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PATRONES DE SECUENCIACIÓN DE ACTIVIDADES EN LA ENSEÑANZA DE INGLÉS COMO LENGUA EXTRANJERA Y SU INCIDENCIA EN EL APRENDIZAJE: ESTUDIO CUASI-EXPERIMENTAL

Tesis Doctoral

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Patterns of Activity Sequencing in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language and their Effects on Learning: A Quasi-Experimental Study

Patrones de secuenciación de actividades en la enseñanza de inglés como lengua extranjera y su incidencia en el aprendizaje: estudio cuasi-experimental

Doctoral Thesis

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A mis padres.
Mil gracias por ser y por estar.

To my parents.
Thank you very much for being there.

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[1] The instructional material used for the quasi-experiment of this thesis was *English File Upper Intermediate* and is reproduced by permission of Oxford University Press from *English File Upper Intermediate Student's Book* by Clive Oxenden and Christina Latham-Koenig © Oxford University Press (2001).

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

APPENDICES (IN THIS VOLUME)

APPENDIX A. Tables and figures from Chapter 6

APPENDIX B. Instructional material

APPENDIX C. Tests

APPENDIX D. Questionnaires

APPENDICES (CD-ROM)[2]

APPENDIX A. Tables and figures from Chapter 6

APPENDIX B. Instructional material

APPENDIX C. Tests

[2] The page numbering of the Appendices on the CD-ROM follows on from the last page of the *References*.

APPENDIX D. Questionnaires

APPENDIX E. Teachers' daily worksheet

APPENDIX G. Sample transcriptions of sessions from both groups

APPENDIX H. Contents of the timetabling files

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ARC: Authentic (use)-Restricted (use)-Clarification

ALM: Audio-Lingual Method

ALTE: Association of Language Testers in Europe

AVSG: Audio-Visual-Structural-Global Method

BP: Better Pronunciation (from EFUI SB)

CEF: *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment* (2001)

CG: Control Group

CLT: Communicative Language Teaching

CPM: Communicative Processes-based model of activity sequencing

CPM SB: Adapted material from *English File Upper Intermediate* (Student's Booklet)

CPM TB: Adapted material from *English File Upper Intermediate* (Teacher's Booklet)

df: Degrees of freedom

ESA: Engage- Study-Activate

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EFUI SB: Oxenden, C. & Latham-Koenig. (2001a). *English File Upper Intermediate. Student's Book*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

EFUI TB: Oxenden, C. & Latham-Koenig, C. with Hamilton, G. (2001). *English File Upper Intermediate. Teacher's Book.* Oxford: Oxford University Press

EG: Experimental Group

ELT: English Language Teaching

ES: Effect size

ESOL: English for Speakers of Other Languages

FCE: Cambridge First Certificate in English

FCEH: *Cambridge First Certificate in English Handbook* (2001)

FCEP: *Cambridge First Certificate in English Examination Past Papers 5. Teacher's Book* (2001). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

FL: Foreign Language

FLT: Foreign Language Teaching

FQ1: Final Questionnaire 1 ("Final Questionnaire")

FQ2: Final Questionnaire 2 ("Questionnaire about certain aspects of the English as a Foreign Language classroom"). From section 6.2.4.2.1.5. onwards: Cambridge First Certificate in English, Paper 3 (Use of English)

GIR: Get It Right (from EFUI SB)

G-T: Grammar-Translation Method

III: Illustration-Interaction-Induction

IQ: Initial Questionnaire ("Initial Questionnaire")[3]

L2: First foreign language

L3: Second foreign language

Max: Maximum

Min: Minimum

O-H-E: Observation-Hypothesize-Experiment

OSL: Official School of Languages (*Escuela Oficial de Idiomas*)

P1: Presentation

P2: Practice

P3: Production

P-P-P: Presentation-Practice-Production model of activity sequencing

PV: Remember Phrasal Verbs In Context (from EFUI SB)

ROCs: Real-life Operating Conditions

SD: Standard Deviation

SFL: Spanish as a Foreign Language

SI: Di Pietro's "strategic interaction"

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SLT: Situational Language Teaching Method

TBLT: Task-based Language Teaching

TEFL: Teaching of English as a Foreign Language

UCLES: University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate

VB: Vocabulary Builder (from EFUI SB)

[3] The authoress acknowledges the common use of the abbreviation "IQ" to indicate "Intelligence Quotient". For the purposes of this thesis "IQ" refers to "Initial Questionnaire".

