers (e.g., No. 1 is the answer to *Did he pay the tailor for his suit*?):
   1. He paid the tailor for his suit.
   2. Pedro wore his new suit.

The second exercise (p. 189) is very much alike to the second one in Lesson XXXI but much shorter: only five items must be used each one in a sentence: "dress" (as a noun); "address" (as a verb); "cut"; "though" and "suit". Both lexical and structural objectives of the two units are implied in this little task.

The fifth activity is quite similar to the second one:

V. Make sentences to show the two meanings of *quite* (p. 189).

As can be seen, this exercise is not contextualised within a purpose or any guideline at all. Though it is true that it offer content choice to the learner, from the eyes of contemporary applied linguists no reason for writing is offered except pure mechanical practice. This activity is a sign of the traditional Grammar – Translation method (or "Academic style" as called by Cook 2001: 201) in the sense that once the rule was explained and consciously learnt, it was assumed that it could be transformed unconscious processes of comprehension and production (Cook 2001: 41).

Contrary to Lesson XIII, there is no a dictation as a final exercise.

6.2.3.2.d. Comparing Lessons XIII and XXXII in activity typology and sequencing patterns

SEQUENCING IN LESSON XIII		SEQUENCING IN LESSON XXXII	
Exercise	**Ps**	**Exercise**	**Ps**
Study of grammar rules	P1 (explicit/direct deductive presentation)	Study of grammar rules and of lexical items	P1 (explicit/direct deductive presentation)
I. Put in the omitted possessive adjectives. Make them agree with the subject.	P2 (very controlled practice)	I. Put the following into the past tense	P2 (consolidation-based practice)
II. Write out the piece of dictation.	P2 (controlled-practice/ consolidation-based written practice)	II. Use each of the following in a sentence.	P2 (consolidation-based practice)
		III. Make the following sentences interrogative	P2 (consolidation-based practice)
		IV. Make questions to which the following could be the answers	P2 (consolidation-based practice)
		V. Make sentences to show the two meanings of *quite*	P2 (controlled practice- consolidation-based practice)

Table 3. Comparing Lessons XIII and XXXII from *Essential English* in activity typology and sequencing patterns

Let us start by the first section or grammatical descriptions. In both lessons the rule statements and lexical explanations are deductive and analytical but not dense at all. More structural points and many more examples are offered in Lesson XXXII, probably due to its more advanced phase in the coursebook. Besides, explicit calls of attention to draw the students' awareness to some aspects of other lessons which are related to the current one are also provided. Further, not only grammatical but also lexical elements are dealt with ("taste", "quite").

Despite these slight divergences, in both lessons this initial deductive presentation would correlate with Sánchez's (2004a: 181) *Step 1.2. Explicitness (a reasoned explanation or explicitness of certain characteristics which emphasize the objectives).*

As to the second part or exercises, in Lesson XIII there were only two activities. Once again, I believe that the reason for the higher number of tasks in Lesson XXXII is simply due to the higher stage of the latter unit.

Let us briefly remember the kinds of activity and the sequencing outline in Lesson XIII. Firstly, there was a grammar-completion exercise (possessive adjectives), which I considered to match *Step 2.1. or Controlled and directed practice* in Sánchez's model as it was a very discrete-item structural and tight practice exercise (P2). Then we found a very repetitive dictation which was regarded as a middle case between Sánchez's Steps 2.1 and 2.2: repetition existed, but the transfer to parallel contexts was absent, with the anecdotal exception of the change of persons in the use of pronouns. The sequence, then, was P1-P2 (in quite a high degree of control).

In Lesson XXXII, the three transformation exercises (absent in the other unit) are in my opinion clear examples of Sánchez's *Step 2.2. Repetition- and consolidation-based practice.* It its true that no previous Step 2.1 had existed but the strategy implied in the performance of the activity (transformation) which follows the deductive explanation may be regarded as "consolidation of knowledge". Besides, not all steps need to be present, though it must be acknowledged that transformation here does not imply "transference to parallel contexts".

The second and fifth exercises consisted in making isolated disconnected sentences with different words (equally missing in Lesson XIII). In the second one, all of them except for "though" had already been employed in the same type of task in Lesson XXXI. This detail, together with the previous explicit information, leads us to judge this activity as belonging to Step 2.2. In effect, there is activation -even if basic- of what had been learnt and practised before (i.e., recycling comes to the fore).

The same appreciation applies to the fifth activity. It involved the making of sentences with "quite", the explanation of which had been stated just the page before (188). After the initial deductive presentation, there comes a "production" exercise where the items are practised in some "personalized" way. However, there does not exist any reason for establishing such an exercise except for a focus on form, i.e., it is conceived so that students show their understanding of the meanings of "quite" (remember Cook's (2001: 41) observations about the Academic style on p. 120). Therefore this fifth exercise could be argued to be classified as a blending between Step 2.1. (highly controlled activity) and Step 2.2. (consolidation of knowledge). In

effect, the item "quite" is practised for the first time though a little bit of creativity on the part of students and, consequently, a certain degree of consolidation are both required in the elaboration of the sentences.

Finally, the sixth activity, a brief lexical completion one, could be perfectly considered as belonging to Step 2.1., since it is a tightly controlled exercise as the students' attention is explicitly attracted to certain vocabulary items of the lesson which had not been practised in the previous unit. This activity was present in Lesson XIII but was longer and dealt with structural elements.

Thus the picture that emerges regarding the sequencing of Lesson XXXII is the following one: P1-P2. These P2 has a more varied degree of control: four cases of Step 2.2. (activities one, two, three, four) and one middle case of steps 2.1. and 2.2. (task five). Difficult as it may be to quantify the degree of control, the results definitely indicate lesser restraint than in Lesson XIII, with Step 2.2. on the top with four exercises out of the five. This should not come as a surprise since I have analysed the lesson number seven out of the overall twelve that this second part of the book is composed of.

Similar to Lesson XIII, there is no P3 or production. In this case it would have seemed more logical to me to include an activity(ies) of this category due to the more advanced phase of this Lesson and the texts of the dialogues, which definitely do not correlate with a complete beginner.

Correspondingly to Lesson XIII, identical remarks as to the psychological stages in sequencing apply here.

From the analysis above and all the other ones, I believe that it has become very clear that sometimes it is an extremely difficult task to draw a clear-cut line between Steps 2.1. and 2.2. in the activities involved due to the following factors: their place in the sequencing (see pp. 98 and 111 for the specific exercise of answering comprehension questions in Lessons XII and XXXI respectively); prior or non prior explanation (the presence of which affected the consideration of the sequencing role of the three transformation type of drills in activities I, III and IV as well as that of the elaboration of sentences with specific words in activity II); the nature of the activity itself (remember the fifth exercise about making a sentence with each previously described sense of "quite").

6.2.3.3. *Eckersley's analysis concluding remarks*

Owing to the date of publication of Eckersley's work (1938), after my analyses of the previous five lessons I believe that evidence has been provided about the following facts: Stern's (1983: 457) statement about the existence of a "compromise approach" in Britain and Howatt's (2004: 237) assertion of Eckersley's link with Palmer. The former teacher at the Regent Polytechnic School was in a period of transition, a "compromise approach" as it was called in Britain. This phenomenon is observed in Eckersley's manual in the sense of the adoption of the stress on spoken language (which was reflected in his normal lessons); of translation banning (with which from his material it could be assumed that he complied) and of explicit grammatical explanation (which he covered in the "comment lessons"). Indeed, Eckersley's coursebook represents a mixture of three didactic traditions: a) Reform Movement and *Direct Method* (the inductive presentation by spoken narratives / dialogues / texts and emphasis on oral skills plus pronunciation with later attention to reading and writing last); b) Grammar-Translation Method, with deductive explanations (after the inductive introductions) and sentence-formation exercises, with the assumption about explanation and unconscious ability for reproduction pointed out by Cook (2001: 201) (see pp. 120 and 122); c) Palmer's [15] substitution tables and his influence on underlying-psychological-habit-formation exercises such as transpositions, the predecessors of *Audiolingualism* and *Situational Language Teaching* structural exercises. In fact, I believe that the following quotation by Stern (1983: 459) splendidly summarizes my argument (before perusing it, the reader is reminded about the date of publication of Eckersley's and Stern's works -1938 and 1983 respectively-):

> The use of a text as a basis of language learning, demonstrations of pictures and objects, the emphasis on question and answer spoken narratives, dictation, imitation, and a host of new types of grammatical exercises have resulted from the direct method. Language pedagogy in the present century, for example, Palmer in the twenties and the audiolingual and audiovisual methods in the fifties and sixties, adopted many of the techniques first developed by direct method teachers.

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[15] According to Howatt (2004: 231), Palmer is a representative figure of the Direct Method. The reason for including him in the last pedagogical influence as differentiated from the first one (Reform Movement and Direct Method itself) has to do with his use of the substitution tables (typical of his "Oral Method") and his inspiration from the habit-formation theory, the precursor of the very closely emergent Audiolingualism as will be seen in section 6.3.1.

After performing my analyses I also feel prepared to understand and complement Howatt's and Quinault's claims as to Eckersley's success. Perhaps his greatest pedagogical achievement comes from this amalgamation of these traditions exemplified in his wise combination of inductive and deductive (the "Grammar Comments") lessons. Certainly, he catered for the needs of his learners, grown-up refugees. On the one hand, the basic motivational component is present in the inductive lessons with the charming pictures and specially the dialogues in the second part of the book ("Conversations in Mr. Priestley's Study"). I myself was touched by their tenderness, and even learned about (past) English culture! On the other hand, the "cognitive maturity" of adult students ("the ability to engage in problem-solving, deduction, and complex memory tasks" as defined by Lightbown and Spada (1999: 171)) is also taken into account. There is an enormous bulk of exercises in the actual introductory lessons and of course in their grammatical comments ones together with their explicit analytical explanations. The latter's positive features were already indicated on p. 102 in the analysis of Lesson XIII and on pp. 115 and 119 for that of Lesson XXXII: ordered layout, simple metalanguage and not agglomeration of rules, etc., alongside overt calls of attention to specific features referring to previous lessons and connected to the current ones, recycling of terms…

However, it should also be highlighted that most of the exercises could be considered as rather uncreative. The Communicative Approach revolution from the eighties with its emphasis on negotiation of meaning, real-life interaction, etc., was still far away. What was being moulded at the time was North-American Fries' *Oral Approach* (structural patterns) which would later develop into the *Audio-Lingual Method*; besides, British Palmer's *Oral Method* was also emerging, which would in turn give way to the *Situational Language Teaching Method* (Howatt 2004: 243-244). Eckersley's exercises were simply anticipating what was going to be the usual norm in thirty years at least. His activities are repetitive in strategy of performance and typology throughout all the lessons; many times there is no reason for retelling a story that all the classmates already know and consequently is converted into a memory exercise. The same remark applies to writing, where no purpose is offered but simple mechanical practice in repetitive dictation or creation of non-contextualized sentences.

Nevertheless, even this fault from our contemporary eyes can become a gain. Beyond doubt, Eckersley's great amount of exercises in addition to the large quantity of texts and dialogues provides the second fundamental condition for second language learning besides motivation: input. What lacks here is comprehensible output or P3 (the production stage), and that is the reason why this author's materials, though more flawless than Ollendorff's and Gouin's in catering for motivation needs, need completion in my opinion.

6.3. Alexander, L. G. 1967a. *First Things First*

6.3.1. Historical background of *First Things First*

As was indicated at the end of section 6.1.1., the *Direct Method* was disregarded in American and European public education from the end of the first quarter of the twentieth century onwards. However, both in the old continent and in the United States its influence was lasting, especially in its "compromise" variety (Stern 1983: 457). In Europe it would be underlying Palmer's *Oral Method*, which was in turn the foundation stone of Hornby's *Situational Language Teaching* (SLT for short), a response to the American structuralism work. This would draw on certain procedures from the *Direct Method* as manifested in the *Army Method* from the Second World War period and which would later result in *Audiolingualism*. An illustration of the impact from the *Direct Method* into later didactic developments is neatly encapsulated by Stern (1983: 459):

> The use of a text as a basis of language learning, demonstrations of pictures and objects, the emphasis on question and answer, spoken narratives, dictation, imitation, and a host of new types of grammatical exercises have resulted from the direct method. Language pedagogy in the present century, for example, Palmer in the twenties and the audiolingual and audiovisual methods in the fifties and sixties, adopted many of the techniques first developed by direct method teachers.

Audiolingualism is considered to be "probably the most visible of all language teaching "revolutions" in the modern era" (Brown 2000: 45) to the extent that in the literature it sometimes overshadows its then-current teaching companions trends. In fact, in many of the most essential contemporary scholarly theoretical books about

foreign language learning and methodology, no mention is made of the Situational LT whatsoever but only the label *Audiolingualism* is described as an umbrella term which encompasses all the *structural* methods (Audiolingualism itself, the British SLT and the French Structuro-Global strand). Such is the case of Stern (1983), Brown (2000) and Cook (2001), to name but a few.

Due to its overwhelming importance, an account of *Audiolingualism* will be interwoven with that of *Situational Language Teaching* for a better understanding of the latter. Neither of them can be properly understood without a knowledge of both, as the development of the British version of structural teaching (a concept to be explained later) runs parallel in history with that of the American style.

Following the chronology of the pertinent events, I will firstly start by offering an account of Palmer's *Oral Method*. This will be linked to the creation of the American Fries' *Oral Approach*, which will in turn provide the connection with the *Army Method* and its celebrated derivation, *Audiolingualism*. Once the latter is sufficiently depicted, we will turn our attention to *Situational Language Teaching* for a deeper perception of both its tenets, its coincidences and dissimilarities with the Audio-Lingual Method.

6.3.1.1. *Palmer's* Oral Method

Harold Palmer was the genuine founder of the *Oral Method*. From the 1920s onwards, and as a result of the failure of the *Direct Method*, this applied linguist embarked himself into the task of merging a scientific-based approach to the strategies from the most famous of the natural methods with the rigorous principles from the Reform Movement. The outcome was a systematic study of tenets and procedures that could be implemented in the selection, arrangement and presentation (techniques for introduction and practice of the items) of the content of a language course. This work was reflected in Palmer's *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Languages* (1917) and *The Oral Method of Teaching Languages* (1921).

The following account of such a systematic study is largely rooted in Richards and Rodgers (2001: 36-38), unless otherwise indicated.

The above-mentioned content was divided into vocabulary and grammar. Regarding the former, there was a scholarly agreement at the time about the great importance of lexis in language mastery, above all in reading proficiency. This was a

consequence, among others, of the American *Coleman Report* (1929), which argued for developing this receptive skill viewing the inefficiency of the *Direct Method*.

As observed in section 6.2.1., Michael West (1888-1973) had also come to the same conclusion. Hence the collaboration between himself and Palmer together with Faucett, the fruits of which would be the *Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection* (1936) and West's *The General Service List of English Words* (1953). These works personify the first attempts to establish principles of syllabus design in language teaching.

Such rationally-based efforts were also contemplated in the collection and presentation of grammar. Palmer's related crucial notion of "sentence patterns" has already been pointed out in the examination of the "verb 'to have' " part in lesson seven of Berlitz's method. In effect, this author was persuaded about the importance of word order in English, which inspired him to the creation of his famous concept. He analysed English and classified its predominant grammatical structures into sentence patterns, which absolutely clashed with the text-based approach advocated by Sweet as it symbolized the discredited nineteenth-century unit of teaching. In fact, the *sentence pattern* necessarily derived from Palmer's initial *Direct Method* teaching, although he would later return to the principle of the Reform Movement and design units whose core was a text around which turned all the activities (Howatt 2004: 271, 273).

As remarked in the same alluded *Direct Method* fragment, Palmer conceived the substitution tables (not his own discovery, though) in order to help the students internalize the rules of English sentence structure:

I have some	new black grey white smart warm	shoes clothes socks stockings gloves hats	in my house in my cupboard in my drawer in my room

This example is taken from Broughton's 1968 *Success with English,* another classic of the *Situational Language Teaching* style. It is quoted in Cook (2001: 226), who equally cites other recent samples (Nunan's 1995 *Atlas 1* and Richards' 1998 *Changes*) to show the successive influence of the sentence patterns and their didactic strategy. By way of the latter, the speaker replaces new words or phrases to create

new sentences. The student's attention is removed from the mechanics of the pattern thanks to a gradual intensification of complexity of the substitutions and their placements. According to Lado (1988: 19), this would lead to the foundation of *pattern practice.*

Lado explicitly distinguishes *pattern practice* from *mimicry-memorization*, both of which were core notions of *Audiolingualism.* Lado explains that the second one concentrates on the sentences themselves by simple repetition and imitation (mimicry) and memorization. Hence the encompassing term "mim-mem" (Sánchez 1997: 157). It should be pointed out that some authors (such as Howatt 2004: 304) trace the origins of "mim-mem" in the American linguistic and anthropological research of indigenous languages and classify it as the forerunner of *pattern practice.*

The psychological learning tactic applied in the substitution tables was habit-formation, the nucleus of Palmer's methodological principle. As Howatt (2004: 273) reports, his connected attachment could possibly be owing to the influence of either William James's *Principles of Psychology* (1890) or the American Bloomfield's early work *An Introduction to the Study of Language* (1914). Not in vain, Leonard Bloomfield (1887-1949) would become a key figure in the configuration of the emergent science of Applied Linguistics as well as an essential influence in the Audio-Lingual Method.

From the above portrayal of Palmer's *Oral Method* the differences with the Direct one are transparent. Both stressed the importance of speech, but the former included a much more careful and orderly approach to the collection, gradation and practice techniques of lexis and structures.

6.3.1.2. *Fries'* Oral Approach. *The* Army Method

On the other side of the Atlantic Ocean, further language teaching developments were taking place, especially after the entry of the United States into World War II. The oral command of allies' and enemies' mother tongues was crucial, and the government commissioned American universities to arrange programs for military personnel. Thus the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP), colloquially known as the "Army Method", became established in 1942. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001: 50), fifty-five American universities were involved in the program by the beginning of 1943.

The *Army Method* adopted as a set text Bloomfield's 1942 *An Outline Guide for the Practical Study of Foreign Languages* (Howatt 2004: 303). The driving force behind this work was the record of the indigenous American languages in danger of extinction. It involved an "informant method" or native-speaker in such languages who would provide phrases and vocabulary to be imitated and repeated in *drill practice*.

A great deal of oral activity (pronunciation-, pattern-, and conversation practice) was the main ingredient of such research transposed to the *Army Method*, with hardly any of the grammar, translation and reading lessons found in traditional classes (Brown 2000: 45). Accordingly, the before-cast *Direct Method* came on the scene again in the sense that the sentence as the unit of teaching and not isolated words was used, as well as the dialogue format with pronunciation exercises. With long daily hours of instruction and highly motivated students such as the Army ones arranged in small classes the method turned out into a big success.

Together with Bloomfield, Charles Fries (1887-1967) provided the cornerstone for the founding of Applied Linguistics as a recognized discipline (Howatt 2004: 302). In 1939, Fries created of the English Language Institute (ELI) at the University of Michigan. For Fries, the structure of the language was correlated with its chief sentence patterns and grammatical structures, which were taught by means of *pattern practice.* Similar to Bloomfield, Fries advocated a structural theory of language whereby language is viewed a system of structurally related elements for the encoding of meaning. Such elements are phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentence types, whose mastering of the linguistic rules by which they are governed and combined results in language proficiency.

Fries was interested in applying the results of such descriptive linguistics (pioneered by Edward Sapir (1884-1939), among others) to language teaching materials. Thus he developed his *Oral Approach*, variously called as *Aural-Oral* or *Structural Approach* (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 51). According to the same authors (2001: 53), the related main principles were the primacy of oral skills (listening, speaking and pronunciation first) followed by reading and writing (very similar to the naturalistic tradition); the fact of identifying language with speech and its teaching through structure; and the tenet "Practice makes perfect", which would become an essential idiosyncratic motto of the *Audio-Lingual Method*.

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The procedure for the elaboration of materials consisted of two steps. Firstly, the determination of language structures from simple to complex was ascertained. Ollendorff had already been a rudimentary precursor who trusted his own intuition for this task; now there was a conscientious scientific base. Secondly, those structures would be combined with the most frequently used vocabulary, arranged in frequency lists (Sánchez 1997: 155). Fries reproduced his Oral Approach in two major works: *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language* (1945) and *The Structure of English, An Introduction to the Construction of English Sentences* (1952). So far the resemblances in his system irremediably echo the modus operandi in Palmer's *Oral Method.*

Current researchers do not seem to quite agree with the relationship between Fries and the *Army Method*. Whereas Richards and Rodgers (2001: 51) allege that the latter drew Fries' attention, Howatt (2004: 303) argues that even if both methodologies were alike, the Michigan professor was not directly associated with the ASTP. The same author (2004: 305) asserts that Fries added an extra procedure to the *Army Method*: the "contrastive analysis". It consisted in comparing the structures of the L1 against those of the foreign language so as to identify the divergences which would presumably pinpoint learning obstacles: "The most effective materials are those that are based upon a scientific description of the language to be learned, carefully compared with a parallel description of the native language of the learner" (Fries 1945: 9, cited in Lado 1988: 21). This quotation is an illustration of the reasons behind Howatt's (2004: 306) statement about Fries' greatest achievement not having been the production of a teaching method but the configuration of a new approach to pedagogical grammar.

6.3.1.3. The Audio-Lingual Method (ALM)

The origins of the *Audio-Lingual Method* (or ALM for short) are rooted in an expansion of Fries' *Oral Approach* and the *Army Method* due to two key historical/extralinguistic reasons. In the first place, United States was emerging as the most powerful nation worldwide and therefore attracted a large number of students who wanted to learn English and study in its universities. Most importantly, though, is the Cold War period that followed World War II.

In 1957 Russia launched the first satellite into space (Sputnik). This was the definite boost for North Americans to feel that there was a need for radical changing developments in foreign language teaching methodology to prevent them from becoming isolated from the major scientific advances initiated in other countries (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 53). Therefore the "National Defence Education Act" (1958) was issued in order to fund language teaching specialists so that they could study foreign languages more deeply, devise enhanced materials and thus provide a better teacher training.

For this purpose these experts relied on the theory of language supplied by Bloomfield's structural and Fries' descriptive and contrastive linguistics as reported above and on the then-aural-oral procedures from the Michigan *Oral Approach*. The new aspect was the incorporation of behaviourist psychological learning theory represented in the figures of Osgood and particularly Skinner (1904-1990).

Behaviourism is a core principle in *Audiolingualism* as it will directly shape the type of activities and their implementation in the class on the teacher's part. After his experiments with rats in the laboratory, posterior to those of Paulov with dogs, Skinner came to the conclusion that habit formation is the result of the repetition of acts. This psychologist transferred his insight from general human behaviour to specifically language learning. His account was reflected in a work with an extremely significant title: *Verbal Behaviour* (1957). Indeed, language was considered to be verbal behaviour, the automatic comprehension and production of utterances. Three crucial elements were at stake in this process:

> A *stimulus*, which serves to elicit the behaviour; a *response* triggered by a stimulus; and *reinforcement*, which serves to mark the response as being appropriate (or inappropriate) and encourages the repetition (or suppression) of the response in the future.
>
> (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 56. Italics in the original).

Thus language mastery was represented as attaining a set of appropriate language stimulus-response chains. Reinforcement is crucial in the learning process since, as its very name implies, it reinforces the possibility that the behaviour will occur again and eventually become a habit. Good habits are formed by giving correct responses rather than mistakes, which are not tolerated but immediately corrected for the sake of perfect accuracy.

In order to achieve *automatization*, Bloomfield (1942: 12) had already included the concept of "overlearning". If a student wants to command the foreign language structures, s/he will have to

> get them by heart, and then PRACTICE THEM OVER AND OVER AGAIN, DAY AFTER DAY, until they become entirely natural and familiar. LANGUAGE LEARNING IS OVERLEARNING; ANYTHING ELSE IS OF NO USE
>
> (Bloomfield 1942: 12. Highlighting in the original).

Hence the teaching strategy of repetition, which becomes the most distinctive feature of the ALM exercises (Sánchez 1997: 158), upon which I will comment next. As explained above, this practice was known as mimicry-memorization, or *"mim-mem"* for short.

Though without such a rational base, in the nineteenth century Gouin had already perceived the usefulness of repetition in acquiring foreign languages; the only difference was the content of such a recurrent tactic: a sequence of actions instead of utterances within an interaction. That is the reason why Gouin exerted so much influence on the *Direct Method*, which equally made use of frequent reiteration of sentences, as seen in my analysis in the question-and-answer technique.

The term "Audio-Lingual Method" was coined by Professor Nelson Brooks in 1964, specifically in his work *Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice*: "the basic principle is that the A-L band of language is the central one and can operate without assistance from the eye" (p. 17, quoted in Lado (1988: 22)). This was a major departure from the Grammar-Translation Method, where the written language was the axis of lesson planning and problem-solving the underlying view of linguistic learning.

Consequently, the skills emphasized in the ALM are the oral ones: listening and speaking. Pronunciation is basic as well. It is not surprising that the laboratory appeared in the United States classrooms shortly after the Second World War and that it became a fundamental didactic tool to help students in their pronunciation and aural exercises.

The prefaces of *Modern Spanish* and *Spanish Basic Course,* two classic landmarks in this strand, clearly state the pre-eminence of speech in their introductions (pp. xiii and 0. 3 respectively):

I. The course should concentrate at the beginning on the learner's hearing and speaking of Spanish, *whatever his objective.*

(Modern Spanish, 1960. Italics in the original).

The materials in this book have been developed to present Spanish as a spoken language, and the skills of understanding and speaking are accordingly emphasized.

(*Spanish Basic Course*, 1961).

Certainly, the influence from Gouin can also be remarked here. The Frenchman had already postulated the order of skills as Listening-Speaking-Reading and Writing (Kelly 1969: 215). In the ALM the last two were to be taught only after prior and solid spoken practice, thus evoking the attitude in the *Direct Method*. The latter's effect of its monolingual principle may be unmistakably appreciated too: contrastive analysis was considered a means, not an end, to aid teachers in their professional task. Oral proficiency was equated with accurate pronunciation and grammar and the ability to quickly and precisely answer in speech situations (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 58). This aspect will be extremely important in the unmasking of the sequencing patterns as will be observed in the analysis of Alexander's unit.

The essential oral work was undertaken by means of the following characteristic activities (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 59). In the first place appear the dialogues, which provide the means for contextualizing key structures. They also illustrate situations in which the structures might be used, and are employed for repetition and memorization.

The text should make extensive use of *realistic dialogs,* which should also be recorded – in an acceptable standard for the Americans. (The Working Committee went further, trying to give the dialogs-and the readings also- *mature content*, interesting to learners of college age. It was decided that the student should *memorize all of these dialogs*, to make them immediately useful for conversational practice. Memorization has always been an indispensable part of language learning; but this book, instead of requiring the student to memorize vocabulary lists or verb paradigms or grammar rules, asks him to memorize full utterances in contextual relationships with each other – sentences one might actually want to speak someday outside the classroom).

(*Modern Spanish*, 1960. Introduction, p. xiii. Italics in the original)

The basic dialogs are the core of each unit. These dialogs are recreations of the real situation a student is most likely to encounter, and the vocabulary and sentences are those he is most likely to need.
[…]
The student should learn the basic dialogs by heart.

(*Spanish Basic Course*, 1961. Introduction, pp. 0.5 and 0.6).

Happy acceptance of the "realistic" attribute attached to these dialogues would be rare nowadays. They were carried out with tape recordings in language laboratories. Without being actual conversations, they practised the verbal exchanges of ordinary spoken intercourse in the refined format of stimulus and response:

José, pregúntele al chófer que cuánto le debe.	José: ¿Cuánto le debo?
Chófer, contéstele que son seis pesos.	Chófer: Son seis pesos.
José, pregúntele si tiene cambio para diez.	José: ¿Tiene cambio para diez?
Chófer, contéstele que no, que no tiene.	Chófer: No, señor, no tengo.
Juan, dígale que Ud. tiene sólo cheques viajeros.	Juan: Yo sólo tengo cheques viajeros.
José, dígale al chófer que tome los diez, que cuatro de propina.	José: Tome los diez, cuatro de propina.
Chófer, contéstele que un millón de gracias.	Chófer: Un millón de gracias.

(*Spanish Basic Course*, unit 8, pp. 36-37)

Once a dialogue has been presented and memorized, specific grammatical patterns are chosen and become the centre around which turn various kinds of drills and pattern practice. It is here when the most influential force of behaviourism comes to the fore. As defined in the analysis of lesson seven of Berlitz's coursebook (see pp. 49-50), drills contain two parts: a cue or call-word (stimulus) supplied by the teacher and a response by the students based on repetition, substitution, or transformation. Brooks (1964: 156-161) lists many more types of drills such as "inflection", "replacement", "restatement", "completion", "transposition", "expansion", "contraction", "integration", "rejoinder" and "restoration".

Spanish Basic Course constitutes a perfect representation of this approach. In its introduction (pp. 0.5 and 0.6), we learn that,

Patterns of the structure of the language which have been learned in the basic sentences are expanded and manipulated in the drills.
[…]
These drills are mainly exercises making substitutions, responses, and translations, highlighting the grammar points covered. They are devised for oral answers to oral stimuli.

Accordingly, grammar will be essentially learned in an inductive way (another effect from the *Direct Method*), aided by contrastive analysis:

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3. Grammar should be presented inductively, with summary statements given after the drill. (The Working Committee therefore produced explanations of grammar that are both accurate and unambiguous, written in a style understandable to the student. It also produced grammar drills that give enough practice in the basic patterns of Spanish to enable the student to learn to use and respond to these patterns *automatically*. All exercise and drill materials are based on a comparison of the structures of English and Spanish).

(*Modern Spanish*, 1960. Introduction, p. xiii. Italics in the original)

All the above-depicted didactic procedures and their underlying theories of language and learning would be reduced into William Moulton's famous *five slogans* (1961), which summarised the tenets of the ALM (quoted in Rivers 1964: 5):

1. Language is speech, not writing.
2. A language is a set of habits.
3. Teach the language, not about the language.
4. A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say.
5. Languages are different [hence the importance of contrastive analysis].

Besides, the ALM strongly stressed the importance of the cultural context awareness in order to learn the foreign language system:

In order to liberate the student from his single-culture limitations, Spanish and Spanish-American cultural values and patterns of behaviour should form a significant part of the content of the linguistic material from the beginning –and at every stage.

(*Modern Spanish*, 1960. Introduction, p. xiii)

In the same year that Brooks furnished the name of this method, a milestone book in *Audiolingualism* was published by Lado: *Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach*. I have already extensively quoted from it in the analysis of both the *Direct Method* and Eckersley's units regarding the kinds of drills (e.g. "completion", "transformation", "oral repetition"), of which Lado offered a wide repertoire. That is the reason why I will now omit an exemplification of this phenomenon, which will be illustrated in the examination of teaching unit 36 in *First Things First.*

The title of Lado's 1964 work beautifully conveys the scholarly spirit at the time. It was really thought that language teaching had been transformed from an art into a science (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 53), thanks to the careful selection of content with the contrastive analysis factor and classes of activities underpinned by

at-the-time reputable psychological learning theory. As Brown (2000: 75) states, the ALM was firmly rooted in respectable theoretical perspectives at the time. Materials were carefully prepared, tested, and disseminated to educational institutions.

However, this euphoria was not to last long. Criticisms were targeted at the psychological, theoretical-linguistic and pedagogical levels. Since virtually the same ones affect the *Situational Language Teaching Method*, I will offer a detailed description of these negative judgements.

Among the former, Noam Chomsky (1928-) attacked the ALM on the basis that behaviourism could not account for a model of human language learning (1966). According to him, a great deal of human behaviour is not imitated behaviour but is produced afresh from underlying knowledge of abstract rules or "competence". Carroll (1966, quoted in Richards and Rodgers 2001: 66) advised "a major revision" in the out-dated psychological foundation of the ALM, calling attention to a shift towards cognitive code learning. This would imply a transfer from habit-formation activities to meaningful learning ones so that students could draw on their creative abilities in their process of language mastering. The source of this insight came from the observation that revealed that students were able to produce sentences accurately in the classroom but could not use them appropriately when communicating in real life. Besides being enormously important for the ensuing theoretical psychological learning changes that took place, this last aspect will be crucial for my analysis of the sequencing patterns in Alexander's unit and will enable me to establish connections with Berlitz's and Eckersley's materials together with implications in contemporary manuals.

The disapproval at the second level is intimately linked with the first one. As Larsen-Freeman (2000: 121) and Richards and Rodgers (2001: 66) remark, applied linguists started to realize that pattern drills and memorization could lead to language behaviour but not to competence; what is more, the ALM believed that being able to communicate was simply a matter of controlling linguistic structures (Cook 2001: 210). From the 1970s onwards, specialists relied on the notion of "communicative competence" (Hymes 1972), which involves knowing *when* and *how* to say what *to whom*. Pragmatics and acts of speech came on the scene in the pioneering work of Austin (*How to Do Things with Words*, 1962). In other words, communication demanded learners to carry out certain functions as well within a social context, e.g. promising, accepting invitations (Wilkins 1976). From these observations, foreign

language learning and teaching research experimented a departure from a linguistic-structured approach to a Notional-founded one which would later develop into the Communicative Approach during the late 1970s and early 1980s (Widdowson 1978; Littlewood 1981; Johnson 1982; Yalden 1983). To be more accurate, the Communicative Approach initially derived from the SLT, as will be seen in the latter's section.

Finally, but not least, appear the pedagogical or practical criticisms, once again closely connected with the psychological weaknesses portrayed above. The following quotation by Rivers (1964: 139) nicely reflects the discontent of the period:

> Unremitting and intensive drill is seen to be much less desirable as a way of learning foreign languages. Instead of increasing learning, in the hands of all but the most adept teachers, it can cause boredom by sheer quantity of reinforced acts.

Pattern drills led not only to boredom but also to inefficiency in the long run. Indeed, as recently pointed out, the fact of being able to produce error-free sentences in the classroom by no means involves a transfer of those to genuine communication, which was empirically proved (Stern 1983: 465). No wonder frustration emerged among students.

Nevertheless, it would not be fair to solely keep the shortcomings from the ALM. As Lado (1988: 22) states,

> Never in the history of foreign language teaching in the United States had there been greater interest in actually mastering a spoken foreign language than at the peak of the A-L movement, and never had there been so many students who achieved useful levels of proficiency. The Chomsky attack on descriptive linguistics and behaviouristic psychology – which produced a broadening of the analysis of language and human learning – should not obscure the achievements of the A-L movement.

Despite the questionable means to achieve such proficiency and its real degree or nature, authors freely indicate the highlights of the ALM. Stern (1983: 465) is quite prolix. He specifies that this method was based on one of the first theories that recommended the adaptation of language teaching on solid linguistic and psychological tenets. Besides, it developed simple techniques that comprised varied, graded and intensive practice of language elements, typically without translation (though this was not always the case as in *Modern Spanish* and *Spanish Basic Course*, where the dialogue in the mother tongue together with Spanish was

supplied and translation drills were included). Further, the ALM managed to broaden language learning and encompass large groups of ordinary learners who were not necessarily academically-gifted (a quality observed by Cook (2001: 208) as well). On the other hand, the ALM stressed syntactical progression, while previous methods had tended to be preoccupied with vocabulary (the major objective of the *Direct Method*) and morphology (one of the main concerns of the Grammar-Translation Method, whose unit of teaching was an isolated word or phrase, normally the noun).

Likewise, the ALM explicitly separated the language skills into a pedagogical device, the precursor of which had been Marcel (as seen in section 6.1.1.). Cook (2001: 209) additionally remarks that even if the goal of allowing for communication is not fulfilled, the ALM may still have educational value via its goals of increasing cross-cultural understanding.

The reflection that becomes clear after analysing contemporary foreign language teaching textbooks is that the shade of the ALM still recurs. As mentioned in section 4.2. Positive Qualities of the P-P-P model", it provides a useful and clear framework for teachers and learners. Both feel comfortable in an environment where the modes of action in the classroom are already known, as admitted by Cook (2001: 210) and indirectly by Brown (2000: 75). Hence the great number of current adaptations and varieties of the ALM, the success of which is accurately reasoned by Cook (2001: 210):

> Though ostensibly it is out of fashion, the influence of audiolingualism is still pervasive. Though few teachers nowadays employ a 'pure' audiolingual style, many of the ingredients are nevertheless common in today's classrooms: the use of short dialogues, the emphasis on spoken language, the value attached to practice, the emphasis on the students themselves speaking, the division into four skills, the importance of vocabulary control, the step-by-step progression.

6.3.1.4. *Situational Language Teaching Method (SLT)*

The *Situational Language Teaching Method* is considered to be the British version of the American ALM. Both were to be called "structural language teaching" and certainly share many similarities. Howatt (2004: 305) indicates the importance of the early stages of learning, their adoption of sentence patterns (structures) as the

basis for course design, and their emphasis on practice as essential for fixing the foreign-language speech habits. Richards and Rodgers (2001: 67) specify the order in which the skills are introduced (listening-speaking-reading-writing), and the focus on accuracy through repetition of drills and practice in the basic structures and sentence patterns of the target language. These authors explicitly state that *Situational Language Teaching* is not so overtly dependent on behaviourism, although it is identified as the one underlying this method in their section "Theory of learning". As will be illustrated with extracts from the teachers' notes in *First Things First,* behaviourism is truly present in the British strand.

Further, both didactic models employ the sentence as the unit of teaching, as neatly expressed by Alexander (1967a: xi): "And the unit of a language is not, as was commonly supposed, the word, but the sentence".

Nonetheless, there existed theoretical and technical divergences. Despite the efforts that Palmer had made on sentence patterns, it was still far from the precision of the Americans', and in fact the latter's contrastive analysis procedure was "the prime difference" between one method and the other (Howatt 2004: 305). On the other hand, the ELT profession in United Kingdom believed that much of Fries' early work, specially his 1945 *Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language,* remarkably echoed Palmer's *Oral Method*, not to mention Fries' label for his contribution: *Oral Approach* (Howatt 2004: 243).

At any rate, and due to the ALM high quality of the work on sentence patterns, in 1950 the British applied linguist A. S. Hornby (1898-1978) decided to search for a solution that could eliminate this teaching flaw of the old continent in a series of articles called "The Situational Approach in Language Teaching". Another term to refer to this emergent trend was "Structural Situational Approach", but following Richards and Rodgers (2001) and Sánchez (1997) this method will be called from here onwards "Situational Language Teaching".

Hornby's version was further more pedagogical than the American one, which did not have anything like "situations" (Howatt 2004: 305). This concept is vital as it would become the idiosyncratic feature "par excellence" of the British tradition. Its applied linguists were not over-willing to simply accept the new tendencies from overseas, say the contrastive analysis technique (Sánchez 1997: 167). Thus the American structuralism characterized in the figures of Bloomfield and Fries was replaced by the British approach represented by such a notorious researcher as J. R.

Firth (1890-1960) and his former student M. A. K. Halliday (1925-). Their work had been preceded by that of an anthropologist, Bronislaw Malinowski (1884-1942), who created the concept of "context of situation", according to which the meaning of an utterance cannot be separated from the cultural and situational context in which it takes place. For Firth (whose first studies date from the early 1930s) meaning, context and situations were irremediably attached to the structure of language as well. Conversely to the American structuralist views on language, language was conceived as a purposeful activity related to goals and situations in the real world, which is clearly expressed by an advocate of this perspective: "The language which a person originates … is always expressed for a purpose" (Frisby 1957: 16; quoted in Richards and Rodgers 2001: 40). It should be remembered that, even without a scientific base, this judgement was not revolutionary at all. St. Augustine (who lived between the fourth and fifth centuries) had already mentioned its truthfulness in his 389 work called *De Magistro* (quoted in Kelly 1969: 10):

> We do not learn from words as mere words, that is as sound and noise. Those which are not signs cannot be words. If I hear a word I do not know whether it is a word or not until I know what it means. Once we establish its link with things, we come to know its meaning.

The notion of *situation*, though, has not always been unique and inalterable. The first sense as adopted by Hornby is that of a classroom-based one, which does not readily correspond to its current meaning. For chronological ordering reasons, I will firstly offer a detailed account of the initial meaning which will likewise encompass a description of Hornby's methodology.

In the 1950s this specialist used it to refer to the *ad hoc* contexts teachers invent in order to teach new grammar or vocabulary items (Howatt 2004: 249). This denotation would dominate ELT for the next decade. As Pitmann (responsible for the Situational Language Teaching in Australia) declares,

> Our method will … be situational. The situation will be controlled carefully to teach the new language material … in such a way that there can be no doubt in the learner's mind of the meaning of what he hears".
> (Pitmann 1963: 155-156. Quoted in Richards and Rodgers 2001: 42).

By "situation" Pitmann means the use of concrete objects, pictures, and realia, aided by actions and gestures. In fact, Hornby himself thought that the best way of demonstrating the meaning of certain patterns such as those that involved the present continuous and the present perfect was to insert them in simple situations and then have them acted out in the classroom by the teacher and, if feasible, by the learners themselves (Howatt 2004: 298). As the new patterns should be perceived as clearly as possible, Hornby adapted Gouin's idea of the series to organize them into sequences in such a way that after a number of units there would be a simple "story line" which included all the elements that had previously been taught alone. Hornby proposed that teachers would simultaneously deliver utterances and mime the action depicted (following Howatt 2004: 298). Accordingly, "I am walking to the door" would be spoken while on the move towards the door; "I am opening the door" would be pronounced while the act is on progress, etc. Such a sequence would be repeated with different objects and actions in the classroom.

For that reason teacher-produced materials are extremely important. Richards and Rodgers (2001: 45) refer to them as a kit or collection of realia by which new structures and vocabulary are presented and practised. The same authors offer the following example that illustrates the introduction of "This is …" and "That is…". By means of the teacher holding a pencil closely to him/her and by subsequently drawing a large pencil on the blackboard and moving away, he/she would correspondingly utter "This is a pencil"; "That is a pencil".

Indeed, as Howatt (2004: 298) states, teaching meaning through actions was not an innovation. From Gouin it had been adopted by Sauveur and the *Direct Method*; what is more, from the latter's and the Reform Movement's influence miming landed in Eckersley's materials. Certainly, Hornby's technique closely resembles the first part of lesson 3 in *Essential English* as was described on pp. 91-92.

However, Hornby's peculiar manner of tackling the insertion of patterns together into sentences had two ground-breaking consequences. In the first place, more systematization for the procedure was gained in the classroom. Secondly, Hornby's related approach allowed for the creation of a syllabus of structures that could be used to enhance the design of coursebooks, especially the elementary level ones (Howatt 2004: 298).

A structural syllabus with a word list became an essential characteristic ingredient of the *Situational Language Teaching Method* with both the first and second senses of "situation". These two elements are the content taught in this method. A structural syllabus is a list which is based on a selection of the grammatical items and structures which occur in a language and the arrangement of them into an order appropriate for teaching (*Longman Dictionary of Applied Linguistics* 1992: 358).

Following Richards and Rodgers (2001: 42), in the particular case of this method, "structures are always taught within sentences, and vocabulary is chosen according to how well it enables sentence patterns to be taught". Grammar and lexis, then, are the contents to be taught, and their ordering criterion is very similar to that of the ALM. On the word of Sánchez (1997: 158), the distribution of structures in each lesson will be based on the principle of progression from simplicity to complexity, and frequency of use or frequency lists will be drawn upon to include the vocabulary in line with Palmer's tradition of careful structural grading together with this author's plus West's practice of vocabulary control.

An example of such a type of syllabus is provided by Frisby (1957: 134, quoted in Richards and Rodgers 2001: 42):

TYPICAL STRUCTURAL SYLLABUS WITHIN STL:

	Sentence pattern	Vocabulary
1st lesson	This is… That is…	book, pencil, ruler, desk
2nd lesson	These are… Those are…	chair, picture, door, window
3rd lesson	Is this…? Yes it is. Is that…? Yes it is.	watch, box, pen, blackboard

This syllabus structure unavoidably mirrors that of Berlitz's 1931 book in the "Preparatory" or "Object teaching" lessons as depicted in the analysis of lesson seven and in section 6.1.2.

Of course, Hornby was conscious about the fact that not all the structures could be taught in this way so he suggested the employment of picture-sequences to replace those situations unavailable in the classroom. It should be instantly noticed by the readers that these techniques of picture or object-teaching are also far from new.

Natural methodologists starting from Comenius to Pestalozzi and the *Direct Method* itself already used drawings to deduce meaning, and even the Reform Movement had followed the psychological theory of associationism to justify its employment of such procedures to prevent an indiscriminate use of translation. According to Sánchez (1997: 168), this feature is another intrinsic characteristic of the *Situational Language Teaching* that differentiates it from the ALM: the application of strategies from previous methods. The innovation from the British approach and from Hornby in particular is their sequential arrangement, which would ultimately result in the drawing-sequences of the later Situational Language Teaching as represented in courses such as Alexander's and *Español en Directo* (Sánchez et al, 1974). The latter is the first manual that was produced in Spain and which was aimed at learners of Spanish as a Foreign Language in accordance with the SLT principles.

Despite all the above-mentioned techniques, Howatt (2004: 298) admits that in the end the teacher had to rely on imagined situations introduced in specially constructed texts. Though not so directly concerned with the methodology of situation, this was a phenomenon that had already taken place in the readings of the "Elementary Reading and Conversation lessons" of Berlitz's 1931 coursebook as well as in Eckersley's manual, where the situation, linguistically represented by dialogues, was enacted by a meeting of students in their teacher's house.

After having been presented with either mime, gestures, pictures or realia, structures and vocabulary were practised by means of guided repetition and substitution activities, including chorus repetition, dictation, drills; through controlled oral-based reading and writing tasks. Occasionally pair practice and group work were also comprised (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 53).

According to Howatt (2004: 298), Hornby's configuration of this new approach resulted in a great addition of systematization to work already done by, for instance, Palmer in publications like *English Through Actions* and by Faucett in his pre-war *Oxford English Course* (1933-1934). Hornby equally wrote an ELT coursebook: *Oxford Progressive English Course for Adult Learners* (1954-1956), which captured all his methodological reflections. This manual was referred to by the shortname "the Hornby course" and was the main rival of Eckersley's *Essential English*, as mentioned in section 6.2.1. The "Hornby course" mingled the Palmer tradition of the *Oral Method* with the older Sweet's principle of the connected text in a very similar way to *Essential English*: after a few pure *Direct Method* lessons

(object-teaching units), the new patterns and vocabulary were encompassed in a series of disconnected texts followed by grammatical explanations, in line with the Reform Movement's inductive approach to grammar (Howatt 1984: 262).