LIST OF TABLES IN THE MAIN TEXT (see the table of contents for the tables in the Appendices)

LIST OF FIGURES IN THE MAIN TEXT (see the table of contents for the tables in the Appendices)

Chapter 1.

Introduction

1.1. THE PURPOSE OF THIS STUDY

Those engaged in Foreign Language Teaching are well aware of the common assumption in pedagogic practice that textbooks are the core of teaching resources. With this assumption in mind textbooks frequently represent the whole of the syllabus of a particular course, embracing most of the language, activities, skills and topics that are to be exploited in the foreign language classroom. Moreover, textbooks personify the learning and teaching principles regarding the curricula of the institutions where they are used. In most foreign language contexts, they are also the only source of input for learners apart from their teacher. In other words, materials become the main vehicle of learning for students. A second deeply-rooted assumption is related to the teachers' overt reliance on the structure and content of coursebooks with few deviations. Understandably, this is the natural result of teachers' long teaching hours and administrative work.

The framework of this thesis is materials development, specifically the application of materials in real classrooms. The particular aspect examined is the *sequencing* of activities in lessons from English as a Foreign Language textbooks. *Sequencing* has not received much attention on the part of scholars. A related exception is the research on the Task-Based Language Teaching Approach (TBLT), which reached its height in the late 20th and early 21st centuries. Nevertheless, TBLT studies do not approach *sequencing* from the same perspective as this thesis. They are focused on the

determination of the suitable parameters to *sequence* tasks regarded as whole units. This excludes the consideration of the *sequencing* related to the in-between activities that shape a task.

As Sánchez (2004a) suggests, *sequences* of activities reveal a specific relationship between the activities involved, which leads towards particular patterns of work and organizational procedures in the class where they are implemented. Accordingly, *sequencing* is directly related to the following areas:

a) The methodology followed by the textbook or the teacher and the *sequencing* principles that it advocates;

b) the psychological *sequence* of actions carried out by all human beings and each individual person in order to acquire and consolidate their knowledge;

c) the variety of the teaching procedures, which should under normal circumstances foster the students' motivation;

d) the degree of complexity encapsulated by the development of an activity.

As can be seen, these four areas reveal the notable significance of *sequencing*, which emerges as a pedagogic tool whose effects on language learning deserve study.

A generalised impression that I shared with authors such as Harmer (2001); Littlejohn (1992, 1998); Sánchez (1993, 2001, 2004a); Tomlinson (1998b); Tomlinson et al. (2001), etc. is that the structure of the language teaching materials is largely based on a traditional *sequencing* model. In the Anglo-Saxon world this is known as the *Presentation-Practice-Production* pattern (P-P-P). It follows the cognitive order of explanation and assimilation; practice and consolidation and final transference. The colourful and attractively laid-out pages in current textbooks (a trend especially present since the advent of the Communicative Language Teaching Approach or CLT) may distract the non-knowledgeable reader from the hidden sameness of the patterns of action in the P-P-P. The stages can be interrupted by short transitions, overlaps between phases, comments or exercises, but the structuring of the materials remains almost unchanged. The ensuing repetition in the organisational procedures of lessons over and over again results in an absence of variety in the *sequencing* patterns. It seems logical to assume that this could negatively affect learners' motivation (and even teachers'). Moreover, strict applications of this P-P-P seem to presuppose that there is a single path of acquisition (i.e. explicit explanation, understanding, practice and automatisation) and that teaching can be equated with learning. This situation clashes with well-known accepted language learning tenets, which accounts for many authors' criticisms towards

this model (Lewis, 1996; Scrivener, 1994, 1996; Skehan, 1996a, 1996b; Tomlinson et al., 2001; Willis, D., 1996a, among others).