From all the previous information, I believe that the fact that the *situational* approach is typically British (despite having been born as an alternative to the American ALM) has become clear. The two most important distinctive attributes of the former were the presentation in class of new structures and vocabulary in simple situations that would help to clearly foreground their meanings and the thoughtful gradation of such linguistic items (Howatt 2004: 244). With such a meticulously-designed background and the 1960s influence of the concept of "language in situations" in its more extended second sense (upon which I will comment subsequently), seven principles are presented by Howatt (2004: 299) to summarise the "standard model" for the next twenty years or so. These principles are self-explanatory and will be definitely found in *First Things First:*

> The seven principles of ELT (1950-1970):
> 1. All four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) should be taught but the spoken skills should be given priority.
> 2. Learning the spoken language meant acquiring a set of appropriate speech habits.
> 3. Courses of instruction should be built round a graded syllabus of structural patterns to ensure systematic step-by-step progress.
> 4. Vocabulary should be carefully selected and presented along with the new grammatical patterns in specially written connected texts.
> 5. Grammar should be taught inductively through the presentation and practice of new patterns in specially designed classroom situations with visual and/or textual support.
> 6. Wherever possible meaning should be taught through ostensive procedures and/or linguistic context.
> 7. Error should be avoided through adequate practice and rehearsal.

Except for number five and six (related to the emphasis of structure contextualization through pictorial procedures, etc.), all of these principles are identical to those underlying the ALM. To them we could also add Larsen-Freeman's (2000: 44) assertion that the main objective of language teaching should be for students to attain the structural patterns; vocabulary comes as a subsidiary aim.

Although applied to the ALM, I believe that this appreciation does not clash at all with the SLT, especially after having revised the Teachers' notes from *First Things First*. No overt mention is comprised about the didactics of lexicon. Grammar receives all the attention. For example, there is a whole section headed as "The

teaching of grammar" where Alexander makes a distinction between *progressive* and *static* categories of patterns. The former are mastered over time from simple to complex structures such as "Yes, it is" and "Yes, I should, shouldn't I" respectively. Conversely, "static" patterns are learned in a limited number of lessons, like the comparative degree of adjectives (Alexander 1967a: xiii-xiv).

Truly, though, what Alexander does include in relation to vocabulary following Palmer's, Hornby's and ultimately West's tradition is an indication about the "Vocabulary range" (Alexander 1967a: xviii). He advocates that the latter should be small and driven by high-frequency patterns, and adds that "Most of the words used are derived from the General Service List of English Words, compiled and edited by Dr. Michael West". The initial version of this list, elaborated by Palmer, Faucett and West (the *Interim Report on Vocabulary Selection* in 1936) was equally employed by Eckersley for the inclusion of lexis in his *Essential English* series, as was outlined in section 6.2.1. While the former teacher at the Regent Polytechnic School comprised 451 content words (the total amount being 650 including structural items), Alexander (1967a: xviii) states that "The total number of content words (excluding structural words and colloquial expressions) is not more than 700".

I will exemplify the reflection of these principles in *First Things First* in the account of its structure (6.3.3.).

Once the first sense of situation has been thoroughly depicted, now comes the turn of the second one (much closer to that found in Alexander's material) especially after the listing of the standard seven guidelines.

In his always extensive historical background to methods, Howatt (2004: 316) points out three reasons for the development of language teaching starting from the 1960s. Firstly, the application of modern technology such as "visual aids" and the tape recorder; secondly, a positive stance of governments, including the British one, towards enhancing this subject; and thirdly, a renewed belief in the value of research to undertake this change.

This time the almost concurrent predecessor of the British trend was the French Structuro-Global Method. Effectively, the United Kingdom's withdrawal from empire in the early 1960s and its ensuing approach to the Common Market (as it was then called), provided the ground for an interest in the learning of foreign languages, particularly French. The British and remaining European demand for mastering this language resulted in the French Structuro-Global Method, which came on the scene

in the form of two coursebooks designed to teach French to students overseas: *Voix et Images de France* (1961) for adults and *Bonjour Line* (1963) for children. As Sánchez (1997: 174-175) and Howatt (2004: 317) report, these works were the result of a government-funded research which was aimed at unveiling the *français fondamental* (fundamental French) by way of measuring how strongly people associated particular words with the situations in they were presumably occur, i.e. the situations themselves led to the structures and lexis used, such as a visit to the circus, an excursion to the countryside, etc. An organization called CREDIF (*Centre de Recherche et d'Étude pour la diffusion du Français*) was founded to devise a new method that included all the linguistic items obtained from such a corpus by means of authentic situations. These were more or less taken from real life and were not invented to illustrate meanings.

The Structuro-Global Method's general rigid procedure for the introduction and practice of structures was the following one. Firstly, learners would listen to a story depicted in an orderly sequence of pictures arranged in the format of comic or film strips projected onto a screen. As Kelly (1969: 23) remarks, this comic-strip-based technique was related to Gouin's *cycle* or *action chains* in their ordered distribution. The textual configuration of this story would be a dialogue played on a tape recorder along with the pictures. These were supposed to contextualize the new language in the dialogue together with the French that had been learnt. The interaction would be repeated several times and memorized by frequent replays or laboratory practice, always without seeing the text. Of course, patterns would be included in the dialogues and would become the focus of drill practice after global understanding of the situational dialogue is guaranteed. Structural work would take place in the form of questions and answers about the text, diverse and intricate drill types, etc., all of which was difficult to implement on the teachers' part due to complicated series of transitions between the exercises. Similar to the ALM and the British SLT, written work is delayed and built upon oral knowledge.

Howatt (2004: 316) observes that both the French Structuro-Global Method and Hornby's approach coincide in the concept that the meaning of an utterance was derived (in part at last) from the situational context in which it occurred. However, "the French version of 'a situation' was more of a 'social encounter' than a classroom event on the lines of Hornby's 'situations' ".

The Structuro-Global Method was seriously taken into account by the British applied linguistics circles. Broughton's *Success with English* (1968); *Situational English* (1965), *Access to English* (1975) were some of the ensuing products. According to Sánchez (1997: 166), the most representative version of the SLT in English was L. G. Alexander's widely-used beginners' course *First Things First,* the first of the four-volume *New Concept English* series. It constituted a modified adaptation of the French technology. Instead of projecting pictures, the book itself contained these with dialogues besides them on the first half of the units, the structures being practised in the second half. The Structuro-Global Method was not victorious in the long-term due to its dogmatic character of application and the exaggerating demands from the teachers who put it into practice (Sánchez 1992: 396). Indeed, the simplification carried out by Alexander in his work definitely contributed to its long-lasting success, above all because of its little requirements for the teacher. Alexander (1967a: xvi) clearly states that the "well co-ordinated and graded material […] will enable him [the teacher] to conduct each lesson with a minimum of preparation". In all, the *New Concept English* series were

> a skilful adaptation of the 'seven principles' in which most of the familiar features (structural grading, vocabulary control, drills, etc.) were retained, but their presentation was modernized through the picture stories which accompanied the dialogue texts and the illustrated drills and exercises.
> (Howatt 2004: 319)

Naturally, real-life situations were resorted to, such as that of teaching unit 71 which depicts the scene of a little girl with her mother on a train amazed at about why and what the lady opposite her was doing (making herself up).

The influence of the SLT has been immense in ELT methodology and in other languages methodologies as well, including Spanish. Sánchez et al's *Español en Directo* (1974) was the first structurally-based course applied to the teaching of Spanish as a Foreign Language (Sánchez 1997: 168).

The SLT has been overwhelmingly present in textbooks throughout the 1980s and beyond, and even nowadays authors materials continue to write courses based on SLT principles. Besides, the didactic sequencing model proposed by the SLT was transposed to teacher training courses such as the RSA/Cambridge Certificate in TEFL during the 1980s and early 1990s (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 47). This sequencing arrangement is identified as the so famous P-P-P configuration, i.e.,

Presentation (introduction of the new item in context through dialogues); Practice (controlled practice of the item) and Production (a freer phase which includes transference to parallel situations). As indicated in section 4.1., Sánchez (1993, 2001, 2004a) labelled it as the "school-model" with the following extended phases: presentation (inexplicit and explicit)-practice (controlled and consolidation-aimed) and production (transference).

It should be pointed out that the same P-P-P model is found in the ALM. In Europe, though, its adaptation by the SLT was more enduring thanks to the pedagogical appeal of the grammar contextualization in a situation as provided in a dialogue. Such has been the impact of this sequencing pattern in both learners' and teacher training levels that Cook (2001: 227) identifies its long-lasting permanency with the mainstream EFL style of teaching, which "represents perhaps the bulk of EFL teaching of the past 30 years, if not longer".

However, the practising profession and applied linguistic research did not go hand by hand in the case of the ALM and the SLT. The updated British Situational Language Teaching represented by courses such as Alexander's eventually became the target of scholarly criticism, which led to the development of the Communicative Approach. In the same way as the linguistic theory underlying Audiolingualism was rejected in the United States in the mid 1960s, British applied linguists began to call into question the theoretical assumptions underlying the SLT (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 153) at two levels mainly: linguistic and psychological.

Regarding the former, situations and its grammar drills were not felt to provide communicative competence, similar to the less-contextualized items in the ALM. Mastering of linguistic structures, even if framed within a situation, was not enough as pragmatics had to be catered for too and students needed to know how to perform the same functions in different social contexts attending to different roles of themselves and their interlocutors.

Identical attacks on behaviourism as in the ALM were launched. Most important were the new concerns that emerged with the Communicative Approach about the value of involving the learner in using the language in his/her learning process (Howatt 2004: 317).

The original "pattern practice" view of language teaching was challenged as it merely demanded practising the structures in meaningful-based activities (Richards and Rodgers 2001: 153). I believe that these authors refer to "meaningful" in the

sense of being supported by the background of a situation, since pattern practice did not actually require students to produce or communicate language in the way that communication was started to be conceived: as an interactive process where a speaker has something to say to a listener. This circumstance involves an information gap so that a genuine need to say something is paramount, all of which is shaped by the socio-cultural context in question. Indeed, the Communicative Language Teaching Approach stressed the interactive processes of communication. This emphasis would result in a new range of activities mostly based on the problem-solving approach and which would ultimately derive into tasks or Task-based language teaching, the precursor of which was Prabhu's celebrated "Bangalore Project" (1979), where he implemented a procedural rather than a linguistic syllabus (Howatt 2004: 348).

The above appreciation of the notion of *communication* is crucial since cautions about the real idea of the "Production" phase when analysing materials need to be taken. The fact that many researchers locate the P-P-P model in the SLT does not imply that a real P3 from contemporary eyes will be present. Obviously, this aspect immediately and dramatically affects my examination of the activity distribution and in turn, its psychological considerations. We have already seen in the *Direct Method*'s and Eckersley's materials that genuine communication (or, at least, the most authentic-like communication that can be achieved in an artificial environment such as the classroom) has been inexistent. The same conclusion will be attained in the analysis of Alexander's unit as will be subsequently indicated.

At any rate, despite the research advances in linguistic theory and pedagogy, the principles of the SLT (strong emphasis on oral practice, grammar and sentence patterns) parallel the perceptions about language teaching by many practising professionals, as Richards and Rodgers (2001: 43) acknowledge. Certainly, grammatical or structural-based syllabus continue to be in vogue in the national curriculum for English as a Second or Foreign Language, even if this is not necessarily admitted. Cook (2001: 216) goes further in asserting that many of the audio-lingual preoccupations related to active practice and spoken language (which can be transposed to the SLT) are shared by the Communicative Language Teaching Approach and by those textbooks and schools where it is implemented. The main differences with the ALM and SLT are the following ones: firstly, the absence of a previous phase in which the students are learning dialogues and drills in a highly

controlled fashion before performing a roleplay, an activity typical of both the ALM and the Communicative Language Teaching Approach; secondly, the latter's stress on production and comprehension. On top of this, Cook equally affirms that behaviourism often underlies the modern language teaching strand.

6.3.2. *First Things First* commonalities with the Seven Principles of ELT methodology (1950-1970)

Contrary to Berlitz's and Eckersley's cases, where certain links with their latent methodology had been included while describing the structure of the two books, I have decided to explicitly comprise a separate section that illustrates the underlying standard seven principles of the SLT in *First Things First* before accounting for its structure. This is due to the extensive teachers' notes (entitled as "Learning a Foreign Language in the Classroom") contained in Alexander's textbook and which amount to fifteen pages. Effectively, the book I am working with is the Teachers' guide. This does not affect the content of the unit to be analysed at all for the reasons that will be mentioned in section 6.3.3. Besides, I also consider the relevant extracts to be extremely revealing and self-explanatory of the methodology and the activity typology that will be subsequently analysed to uncover the sequencing pattern.

The first of the seven principles was the following one:

1. All four language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) should be taught but the spoken skills should be given priority.

Alexander (1967a: xii) conforms with this tenet in various places of the teachers' notes:

What has to be learnt: The student must be trained adequately in all four basic skills: understanding, speaking, reading and writing. […] The following order of presentation must be taken as axiomatic:
Nothing should be spoken before it has been heard.
Nothing should be read before it has been spoken.
Nothing should be written before it has been read.

Further, once the all the-then-current learning theories have been outlined, Alexander repeats in the basic aims of his textbook (specifically the second one): "To

train the students in all four skills: *understanding, speaking, reading* and *writing –* that order" (1967a: xvi. Italics in the original).

To definitely demonstrate the primacy of oral work, in his explanation of the procedure to carry out the activities in the classroom Alexander (1967a: xviii) recommends that dictation should be taught from Teaching Unit 17 onwards. Moreover, this appreciation does not solely affect the beginners' course, but can equally be observed in the author's permission for the intermediate-level student to work with printed instructions (Alexander 1967a: xv) with the ensuing consequence of the teachers' book being less necessary.

Principle 2 reveals the behaviourist psychological learning theory typical of both the ALM and SLT, as well as principle 7:

> 2. Learning the spoken language meant acquiring a set of appropriate speech habits.
> 7. Error should be avoided through adequate practice and rehearsal.

In several parts of the teachers' notes references are made to behaviourism. Regarding the latter tenet, Alexander (1967a: xii) carefully warns about the student being trained to learn by making as few mistakes as possible. As to the former principle, the author clearly affirms that "If the student is to make the most of his abilities, he must be trained to adopt correct learning habits right from the start" (Alexander 1967a: xii).

On the other hand, in the previously-mentioned distinction between "static" and "progressive" patterns on p. 146, Alexander (1967a: xiv) informs about "static" ones needed to be practised by means of drills which make use of language-laboratory techniques. The behaviouristic terms "stimulus" and "response" are overtly employed. The teacher will provide the student with

> a stimulus to elicit the new pattern in a series of oral drills until the student is able to respond accurately and automatically. Each new pattern is not presented as the exemplification of some abstract grammar-rule, but as a way of saying something and no further explanation or elucidation is necessary. The student is trained to use correct forms automatically, rather than by applying "grammar logic".
>
> (Alexander 1967a: xiv)

Notice the difference with the ALM as illustrated in both *Modern Spanish* and *Spanish Basic Course*, where a succinct grammar summary appeared after the drilling

of patterns. This peculiarity will directly have some bearing on the teaching of grammar as will be depicted in principle 5.

The third principle unambiguously evokes Palmer's and Fries' (earlier) work on grading patterns:

> 3. Courses of instruction should be built round a graded syllabus of structural patterns to ensure systematic step-by-step progress.

This tenet is thoroughly discussed by Alexander. The first related note is very interesting:

> He [the student] should never be required to do anything which is beyond his capacity. A well-designed course is one which takes into account what might be called the student's 'state of readiness': the point where he can proceed from easy to difficult.
>
> (Alexander 1967a: xii)

Though far from current positions towards the "learners' readiness" (see section 4.3.), this statement hints at a fundamental fact in second language learning that has crucial consequences in language teaching. Alexander was evidently aware of this fact, as his explanation of "Present-day techniques and classroom" shows. He distinguishes among "Structural Grading", "Contextualization", "Situational Teaching" and "Structurally Controlled Situational Teaching". The author relates all of them with principle 3.

I will now concentrate on the first one, where sentence patterns are graded in order of increasing difficulty and complexity. Alexander (1967a: xii) contended that,

> In a carefully graded course, the student learns to use a few patterns at a time. Ideally, these patterns should be interrelated and should be presented in a carefully ordered sequence. [...] In a structurally graded course, the student acquires a little information at a time and learns to make meaningful statements. He therefore learns to use relatively simple structural words like personal pronouns over a long period, instead of being given a large, indigestible dose of information at any one time.

This option constitutes a valuable advantage compared with "Situational Teaching". In the latter the language is presented with a series of everyday situations, which take precedence over the structures as they have "a thematic significance rather than a structural one" (Alexander 1967a: xiii), thus structural grading being very limited here. This procedure underlies that carried out by the French specialists in

their search for the most common words as associated with daily-life situations for the later development of the Structuro-Global Method.

Finally, "Structurally Controlled Situational Teaching" teaches "language by means of a series of everyday situations, while at the same time grading the structures which are presented" (Alexander 1967a: xiii). For this author it appears to be the most suitable option, since although the situations are often "unconvincing and barely possible" as they are a mere pretext to introduce structures, "Structurally Controlled Situational Teaching" does exercise linguistic control and yet presents new information in an interesting way. This alternative of teaching is closely linked with principles 5 and 6.

Howatt's (2004: 299) fourth tenet concerns vocabulary:

> 4. Vocabulary should be carefully selected and presented along with the new grammatical patterns in specially written connected texts.

The first part of selection has already been discussed in the Vocabulary Range comment from section 6.3.1. (Michael West's *General Service Word List*). As for the presentation of lexis in written connected texts, it will be handled in the immediate examination of principles 5 and 6. These are the following ones:

> 5. Grammar should be taught inductively through the presentation and practice of new patterns in specially designed classroom situations with visual and/or textual support.
> 6. Wherever possible meaning should be taught through ostensive procedures and/or linguistic context.

The concept of *situation* is vital here. It reminds us of Hornby's one; the situations in Alexander's manual, though equally introduced by the textbook as the "Hornby's course" allow for more variety, especially due to the addition of more elaborated pictorial and, above all, aural aids through the tape recorders.

This situational precept underpins the "Contextualization" technique alluded to before. It consists of presenting grammatical items in a meaningful context. Alexander (1967a: xiii) specifies that,

> When a student has practised a new pattern orally, he should encounter it, if possible, in an actual text so that he can see how it has been used. Obviously, such texts have to be specially written by the course designer. New items are introduced into a natural context: they are 'contextualized'.

This contextualization takes place in written texts that depict real-life situations (another story is their linguistic content). Although Alexander only mentions grammar, it could be assumed that the same rule applies to the introduction of vocabulary.

The above is intimately linked with the inductive approach to language learning advocated in the SLT. In this sense the methodology behind the SLT is closer to that of the *Direct Method* than to that of the ALM. As Richards and Rodgers (2001: 41) state,

> the learner is expected to deduce the meaning of a particular structure or vocabulary item from the situation in which it is presented. Extending structures and vocabulary to new situations takes place by generalization. The learner is expected to apply the language learned in a classroom to situations outside the classroom. This is how child language learning is believed to take place, and the same processes thought to occur in second and foreign language learning, according to practitioners of Situational Language Teaching.

The immediate pedagogical consequence is the complete suppression of explicit metalinguistic explanation, as opposed to the American version of structuralism, where succinct grammar summaries (always located after the drilling practice) were allowed to appear, as was shown with the introductory notes from *Modern Spanish* and *Spanish Basic Course*. At any rate, the ALM learning strategies of analogy and discrimination can equally be appreciated in Alexander's manual in relation to the insertion and understanding of unknown structures. As Alexander (1967a: xiv) asserts, "where explanation is necessary, it can be done by relating a new pattern to one that has already been learnt". This is straightforwardly connected with the employment of audio-visual aids and to the attitude towards translation in *First Things First*. The fact of advocating analogy or discrimination between patterns involves the monolingual stance in this case. In such an approach, drawings and realia are necessarily drawn upon. Alexander (1967a: xiv) acknowledges the difficulty of solely relying on pictures, "for many of the statements that are made in everyday speech are not visually presentable". Accordingly, at the beginners' level the teacher has two solving options. The first one to resort to is gesture and mime. Failing this, translation comes to the fore, "providing that he [the teacher] translates lexical items and not patterns" (Alexander 1967a: xv). Hence the importance of the analogy technique. In any event, with his position, the author of *First Things First*

showed a more relaxed praxis inherited by Palmer (Kelly 1969: 26, 54) and other Direct Methodists, such as for example Passy:

> As any hint of exaggeration must be avoided, I must add that it would not be good to reject, absolutely and systematically, all recourse to the mother tongue. In exceptional circumstances it could happen that one might be in too much of a hurry to use gestures and explanations in the foreign language.
>
> Passy (1899) 848: 16. (Quoted in Kelly (1969: 25-26)).

6.3.3. Structure of *First Things First*

Before starting with this section, I would firstly like to note the following remarks. In the first place, the reader is addressed to Appendix C.1. where a copy of the contents has been included. It will be appreciated that these are considerably longer than those of Berlitz's and Eckersley's coursebooks. That is the reason why when exemplifying relevant aspects I will solely illustrate them with certain selected examples and not in so much detail as with the other two materials.

Secondly, I will deal with structure across units, since the internal configuration of each one of them is homogenous throughout the whole book, and will be thus examined in the analysis of teaching unit 36.

Once these observations are clear, I will then proceed with the portrayal of this section.

As stated in section 6.3.1., this is the first of the four-volume *New Concept English.* The "new concept" introduced by Alexander is explained in the blurb of the manual:

> a multi-purpose text which is used as a basis for aural comprehension, oral practice, reading, oral composition, dictation, controlled comprehension, précis and composition practice, and written grammar exercises in recall.

Except for précis and composition practice, all the other elements will be present in *First Things First* as will be seen in the examination of teaching unit 36. The remaining three courses are *Practice and Progress,* 1967b (for pre-intermediate students); *Developing Skills,* 1967c (aimed at intermediate levels) and *Fluency in English,* 1967d (addressed to advanced learners). Alexander (1967a: xxv) states that "in these books, the student continues with the oral work begun in this course and is also taught to write English in a systematic way".

There exist seventy-two teaching units in *First Things First*. Each of these units corresponds to two lessons from the Student's Book, so the overall number of the latter amounts to 144. All students' lessons consist of two pages which will always appear together in the same orientation, i.e., from left to right. There will never be the case in which the first page appears on the right-hand side and the following one continues after turning the page. The first page introduces a dialogue or text accompanied by pictures, and the second page comprises a set of structural exercises. Appendix C.2. includes the full text of students' lessons 71 and 72.

The teaching unit in the teachers' guide is identical but longer in pages (4) due to the detailed explicitness of the procedure to be followed with the different activities and their content in the two lessons. Such a procedure will be described in the analysis of teaching unit 36 (section 6.3.4.).

Each of the didactic units is accompanied by the linguistic contents that are its focus. They are found again at the beginning of the page subsequent to that of the dialogue in the teachers' book. For example, the subject of teaching unit 36 is:

What's (he/she) like?
He (telephoned) four times
yesterday/yesterday morning/
the day before yesterday/last
night, etc.
Did you/he/she/ etc.?
Yes, (I) did. No (I) did
not/didn't.

A simple glance at the contents or organization of the units is enough to deduce that the syllabus is structural, contrary to the *Direct Method*'s where vocabulary was explicitly included in the contents. In Eckersley's case, the number of the lessons was simply listed in the contents, but as we saw with the study of lesson XXXI, vocabulary items headed each fragment of the dialogue. This does not mean that lexis is not covered in Alexander's courses. In fact, in the teachers' guide, the section called "Content and Basic Aims" that appears on the page next to the dialogue-one recurrently comprises a chart. Its first column is "Patterns and Structural Words" (the text included in the contents) and the second one is "Vocabulary", divided into adjectives, adverbs and verbs. The fact that only structures come on the scene in the book introduction simply means that it abides by

Larsen-Freeman's already-mentioned statement about the main objective of the ALM being the acquisition of structures and the subsidiary one of vocabulary.

From the contents it can equally be appreciated that there is a conscientious structurally-graded approach to the organization of the syllabus. Despite their evident lack of scientific basis, Ollendorff's materials had already included such a characteristic as indicated in section 6.1.1.3. Ollendorff was indeed the first language textbook writer to use a graded syllabus seriously. He introduced new points one-by-one, unlike most of its contemporary Grammar-Translation Method manuals (Howatt 2004: 162). Identical care to present unknown items in a simple and non-overcrowded manner is observed in Alexander's *First Things First,* besides the following two other pedagogic characteristics.

Most of the times the grammatical items or structures introduced in one unit are retaken in the following one with a certain diverging characteristic. For instance, in teaching unit 34 there exists the constructions "Yes, I/he/she was"; "No, I/he/she wasn't". In teaching unit 35 the same structure with different persons is supplied: "Yes, we/they were"; "No, we/they weren't". The same phenomenon is appreciated in other instances such as in the early teaching unit 11, where the demonstrative determiners in singular are presented: "This/that one/ (book)"; "Not this/that one/(book)". The plural forms are supplied in unit 12 ("These/those ones/(glasses); Not these/those ones/(glasses)"). Later in the coursebook teaching unit 68 provides the structure "He told me (that) … he would/could/might" which had been preceded by "He told me (that)… he was going to/he felt/he had finished" in the immediate prior unit.

Recycling of features is equally appreciated. For example, teaching unit 13 inserts the "there existential" structure in singular ("There is a (bottle) in/on the (refrigerator/table)"). The plural form is presented in the following chapter, together with place prepositions ("in", "on", "near"). In teaching unit 21 the same construction appears in the interrogative form with countable nouns and with non-determined articles for uncountable ones as well : "Is there (a tie) in/on …?; Is there (any milk) in/on…?; There's (a tie) /one in/on…; "There's (a piece of cheese) in/on…". Similarly, the time is revised in teaching unit 48 after having been introduced in number 33. As a final illustration, relative pronouns as subject and object depicting both people and things ("who", "whom"; "which", "that") are recycled instantly after teaching unit 61.

The same structural organization will form the base of the single test (with its corresponding keys) in the whole book that comes after teaching unit 36. It consists of seven structurally-founded exercises that give 100 points in total. Except for the last task the remaining ones count ten points. The first activity is a very short dictation in Eckersley's line (short and contrived utterances): "Miss Grey works in an office. She is a typist", etc.

The second exercise is an example of Lado's (1964: 96) "simple substitution drills": "The model sentence is presented orally and repeated by the class until production is satisfactory". The instructions read as:

II. Look at this.

I am tired.	*He is tired*.

Write these sentences again. Begin each sentence with *He.*
1. I must call the doctor. *He* [stimulus]

The students will have to respond "He must call the doctor".

The third activity belongs to Lado's (1964: 98) category of "Substitutions that must be changed". The sentences to work upon contain the same linguistic focus as Lado's definition: "If the model sentence requires the plural and the substitutions are given in singular, the substitutions themselves are changed to agree with the context".

III. Look at this:

There is a pencil on the desk.
There are some pencils on the desk.

Write these again. Begin each sentence with *There are…*

1. *There is a watch* [stimulus] *on the table.*

The seventh exercise constitutes another illustration of the same class of drill. This time adjustments to the verb form according to the person must be made:

VII. Look at this:

Take ….   He is *taking* his book.

Do these in the same way:
1. Make …   She is … the bed.

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The fourth, fifth and sixth exercises had already been seen in both Berlitz's manual (particularly in the second activity of the first appendix) and in Eckersley's lessons XIII and XXXII. They are samples of Lado's (1964: 101) completion activities, i.e., isolated sentences with one-slot gap filling. The fourth one deals with indefinite determiners ("a", "some", "any" and thus practises countable and uncountable verbs); the other two focus on prepositions.

It had been pointed out in the other two author's materials analysis that Alexander greatly disliked this kind of exercise. However, he acknowledges its value not as "a means of teaching new patterns, but as a means of consolidating what has been learnt" (Alexander 1967a: xiv). Hence its inclusion in tests for both diagnostic and achievement purposes.

Finally, the eighth activity represents the transformation drill already defined in Eckersley's lesson XXXII; it was equally used in lessons III and XIII (see pp. 93 and 119):

VIII. Look at this:

	He is sitting in an armchair. [stimulus/cue]
QUESTION:	Is he sitting in an armchair? [response]
QUESTION:	Where is he sitting? [response]
NEGATIVE:	He isn't sitting in an armchair. [response]

Do these in the same way:
1. He can come now.
Q: …
Q: When …
N: ….

As can be easily appreciated, the behaviouristic learning psychology is neatly present in this test, with model sentences in the instructions and stimulus/cues in the exercises to give way to the answers.

The presentation of the structures on the first page of the lessons is worth commenting on too. Naturally, and following the principles from the SLT, it will be inductive, with no explicit mention of rules. All of them contain pictures that are not mere decorative tools but that are aimed at aiding towards a better understanding of the aural text. However, not all units will present a picture with every single exchange of the interaction between the (usually) two characters. Sometimes there will only be two drawings or even just one. Further, the format of the text will not always be a dialogue but a piece of narrative or story. It will be constrained in structures and

recreate a determinate scene, either when it comes as an only-paragraph narrative or in various short sections, each of which with an accompanying picture.

The situations comprised in the coursebook are varied but constantly related to real-life ones. From a man who gives a woman her handbag, forgotten on the train coach in teaching unit 1, to number 19 where a father who is building a bookshelf for his little daughter (teaching unit 19) and number 71 with the already-mentioned little girl who asks a woman why she is putting make up on herself.

6.3.4. Analysis of teaching unit 36 (students' lessons 71 and 72) from *First Things First*

In keeping with my reliability criterion of working with middle units, I selected teaching unit 36, which is exactly located in the middle of the textbook as the global number of teaching units amounts to seventy-two (see section 6.3.3.).

Since no different parts exist in the textbook as was the *Direct Method*'s and Eckersley's cases and sameness of lesson structure within all the units is appreciated (which was already mentioned in sections 1 and 6.3.1.), I am going to perform the analysis of the above-mentioned single unit.

As a starting point for the study I believe it interesting to firstly draw on the synopsis of the main characteristics of the coursebook supplied in its blurb (italics in the original):

> The basic aims of the course are: to train the student in the four skills of understanding, speaking, reading and writing; to provide the student with a course that will enable him to *use* the language; and to enable the students to work entirely from a single volume without the need for additional practice books.

This summary will provide essential revealing elements for the analysis in the sense of the ordering of activity typology in terms of skills practised and the unveiling of the exact type of production or language use proposed here.

Before undertaking the analysis of the unit I will provide an account of its structure, which is equivalent to the remaining ones in the book as stated in section 6.3.3.

There exist two differentiated parts as stated in the Teachers' Book. The first one contains the first page with the dialogue, its pictures and the comprehension

questions, a pattern drill and an activity. This should make up one hour's work (Alexander 1967a: xxii). Except for the text and the drawings, the rest of the exercises are not printed in the students' book, where the first page encompasses this initial part.

The second page of the students' manual comprises the second section. In the teachers' guide it includes, in this order, a second pattern drill exercise, a repetition drill and a final pattern drill. Dictation is the last activity indicated though it does not appear in the students' book. The latter does not offer the instructions of the above exercises. However, it supplies another structural activity which is preceded by a short textual chart (points of time) followed by a set of drawings, all of which will become the base for the performance of the structural exercises mentioned as well as that of a final activity that is not provided in the teachers' guide.

This second part equally enables one hours' work, since "each teaching unit provides enough material for two hours' work" (Alexander 1967a: xix).

Once the internal structure of this teaching unit is depicted and prior to my examination, I feel it necessary to provide the linguistic items that become the focus of teaching unit 36:

PATTERNS AND STRUCTURAL WORDS		VOCABULARY	
	What's (he/she) like?	*Noun*	*Adjective*
	He (telephoned) four times	phone	awful
	yesterday/yesterday morning/	*Verbs*	*Adverbs*
	the day before yesterday/last	answer	again
	night, etc.	speak	points of time
	Did you/he/she/ etc.?		
	Yes, (I) did. No (I) did		
	not/didn't.		

It is clear that the regular past *(-ed, -d, -ied)* is introduced with related points of time.

Let us now dissect each activity and its underlying procedure to examine both how the linguistic items above are presented and practised and to disentangle the activity sequencing pattern.

6.3.4.1. First part of the teaching unit or students' lesson 71

The first part of teaching unit 36 corresponds to students' lesson 71. It consists of a dialogue which includes a conversation between two female friends divided into seven exchanges accompanied by their respective numbered seven pictures to the right. Although Appendix C.2. includes a copy of Lessons 71 and 72 from the Student's Book, I find it useful to reproduce the whole dialogue here and explain the role of pictures.

The typographical accents, which appear in all the dialogues/texts of the book, are a sign of the importance attached to pronunciation and intonation and are meant "'to support' the recorded texts" (Alexander 1967a: xx).

This initial dialogue is illustrated with a drawing that depicts the two friends together, with Pauline being the one who talks and Jane attentively listening to her:

JANE:	Whát's Rón Márston like, Páuline?
PAULINE:	He's áwful!
	He télephoned me
	fóur tímes yésterday,
	and thrée tímes
	the dáy befóre yésterday.

A second picture represents Pauline's boss picking up the telephone with Pauline typing at the background:

PAULINE:	He télephoned the óffice
	yésterday mórning
	and yésterday afternóon.
	My bóss ánswered the télephone.

The third drawing illustrates Pauline's angry boss answering the smiling Ron Marston:

JANE:	Whát did your bóss sáy to him?
PAULINE:	He sáid, "Míss Whíte is týping létters.
	She cán't spéak to you nów!"

The fourth drawing reflects Pauline entering her house while the phone was ringing:

PAULINE: Thén I arríved home
at síx o'clóck yésterday évening.
He télephoned agáin.
But I dídn't ánswer the phóne!

The fifth illustration shows Pauline on the move of picking up the phone, which rang again later:

JANE: Díd he telephone agáin lást night?
PAULINE: Yés, he díd.
He télephoned at níne o'clóck.

An upset Ron Marston and Pauline with a face of pretending to be someone else are offered in picture six:

JANE: Whát did you sáy to him?
PAULINE: I sáid, "Thís is Páuline's móther.
Please dón't télephone
my dáughter agáin!"

Finally, the same room where Pauline found the telephone ringing in drawing four appears in the seventh picture: everything is in silence and nobody is in such a room.

JANE: Díd he télephone agáin?
PAULINE: Nó, he dídn't!

Through the situation of two friends talking about the experience of one of them about an irritating suitor, the past tense is presented in relation to different points of time. Comprehension is facilitated through such a normal and real-life situation and by means of the pictures, which are sequentially arranged so that they reflect the main idea of each exchange in question.

This dialogue constitutes an example of the feature explained in section 6.3.1. about the inclusion of connected grammar items in different units. In teaching units 24 and 25 the auxiliary verb "do" in the present had appeared for the first and second persons in singular and the third persons in singular respectively. Besides, the

interaction recycles the Saxon genitive ("This is Pauline's mother") and negative imperative orders ("Please don't telephone my daughter again"), which had been introduced in teaching units 6 and 20 respectively.

The sentences with their underlying structures comprised in this dialogue certainly resemble those found in the exercises from Ollendorff's materials (remember the "Can you work without speaking? - I can work, but not study Spanish without speaking" example offered in section 6.1.1.3. Though referring to the ALM, I believe that the following quotation from Howatt (2004: 160) is illustrative enough of this phenomenon:

> The disconnected sentences of the grammar-translation approach are no sillier than the 'scientific' drills of the audiolingual method with which they share many features. Both are the inevitable outcome of two basic principles. The first is that a language teaching course can be based on a sequence of linguistic categories, and the second that these categories can be exemplified in sample sentences for intensive practice.

The didactic strategy to implement the listening of this dialogue is called "Aural/Oral procedure" by Alexander and consists of six perfectly differentiated steps to which the author painstakingly incorporates detailed instructions. The whole of these stages should not take more than twenty-five minutes at the most (Alexander 1967a: xxi) and are designed to successively introduce the learner to the sounds, to aural comprehension alone and aided by the pictures to reach complete understanding so as to finally be able to see the printed text. During the whole process the dialogue will be heard with different degrees of speed, the fastest one coming at the end.

For a more complete apprehension of the SLT seven principles underlying this course and to complement the report of their presence in the teachers' notes, I believe it necessary to describe each of these six phases. Their account is based on the initial guidelines (pp. xix-xxi) and on those supplied in teaching unit 1 (p. 2).

All of the stages except for the last one naturally draw on listening in accordance with the pre-eminence of aural skills first. This listening, however, must be carefully arranged as it is a fundamental part of the learning process:

It is understood that the student does not invent the target language. He must listen to good models. Random listening helps, but selective listening following instructions is more effective. Listening is assumed to be more effective when it is in preparation for speaking.

<div align="right">Lado (1964: 95).</div>

The first step is a "listening with the books shut". The teacher gives the instruction *Listen*! and plays the recording or reads the dialogue once at a normal speed. The students should only listen, with the ensuing consequence of pronunciation being emphasized. Alexander reasons that in the initial teaching units problems of comprehension will appear at this first listening, which will disappear as the course progresses.

"Listening and Understanding. (Books open; pictures only)" constitutes the second stage. After the teacher's order *Open your books!,* the students are told to cover up the text with the mask provided at the end of their manuals. *Look and listen!* is the next teacher's command. As before, the instructor can either play the tape or read the text him/herself, on this occasion as many times as required for a global comprehension. The students are supposed to understand the dialogue thanks to the pictures, which as we have seen before visually express the main idea of each isolated intercourse and are numbered accordingly. This last feature is very important so that the teacher can make sure that the students are listening to the right extract.

In case of not fully understanding with the drawings, Alexander specifies the possibility of the employment of gesture and mime and of translation as the last resort, in line with his previous explanation of second language learning theories and teaching techniques.

The third step is the same as the first one: "Listening with the books shut". After the visual aids, the students should understand the text completely with just a single playing or teacher's reading.

Again with the books closed, listening plus chorus repetition constitutes step four. It is especially good for large-number classes. The teacher reads each statement aloud at slightly less than normal speed. Subsequent to each statement, s/he gives the command *All together!* and gets the class to repeat in chorus. The whole dialogue must be repeated several times and the final readings may be slightly faster.

With the books shut, "Group or Individual Repetition" is stage five. Following the command *Listen and say!,* the teacher reads each statement aloud and asks small

groups of students (e.g. row by row) or individuals to repeat after him/her. Normal speed is encouraged here.

The final phase in the Aural/Oral procedure is composed of "Reading aloud in chorus, groups or individuals". Contrary to Eckersley's lesson XII and XXXI and Berlitz's "Travelling" unit, now an explicit mention is alluded to reading aloud. For the first time, and following the secondary role of the written text, the class may now look at the printed dialogue, in a similar way to Gouin's procedure, where the reading of the series came after a series of listening exercises in L1 and L2 on the instructor's part. In *First Things First*, the teacher must get the class to read each statement in chorus after him/her. Then the trainer must ask small groups to read after him/her; finally, individual students or pairs of students may read the dialogue aloud on their own. Alexander warns about the importance of the learners' reading complete phrases and not stopping after every single word.

The repetition in steps four and five ("Chorus and Group or Individual" respectively) could lead to the impression that some sort of highly tight practice is found from the very beginning of this teaching unit. However, this is one of the instances which perfectly reflects Kelly's (1969: 44) affirmation about the arbitrariness of the distinction between presentation and repetition. For teachers all grammar teaching was presentation as "the real linguistic practice comes from applying the rules in a linguistically relevant fashion" (Kelly 1969: 43). Learning and retention came as a single stock due to their memorization strategy. This author was referring here to the deductive approach to teaching grammar in formal settings before the nineteenth century reformists' attacks. Teachers' explanation of rules was followed by students' repetition of those, normally arranged in verse whether in statements or in metalinguistic dialogues between the teacher and the pupils. In the latter the catechesis format of teaching was at stake and was similarly shaped on modern behaviouristic beliefs: it was based on a stock response to a stock cue, thus providing a firm control over pupil learning in the classroom.

Although related to the deductive mode, Kelly's insight can be perfectly transposed to the inductive type of teaching proposed in *First Things First*. In fact, Lado (1964: 96) supplies the same type of technique: oral repetition (which has been mentioned in the description of the teacher's first strategy in lesson three from *Essential English*. See p. 91). Its procedure is outlined as beginning with the presentation (instead of rules) of the very first sentence of the pattern, the basic

sentence, and continuing through all the other examples of the pattern taught for speaking. The key ALM figure also highlights that repetition should be used to demonstrate a grammar point, and affirms that,

> Discovery of the pattern is experienced more fully through examples the student has repeated than through those merely heard. Furthermore, examples that are repeated can be retained longer by the student than those that have not been repeated.
>
> (Lado 1964: 96)

The same applies to the "Song" and to "Repetition Drills" (activities number 4 and 6 correspondingly).

I have extensively dealt with this aspect as it has important implications for the unmasking of the activity sequencing pattern. Indeed, then, all this aural/oral procedure or first activity may be categorized as indirect/contextualized inductive presentation or P1. It corresponds to Sánchez's *Step 1.1. Presentation* (Exposition to the learner to new materials in an aural textual format).

The second activity set is the "Comprehension Questions" (with the books open). This label seems redundant to us, as the students are supposed to have thoroughly understood the text before and they have even had the opportunity of seeing it printed. That is the reason why, despite this label, I believe that this activity belongs to Masuhara's (2003: 343-347) "Language-based Approach to reading", since it is the practice and retention of structural patterns and not the understanding of the dialogue which is at stake. The queries absolutely correlate with Nuttall's (1996: 188) "literal comprehension questions": the answer is readily provided in the dialogue. The latter simply acts as a pretext for the main grammatical purpose. As Alexander (1967a: xviii) affirms, "Comprehension Questions" are "examples of the graded questions to be asked and the sort of response which should be elicited to train the student in the use of progressive patterns". Accordingly, these questions are distributed in a very systematized way, there being five clearly different types in each of these sections with neatly delimited objectives. Alexander also indicates that these questions should immediately follow the preceding "Aural/Oral" procedure.

Such interrogative statements belong to Lado's (1964: 96) question-and-answer technique. It had already been used in Berlitz's lesson seven, where the ALM figure's definition of such a procedure was supplied. However, no previous text/dialogue was provided, and realia but not drawings were the visual aids in this

case. Question and answer had equally been resorted to by Eckersley in his lessons XII and XXXI. In the first one a picture was accompanied by the (supposedly) aural text, whereas in the second one no drawings were incorporated but the overall situation of the students in Mr. Priestley's house was taken as a support for understanding. Despite the lack of drawings, Eckersley's mechanism is more similar to Alexander's due to the addition of the text/dialogue element, as the structural objective was the major one.

Nevertheless, compared with *First Things First*, Berlitz's and Eckersley's manuals show a lack of linguistic gradation and of orderly systematization in the arrangement of questions. Lesson seven in the former textbook could somehow be considered as showing a certain degree of gradation. The "possession", "verb 'to have' " and "present progressive" sections are well separated and the language is gradually presented in the last part, with a clear distinction between persons, etc. In the "Travelling" lesson of the same material and in Eckersley's XII and XXXI units, though, such a methodical exposition is not so obvious, with the questions mixing linguistic objectives throughout; further, no overt instructions are included as to the length of answer required, conversely to Alexander's case as will be seen next. In Berlitz's "Travelling" lesson even personal questions were sparingly inserted in the exercises.

This appreciation should not be regarded as crude criticism to Alexander's both preceding materials; it is a comparative comment which comes as necessary especially after having analysed the type and order of questions proposed by Alexander. Indeed, neither Berlitz nor Eckersley enjoyed the scientific procedures from the 1960s, and to be fair they show other qualities absent in *First Things First* as will be unveiled in the examination of the kinds of questions and answers demanded.

For a better illustration of the gradation of the comprehension questions, I will directly quote their objectives, characteristics and examples from the Teachers' book on p. 142.

The teacher must ask the questions in the following way (not all the examples are offered, which must be prepared by the instructor him/herself):

a. To elicit: Yes/No tag answers. Ask affirmative questions only.
Illustrate the use of did/didn't. Point out the relationship between non-elided and elided forms: did not = didn't.
TEACHER: Is Ron Marston nice?
STUDENT: No, he isn't.
TEACHER: Is he awful?
STUDENT: Yes, he is, etc.

b. Questions with Who.
To elicit a subject followed by an auxiliary.
TEACHER: Who telephoned four times yesterday?
STUDENT: Ron Marston did.

c. To elicit negative and affirmative statements. The correct answer is contained in the question itself.
TEACHER: Did Ron Marston telephone three times or four times yesterday?
STUDENT: He didn't telephone three times yesterday. He telephoned four times.

d. General questions: When, Where, What, Why, How many times. Do not insist on complete answers where they would not normally be given.
When did Ron Marston telephone? *Yesterday*
How many times did he telephone yesterday? *Four*. Etc.

e. Asking questions in pairs. To avoid incorrect forms such as "Where he went?". The student first asks a question using an auxiliary verb. Then he asks the same question again preceding it with a question word.
TEACHER: Ask me if Ron Marston telephoned yesterday.
STUDENT: Did Ron Marston telephone yesterday?
TEACHER: When…
STUDENT: When did Ron Marston telephone?

As can be observed, the degree of linguistic complexity in terms of response length gradually varies throughout. Following the short answers in a) and b), a two-sentence one is to be supplied in c). In d) the main focus is on the five "Wh"-questions except for "Who" (practised in b)); very short answers, more similar to real-life ones, are required as they constitute a summary of those rehearsed in c). Set e) is clearly not an example of a question-and-answer exercise; the other way around is proposed.

The behaviouristic learning theory undeniably lies beneath this activity. The repetition of the diverse samples of responses from the five divergent types of activities points to accuracy and automatization as aims to be achieved by means of the teacher's stimulus in the answer and the students' response.