However, I think it is also fair to do justice to the P-P-P and to acknowledge its efficiency with students all over the world who have certainly learnt foreign languages following this structure. In any event, the three preceding shortcomings - lack of variety, only one-admitted route of learning and the teaching-equals-learning assumption - demand more varied alternative models which comply with basic second language learning and general psychological principles. It should be taken into account that the variety in such proposals is rooted in the flexibility or acknowledgement of different cognitive learning routes from that one underlying the P-P-P; hence the importance of considering psychological paths to language mastery in activity *sequencing*.

Despite the contemporary situation in textbooks outlined above and the vital importance of activity *sequencing* as disclosed by the four previously mentioned areas, empirical research on this issue is non-existent. To date, none of the *sequencing* models proposed have been tested in the classroom as part of a research study. This observation also includes TBLT. Besides, some of those models do not substantially deviate from the P-P-P because of their similarities in their cognitive order and the resulting lack of flexibility in their organisational procedures. Other proposals do not cover all the teaching steps of *presentation, practice* and *production* - whether in the traditional or in a reverse order - but just focus on one phase.

Three general aims are pursued in this thesis. The first one attempts to start opening the way to (in my opinion) this long-standing need regarding the empirical study of activity *sequencing* in (English) Foreign Language Teaching. The second consists of reporting the efficiency of the "Communicative Processes-based model of activity sequencing" or the CPM (Sánchez, 1993, 2001, 2004a) on the linguistic learning of English as a Foreign Language. In this proposal, the sequencing of the activities in the teaching lesson follows the natural sequence of real and specific communicative processes, which result in the accomplishment of a given communicative goal. As explained in the following chapters, this pattern abides by essential pedagogic, psycholinguistic and psychological principles from Foreign Language Teaching, Second Language Acquisition and Cognitive Psychology respectively. It thus constitutes a noteworthy alternative to the P-P-P. A description of the results of the quasi-experiment that was implemented provided, which includes the

statistically-analysed comparison of the influence on language mastery between the CPM and the P-P-P. In this way, this thesis constitutes - to my knowledge - the first work in which activity *sequencing* is dealt with in accordance with two crucial aspects previously neglected in the literature: The critical analysis of *sequencing* proposals from pedagogic and cognitive viewpoints and the introduction of data-based findings. Ultimately, as my third general aim, this thesis seeks to provide answers to key questions suggested by two materials development researchers: "Are there better or worse ways of using text and/or textbooks?" (Byrd, 1995b: 6); "In what ways does/can research into the language classroom use of the materials feed into textbook design?" (McGrath, 2002: 223). Indeed, I hope that the empirically driven insights derived from my research will contribute to improving teaching materials, specifically textbooks and their classroom applications.

1.2. MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT AS THE FOCUS OF THIS RESEARCH

As stated in the previous section, then, this dissertation is framed within the relatively young sphere of Materials Development. Its recognition as a field of study dates back to publications such as Stevick (1971); Madsen & Bowen (1978), Candlin & Breen (1980); Breen & Candlin (1987); Sheldon (1987). With the foundation of *MATSDA* (Materials Development Association) by Dr Brian Tomlinson in 1993, Materials Development achieved its official status as an area of research in its own right. Furthermore, the *Carta Magna* of *AILA* (International Applied Linguistics Association) includes a scientific commission entitled "learning and teaching materials" (Manchón & Murphy, 2002).

In line with the importance of materials indicated above, many authors acknowledge their essential function in the foreign language classroom (see, *inter alia,* Chambers, 1999; Cook 1998; Richards 1993, 1998, 2001). With this respect, McGrath (2002: 7) states that, "in many situations the expectation is that teaching will be based on a single textbook, although other materials may be used at the teacher's discretion". In other words, some materials will become the central or a skeletal element in a general English language course (Littlejohn, 1992: 6) and others will remain as secondary resources. It is *main course materials* to which my attention is directed, for the simple but powerful reason that students spend considerable time working with them. The

significance of such materials in the foreign language lesson is so evident that it would not be preposterous to infer that they may even shape students' attitudes in relation to learning. This intuition is confirmed by Chambers' (1999) empirical findings, which revealed that the importance of coursebooks was second - after that of the teacher - in determining student stances towards the language course.