The latter is very constrained in linguistic and content terms. No deviance (let alone creativity) is allowed from the sole-and-right answer. Truly, this still is the beginning of the teaching unit, but as will be depicted in the later exercises, the same

rigid tendency will prevail. Consequently, this second set of activities definitely is highly restrained practice or P2, and belongs to Sánchez's *Step 2.1. (controlled and directed practice).* No further explanation is required as the illustration of the interrogative statements and the procedure behind is telling-tale. Indeed, Berlitz's questions in the "Exercises" section following the "Reading and Conversation" of the "Travelling" lesson were positively less rigid, if only for the personal opinions queries and the mode of devising the general-knowledge ones, which was far from being so robot-like as in this case. Moreover, all the types of content questions in Berlitz's were mingled and no neat separation was made between one and another class.

The third group of activities is always composed of a pattern drill exercise (with the books closed) about a particular difficulty or "on the ground is prepared for the extension exercises which are to follow in the second part of the teaching unit" (Alexander 1967a: xviii).

On this occasion the pattern drill correlates with Lado's (1964: 97) "substitutions that force a change". The examples given by this author are as follows:

> Stimulus: Me gusta la silla nueva.
> Response: Me gusta la silla nueva.
> Stimulus: Libro.
> Response: Me gusta el libro nuevo.

The structural aim of this exercise is to elicit the construction "What's he/she/it like? (It's) interesting". Obviously, the focus is on the fragment from the first picture "What's Ron Marston like? He's awful!", one of the aims of the teaching unit. It is practised by means of the following interaction:

> TEACHER: You must read this book.
> 1ST STUDENT: What's it like?
> TEACHER: … interesting.
> 2ND STUDENT: It's interesting, etc.
>
> > The following may be substituted: drink this medicine/awful; meet Mr Jones/very nice; meet Mrs Jones/not very nice; read this magazine/interesting; see the boss/pleasant; see my new dress/lovely; see his handwriting/terrible; drink this whisky/very nice; see our garden/lovely.

From Alexander's guidelines, at least this time the content deviates from the dialogue itself, though the global framework of the activity leads to extremely

restricted utterances. Once more, Sánchez's *Step 2.1. Controlled or directed practice* (P2) makes its appearance.

The final exercise of the first part of this teaching unit is called "Activity". The main point for its inclusion is motivational, as claimed by Alexander (1967a: xxii): "Every effort should be made to introduce activities occasionally as they liven up the class and make language learning an enjoyable task". He suggests three forms of activities: games, oral compositions and singing.

Games were very much used in the ALM as pointed out by Larsen-Freeman (2000: 49). They enable students to practise particular patterns and can be still found in current textbooks with exactly the same characteristics as forty years ago (see Ur 1996 for a useful practical compilation). Certainly, even contemporary games that display communicative traits such as an information gap to be filled in are sometimes disguised controlled drills (Johnson 1996: 161) with the additional motivational component. I remember myself having been very involved in a foreign language class in England twelve years ago imaging what I would do if I were a priest and heard a criminal's confession and so on. I can assure that not only me but also my classmates were thrilled with enthusiasm, also due to our teacher's personality (to whom I owe having an MA in English Studies today). Now with the passing of years I realize that we were merely performing a structural drill.

What I do not really understand from Alexander's explanation is the relationship between livening up the class' atmosphere and the "Oral Composition" activity. It simply consists of retelling the dialogue by referring only to the pictures, a procedure that had been present in Eckersley's lesson XII and XXXI. Alexander argues that this exercise counteracts adults' high affective filters (in Krashen's 1982 terms) and that this solution is a good compromise.

The final type of activity is the one offered in teaching unit 36: a song. The teacher is referred to *Time for a Song* compiled by W. R. Lee and Dodderidge (Longman). Despite my whole-hearted efforts I have been unable to find the lyrics of the melody proposed here: *Oh, dear! What can the matter be?* Nevertheless, this does not really affect my analysis, since the songs selected usually contain a pattern previously introduced and practised and thus act as reinforcement material. In fact, Alexander (1967a: 142) draws the teacher's attention to "the use of the regular past in this song". Other difficulties (if at all existent) may be succinctly explained. The

teacher must write the words on the blackboard to enable students to join the singing as soon as possible.

Thus the song epitomizes another instance of simple repetition. The remarks about the non-existence of borders between presentation and repetition in learning pointed out in the "Aural/Oral" procedure apply here too.

6.3.4.2. Second part of the teaching unit or students' lesson 72

The second part of teaching unit 36 begins with a pattern drill in which the teacher has to elicit from the students: "He telephoned (yesterday)". Points of time are at stake here. The instructor writes the following table on the blackboard:

Sunday	Monday	Tuesday
the day before yesterday	yesterday	today
morning	morning	morning
afternoon	afternoon	afternoon
evening	evening	evening
night	night	tonight

The students are told to open their books at Lesson 72, where they find the following table in turn:

TODAY	YESTERDAY	THE DAY BEFORE YESTERDAY
this morning	yesterday morning	the day before yesterday in the morning
this afternoon	yesterday afternoon	the day before yesterday in the afternoon
this evening	yesterday evening	the day before yesterday in the evening
tonight	last night	the day before yesterday the night before last

The teacher has to conduct the drill in an identical question-and-answer format and make sure that all the points of time are included in the practice:

> TEACHER (pointing at *night* under "Monday"):
> When did he telephone?
> STUDENT: He telephoned last night.

The same categorization as the comprehension questions and the pattern drill in the first part applies to this exercise. It constitutes another occurrence of Sánchez's

Step 2.1. Controlled or directed practice due to equivalent reasons of those outlined for the other two activities.

A change in the sequencing pattern will happen with the "Repetition drill" that ensues. In chorus, group or individual varieties, the students repeat certain patterns after their teacher. A series of fifteen drawings is comprised on the second page of the students' book. They are numbered and contain the verb of the action depicted below each illustration. The procedure is as follows:

TEACHER: Look at the first picture. What did she do yesterday? *All together!* She aired the room. *All together!*

Supply appropriate points of time when asking the question 'What…do?'
The remaining actions are as follows:
2nd: they cleaned their shoes;
3rd: he opened the box;
4th: they sharpened their pencils;
5th: she turned on the television;
6th: she listened to the radio;
7th: she boiled an egg;
8th: he arrived by car;
9th: they played in the garden;
10th: he stayed in bed;
11th: he shaved;
12th: he climbed a tree;
13th: she telephoned her husband;
14th: she called a doctor;
15th: she emptied the basket.

Alexander (1967a: xxiii) states that "The new patterns which were introduced in the contextualized dialogue are now isolated and practised intensively". To be fair, more patterns are present now than in the dialogue, which only offered instances of the past tense ending with *–d* ("telephoned"). Now the students have to face the same morphological termination ("arrived", "telephoned", "shaved") plus past tense constructed by adding *–ed* ("cleaned", "opened", "sharpened", "turned", "listened", "boiled", "played", "stayed", "climbed", "called") and by incorporating *–ied* ("emptied"). By way of providing specific examples of forms instead of rules, the students will inductively have to discover the formula underlying the insertion of either *–d* (when the spelling of the infinitive finishes by *e*); *-ed* (when the spelling of the infinitive does not finish by *e*) and *–ied* (when the spelling of the infinitive ends with *–y* and this is preceded by a consonant sound, in which opposite case applies the insertion of *–ed* as in "stay").

Thus learning and retention of new rules and vocabulary are combined into the same sequencing stage: P1, following Kelly's observation outlined in the "Aural/Oral" procedure and which is also present in the song.

The seventh activity is the final "Pattern Drill" of the teaching unit, and makes up the main part of the lesson as the two main structural objectives are practised: regular past tense and points of time. As in the comprehension questions of the first part, five different drills are included to be performed with the books open, since both the pictures of the second page and the tables from the former pattern drill in this section will be drawn upon.

The initial one requires an identical short answer to its parallel comprehension question (a) in the past:

> a) To elicit: Yes, he/she/they did. No, he/she/they didn't.
> TEACHER: Look at the first picture. Did she clean her shoes/air the room?
> STUDENT: No, she didn't/Yes, she did. Etc.

The subsequent drill correlates with type c) of the comprehension questions:

> b) To elicit negative and affirmative statements.
> TEACHER: Look at the first picture. Did she clean her shoes or air the room?
> STUDENT: She didn't clean her shoes. She aired the room.

The third structural exercise, unlike comprehension question d), solely practises "What"-questions:

> c) What did I/you/he/she/we/they do?
> TEACHER: Look at the first picture. What did I do this morning?
> STUDENT: You aired the room.

Up to this point the past tense in actions or verbs has been practised in the responses. From now on, points of time will also be included in the latter. For that purpose both the pictures and the table on the blackboard are employed as cues in exercise d):

> d) When did you…?
> To elicit complete statements and points of time.
> TEACHER: (pointing at "Monday" on the blackboard): Look at the first picture. When did you air the room?
> STUDENT: I aired it on Monday.

The last drill contains the same format as that of the final one in the "comprehension questions" (e). The students must provide interrogative statements:

> e) Asking questions in pairs: When.
> TEACHER: Look at the first picture. Ask me if she aired the room this morning.
> STUDENT: Did she air the room this morning?
> TEACHER: When…
> STUDENT: When did she air the room?

P2 is again retaken with this pattern drill, as the students' attention was consciously driven to the linguistic patterns in a highly controlled manner.

The ensuing activity is a dictation, equally present in Eckersley's lessons XII, XIII and XXXI. Following the order advocated in the SLT, written work comes after oral practice upon which it is built; in Alexander's coursebook, it is developed in the following unit from which this oral work had been introduced. For example, in our lesson the teacher must dictate the answer to the written exercise in Lesson 70 (two units before the present one), where basic prepositions of time and place had been offered:

> We were at the stationer's *on* Monday.
> We were there *at* four o'clock.
> They were in Australia *in* September.
> They were there *in* Spring.
> *On* November 25th, they were *in* Canada.
> They were there *in* 1976.

Sánchez's Step 2.1. *controlled or directed practice* underlies this activity since it contains very few isolated sentences and creativity is not allowed at all.

Identical appreciation will affect the final exercise, which equally goes through written practice. Together with the "Pattern Drill" of the first part, it represents another example of Lado's (1964: 97) "Substitutions that force a change". From the present progressive the past tense must be provided in accordance with the point of time:

She is airing the room. She … it yesterday.
She aired it yesterday.

Do these in the same way:
It is raining now. It … yesterday.
It is snowing now. It … yesterday.

She is boiling some eggs. She … some yesterday.
We are enjoying our lunch. We … it yesterday too.
They are hurrying to work. They …. to work yesterday, too.

As can be observed, no combination of action and time is required in the answer. Therefore this activity is even more controlled than the previous oral introduction in the final types of "comprehension questions" from the first part and of the concluding structural exercises from the "Pattern Drills" in the second section.

6.3.5. Remarks about *First Things First* concerning activity typology and sequencing pattern

The following table summarises the activity typology and sequencing pattern of teaching unit 36, i.e., students' lessons 71 and 72:

Exercise	Ps
FIRST PART	
1. Aural procedure	P1 (indirect/contextualized inductive presentation)
2. Comprehension questions	P2 (highly controlled practice)
3. Pattern drill (substitutions that force a change)	P2 (highly controlled practice)
4. Activity (Song)	P1 (inductive Presentation = retention/practice)
SECOND PART	
5. Pattern drill (question and answer)	P2 (highly controlled practice)
6. Repetition drill	P1 (inductive Presentation = retention/practice)
7. Pattern drill (various types of questions and answers)	P2 (highly controlled practice)
8. Dictation	P2 (highly controlled practice)
9. Pattern drill (substitutions that force a change)	P2 (highly controlled practice)

Table 4. Activity typology and sequencing pattern in *First Things First* teaching unit 36 (students' lessons 71 and 72)

Two conclusions should immediately strike our eyes after an initial glance. Firstly, the absence of Sánchez's *Step 1.2. Explicitness* (or reasoned explanation or explicitness of certain characteristics which emphasize the objectives at which these materials are directed). The same author remarks that the *Audio-Lingual Method* overtly bans this phase, though as was seen in *Modern Spanish* and *Spanish Basic Course* this stage does appear though in a very succinct manner and following the

practice phase. However, in Alexander's case it has not been included at all, although this is compensated by all the non-linguistic aids to induce rules and meaning:

> the stimuli in the exercises are pictorial and the attempt is made to practise all features to be learnt in a meaningful context. Pure pattern practice without attention to meaning and outside a context is avoided.
>
> Stern (1983: 468)

The second conclusion is an old one as compared with Berlitz's and Eckersley's manuals: the absence of the Production step or P3. As indicated in section 6.3.1.3., oral mastering was identified with precise pronunciation and structure selection and the ability to respond quickly in speech situations.

Once again, from contemporary criteria this is not actual learner's outcome production (in Tomlinson's terms, personal communication) but output reproduction. The vital characteristics for engaging into a communicative exercise which belongs to this final stage of *using* language, whether at a receptive or productive level, are not contemplated in *First Things First*: information gap, purposeful feedback and choice (Morrow 1981: 62-63). Negotiation of meaning is non-existent (everybody is in the same position) as no information gap is present. All the responses are readily supplied in the exercises and the totality of the students simultaneously have access to them, which means that there is no problem solving to deal with but merely linguistic filling. Choice of language is missing as well as purposeful feedback or genuine content response to the interlocutor's statements. Consequently, authenticity of interaction does not appear, which is enhanced by the lack of this trait in the different exercises.

Thus the claim in the teachers' introductory notes about the need to make students able to use the language are to be considered with caution in the light of current parameters about the concept "language use" (my highlighting):

> Learning a language is not a matter of acquiring a set of rules and building up a large vocabulary. The teacher's efforts should not be directed at informing his students about language, but at enabling them to *use* it. *A student's mastery of a language is ultimately measured by how well he can use it,* not by how much he knows about it […] The student's command of a language will therefore be judged not by how much he knows, but by how well he can perform in public.
>
> (Alexander 1967a: xi).

Truly, Alexander's categorical statement is unmistakably related to Moulton's principle of "Teach the language, not about the language". In a few years' time, the Communicative Language Teaching Approach revolution was to replace this pedagogic fissure.

6.3.6. Underlying psychological structure in teaching unit 36 (students' lessons 71 and 72)

The related account that Johnson (1996) provides for the ALM will constitute the starting point for my depiction of the psychological structure that underpins teaching unit 36 in Alexander's course.

Unlike Berlitz's method, ALM lessons cannot be considered to include *PRO* alone (as was the case in the former's lesson seven) despite the high degree and amount of restricted practice or Sánchez's *step 2.1*. Further, Johnson (1996: 100) argues that this practice does not represent the whole picture of completely proceduralized forms.

Regarding the first point, a certain extent of initial declarativization can be found in the key sentences (in a dialogue or narrative format accompanied by pictures in the SLT) that comprise the beginning of the lesson. Declarative knowledge takes place in an inductive way, specifically in my indirect/contextualized presentation operationalization. This is followed by drill exercises which do not attain the final objective of making declarative knowledge automatic as will be discussed below.

Hence, Johnson (1996: 101) suggests that the sequence observed in the ALM (and in its variants) is *DECPRODEC*. It is not a transparent version of either *DECPRO* or *PRODEC* since consciousness is absent or is simply devoted to summarize already proceduralized behaviour. I do not quite agree with Johnson's appreciation of consciousness, and I would like to challenge his decidedly interesting insights on the grounds of the ALM materials mentioned in my essay: *Modern Spanish* and *Spanish Basic Course*. This clarification is necessary for its value in comparing the ALM general psychological sequencing with that of Alexander's course. As will be shown, Johnson's (1996: 120) seemingly parallelism between the

ALM with its other "countless variants" could be argued not to be thoroughly accurate.

Consciousness is present in the ALM thanks to the grammar summaries (even if succinct) that appear after the controlled practice. Explicit attention to form through simple and legible instructions is offered about pattern and pronunciation behaviours. Moreover, these pieces of explanations are based on a careful contrastive analysis between the language learned and the mother tongue. They constitute a good dose of analytical exercise (even if placed after all the practical work has been performed) and could be said to reinforce the previous declarative knowledge inductively manifested. Additionally, they definitely summarise proceduralized forms in Johnson's terms. Here it is a "discussion of pattern" from unit 8 (p. 14) in *Spanish Basic Course.* The highlighting and the orthographic accents illustrating the stress (identically to *First Things First*) are as in the original:

B. Discussion of pattern
    In almost all tense forms other than the present tense forms there is no distinction between **/-ér/** and **/-ír/** theme class verb endings and they will be referred to as **/-ér-ír/** patterns. The important differences are in the theme vowel of the infinitive and the 1 pl form of the present tense.
    Below is the complete pattern for regular verbs in the present tense, illustrated with three common verbs:

	abl-ár	kom-ér	bib-ír
1 sg	ábl-o	kóm-o	bíb-o
2 fam	ábl-as	kóm-es	bíb-es
2-3 sg	ábl-a	kóm-e	bíb-e
1 pl	abl-ámos	kom-émos	bib-ímos
2-3 pl	ábl-an	kóm-en	bíb-en

    Note that theme class membership is marked by the presence vowel **/a, e, i/** in all forms except 1 sg. All 1 sg forms have the ending **/-o/** in common. Note also that the person-number endings **/-s, -mos, -n/** are present in their appropriate forms regardless of what theme vowels precedes them. Note also that **/-ér/** and **/-ír/** verbs are distinguished only in 1 pl forms, where distinct **/-e-/** and **/-i-/** theme vowels appear.

Therefore I would contend that the arrangement *DECPRODEC* is the one underlying ALM units, thus agreeing with this author's final representation but not with its justification. Likewise I am aware of the non-representative status of my claim as being founded on two single cases; however, it is at least data-based, an absent characteristic in Johnson's account.

In *First Things First*, though, such a sequence is not observed precisely due to the absence of such structural and phonetic schedules. As Alexander (1967a: xiv) himself clearly asserts,

> Each new pattern is not presented as the exemplification of some abstract grammar-rule, but as a way of saying something and no further explanation or elucidation is necessary.

In this particular coursebook, the SLT conforms with the traditional formal-setting *DECPRO* sequencing. It should be observed that, on psychological grounds, this scheme is more restricted than that of the ALM and even of that of the "Travelling" lesson of Berlitz's course, in the sense of declarative knowledge not functioning in its two roles but only as initial departure for proceduralization. As no further uses of previously introduced features appear in teaching unit 36, there is no place for declarative knowledge as data base.

Similar to Eckersley's lesson XII and to the ALM units, the overall didactic translation of *DECPRO* is P1-P2-_, despite P1 being present in the middle as the inductive learning of additional past tense formation rules other than the one introduced in the initial dialogue equals retention (due to the repetition mode of the exercise, whether materialized in the song or in the repetition drill). These two exercises constitute reinforcement of the previous declarative knowledge developed in the "aural/oral" procedure.

The fact that the psychological arrangement in SLT lessons does not conform with that of the ALM does not imply that the didactic sequencing will be different, since as mentioned above the latter was unsuccessful in the achievement of complete automatization.

Certainly, this failure in the attainment of automatization is shared by both structural methods on account of their common advocacy of the behaviouristic learning theory and the resulting repetitive drills. In turn, this has unavoidable and serious consequences on the activity sequencing pattern.

Two closely related characteristics of the didactic implementation of behaviourism are at the origin of the lack of a final P3: the nature of the activities themselves and the conditions under which they occur.

The ALM and SLT omitted the production stage as both methods expected transfer to happen from the first two Ps to the third. The final P3 was regarded as unnecessary; "practice makes perfect" was the golden tenet from the ALM and indeed it stopped there. Something that had been completely explained and drilled in isolation was believed to be sufficient for learning to occur. Consequently, transfer from an inside classroom situation to an outside one would naturally develop.

However, as recorded at the end of section 6.3.1.3. within the overall background part of *First Things First,* one of the bitterest pieces of criticism targeted at the ALM (and thus at the SLT) was precisely the observation of students being unable to communicate beyond the formal setting of instruction.

The roots of this drawback are to be found in the practice rehearsed in both trends, which were absolutely unlike the production of real life owing to two factors. Genuine communication is message- and nor form-focused, and takes place under certain circumstances which are distant from laboratory- or classroom- controlled work.

It is here when the pair of recently-mentioned features of the teaching behaviouristic application come on the scene. Let us start by concentrating on the first one: the quintessence of the activities (drills), the account of which explains its clash with the message-focused quality of real communication.

In order to better contextualize this issue, Ausubel's cognitive meaningful learning theory (1968) is worthy scrutinising.

David Ausubel argued that human learning takes place through a meaningful process of relating new events or items to already existing cognitive concepts or propositions. This link between novel contents and present cognitive structures accounts for the acquisition of new meanings (knowledge), retention, the psychological organization of knowledge as a hierarchical structure, and the eventual occurrence of forgetting (as reported in Brown 2000: 83).

Ausubel contrasted two divergent types of learning which help to better understand his cognitive theory: rote learning and meaningful learning. The former embraces the mental storage of features in a process that has little or no connection with the individual's existing cognitive structure (Ausubel 1968: 108).

On the other hand, meaningful learning possesses a crucial characteristic that distinguishes it from rote acquisition: subsumption. Meaningful learning is subsumable, that is, applicable to stable elements in cognitive structure. When new

material is anchored to pertinent settled entities in the mental assembly, it interacts with it and is appropriately subsumed under a more encompassing system.

In order for meaningful learning to take place, two conditions must be accomplished: firstly, the learners' willingness towards relating what they already know to new items; secondly, the task itself being potentially meaningful to students, i.e., relatable to their existing structure of knowledge.

Ausubel's theory of learning has vital implications for second language learning and teaching. Modern researchers agree on the fact that language learning is a meaningful process and acknowledge the importance of meaning in language and contexts, which are indeed the primary qualities of real communication. Too much rote learning at the expense of message transmission may seriously hamper the learning development as long-term retention becomes neutralized.

Accordingly, "subsumption theory provides a strong theoretical basis for the rejection of conditioning models of practice and repetition in language teaching" (Brown 2000: 84). Effectively, the mechanical and monotonous repetitive nature of drills (even if contextualized in situations in the SLT) endangers subsumption as only focus on form is foregrounded. The fatal consequence is that short-term learning will be the maximum that learners can achieve, and if they overcome this stage it will be due to their "sheer dogged determination" in Brown's words (2000: 84).

The persistent focus on form stressed by drills is remarkably distant from the requirements of authentic (or at least, near-authentic) communication in accordance with the parameters outlined by Morrow above (1981). A splendid clarifying related quotation is supplied by Larsen-Freeman (2000: 129):

> Forming questions through a transformation drill may be a worthwhile activity, but it is not in keeping with CLT since a speaker will receive no response from a listener, so is unable to assess whether her question has been understood or not.
> In a chain drill, for example, if a student must reply to her neighbour's question in the same way as her neighbour replied to someone else's question, then she has no choice of form and content, and real communication does not occur.

The circumstances under which real-life communication happens is the second factor of this process which justifies the other flaw of the didactic application of behaviourism.