In this thesis the terms "textbook" and "coursebook" will be used as synonyms, referring to the chief text on which a course is based. For the purposes of my research I will not enter into the thorny debate about the support or opposition to coursebook-led teaching (see Harmer, 2001; McGrath, 2002 and Richards, 1998 for reviews). It should also be remarked that I am disregarding teachers' actions which are not explicitly included in textbooks and actual lesson planning. These actions affect either improvised or planned teacher's digressions from the textbook lessons as well as specific *sequences* which are not necessarily centred on any materials, such as I-R-F (Initiation-Response-Feedback). The quasi-experiment that I implemented demanded the isolation of the context of activity *sequences* as accurately as possible to more effectively untangle their effects on learning, which were taken as the dependent variable. I considered that the previous didactic events were very difficult to quantify and compare across instructors' teaching. Furthermore, they might have even represented a possible source of contamination in the results since they would have deviated from the actual *sequencing* of activities provided in the textbook lessons/materials. I believe that my decision is also supported by the two assumptions indicated at the beginning of section 1.1.: The importance attached to textbooks in classrooms and the widespread belief about teachers' frequent and faithful reliance on the patterns of work proposed by coursebooks.

Finally, after stating the academic motives for the elaboration of this dissertation as well as outlining its specific scope, I believe it pertinent to make an aside concerning my personal reasons in the pursuit of this research. My passion for English language teaching comes from my years as a student of English in the United Kingdom, where I had the great privilege of being taught by excellent professionals. This unavoidable enthusiasm on my part was crucial in my choice of the degree of English Philology. I experienced the definite push in my vocation towards foreign language pedagogy when I was an Erasmus student at the University of Essex (United Kingdom) during the academic year 1998-1999. There I had the opportunity to choose the following subjects:

"Description of English for ELT purposes" and "Methodology of Teaching English as a Foreign Language". Both were run by Mr. Tony Lilley, whose electrifying zeal and professionalism shown during his lectures and seminars are responsible for my fascination with this field. My specific interest in materials is rooted again in my own experience as a student of English, as I have always been fascinated with the outstanding role of solid and appealing materials in students' learning and interest.

1.3. OUTLINE OF THIS THESIS

As the chart below shows, there are two very distinct parts in this thesis. The first is composed of five chapters which deal with theoretical matters; the report of the quasi-experimental study is included in a single but extensive chapter.

Table 1. Outline of this thesis

Patterns of Activity Sequencing in the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language and their Effects on Learning: A Quasi-Experimental Study	
PART ONE	
Chapter 1	INTRODUCTION Explains the purpose and scope of this research as framed within Materials Development. Also provides an outline of thesis.
Chapter 2	LOCATION, DEFINITION AND EXAMINATION OF *SEQUENCING* IN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING LITERATURE Presents a general definition of *sequencing*. Extrapolates the main semantic features to *sequencing* in Foreign Language Teaching. Identifies the latter as the specific discipline from Applied Linguistics where activity *sequencing* is framed in this thesis. Comprises a review of the term *sequencing* as operationalised by the authoress. Examines the presence of activity *sequencing* in the specialised FLT literature. Determines a list of factors to be taken into account in *sequencing* which are discussed in the following chapters.
Chapter 3	A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF THE TRADITIONAL ACTIVITY *SEQUENCING* PATTERN: THE P-P-P Offers an exhaustive account of this activity *sequencing* model. Traces its acknowledged origins back to the mid 20th century. Provides a detailed report of each of its phases (*presentation, practice, production*). Compiles positive and negative criticisms of this pattern as found in the FLT literature from linguistic, psychological, psycholinguistic, psycho-pedagogic and pedagogic perspectives. Includes the description of what I consider to be "the contemporary ELT materials version" of the P-P-P.
Chapter 4	COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY AND ACTIVITY *SEQUENCING* Describes the cognitive psychological framework adopted in the thesis:

	Anderson's ACT model (1982, 1983, 1987, 2005). Justifies the selection of this model and applies it to language teaching *sequencing*.
Chapter 5	A CRITICAL REVIEW OF ACTIVITY *SEQUENCING* PROPOSALS Presents the analysis of several *sequencing* proposals at both pedagogic and psychological levels, including the CPM.
	PART TWO
Chapter 6	THE QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY Provides an extensive report on the quasi-experimental study implemented to compare the influence on learning of both the CPM and the P-P-P.
GENERAL CONCLUSIONS OF THE THESIS. PEDAGOGICAL RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS	Indicates didactic implications and suggests recommendations for English as a Foreign Language Teaching practice and for future research.

1.3.1. Part one

The rationale for the inclusion of Chapter 2 is accounted for by the complicated picture of the use of the term *sequencing* as revealed in the specialised literature. The review of this term is organised according to the following stages: a) Defining the precise area of my investigation (Foreign Language Teaching); b) including my own operationalisation of *sequencing* as framed within Foreign Language Teaching; c) establishing a thorough distinction between my own definition and the other meanings ascribed to *sequencing* within Foreign Language Teaching; d) contrasting *sequencing* with another related term, *grading*, with which it is frequently identified; e) clarifying terminological issues related to c) and d); f) examining the qualitative and quantitative degree of the presence of activity *sequencing* in the specialised literature. The analysis in f) revealed the absence of any empirical studies on activity *sequencing*, as indicated in section 1.1. The same analysis led to the identification of several key psychological and pedagogic factors which concern *sequencing.* These factors are thoroughly discussed in the following chapters.

A critical analysis of this traditional pattern is offered in Chapter 3. A brief historical introduction locates the explicit origins of this model in the British and French versions of the Structural Methods (Situational Language Teaching and Audio-Visual-Structuro-Global methods respectively). Next an operationalisation of the three stages of this model is included, which is followed by a detailed report of the positive and negative criticisms found in FLT literature. These criticisms are classified from various viewpoints: Linguistic, psychological, psycholinguistic, psycho-pedagogic and

pedagogic. The description of the P-P-P *sequences* commonly found in contemporary ELT materials concludes this chapter.

Chapter 4 entails the description of the cognitive psychology framework utilised in this thesis. As indicated in section 1.1., I believe that the study of any teaching *sequencing* proposal, whether the traditional P-P-P or others, needs to be founded on the *sequence(s)* of psychological processes of acquisition. This chapter begins with the rationale for the selection of Anderson's ACT model (1982, 1983, 1987, 2005) due to two reasons: Its wide application in SLA and its convenient specification of the different stages towards language mastery in terms of automatising procedural knowledge which has previously been declarativised. This is followed by an overview of the two main types of human knowledge: Declarative and procedural. Cognitive *sequences* are later identified and applied to language teaching *sequences*.

Following the description of the traditional model of activity *sequencing* and of the psychological framework adopted in this PhD, a critical review of the activity *sequencing* proposals leads onto Chapter 5, including the CPM. This analysis is performed from both pedagogic and cognitive perspectives.

1.3.2. Part two

Chapter 6 describes the quasi-experimental study that was implemented with the following aim: To ascertain the influence on learning of the CPM in contrast to the P-P-P by way of comparing the linguistic performance of two groups of subjects (an experimental and a control group). This chapter provides an exhaustive account of the research design, hypothesis, mechanisms to control extraneous variables, methodology (subject population and instruments), procedure, results and related discussion and conclusions. The control group received a P-P-P instruction and the experimental group followed a CPM teaching. The original seven lessons from the textbook which constituted the quasi-experimental learning material were adapted into CPM lessons by the authoress herself. Key findings revealed that instruction driven by the CPM was shown to have significant effects on the linguistic learning of the subjects from the experimental group; that the experimental group liked certain CPM chief features - its reliance on real-life events and all the activities revolving around the topic of the lesson - and that the CPM included a moderate degree of variety so as not to overwhelm those subjects.

Finally, the *General Conclusions of the Thesis* suggests pedagogic implications and recommendations for future research as revealed by the findings of the quasi-experimental study.

The Appendices of this thesis are included after the *References* and separately on a CD-ROM. Those located in this volume are divided into 8 groups (A-H). Appendix A presents all the tables and figures from Chapter 6 which are not included in the main text except for those tables pertaining to section 6.2.6.6.2. Appendix B incorporates the original and the CPM adapted versions of a sample unit from the textbook that was used as the instructional material in the quasi-experiment. Appendix C shows the text and the answer sheets of the two exams used to measure the subjects' linguistic knowledge in two different moments: Pre-test and Post-test. Appendix D includes the text of the three Spanish questionnaires administered to the subjects as well as their translation into English. Appendix E offers a sample copy of the teachers' daily worksheet followed by its English translation. Appendix F presents a sample copy of the observer's handout (English original). Appendix G includes the transcription of a recorded session from the two subject groups involved in this study. Finally, Appendix H contains the timetabling of all the quasi-experimental units for the teachers of both groups.

The CD-ROM comprises all the preceding appendices with identical labels and order of presentation together with the following additions: 1) The tables from section 6.2.6.6.2., which are included at the end of Appendix A; 2) the text of the original and CPM adapted versions of the remaining six quasi-experimental units, which are found in Appendix B.

Chapter 2.

Location, definition and examination of *sequencing* in foreign language teaching literature

2.1. THE TERM *SEQUENCING:* A GENERAL DEFINITION

Before reviewing the treatment of *sequencing* in the relevant literature of this thesis, I think it is necessary to answer the following question: What is understood by *sequencing* in general? Three dictionaries were randomly selected to provide a response.

The *New Shorter Oxford English Dictionary* (1997) directs the reader to the entry "sequence" when introducing "sequencing". *Sequence* appears as a verb and a noun. As a verb, *sequence* is defined as "arrange in a definite order". As a noun, it is explained as:

> The action or condition of following or succeeding; the following of one thing after another; an instance of this. The order in which things succeed one another. A continuous series of things, a succession; a set of related things arranged in a certain order.

In the *Cambridge Advanced Learners Dictionary* (2003) exists an entry for *sequencing* described as, "the process of deciding the correct order of things". *Sequence* is considered a noun and is defined as, "a series of related things or events, or the order in which they follow each other". This entry comprises examples related to *sequence*

from a chronological point of view as well as the sequence of events in a chapter and that required to perform certain tasks.

A very similar description can be found in the *Merriam-Webster Online.* This source, similar to the *New Shorter Oxford Dictionary,* leads the user to "sequence" when searching for, "sequencing". As a verb, *sequence* is defined as, "to arrange in a sequence". As a noun, it is described as, "a continuous or connected series" and as, "order of succession". It is also identified as a synonym of "consequence" and "result". The last definition included is "continuity of progression".

Therefore, according to the three dictionaries consulted above, the main recurrent features of *sequencing* and *sequence*[4] are "ordering" and "succession". Such features of these terms can be extrapolated to the field of Applied Linguistics, specifically to Foreign Language Teaching. Within this area, we can observe two different meanings that share the semantic components "ordering" and "succession": The *sequencing* of the content to be learned and the *sequencing* of the activities in a textbook lesson. This thesis studies the latter type of *sequencing*, which has received moderate attention from a theoretical perspective and none at an empirical level. The reasons why I concentrate on the ordering of activities - which have already been explained in section 1.1.- are related to the psycholinguistic and motivational weaknesses appreciated in the most widespread *sequencing* pattern (the P-P-P). The negative criticisms found in FLT literature regarding these weaknesses will be reported in section 3.3.2.