Johnson (1996: 122, 125-130) labels these circumstances as ROCs (*Real Life Operating Conditions*), i.e., "difficult" and "less-than ideal" situations. Each communicative event will place different types of demands on the interlocutors. The degree of attention as to *how* the learners must say something rather than to *what* they say will vary in accordance with specific context under which the exchange occurs. On certain occasions time limits will impose the necessity of a quick answer; other times dense linguistic responses will apply; cognitive factors such as the students' previous knowledge of the topic in question, and of course affective parameters (anxiety, concern about the interlocutor and the situation itself, etc.) will have a dramatic effect on learners' performance. For a detailed list and account of such features involved in task complexity see Criado-Sánchez (unpublished manuscript). In turn, the students' verbal behaviour will be blemished by the logical mistakes resulting from the learners' confrontation with these demands until a high degree of command is attained.

Accordingly, Johnson (1996: 129) argues that the role of free practice or P3 is to ensure that students are able to avoid processing mistakes in the variety of ROCs presumably to be faced in real life. A great amount of work is needed to transpose automatic response in the language laboratory to automatic accomplishment in a normal communicative situation.

Certainly, the ALM advocated the mastering of structures through habit responses until the accurate and instant answer was achieved, all of which was shaped by an underlying focus on form. In this sense, automatization did take place. Nevertheless, this was a far cry from what modern researchers such as Johnson himself understand by this concept in the light of the Communicative Approach. Here the notion of automatization acquires a new dimension: getting structures right when there is message focus, the fundamental skill of communication.

The pedagogical implications from these insights and those obtained from the analysis of Berltiz's and Eckersley's materials will be provided in the "General Conclusion" section.

As an extralinguistic consideration, I cannot but help myself from remarking the seemingly lack of political diplomacy of Alexander's course about gender issues from contemporary parameters. Besides the persistent use of the masculine pronoun to refer to both teacher and student in the introductory guiding notes, the woman in

the story appears as the secretary of a male boss (as in teaching unit 9), and more female individuals are depicted as "airing the room" and "emptying the basket".

7. GENERAL CONCLUSION

For a better and more comfortable appreciation of my conclusion remarks, the tables of the seven units from the three manuals comprising their activity typology and sequencing patterns are offered together.

The P1 occurrences appear in blue, whereas the P2 or *Step 2.1. Controlled and directed practice* in red. The instances depicting P2 or *Step 2.2. Repetition and consolidation-based practice* are highlighted in green. The mixed cases between steps 2.1. and 2.2. are represented by a red P and a green 2.

SEQUENCING IN LESSON 7		SEQUENCING IN "TRAVELLING" LESSON	
Exercise/Part	**Ps**	**Exercise**	**Ps**
Possession part: affirmative statements plus questions	P1-(P2) (inductive P1)	Oral introduction	P1-P2 throughout (P1 mainly in the inductive mode)
To have part: affirmative statements plus questions	P1-P2 throughout (inductive P1)	Reading and conversation	Inductive indirect/contextualized P1 (visual exposition to language seen in "Oral Introduction" plus exposure to new linguistic uses of already studied features from the preceding unit) P2 (receptive practice of language from "Oral introduction")
Progressive aspect part : affirmative statements plus questions	P1-P2 throughout (inductive P1)	Exercises	P2 (questions: oral practice based on the previous passage)

Table 5. Activity typology and sequencing patterns in Berlitz's lesson seven and "Travelling" lesson

SEQUENCING IN LESSON XII		SEQUENCING IN LESSON XXXI		SEQUENCING IN LESSON XIII		SEQUENCING IN LESSON XXXII	
Exercise	**Ps**	**Exercise**	**Ps**	**Exercise**	**Ps**	**Exercise**	**Ps**
Text	P1 (inductive indirect/ contextualized presentation).	Dialogue	P1 (inductive indirect/ contextualized presentation).	Study of grammar rules	P1 (explicit/direct deductive presentation)	Study of grammar rules and of lexical items	P1 (explicit/direct deductive presentation)
Pronunciation Drill	P2 (very controlled practice).	Pronunciation Drill	P2 (very controlled practice).	I. Put in the omitted possessive adjectives. Make them agree with the subject.	P2 (very controlled practice)	I. Put the following into the past tense	P2 (consolidation-based practice)
I. Oral practice	P2 (controlled practice)	I. Put in the word omitted	P2 (very controlled practice).	II. Write out the piece of dictation.	P2 (controlled/ consolidation-based written practice)	II. Use each of the following in a sentence.	P2 (consolidation-based practice)
II. Answer the following questions	P2 (controlled practice) Nuttall's "questions of literal comprehension" (1996: 188); Masuhara's "Reading Comprehension-based Approaches" (2003: 341-343).	II. Use each of the following words in a sentence	P2 (consolidation-based practice)			III. Make the following sentences interrogative	P2 (consolidation-based practice)
III. Look at the picture on p. 67, then describe the picture as fully as you can (*retelling*)	P2 (controlled practice/ consolidation-based practice)	III. Answer the following questions	P2 (consolidation-based practice) Nuttall (1996: 188); Masuhara (2003: 341-343).			IV. Make questions to which the following could be the answers	P2 (consolidation-based practice)
Dictation	P2 (controlled practice/ consolidation-based written practice)	IV. Give Hob's story (*controlled roleplay*)	P2 (consolidation-based practice)			V. Make sentences to show the two meanings of *quite*	P2 (controlled practice-consolidation-based practice)
		Dictation	P2 (consolidation-based written practice)				

Table 6. Activity typology and sequencing patterns in Eckersley's *Essential English* Lessons XII, XIII, XXXI and XXXII

Exercise	Ps
FIRST PART	
1. Aural procedure	P1 (indirect/contextualized inductive presentation)
2. Comprehension questions	P2 (highly controlled practice)
3. Pattern drill (substitutions that force a change)	P2 (highly controlled practice)
4. Activity (Song)	P1 (inductive retention. Presentation = retention)
SECOND PART	
5. Pattern drill (question and answer)	P2 (highly controlled practice)
6. Repetition drill	P1 (inductive retention. Presentation = retention)
7. Pattern drill (various types of questions and answers)	P2 (highly controlled practice)
8. Dictation	P2 (highly controlled practice)
9. Pattern drill (substitutions that force a change)	P2 (highly controlled practice)

Table 7. Activity typology and sequencing pattern in *First Things First* teaching unit 36 (students' lessons 71 and 72)

In this conclusion, as indicated in section 1, I will firstly supply a summary of the main findings together with the ensuing implications for contemporary foreign language teaching materials research and practice.

Regarding the former, I have classified my results in four main related groups in the following order, which I believe to be the most coherent for the sake of the clarity of the exposition: the overall didactic approach with special emphasis on the presentation phase; teaching sequencing pattern findings (with certain subsections conveniently indicated); the order of skills followed and the underlying psychological structure of the pedagogic exercise arrangement.

The general teaching approach applied is inductive. This observation will be specifically applied to the introductory stages (P1), since a more complete report of the types of practical exercises will ensue in the second category of findings. Accordingly, the predominant type of presentation corresponds to Sánchez's *Step 1.1. (Exposition to the learner to new materials)*. The exceptions are Eckersley's Comment lessons (XIII and XXXII), which correlate with *Step 1.2. Explicitness (reasoned explanation or explicitness of certain characteristics which emphasize the objectives at which these materials are directed)*.

The inductive presentation mode was materialized in different configurations.

In this respect, lesson seven in Berlitz's textbook (within the "Preparatory" or "Object Teaching" material) is special as it mainly portrayed an amalgamation between P1 and P2 in the form of questions and answers. In the three parts that this unit was composed of, P2 was highly constrained as the focus was permanently on form and the manipulation gave way to restricted utterances in linguistic content and choice. However, as was confirmed in its analysis, the "possession" or first part offered more signs of P1 through a teacher's monologue that equally included interrogative statements and responses. In the chart above, the lesser degree of P2 is represented by its brackets. At any rate, this overall conversational format was inductive in the sense that the content of the utterances were examples illustrating vocabulary meanings and grammatical rules (how to express possession with determiners and with the verb "to have" plus the present progressive structure). In other words, these exchanges were not metalinguistic dialogues usually in verse which depicted the explanation of grammatical patterns as was the Latin case in the Renaissance times at the school system. An excellent example of such a situation is

described by Brindsley and recorded by Kelly (1969: 51). This remark acquires extreme importance in view of the psychological arrangement of lesson seven.

Likewise, this unit revealed certain crucial psychological learning characteristics typical of the inductive approach followed in the three materials. The first one was associationism (from the Reform Movement scholar Franke): the connection between words and realia was assured in the resort to the drawing, and the orderly text (though disposed in descriptive sentences) already pointed towards the coherence needed in a text to be able to form the right associations after which grammar rules generalizations and meanings could be deduced. Gouin's link between meaning, gesture and context (even if the latter was basic and not so much developed as in the later French Structuro-Global or SLT courses) was present as well. These two procedures were aimed at preventing translation. Though mostly related with the practice stage, due to the latter's recurrent presence throughout the whole of unit seven, I will also comment now about the certain degree of what could be called "proto-behaviourism". This label accounts for the fact of this theory not being completely defined at Berlitz's book's time. Besides, the German methodologist did not acknowledge any related ascription or influence (as was Palmer's case with James's 1890 *Principles of Psychology* or Bloomfield's 1914 early writing). At any rate, there existed constant repetition of answers very similar in content and structure to their questions, which acted as stimulus. In fact, this exercise was classified thirty-three years later by Lado (1964: 105) within "conscious drill choice".

These same psychological features were present in the "Travelling" lesson ("Elementary Reading and Conversation" or "Teaching through Context" units). Here, the pedagogic inductive style took shape in an aural text with similar characteristics as the two last parts of lesson seven: mixture between P1 and P2 in the form of questions and answers. Object teaching was presumably resorted to for the illustration of names of cities, countries, etc., with the help of a world map. Further, theoretical explanations about travelling concepts (miles, types of coaches in a train, etc.) were also included. Therefore the linearity of the inductive presence was broken and a deductive mode of introduction appeared (though slight in degree in the overall picture) as the students were not made to infer the meaning in any way but were directly told so. The above notions were visually introduced and receptively practised in the ensuing reading passage. It constituted one of the typical teaching

tools of the Reform Movement applied to the *Direct Method*: the didactic artificially-constructed text.

This type of non-authentic text would also appear in Eckersley's lessons XII and XXXI. In the former unit, the principle of associationism was also there thanks to a picture that would help students to inductively understand the varied vocabulary and structures at stake (present progressive). This fragment is most likely assumed to be read aloud by the teacher in accordance with the Reform Movement and the *Direct Method* guidelines inherited by Eckersley.

However, this principle would be absent in lesson XXXI, where only isolated drawings showing specific lexicon items ("cut", "light", "heavy") were included. Eckersley deviated here from the current methodological trends of his time and went for the motivational component concretized in a dialogue which was an early predecessor of SLT situations. Always within the same scene (Mr. Priestley's house), his students discussed their everyday and linguistic issues. Supposedly, the teacher would again read the text aloud and attempt to solve any comprehension difficulty by means of mime.

From the headings of each dialogue it could be argued that in Eckersley's Lesson XXXI (and in his whole Part 2) the dialogues themselves are somehow the rudimentary forerunners of current consciousness-raising exercises since they are headed by the lexis objectives of the lesson. Once again, this would be a hint of inductiveness. After the teacher read it aloud or during this period the learners could be looking at the printed text and their attention would be drawn to the headings. It is not preposterous to imagine that at least a certain degree of focus on that vocabulary would result with the ensuing deduction or inference of its meaning/use as contextualized in the text.

Concerning Alexander's teaching unit 36, the inductive principle is ostensibly evident. Another aural dialogue with accompanying pictures was provided for students so that they could better apprehend the grammar and vocabulary. This was accomplished by means of different combinations of allowance to see the drawings together with the procedure of completely closing the books plus the strategies of chorus, group, individual repetition, etc. In case these tools did not work, Alexander himself suggested the use of mime and of translation as a last resort.

As mentioned before, besides the explanation of concepts in the "Oral introduction" of Berlitz's "Travelling" lesson, the deductive approach to teaching

comes to the fore in Eckersley's lessons XIII and XXXII. It could not be otherwise owing to their function: to revise the previously inductively introduced contents in the preceding lessons. Truly, though, the exposition of rules and vocabulary senses is incredibly schematic and orderly laid-out. Further, the exercises would be fairly similar to those of the ordinary lessons.

Therefore the introductory stage in Eckersley's lessons XIII and XXXII corresponds to my operationalization of explicit/direct presentation (reasoned explanation as recently indicated). The predominant category of the initial phase in the sequencing, though, after the examination of this first group of results, is my conceptualization of the inductive indirect/contextualized presentation type. It was illustrated in the reading passage from the "Travelling" unit of the *Direct Method* as well as in the aural texts from Eckersley's lessons XII and XXXI and from Alexander's teaching unit 36.

Now that the overwhelming existence of the inductive mode and its diverse materialization on the presentation stage have been described, let us turn our attention to the teaching sequencing pattern findings. As can be observed in the tables, the vast model that emerges with certain small deviances is P1-P2. Several summarising comments need to be made. Since in the previous group of results I have mainly been concerned about the presentation phase, I will now focus on the practice one. I will particularly concentrate on the unmasking of its role as either *step 2.1. controlled and directed practice* or as *step 2.2. Repetition and consolidation-based practice* as revealed from the typology of activities together with their actual position in the unit. From this overall related account in the different manuals (separately) three subsequent remarks will be incorporated.

The "Exercises" in Berlitz's "Travelling" lesson contain an identical class of activities as in the "Oral introduction" of the same lesson and the whole of unit seven: questions and answers. The constraint is notorious especially in the first lesson and the first part of the second lesson. The latter's exercises deviate a little bit from this aspect, if only for the personal opinion and general knowledge questions posed. That is the reason why, contrary to the remaining P2 instances which have been classified as *step 2.1. controlled or directed practice*, I have allowed for step 2.2. to be in this last part of the "Travelling" lesson. On the other hand, the linguistic peculiarities of the reading extract (introduction to new uses of studied forms plus recycling of elements from the "Oral introduction" and from previous units)

demanded the consideration of this exercise as simultaneous inductive indirect/contextualized P1 (according to the former feature) and controlled P2 (in the sense of receptive practice as following the latter factors).

Alexander's teaching unit 36 is tremendously recurring in this aspect of practice activity typology and exercise arrangement. Except for the repetition drill and the song which revealed an equation among presentation, learning and retention, the remaining drills (though belonging to different types (substitutions that force a change, questions and answers)) together with the dictation correspond to *step 2.1. controlled or directed practice.* The reason is rooted in the differing language manipulated in the two parts of the teaching unit. In the first one, the regular past tense *–d* form is related to the aural dialogue and its subject matter. In the second one, the same regular past tense form plus those ending with *–ed* and *–ied* are practised with the help of teacher's points of time schedule and other pictures in the book. This is accomplished by means of diverse pattern drills and types of questions, which required different structural answers ("Did she air the room?; What did I do this morning?; When did you air the room?", etc.). Accordingly, no signs of consolidation are really present.

Eckersley's case is the most juicy one regarding this aspect of manipulation activities, their location in the sequencing and their resulting categorization. In lessons XII and XXXI, the activity types are alike. Both contain a pronunciation drill instantly ensuing the aural presentation, questions and answers about the listening text, a retelling task in the first lesson and a roleplay in the second one plus a dictation. *Step 2.1. (controlled or directed practice)* underlies the pronunciation drill in both units. The reformulation of the scene of the picture in lesson XII and its dictation were regarded as an intermediate case between Steps 2.1. and 2.2 since they involved, on the one hand, repetition and reinforcement of the previous vocabulary and structures and on the other kept high control over the student's response with the resulting neutralization of any transference to analogous contexts.

The tight roleplay in unit XXXI together with the dictation are indicators of *Step 2.2. Repetition or consolidation-based practice.* The prior phonetics, gap-filling and sentence-making exercises was believed to be sufficient prior work for the repetitive consolidation embodied in both activities.

The question-answering task was not considered to belong to the same practice stage in the two units because of the preceding activities in each one. In lesson XII,

the pronunciation drill was ensued by a non-existent exercise in unit XXXI: oral practice. In the form of a substitution table developed by Palmer, it drilled the present progressive pattern in multiple combinations of persons and actions referring to the picture. This was followed by the oral interrogative statements activities, which practised both that structure and others such as those resulting from "Wh-" or "Yes/No" questions ("6. Are all the boys English?"; "8. Who is staying with the boys and girls?"; "15. Is the mountain a big one?"). Precisely due to the combination of types of queries this activity was categorized as Step 2.1., as opposed to the same one in lesson XXXI.

The comprehension questions in this latter unit were considered to belong to *step 2.2. (repetition and consolidation-based practice)* owing to their preceding exercises: a gap-filling and a make-a-sentence activity, both of which absent in lesson XII. The first task implied controlled practice which was reinforced in the second one (step 2.2.). After all this work included in both exercises, which comprised the same items used in the questions, these were considered to be better located as consolidation-based rehearsal. In both units, this type of exercise was identified with Nuttall's (1996: 188) questions of "literal comprehension" and Masuhara's (2003: 341-343) "Reading-based approaches" in spite of these authors' concentration on the reading skill (as opposed to the listening one at stake here) and the non-verbal status of the picture in lesson XII. Indeed, the responses were readily available in the drawing and in the dialogue. The real aim was targeted at vocabulary and grammar mastering, though the arrangement of structures in the questions was much more loose than that of Alexander's unit. This fact accounts for Eckersley's material impression of less restriction in responses and somehow more attention on testing the students' understanding of the content of the aural text(s). At any rate, the latter was a mere tool so as not to offer a bare, non-framed presentation of the linguistic items in accordance with the associationism-underpinned advocacy of the Reform Movement for the text-based approach. Hence my categorization of inductive indirect/contextualized presentation.

The only-one-gap-filling-in-a-single-sentence task in lesson XXXI is very much alike to that of unit XIII; besides, the pair of occurrences represent the same category of practice: step 2.1. This is obviously due to the great restriction in answer (an individual word in each of the isolated and disconnected sentences). The "Use each of the following words in a sentence" is present in lessons XXXI (exercise II)

and XXXII (activities II, V). The first two occupy the same place in the sequencing: *step 2.2. or repetition or consolidation-based practice*. Exercise II in lesson XXXI demanded the creation of a sentence with the same elements previously practised in a controlled way in the gap-filling, whereas activity II in lesson XXXII had been leaded by the previous deductive explanation in the same lesson and the prior practice in the preceding unit.

Despite being an identical class of activity, task V from unit XXXII does not fully represent step 2.2. but a combination of this stage and step 2.1. Though headed by deductive theoretical explanation of the meanings of "quite", the aim of exercise V was simply to make learners show their understanding of these senses. The mixture of the consideration of the two practice stages is rooted, on the one hand, in the answers (discrete-item-based); on the other, in a certain level of consolidation due to the "creativity" on the students' part in the elaboration of related sentences despite the other seasons not having been seen before.

The remaining exercises in lesson XXXII that were absent in the other three units from *Essential English* were the transformation drills represented in the activities I, III and IV. Similar to the making of a sentence with various items from task II, they occupied step 2.2. for identical factors: prior reasoned explanation in the same unit and practice in lesson XXXI.

Following this second section of findings which has summarised the categorization of practice as either step 2.1. or 2.2., three related observations may be remarked.

Firstly, the material that shows the higher degree of activity types variety is Eckersley's. This fact is understandable due to the couple of distinct parts of the coursebook. However, Berlitz's manual also shares this characteristic and does not display this diversity but sameness in lesson structure both within and across units in both parts. Alexander's course is the most homogeneous one in this sense, as it surpasses Berlitz's uniformity of lesson organization: the ordering and types of exercises is virtually the same, the only deviances being the insertion of dictation from teaching unit 17 onwards; the diverse textual formats of the introductory texts (dialogues, narratives) and the alternation between songs, oral compositions or the repetition drill that closes the first section of the unit.

Secondly, Eckersley's units are again the ones which exhibit greater variety of kinds of practice in relation to steps 2.1. and 2.2 as can be appreciated in Table 6

represented by the P2 in full green or half red and half green. Lesson seven in Berlitz's book only contained instances of controlled practice; the "Travelling" lesson included the original "receptive practice" of the reading extract plus repetitive and consolidation-based rehearsal in the "Exercises" section. Alexander's teaching unit 36 was incredibly recurring, as only occurrences of *step 2.1. controlled or directed practice* were appreciated.

The third observation is closely linked with the second one. Once again, not only are *Essential English* lessons those which portray a higher presence of both practice stages. Lesson XXXII is the one which discloses a more significant variety in its ordering or sequencing. In effect, activities I, II, III and IV correspond to step 2.2. The fifth exercise embodies a mixture between both practice stages owing to the reasons mentioned in the recent discernment of practice activity typology and its category in the sequencing.

On the contrary, Berlitz's lesson seven was extremely unifying except for the amalgamation between P1 and P2 in the "possession" or first part. Maybe due to the scarce kinds of activities, the "Travelling" lesson was also temperate in this sense. However, this justification does not apply to *First Things First* teaching unit 36, where an elevated number of exercises is comprised. These reveal uniformity in the sequencing of activities, a fact that should not be a surprise viewing that most of the work covered belongs to *step 2.1. or controlled and directed practice.* The sole alteration of the P1-P2 distribution comes with the song and repetition drill (illustrative examples of the correlation between presentation, learning and retention).

Once the activity types and their position in the lessons have been clearly identified, the favoured order of skills may be finally unveiled. The seeds from the natural methodology may be definitely appreciated with the emphasis on speech in quantity (most of the lessons were devoted to oral work) and placement (reading and writing, much less practised, were located at the end and thus built upon the previous oral tasks).

This phenomenon happened both within units (Berlitz's and Eckersley's lessons) and across units (as Alexander included dictation from unit 17). Some isolated reading-based activities such as the passage in Berlitz's "Travelling" lesson and the gap-fillings in Eckersley's were disposed in the middle of speech practice, but I have already argued in their respective sections that they were placed after

previous speech activities, which were the foundation of the development of written receptive and productive skills.

The fourth and final general group of results is the underlying psychological configuration of the activity sequences. However, mention needs to be previously made about a directly connected point: the great missing stage in the pedagogic ordering of exercises. Indeed, my findings hit upon step 3 or Production being absent in all the seven lessons. There is no trace of "autonomous use of the previously acquired knowledge through activities that require not only the employment of the learned elements, but also the *creation* of new models that may be achieved by means of the interrelation of already known features used in a partial different way, or through rules application" (Sánchez 2004a: 181).

Certainly, we are dealing with textbooks addressed at the elementary level. However, the units analysed belonged to the middle of each part (Berlitz's and Eckersley's cases) or of the whole book (Alexander's). Arguably, this middle stage could have shown some -even if basic- indications of "proto-production" activities (especially in the second parts of the first authors' materials). If we remember the roleplay from *Essential English* lesson XXXI, it was merely a memory exercise rather than a truly adapted communicative activity for beginners. The three characteristics of communication outlined by Morrow (1981: 62-63) were absolutely absent: there was no purpose of interaction other than practising language since all the participants knew the content already; feedback was not allowed from interlocutors as the text was restricted to that specific part of the dialogue, which included all the sentences that needed to be uttered in exactly the same form (direct speech), and thus linguistic choice was out of question.

On the other hand, hardly any learners' personalization or meaning elaboration was appreciated, with the possible exception of certain isolated questions in the "Exercises" part of Berlitz's "Travelling" unit and the invention of purposeless sentences with certain key words in *Essential English*. The queries were too literal and the responses of all the activities were very constrained in terms of linguistic length (short statements or single terms) and content selection.

In other words: there was not a proper, autonomous, creative use of the material learned. Further, the sameness of lesson structure in the three coursebooks allows for the generalization of this result beyond the units examined.

The psychological configuration of the didactic activity sequences will be dramatically affected by this absence of P3, in such a way that a final reconsideration may be added. Let us firstly include a succinct summary of the cognitive structures found in all the units and the learning principles behind (some of which have already been mentioned in the exposition about the inductive approach).

Berlitz's lesson seven was identified as *PRO* owing to the constant blend between P1 and P2 in the form of answers and questions. Accordingly, no declarative base was created but direct proceduralized forms without underlying supporting rule knowledge. This situation changed in the "Travelling" lesson, where *decPRO* had been proposed. The small letters *dec* accounted for the two roles of declarative knowledge. On the one hand, it symbolized the initial departure for proceduralization in the sense of reinforcing certain elements recycled both in the "Oral Introduction" and in the reading extract. These revised items belonged to previous units (frequency adverbs, superlative degree of adjectives, personal pronouns, demonstrative determiners, time expressions, the modal verb 'must'). Besides, the written extract recycled items from the first part of the lesson (expressions and notions of travelling). On the other, *dec* embraced its function as a database owing to the inclusion in the reading passage of new uses of already studied items in the preceding unit. *PRO* was the main cognitive stage and corresponded to the practice embodied in the questions and answers from the "Oral Introduction" (very similar to the last parts of lesson seven); the receptive practice of the reading passage (in the sense of offering visual exposure to the items from the first part) plus the final abundant questions or "Exercises".

Eckersley's lessons were all considered to portray the cognitive structure *DECPRO*, whether declarative knowledge was materialized in an inductive indirect/contextualized P1 (step 1.1.) in units XII and XXXI or in a deductive explicit/direct P1 (*step 1.2. or reasoned explanation or explicitness)* as appreciated in lessons XIII and XXXII. *PRO*, then was represented by the various practical exercises (P2).

In Alexander's lesson *DECPRO* had equally been unveiled, with *DEC* as Sánchez's step 1.1. concretized in the aural passage and *PRO* depicted in all the different drills.

Two important conclusions emerge from the disentanglement of the cognitive structure of the seven lessons. Firstly, what all these divergent configurations of the

presentation stage in the inductive mode show is that declarativization or "knowledge about" does take place despite the absence of the explicit attention on form in both the deductive and inductive approaches (if the latter consists of discovery learning exemplified in the provision of students with illustrative examples of patterns or meanings from which the corresponding rules and nuances of denotations have to be ascertained). There exists one exception: Berlitz's lesson seven (where solely *PRO* was unveiled due to the overwhelming combination of P1 and P2).

Secondly, genuine proceduralization as such never really took place due to the didactic model of sequencing that emerges after the identification of the psychological sequencing. Indeed, Berlitz's "Travelling" lesson, Eckersley's and Alexander's units embodied what Johnson (1996: 171) labels as traditional teaching: a two-P model. The case of Berlitz's lesson seven is different as only P2 was observed, with the resulting added lack of a proper declarative base. As Johnson (1996: 172) argues, in order to avoid the risk of fossilisation teaching measures must be undertaken to ensure that declarative representations follow this *PRO*.

Let us concentrate our attention on the remaining six lessons since they represent the predominant situation. As P2 constitutes the initial steps to develop proceduralization, the absence of a final production stage impeded the absolute fulfilment of this phenomenon. Hence my final reconsideration of all *PRO* instances being symbolized as *pro* (with small letters) to illustrate such a fact. Thus *DECPRO* becomes *DECpro*.

This pedagogic flaw is closely linked with the underlying psychological learning theory of the materials. In the same way that I argued that a certain amount of "proto-behaviorism" existed in lesson seven of Berlitz's method, the same remarks may be applied to its "Travelling" lesson in the exercises section (due to the identical format of repetition in the questions and answers); to *Essential English* and, of course -with the fully developed conceptualization of behaviourism- to *First Things First*.

Eckersley's manual revealed the impact from Palmer's habit-formation theory exemplified in the repetitive exercises (retelling, tight roleplay, answers to questions, dictations, transformation and pronunciation drills, etc.). As mentioned above, Palmer might have been influenced himself by either James's 1890 work or Bloomfield's 1914 early writing. In 1942 the latter explicitly acknowledged the key principle of behaviourism and of the ALM: "overlearning". It consisted in

continually practising structures through a sequence of stimulus and response until automatization was achieved (in the sense of delivering quick, accurate answers).

The theory of behaviourism as described by Skinner and Bloomfield is transparently evident in *First Things First* with all its repetitive structural drills and the overt teachers' guidelines as to their implementation in class: initial cue to be followed by the student's answer.

As was discussed in section 6.3.6., the ultimate responsible agents for automatization not to happen from modern communicative parameters were the nature of the activities themselves and the conditions under which they occur, both of which derived from the crude pedagogic application of behaviourism.

The drills in *First Things First* and in the rest of structural methods were form-focused and simply depicted rote, non-meaning-based learning despite the context provided by the pictures in the British version. Following Ausubel's subsumption theory (1968), this type of acquisition does not permit the establishment of meaningful relationships between the individual's existing cognitive configuration and the new learned material. Consequently, long-term retention is seriously hindered.

Moreover, the circumstances under which these drills were carried out greatly diverged from Johnson's (1996: 122, 125-130) ROCs (*Real Life Operating Conditions*). The resulting consequence was the learners' inability to deal with authentic communication as they were non-capable of facing the ensuing natural mistakes in such conditions. In other words, the automatic work derived from the SLT and ALM language laboratories was artificially-founded. This needed to be largely refined under Johnson's ROCs to become communicatively automatic, i.e., accurate and fluent performance when there is message focus, the essential characteristic of genuine interaction.

Following Johnson (1994: 127), the didactic conclusions that come forward are the imperious need to include a P3 stage whose role is to help students overcome processing mistakes from ROCs. In this way, definite proceduralization of forms can be simultaneously achieved as these conditions will gradually direct the learners' attention to the most relevant feature of communication (concentration on meaning). Accordingly, a new characteristic must be added to the practice stage: it must be ensured that certain communicative elements are present, even in the most form-focused practice.

What is largely relevant for the units analysed is the means that Johnson (1994, 1996) proposes to achieve this aim. Truly, in elementary levels it is very difficult to deviate consciousness from language and to place it on the message as the linguistic resources are scarce. This author proposes a reformulation of the message-focus concept: *form-defocus*. It consists of progressively deflecting attention away from form through the introduction of different conditions that will make the linguistic task more difficult. More language would be required from the learner but at the same time more message focus would be demanded. The interesting point for us is Johnson's (1996: 144-148) didactic implementation for beginners. He proposes seven versions of the same exercise. The original one consists of a picture to be seen by all the students in which different objects (a house, a bicycle, a dog, a car and a train painted in this order but not correspondingly numbered) appear together with the following cue and response: "Number one. Is it a bicycle? No, it isn't" (notice the similarity between this structure and the "Is Ron Marston nice?" query in *First Things First*). In pairs, the pupils must practise questions and short answers with the verb 'to be' by sharing the same drawing which is simultaneously seen by both learners. Consequently, there is only concentration on language. Johnson introduces an information gap to obtain a certain degree of meaning attention. Several adaptations are offered, but an illustrative one is that in which a memory element is added: students must look at the picture for a minute and then close their books. The teacher will ask them the questions (Number one: "Is it a house? No, it isn't" (the correct answer being a dog)).

The activity is a disguised drill but the memory factor makes it more challenging and similar to real life conditions; obviously, this still is not genuine interaction, but starts paving the way for acquiring communicative automatization. Hence the label "form-defocus".

Even if I agree with Johnson's proposal, a new stance towards the objective of P3 should be considered from a beginners' point of view. The fact that pupils from initial levels accurately reproduce language in whichever stage of practice or production does not necessarily mean that acquisition has actually taken place due to the learning principles of *readiness to learn* and *delayed effect of instruction*. So the P3's "Autonomous use of the previously acquired knowledge" and the "creation of new models" (Sánchez 2004a: 181) are to be viewed from the angle of providing the students with opportunities to get used to employing language in simulating real-life

conditions rather than as the main goal being perfect accuracy and fluency. Truly, all of the three materials recycled linguistic items, though from the years of publication it is doubtful that the authors were conscious about the qualities of this procedure. Besides, the factors under which this revising took place were distant from communicative ones and focus on form was always the exclusive priority. Most importantly, the trio of courses analysed did not abide by Palmer's *incubation* and Krashen's *silent period*, especially to be respected at the beginning of teaching. As commented on in their respective sections, the initial units of the textbooks examined (not the lessons properly analysed) made learners speak from scratch (and even write as in Eckersley's case).

Setting aside this issue of the final P not being present in the coursebooks studied and the immediate (psycho)learning consequences, I would like to highlight the complexity involved in unmasking activity sequencing patterns and their underlying cognitive structure (regardless of the absence of production stage). The difficulties are posed in the non-so-clear-cut distinction between P1 and P2 and between practice steps 2.1 and 2.2.

The roots of this obstacle are to be found in the language contained in each activity; the nature of the activity itself and the placement of the exercise in question in the distribution together with its previous tasks.

The problem derived from language was observed in the reading passage of Berlitz's "Travelling" lesson. Introduction of certain items from the first part or "Oral Introduction" led to the extract's categorization of reinforcing visual presentation following the aural one as well as receptive practice of those items. Similar to the "Oral introduction", the text equally recycled elements from previous units. In all these three cases the function of this initial declarative knowledge had been considered to be the strengthening point of departure for proceduralization. However, the consideration of its other function or database was prompted by the insertion of new uses of particles from the immediate unit.

As to the nature of the activity itself, the dictations in lessons XII and XIII and the retelling task in unit XII from *Essential English* are good examples of the related difficulty to locate each of them into either step 2.1 or 2.2. A compromise solution was called for, since neither singly repetition nor transference was perceived. The same phenomenon happened with task V from lesson XXXII (making a sentence with a specific word) due to the prior explanation of the meanings of "quite".

The location of the activity in the sequencing also posed several challenging issues. The same exercise was revealed to belong to different didactic ordering stages depending on its placement and its previous activities. This particularly happened in *Essential English.* "Comprehension questions" in lesson XII corresponded to controlled practice whereas those of lesson XXXI depicted consolidation work owing to the previous practice included in the gap-filling and the sentence-making exercises. The latter type of activities was present in lessons XXXI and XXXII. In the former, it had been regarded as step 2.2. due to the prior rehearsal with the same elements in the gap filling. A similar situation occurred in exercise II of the last lesson, which was led by explanation and practice in the same and preceding units respectively. However, task V had been regarded as a middle case between controlled and consolidation-based practice. Truly, overt exposition of the senses of "quite" appeared in the same lesson, but the aim of exercise V was simply to show the learners' understanding of the nuances of the denotations of this adverb.

Therefore, as may be appreciated, sequencing is a thorny issue, where many factors (didactic and psycholinguistic) have to be taken into account. We may not be surprised that empirical research in this area is nonexistent.

With this study being the first one which has actually analysed extracts from materials, I hope to have contributed to the thrust of the discussion of this virtually neglected feature in Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Teaching (empirical) research. I am aware of the limited number of units and books analysed. Nevertheless, I believe that this historically-based work has provided heightened awareness of past sequencing practices, with two ensuing basic consequences. On the one hand, it has supplied a better understanding of both current scholars' and authors materials' positions regarding these old procedures and the methods implied; on the other, by way of unveiling such stances, it has allowed for a more acute perception of modern related concerns. Indeed, sequencing has revealed itself as an enlightening tool to apprehend contemporary rejection of the Direct Method and SLT from the perspective of the lack of a proper production phase which embraced the notion of language genuinely used for communication.

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— 7 —

Synopsis of the Lessons contained in the First Book

Preparatory Lessons (Object teaching)

— 8 —

Elementary Reading and Conversation

(Teaching through context)

— 20 —

Questions	Answers
What is this?	It is a book.
What do you do?	I read.
Where is the book?	In my hand.

I ask a question: "Who am I"? Please answer my question.

Ask me where my book is. ("Where is your book?")

My name is... Your name is...

Ask me what my name is. ("What is your name?")

Ask me how many books there are here.

Seventh Lesson

This is my pencil and that is your pencil.

My pencil is black; your pencil is red.

Mr. Johnson's book is brown; Mrs. Coleman's book is black.

Is this Mr. Johnson's book? Yes, it is his book.

Is that Mrs. Coleman's book? Yes, it is her book.

Whose pencil is this? It is my pencil.

Whose book is this? It is your book.

Whose pen is this? It is Mrs. Coleman's pen.

My tie is black; your tie is gray.

My hat is brown; your hat is black.

What is the colour of your tie? My tie is gray.

What is the colour of Mr. Sweet's hat? His hat is black.

What is the colour of Mrs. Bingham's gloves? Her gloves are brown.

Open your book, please. You open your book and I open my book. What do we do? We open our books. What do Mr. Smith and Mr. White do?

— 21 —

They open their books. Do they open their books? Yes, they do.

You close your book and I close my book. What do we do? Do we close our books?

Take your pencils. Do these gentlemen take their pencils?

Take a book. *You have* a book in your hand. *I have* a pen in my hand. What have I in my hand? What have you in your hand?

Mrs. Bingham *has* a hat on her head. What has Mrs. Bingham on her head? I have a black coat. Mr. Sweet has a gray coat. You have a blue dress. Have I a black coat? Has Mr. Sweet a black coat? Have you a black dress?

You have blue eyes. I have brown eyes. Have you blue eyes or brown eyes? You have blond hair. I have black hair. Have I black hair? What colour are my eyes? What colour are your eyes?

You have a pencil; I have a pencil; we have two pencils. The teacher has a book. The pupils have books.

What have you? What have I? What have we? What has the teacher? What have the pupils?

Have you a book?	{	Yes, I have *a book.*
		No, I have *no book.*
Have I a pencil?	{	Yes, you have *a pencil.*
		No, you have *no pencil.*

{ You take a book. { I take a book.
{ You are taking a book. { I am taking a book.

We take books.
We are taking books.

What do you do?
What are you doing?

What do I do?
What am I doing?

What do we do?
What are we doing?

The teacher opens his book.
He is opening his book.

What does the teacher do?
What is the teacher doing?

The pupils open their books.
They are opening their books.

What do the pupils do?
What are the pupils doing?

The theatre:

I go to the theatre.
I am going to the theatre.

You go to the theatre.
You are going to the theatre.

We go to the theatre.
We are going to the theatre.

Where do I go?
Where am I going?

Where do you go?
Where are you going?

Do I go to the theatre?
Am I going to the theatre?

Do you go to the theatre?
Are you going to the theatre?

Do we go to the theatre?
Are we going to the theatre?

The church; the school:

Mr. Goodman goes to church.
He is going to church.

Where does Mr. Goodman go?
Where is he going?

Charles and George go to school.
Charles and George are going to school.

Where do they go?
Where are they going?

The pupils take lessons.
You are taking an English lesson.

What do the pupils do at school?
What are you doing?

I speak French, German and Spanish.
We are speaking English in the class.

What languages do I speak?
What language are we speaking in the class?

Eighth Lesson

You have one pencil; I have three pencils. I have *more* pencils *than* you. How many pencils have I? How many have you? Have I more pencils than you? You have ten pens; Mr. Miller has five pens. You have more pens than Mr. Miller. Mr. Miller has *not so many* pens *as* you. Has Mr. Miller *as many* pens *as* you? Yes, he has as many. No, he has not so many. I have five books; you have two books. Have I more books than you? Have you as many books as I? Who has more books, you or I?

Many, more; few, fewer

In the thick book there are many pages; in the thin book there are few pages. In the large class there are many pupils, in the small one there are few. Are there many chairs in the large room? Yes, there are many. How many are there? There are twenty or

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19. When will you return? 20. How many months will you remain absent? 21. Shall we see each other before you leave? 22. Where shall I see you? 23. At what time will you call?

Travelling

ORAL INTRODUCTION

London is the capital of England. What is the name of the capital of France? of Germany? Paris is a large city. It is the largest city of France. Russia is a large country. What is the name of the largest city in Europe? What is the name of the largest city in America? Is Scotland north or south of England? Is Brighton north or south of London? What country is south of France? What country is north of Italy? Is Austria east or west of Germany?

Brooklyn is near New York. San Francisco is far from New York. Brighton is not far from London; it is only 50 or 60 miles from London. New York is far from London; more than 3000 miles. In England and America we measure distances by miles; in France, Italy, and other countries we calculate distances by kilometres. A mile is a little more than a kilometre and a half (1609 metres). What is the distance between London and Brighton? What is the distance between London and New York? What is the distance between Paris and Bordeaux? (363 miles).

If we go from one country to another, from one city to another, we travel. Do the English travel much? Do they travel more than the French? Do you travel during Summer? Are there many English travellers in Italy?

We can travel by railway (by train), by boat or by air. From Paris to Rome you go by train. From Southampton to New York we go by boat (in a steamer). If you travel by rail, you make a journey. If you travel by boat, you make a voyage. How long does it take to go from Europe to America? About a week (6, 7 or 8 days). How long does

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it take to go from here to the Hotel Savoy? It takes about a quarter of an hour to walk there. How long does it take to walk from here to the railway station?

Before starting on a journey by train you look at the time tables. In a time table you see at what time the trains arrive or leave.

There is a fast train which leaves at 6 o'clock a. m. (in the morning). There is a slow train leaving at noon. Express trains do not stop at all stations, but local trains stop at every station. Do you like to travel by local trains? Do express trains stop very often? Are there any expresses between the large cities?

In express trains you generally have a dining car and sleeping cars. Is there a dining car on an ordinary train? A train consists of a number of carriages (in America: cars or coaches). In Europe there are different classes of carriages. Is a third-class carriage in France as good as a third-class in England?

Cities: London, Liverpool, Manchester, Brighton, Edinburgh, Glasgow, Dublin, Paris, Lyons, Berlin, Vienna, Rome, Milan, Leningrad, Moscow, Brussels, The Hague, Geneva, Copenhagen, Stockholm, Madrid.

Give the names of some European cities.

Countries: England, Ireland, Scotland, France, Germany, Austria, Hungary, Russia, Switzerland, Italy, Spain, Belgium, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, Norway, the United States, Brazil, the Argentine Republic, China, Japan.

Give the names of some countries.

Continents: Europe, Asia, Africa, America, Australia.

Give me the names of the Continents.

READING AND CONVERSATION

A. — Will you go to London with me?

B. — With much pleasure. I have never visited the great Metropolis and I do not want to leave England without having been in London.

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A. — Very well, we can start to-morrow, if you like.

B. — Yes, certainly. We can stay there a week and then go to Paris.

A. — That is a good idea. Crossing the Channel in fine weather is not at all disagreeable.

B. — And the trip is not very long.

A. — Which is the best route for the Continent?

B. — If you prefer a short Channel passage, we can go by way of Dover and Calais or Boulogne and Folkestone; the crossing takes only from one hour to an hour and a half. Otherwise we can go via Newhaven and Dieppe. By the latter route the crossing takes longer but the railway trip is shorter.

A. — I would*) rather go via Dover and Calais. I have been told that channel crossings are often very rough.

B. — We can decide that question later.

A. — At what time shall we start to-morrow? Have you a time table?

B. — Here is one.

A. — Let us see; shall we take the express train that leaves Southampton at 9.15 a. m.? We shall be in London at 11.45.

B. — That is a fast train. We shall arrive before noon and have plenty of time to go to a good hotel and, afterwards, to take a look at some of the principal streets.

A. — Very well, shall I meet you at your room at half-past eight, or will you call for me at my room?

_____

*) For the present don't speak of "would" or "should" as conditional mood, but explain the meaning by giving a synonymous expression; as, "I would rather — I like better"; "I should like to have = I want, I wish", etc.

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B. — I prefer you to call for me, as I have a great deal to do to get ready for the journey. I must therefore leave you now. Good-bye, see you to-morrow.

EXERCISES

1. Do you travel in Summer? 2. What journey does Mr. A. propose to Mr. B.? 3. Has Mr. B. ever been in London? 4. Are these gentlemen in England or on the Continent? 5. What does Mr. B. want to do before leaving England? 6. Does it give you pleasure to travel? 7. Does it give you pleasure to take a walk in fine weather? 8. When do they wish to start? 9. Do you wish to take a lesson to-morrow? 10. Do you wish to have a great deal of money? 11. Do ladies wish for beautiful clothes? 12. Is Mr. B. willing to start the next day? 13. Are you willing to remain here two hours? 14. How long does Mr. B. wish to stay in London? 15. Where does he wish to go afterwards? 16. Does Mr. A. like that idea? 17. Can they go to the Continent by train? 18. Is England surrounded by water? 19. Can we go to Australia by train? 20. Must we take a boat to go to England? 21. What do the English call the water between England and France? 22. Is it a pleasure to cross the Channel in fine weather? 23. Is it a pleasure during bad weather? 24. Which are the principal lines going from England to France? 25. Does it take a long time to cross from Dover to Calais? 26. How long does it take in fine weather? 27. Does Mr. A. prefer the Dover-Calais route to the Newhaven-Dieppe one? 28. Why? 29. Is the sea calm when the weather is bad? 30. Is it pleasant to cross when the sea is rough? 31. Where can you see at what time the trains

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arrive and leave? 32. By what trains do you prefer to travel, by express trains or local trains? 33. Why? 34. Do local trains stop very often? 35. At what time will Messrs. A. and B. start? 36. At what time will they arrive? 37. At what time will Mr. A. go to his friend's house next morning? 38. Does Mr. B. remain with Mr. A. or does he leave him? 39. Why does he leave him?

The Departure
ORAL INTRODUCTION

When you travel you take clothing with you. You put the clothing in *trunks* or boxes, in *portmanteaux or bags*. A trunk or a box is large; you cannot carry it. You can carry the portmanteau and the bags.

I put my clothing into my trunk. *I pack my trunk* The servant (*the porter*) carries my trunk down.

What do you put into your trunk? Do you carry your trunk yourself? Who carries it? What do you say to the porter?

I go to the railway station. You do not walk to the station; you take a cab or a taxi. Do you go to the station on foot or do you *drive* there? Where do the trains arrive and leave? At what time does the train from — arrive? At what time does the train for —— leave?

In the station there are different platforms. You ask from which platform the train for —— will leave. You ask if it is the train on the right or on the left. What questions do you ask at the station?

Before entering the railway carriage (in America: car) you get your tickets. You get your tickets at the booking office (in America: ticket office); you say: One first class to London. Two second class returns to Brighton. How much? (If you do not *understand*, you say: Will you

CONTENTS

PART II

CONVERSATIONS IN MR. PRIESTLEY'S STUDY

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LESSON XII

Bathe, water, sands, swimming, big, rock, other (another), climb, together, with, arm, tennis racket, hand, their, play, sister, brother, small

1. The boys and girls are at the seaside. (*See picture, p. 57.*)
2. They are sitting on the sands or bathing in the water.
3. One of the boys is swimming to a big rock.
4. Another of the boys is looking at the aeroplanes.
5. Some of the girls are English, others are German.
6. Some of the boys are English, others Swedish.
7. They are all staying together at the hotel.
8. They are all staying with the fathers and mothers of the English boys and girls.
9. One of the boys has a football under his arm.
10. The boy with a football under his arm is an English boy.
11. Another of the boys is in the sea, swimming to the big rock.
12. He is a Swedish boy. His brother is sitting on the sands.
13. Two of the girls have tennis rackets in their hands.
14. The girls with the tennis rackets in their hands are German girls. They are sisters.