In the ensuing pages I will try to define the focus of my research more precisely. Section 2.2. offers the necessary detailed identification of the specific area of knowledge from Applied Linguistics to which my study is related. This area is Foreign Language Teaching as opposed to Second Language Acquisition.[5] A review of the term *sequencing* framed within FLT will be included in section 2.3., which consists of several sub-sections (2.3.1., 2.3.2., 2.3.3). In order to better approach the variety of commentaries found in this review, my own operationalisation of *sequencing* is introduced in section 2.3.1. The following section (2.3.2.) is devoted to distinguishing my definition of *sequencing* (the ordering of activities in a coursebook lesson) from a

[4] For the purposes of this thesis, I will interchangeably use both terms when denoting nouns except when I refer to the specific label employed by other authors.

[5] From now onwards "Foreign Language Teaching" and "Second Language Acquisition" will be referred to as FLT and SLA respectively. Further, in accordance with the setting adopted in this thesis, L2 will denote "foreign language" except when the distinction between foreign and second contexts needs to be explicitly acknowledged. Also, no distinction will be made between the terms "learning" and "acquisition", the two being used interchangeably unless otherwise specified.

very common description found in the specialised literature (the ordering of syllabus content). Following this distinction, I will deal with the terminological and conceptual ambiguities between this second meaning of *sequencing* and the related terms *grading/gradation* (2.3.3.). Finally, section 2.4. will examine the presence of *sequencing* in FLT literature as operationalised in section 2.3.1.

2.2. CHARACTERISING THE AREA OF *SEQUENCING* IN THIS THESIS

It is paramount to identify the specific area to which this thesis belongs within Applied Linguistics: FLT but not SLA. Both areas provide different contexts for *sequencing*. In SLA, the meaning attached to the term *sequence* is order of acquisition of language forms. For the purposes of illustration, three examples will be included. The first one belongs to Long & Crookes (1992: 46):

> Both naturalistic and classroom learners pass through fixed developmental stages in word order, negation, questions, relative clauses, and so on - *sequences* which have to include often quite lengthy stages of *non*-target-like use of forms as well as use of non-target-like forms […]
>
> (Authoress' highlighting of "sequences")

This meaning is clearly present in the section entitled "Effects of Instruction on the Order and Sequence of Acquisition" in R. Ellis' (2001), which appears to consider both labels as synonyms: "Experimental studies also indicated that instruction is powerless to change the *order/sequence* of acquisition" (p. 6) (Authoress' highlighting). The meta-analysis carried out by Goldscheneider & DeKeyser (2001) also contains this sense of "sequence". As in R. Ellis (2001), both "order" and "sequence" seem to be interchangeable:

> Dulay and Burt began with the question: "Is there a common *sequence* with which children acquiring English as a second language learn certain structures?" (Dulay & Burt, 1973, p. 252). They predicted that if a common *sequence* were found for L2 children, it would be different from the *order* Brown (1973) found for L1 […].
>
> (Goldscheneider & DeKeyser, 2001: 34. Authoress' highlighting)

In FLT the meaning of *sequencing* is not related to the order of acquisition of language forms *per se* but to the pedagogic way in which the learning content is arranged for the students. This content can be located in two different settings: a) The teaching "what" or the subject matter to be learned (structures, notions, functions, communicative abilities or tasks) within the general and long-term nature of a syllabus; and b) activities as teaching "how" or the procedure by which such subject matter is offered to the learners within the short-term nature of a textbook lesson. The focus of my attention in this PhD is precisely directed to setting b).

After specifying the meaning of *sequencing* which constitutes the object of my research, section 2.3. offers a review of this term in FLT literature.

2.3. A REVIEW OF THE TERM *SEQUENCING* IN FLT LITERATURE

Within FLT literature there exist frequent inconsistencies in reference to the use and terminology of the two aforementioned meanings of *sequencing*. In order to better comprehend such inconsistencies, I will provide my own definition of this construct. This will constitute the point of comparison from which the different senses and labels attached to *sequencing* will be analysed.

2.3.1. My own operationalisation of *sequencing*: Sequencing as the ordering of activities (teaching "how")

My operationalisation of the construct of *sequencing* is as follows: "The ordering or distribution of activities within a didactic lesson or unit in a given foreign language teaching coursebook". It should be noted that this definition exclusively focuses on the arrangement of activities in a coursebook.