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15. The boys and the girls play football and tennis on the sands and swim in the sea.
16. { There are two people / Two people are } climbing the mountain.
17. One is a man, the other is a woman.
18. It is a small mountain; it isn't a big one.[1]

PRONUNCIATION DRILL

VOWELS

[i]	[e]	[æ]	[ɑː]	[ɔ]	[ɔː]
swim	tennis	sands	arm	rock	water
big	together	racket			
with		hand			
tennis					
sister					

[ʌ]	[ə]
other	together
brother	other
	water
	sister
	brother

DIPHTHONGS

[ei]	[ai]	[ɛə]
play	climb	their
bathe		

EXERCISES

I. ORAL PRACTICE.

Answer the following.[2] Make your answers complete sentences.

[1] Note the new use of *one* as a pronoun.
[2] Use all the combinations (as on page 56). This exercise gives 120 sentences.

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		smoking a cigarette (cigarettes)?
		eating an ice (ices)?
the waiter	the waiters	drinking tea?
the woman	the women	standing?
Is the man	the men	sitting?
Are the boy	the boys	staying at the hotel?
the girl	the girls	swimming?
the dog	the dogs	looking at the aeroplanes?
		sleeping?
		climbing the mountain?

II. Answer the following questions.
  1. Where are the boys and girls?
  2. What are they doing?
  3. What is one of the boys doing?
  4. What is another of the boys doing?
  5. Are all the girls English?
  6. Are all the boys English?
  7. Where are they all staying?
  8. Who is staying with the boys and girls?
  9. What has one boy under his arm?
  10. Has one of the boys a football under his arm?
  11. Is one of the boys swimming to the big rock?
  12. Is he an English boy?
  13. What have two of the girls in their hands?
  14. Have two of the girls tennis rackets in their hands?
  15. Is the mountain a big one?
  16. Who are climbing the mountain?

III. Look at the picture on p. 67, then describe the picture as fully as you can.

Dictation

  At the seaside there are some English boys and girls. They are staying with their fathers and mothers at the hotel.

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There are some German girls and some Swedish boys with the English ones. These boys and girls are staying with the English people at the hotel.

One of the boys has a football under his arm; another is in the sea swimming to a big rock; others are sitting on the sands or bathing in the water.

Two of the girls have tennis rackets in their hands. The boys and the girls play football or tennis together on the sands.

There is a small mountain at the seaside. Two people are climbing it, one is a man, the other is a woman.

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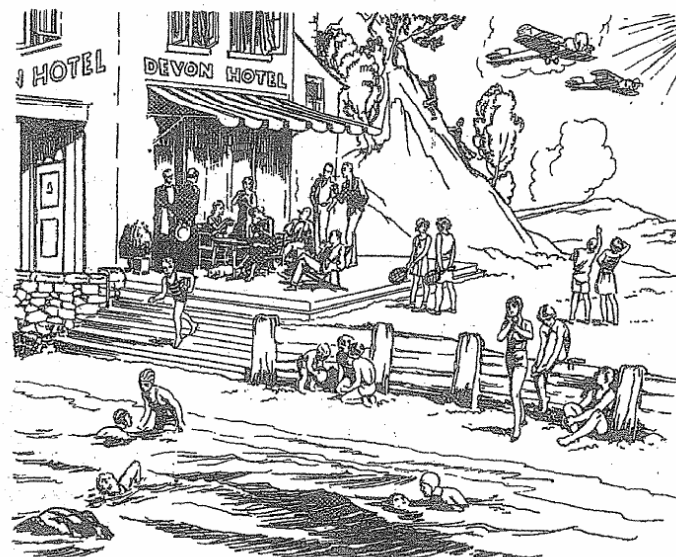
LESSON XIII

GRAMMAR (COMMENTS ON LESSON XII)

A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun. You have already learned the pronouns *I, you, he, she, it, we, they.*

Each of these pronouns has a corresponding *Possessive Adjective,* e.g.

Pronoun	*Possessive Adjective*
I	my (*masculine* or *feminine*)
you	your (*masculine* or *feminine*)
he	his (*masculine*)
she	her (*feminine*)
it	its (*neuter*)
we	our (*masculine* or *feminine*)
they	their (*masculine, feminine* or *neuter*)

1. If the noun or pronoun is singular number, the possessive adjective is singular number.

e.g. The | man | is looking at | his | {boy, boys}

(*singular*)   (*singular*)

The | woman | has | her | {pen, pens, tennis racket, flowers}   in | her | {hand, hands}

(*singular*)   (*singular*)   (*singular*)

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2. If the noun or pronoun is plural number, the possessive adjective is plural number.

The | girls | are looking at | their | {father, tennis rackets}

(*plural*)   (*plural*)

The | boys | are playing with | their | {father, dogs, football}

(*plural*)   (*plural*)

3. If the noun or pronoun is masculine, the possessive adjective is masculine.

The | father | is looking at | his | {boy, boys, girl, girls, umbrella, dog}

(*masculine*)   (*masculine*)

4. If the noun or pronoun is feminine, the possessive adjective is feminine.

The | mother | is looking at | her | {boy, boys, girl, girls, umbrella, dog}

(*feminine*)   (*feminine*)

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In short, the *number* and *gender* of the possessive adjective depends on the **possessor** and **not** (as in French, German, and other languages) **on the thing possessed.**

EXERCISES

I. Put in the omitted possessive adjectives. Make them agree with the subject.

Subject	
The boy	is playing with — football.
The boys	are playing with — football.
The girl	has a tennis racket in — hand.
The girls	have tennis rackets in — hands.
I	am staying at — hotel with — boy.
He	is staying at — hotel with — boy.
He	is staying at — hotel with — girl.
He	is staying at — hotel with — boys and girls.
She	is sitting at — table eating — ice.
I	am sitting at — table eating — eggs.
We	are sitting at — table eating — eggs.
You	have — football under — arm.
He	has — football under — arm.
I	have — football under — arm.
They	are staying at the hotel with — father.
We	are staying at the hotel with — father.
The mountain	has trees on — sides.
The inkpot	is on — side.
We	have many trees and mountains in — country.
The teacher	is in — classroom, teaching — class.

II. Write out the piece of dictation (page 71)

   (*a*) in the third person masculine, i.e. beginning "He is staying . . ."

   (*b*) in the third person feminine, i.e. beginning "She is staying . . ."

   (*c*) in the third person plural, i.e. beginning "They are staying . . ."

Dictation

I am staying at the hotel at the seaside. I am sitting at my table eating my ice and drinking my cup of coffee. My dog is sleeping under the table. My boy and girl are at the seaside. My boy is swimming, my girl is playing tennis. I have some German girls and Swedish boys staying with my boy and girl.

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LESSON XXXI

FRIEDA, LUCILLE, HOB

Dress, why, cut, style, bright, quite, suit, clothes, buy, expensive, same, once,

FRIEDA: How did you come here this morning, Lucille; did you come by car?

LUCILLE: No, something went wrong with my car last night, and I couldn't get it to go this morning, so I walked here.

FRIEDA: So did I. I came down Bond Street and Oxford Street. Did you?

LUCILLE: Yes.

FRIEDA: Did you see the dresses in Harridge's? They had a lot of them in brown and grey. I thought they were very nice.

LUCILLE: I looked at the windows for a few minutes and I saw the dresses, but I didn't like any of them.

FRIEDA: Didn't you? Why not?

LUCILLE: I didn't like the cut or the style of any of them, and I like bright colours.

FRIEDA: Of course, your taste isn't my taste. We are quite different and what suits you doesn't suit me.

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THE TAILOR CUTS THE CLOTH

LUCILLE: I think your clothes always look very nice; they are quiet and in very good taste. Did you buy these clothes in London?

FRIEDA: No, I bought them in Berne last summer. Do you buy your clothes in London?

LUCILLE: No, I generally buy them in Paris.

FRIEDA: Isn't it very expensive to buy them in Paris?

LUCILLE: No, it's about the same as in London. So when I want new clothes I go to Paris.

HOB: And how often is that?

LUCILLE: Hello, Hob! I didn't know you were listening. You want to know how often I buy a new dress? Oh! about once every month or six weeks.

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Suit, last, understand, wear, believe, really, true, great

HOB: Why don't you buy good clothes? My suit lasts six years, not six weeks.

LUCILLE: Oh! you don't understand. A woman must have new clothes. She can't wear the same old things time after time.

HOB: Why must she have new clothes? I always think a woman believes what she wants to believe, not what is really true.

LUCILLE: Isn't Hob clever to-day? Have you any other great thoughts, Hob, to give us? I really think that you ought to write a book, *What I Know About Women.*

HOB: You can laugh if you like, but I know what I am talking about. You are like the woman in the story——

Doctor, air

LUCILLE: Don't tell us that you know a story about a woman who only believed what she wanted to believe.

HOB: Yes, I do. She went to a doctor because she wanted to believe that she was not very well. The doctor said, "You must take cold baths, go out in the fresh air and wear light clothes."

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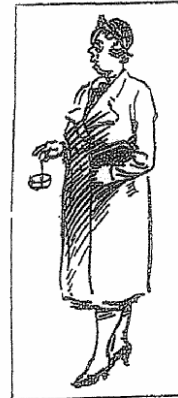
LIGHT   HEAVY

LUCILLE: And didn't she believe what he told her?

HOB: Well, she went home and said to her husband, "The doctor says I must go for a holiday to the seaside, then to the mountains, and I must get a lot of new, light dresses."

Just, already, quick, tailor, expensive, such, address

Enter PEDRO and JAN

HOB: Hello! we were just talking about clothes.

JAN: I saw in the newspaper to-day that now is a good time to buy your suit for next summer.

HOB: I already have my suit for next summer.

JAN: You are very quick. When did you buy it?

HOB: Two years last summer. This is it! A woman came to our house last week asking for old

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clothes. She said to me, "What do you do with your old clothes?"

JAN: And what did you say?

HOB: I said, "I put them on a chair at night, and put them on again next morning."

JAN: I want a new suit, Pedro; can you tell me a good tailor? You are always very well dressed.

PEDRO: I got this suit at Bernard Snip's in Savile Row. He's a very good man. Here's the address if you want it.

JAN: Thanks! Is he expensive?

PEDRO: I don't think that he is expensive for such a good tailor. I paid fifteen pounds for this suit.

JAN: That's rather too much for me. I generally pay about six or seven pounds.

HOB: These are the two clever fellows! They pay fifteen pounds, or seven pounds for a suit. I paid thirty shillings for my suit—and they think I'm not clever!

PRONUNCIATION DRILL

VOWELS

[iː]	[i]	[e]	[æ]	[ɑː]	[ɔ]
believe	quick	dress	understand	last	doctor
	expensive	expensive			
	really	already			
	already	address			
	expensive				
	believe				

[ɔː]	[ʌ]	[e]	[uː]
already	cut	summer	true
	once[1]	address	suit[2]
	understand	tailor	
	summer	doctor	
	just		
	such		

DIPHTHONGS

[ei]	[ou]	[ai]	[iə]	[ɛə]
same	clothes[3]	why	really	wear
tailor		style		air
great		bright		
		buy		
		quite		

EXERCISES

Put in the words omitted.

1. Something went — with my car and I couldn't get it to go.
2. Did you see the d— in Harridge's windows?
3. I didn't like the — and — of any of them.
4. I like — colours.
5. We are — different and what — you doesn't — me.
6. I think your — always look very nice.
7. Did you — these clothes in London?
8. I bought them in Berne last —.
9. Isn't it very — to buy them in Paris?
10. No, it's about the — as in London.
11. I buy clothes — every month or six weeks.
12. My suit — me six years not six weeks.
13. Oh, you don't u—.

[1] Pronounced [wʌns].   [2] Pronounced [sjuːt].
[3] Pronounced [klouðz] or [klouz].

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14. A woman can't — the same old things time after time.
15. A woman b— what she wants to b— not what is — —.
16. Have you any other — thoughts to give us?
17. She went to a — because she wanted to believe that she was not very well.
18. You must go out in the fresh — and — light clothes.
19. Here is the —- of my tailor.
20. I don't think that he is e— for — a good tailor.

II. Use each of the following words in a sentence:

1. dress	8. summer	15. really
2. cut	9. expensive	16. true
3. style	10. once	17. great
4. bright	11. to last	18. doctor
5. to suit	12. understand	19. tailor
6. clothes	13. wear	20. address
7. buy	14. believe	

III. Answer the following questions:
1. How did Lucille come to the class this morning?
2. Where did she see some dresses?
3. Did she like them?
4. What colours were they?
5. What kind of colours does Lucille like?
6. What was it about the dresses that Lucille didn't like?
7. Does the same thing suit all people?
8. Where did Lucille buy her clothes?
9. Where did Frieda buy her clothes?
10. Did Lucille say it was very expensive to buy clothes in Paris?
11. How often does Lucille buy a new dress?

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12. What was Hob's "great thought" about women?
13. What did the doctor tell the woman?
14. What did the woman tell her husband?
15. When did Hob buy his suit for next summer?
16. Where did Pedro buy his suit?
17. How much did he pay for it?
18. Did he think that his tailor was expensive?
19. What did Jan pay for his suit?
20. What did Hob pay for his suit?

IV. With one student as the doctor, one as the woman, and another as her husband, give Hob's story.

Dictation

If you want a good suit you must go to a good tailor. Of course a good tailor is rather expensive. You must pay, in England, from five to fifteen pounds, but I believe that it is worth that to get a really good suit. You pay of course for the cut and the style but a good suit lasts for a long time. It wears well and you always look well dressed in it.

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LESSON XXXII

COMMENTS ON LESSON XXXI

In this lesson there are some more examples of the past tense of irregular verbs, e.g.:

Present	Past
come	came
go	went
do	did
see	saw
think	thought[1]
buy	bought[2]
know	knew
understand	understood
wear	wore
say	said
get	got
pay	paid
cut	cut

REGULAR VERBS

suit	suited
believe	believed
dress	dressed
last	lasted
address	addressed.

[1] Pronunciation [θɔːt] [2] Pronunciation [bɔːt]

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NOUNS FROM VERBS

Some of these verbs, or some form of the verb, can be used as nouns, e.g.:

Verb	Noun
to dress	a dress
address	address
cut	cut
think	thought (*from the past tense*)
believe	belief

Examples:

(*a*) She always *dresses* very well (*verb*).

(*b*) Her *dresses* are very expensive (*noun*).

(*a*) Please *address* this letter for me (*verb*).

(*b*) I don't know the right *address* (*noun*).

(*a*) A bad tailor can never *cut* a suit well (*verb*).

(*b*) I could see by the *cut* of his suit that it came from a good tailor's (*noun*).

(*a*) I *think* that you all understand this lesson now (*verb*).

(*b*) A good man has good *thoughts*; a bad man has bad thoughts (*noun*).

(*a*) I *believe* it is a good thing to buy good clothes (*verb*).

(*b*) That is my *belief*, and I think that it is true (*noun*).

The verb *to suit* has quite a different meaning from the noun *suit*.

INTERROGATIVE OF THE PAST TENSE

The interrogative of the past tense is formed with *did* and the infinitive of the verb.

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Affirmative

I
you
he, she
we
they

{ danced.
played.
dressed.
came.
went.
saw.
knew.
understood. }

Interrogative

Did

{ I
you
he, she
we
they }

{ dance?
play?
dress?
come?
go?
see?
know?
understand? }

Examples:

Affirmative

She danced.
I played football badly.
Pedro dressed well.[1]
All the children bathed in the sea.
You smoked a cigarette.
You came by car.
He went to the tailor's.
Frieda did her work well.

She saw her friend.
Jan thought that Pedro was well dressed.
Lucille bought her dress in Paris.
The boys knew their lessons very well.
He understood the lesson.

He wore his new suit.

Interrogative

Did she dance?
Did I play football badly?
Did Pedro dress well?
Did all the children bathe in the sea?
Did you smoke a cigarette?
Did you come by car?
Did he go to the tailor's?
Did Frieda do her work well?

Did she see her friend?
Did Jan think Pedro was well dressed?
Did Lucille buy her dress in Paris?
Did the boys know their lessons very well?
Did he understand the lesson?

Did he wear his new suit?

[1] You also had "Pedro is well dressed." Here, *well dressed* is an adjective.

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Jan said that he liked football.
Hob got his suit last year.

He paid the tailor for the suit.
The tailor cut the suit well.

Did Jan say that he liked football?
Did Hob get his suit last year?
Did he pay the tailor for the suit?
Did the tailor cut the suit well?

Note the short form of the interrogative on page 176.

"I came down Bond Street and Oxford Street. *Did you?*"
"I didn't like any of them." "*Didn't you?*"

Other Examples:

"Pedro paid £15 for his suit." "*Did he?*"
"You answered that question very well." "*Did I?*"

In Lesson XXI you had the construction:

"I get up at half-past seven—*and so does* my husband."

In Lesson XXXI you have the same construction in the past tense:

"I walked here." "*So did I.*"

THE GENITIVE OF NOUNS

Did you see those dresses in Harridge's?
I got this suit at Bernard Snip's.
I must go to the tailor's for my suit.
The 's is used with the name of a firm or company because the word "shop" is understood, i.e.

in Harridge's (shop)
at Bernard Snip's (shop).

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Taste

Note an extension of the meaning of *taste*.
"Your taste in clothes isn't my taste."
Compare this with the meanings on page 172.

Quite

There are two meanings for *quite*:

1. Entirely (as here).

    We are quite different and what suits you doesn't suit me.

2. Rather.

    Your work is quite good, i.e. it is not really good, but it is not bad.

EXERCISES

I. Put the following into the past tense:
1. He comes to the class every day.
2. She goes to Paris for her new dresses.
3. You do that work very well.
4. Frieda sees some dresses in Harridge's window.
5. That suit lasts a long time.
6. Jan thinks a lot about his work.
7. Pedro buys a suit in Savile Row.
8. I know the answer to your question.
9. They understand everything that we say to them.
10. I believe what you tell me.
11. The tailor cuts the suit well and so I wear it for a long time.
12. He can't understand what you say.
13. Jan pays seven pounds and he gets a good suit.
14. Frieda addresses the letter and sends it to her sister.
15. I see the aeroplane in the sky when I go to the window and look through it.

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II. Use each of the following in a sentence.
1. dress (*as a noun*); 2. address (*as a verb*); 3. cut; 4. though; 5. suit.

III. Make the following sentences interrogative:
1. She danced from seven o'clock to midnight.
2. Frieda played tennis very well.
3. Those letters came to England by aeroplane.
4. They saw the boy swim to the big rock.
5. Pedro went to a good tailor for his suit.
6. Hob knew a song about London.
7. Lizzie bought six eggs for breakfast.
8. The students went to the museum yesterday.
9. They saw many interesting things there.
10. He understood the lesson quite well.
11. Hob thought that the lesson was too long.
12. The students sang their song very well.

IV. Make questions to which the following could be answers (e.g., No. 1 is the answer to *Did he pay the tailor for the suit?*):
1. He paid the tailor for the suit.
2. Pedro wore his new suit.
3. Hob told a funny story.
4. Lucille came to London in a car.
5. They all understood the lesson.
6. Lizzie brought home the eggs for breakfast.
7. He said that he liked learning English.
8. They saw Lucille in Paris.
9. Jan did his work very well.
10. The boys looked at the aeroplanes in the sky.

V. Make sentences to show the two meanings of *quite*.

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		Page
72	It is/they have already been (opened). He is/they have already been (invited). It hasn't/they haven't been (opened) yet. It/they will be (opened) soon. He hasn't/they haven't been (invited) yet. He/they will be (invited) soon.	290

Lesson 71

JANE: Whát's Rón Márston like, Páuline?
PAULINE: He's áwful!
    He télephoned me
    fóur tímes yésterday,
    and thrée tímes
    the dáy befóre yésterday.

PAULINE: He télephoned the óffice ·
    yésterday mórning
    and yésterday afternóon.
    My bóss ánswered the télephone.

JANE: Whát did your bóss sáy to him?
PAULINE: He sáid, "Míss White is týping létters.
    She cán't spéak to you nów!"

PAULINE: Thén I arríved home
    at síx o'clóck yésterday évening.
    He télephoned agáin.
    But I dídn't ánswer the phóne!

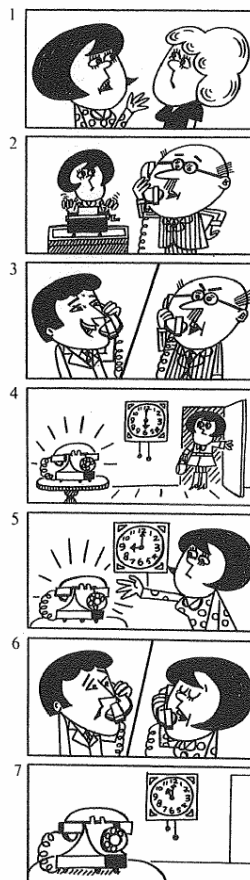JANE: Díd he telephone agáin lást night?
PAULINE: Yés, he díd.
    He télephoned at níne o'clóck.

JANE: Whát did you sáy to him?
PAULINE: I sáid, "Thís is Páuline's móther.
    Pléase dón't télephone
    my dáughter agáin!"

JANE: Díd he télephone agáin?
PAULINE: Nó, he dídn't!

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Lesson 72

TODAY	YESTERDAY	THE DAY BEFORE YESTERDAY
this morning	yesterday morning	the day before yesterday in the morning
this afternoon	yesterday afternoon	the day before yesterday in the afternoon
this evening	yesterday evening	the day before yesterday in the evening
tonight	last night	the night before last

When did you . . . ?

1st aired	2nd cleaned	3rd opened	4th sharpened	5th turned on
6th listened	7th boiled	8th arrived	9th played	10th stayed
11th shaved	12th climbed	13th telephoned	14th called	15th emptied
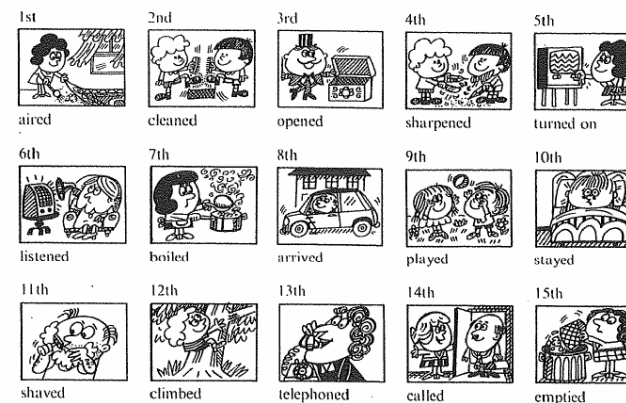
Exercise

Look at this:

She is airing the room now. She . . . it yesterday.
She aired it yesterday.

Do these in the same way:
It is raining now. It . . . yesterday.
It is snowing now. It . . . yesterday.
She is boiling some eggs. She . . . some yesterday.
We are enjoying our lunch. We . . . it yesterday, too.
They are hurrying to work. They . . . to work yesterday, too.

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