For the purposes of my research, four conceptual points should be taken into account in relation to the previous definition. The first concerns the term *activity*. It should be observed that a thorough definition of this concept exceeds the limits of this research (see related discussions in Crookes & Chaudron, 1991; Núñez, 2002; Sánchez, 2004a), and that I completely agree with Crookes & Chaudron (1991) about the lack of standardisation of this term and the absence of its definition in some language teaching dictionaries and publications. In any event, in this work *activity* will be considered as,

"the basic unit of classroom organization" (Doyle, 1986: 398) and as, "a unit of action in the classroom or teaching materials, involving goals, content and strategies as an integrated construct" (authoress' own definition). In textbooks, activities are usually marked by numbers, letters, or both.

Secondly, the terms *activity* and *exercise* will be used interchangeably. Nonetheless, I acknowledge the difference between them as stated by several authors such as Núñez (2002) concerning the more general and narrower nature of *activity* and *exercise* respectively. Also, *task* will be used to denote the type of activities advocated in TBLT (see section 5.2.3.). Basically, a task implies a *sequence* of activities whose completion leads to the fulfilment of the goal of such a task.

Thirdly, the terms *lesson* and *unit* will be interchangeably employed. By any of the two I refer to, "the set of activities bounded together by a common focal content" (Doyle, 1986: 399). This "content" can be linguistic, cultural, pragmatic, etc. It constitutes the unifying conductor of a particular lesson, which may extend from one to several classes and which is explicitly and clearly separated from other lessons.

Fourthly, my operationalisation of *sequencing* should not be confused with the following concepts: "Staging", "separation"[6] and "continuity". "Staging" deals with the steps *within* a particular activity on its own, for example, the two steps involved in reading a text and matching each paragraph with its opening sentence. "Separation" refers to the clear-cut division *between* activities, the main aim being facilitation for the students. In this way, activity number 1 should facilitate activity number 2 and so on. For example, a reading text may include reading comprehension activities which precede a follow-up discussion. These first activities focused on reading practice should provide enough material for the ensuing discussion and be neatly separated from it so that students know exactly what they have to do at each point. In any event, this is not an absolute principle. "Continuity" affects the way that the relationships are made between 'earlier' and 'later' parts of the materials. Candlin & Breen are the first authors who introduced this notion in their 1980 work, where a series of guidelines were included for the creation and evaluation of language teaching materials:

[6] I owe this idea (specifically concerning the terms "staging" and "separation") to Dr Brian Tomlinson. He was my supervisor at Leeds Metropolitan University, where I was a Visiting Scholar in 2004 and 2005 thanks to funding provided by the Spanish Ministry of Education under a *Formación de Profesorado Universitario* Research Scholarship (reference number: AP2001-0487).

> 2.5. How is Continuity maintained in the materials? How is the learner's progress consolidated from one part of the materials to the other? In what way is a particular aspect of Content earlier in the materials reinforced and/or refined in a subsequent part or parts of the materials?
>
> (Candlin & Breen, 1980: 195)

Or in other words, continuity refers to the ways that, "your learners are guided to new content and new tasks on the basis of what they have completed in previous tasks" (Breen & Candlin, 1987: 22).

Therefore *sequencing* is a pedagogic procedure which encompasses "staging" and "separation" as it deals with the ordering of all the activities in a lesson. "Continuity", however, is a wider strategy which affects both the "what" and "how" in the complete textbook.

2.3.2. Distinguishing *sequencing* as the ordering of activities (teaching "how") from *sequencing* as the ordering of syllabus content (teaching "what")

Before examining the incidence of my construct of *sequencing* and related terminological variability in FLT literature, it is necessary to clearly differentiate my conceptualization from the other frequent meaning of sequencing in this area of knowledge. Indeed, my preceding operationalisation is in stark contrast to this second meaning, where *sequencing* is practically restricted to the other pedagogic view concerning learning content. This is the teaching "what" as considered within the long-term syllabus setting design. In order to better contextualise this latter sense, I will draw on several authors' illustrative contributions which treat content *sequencing* from different perspectives.

The first authors to offer this latter meaning are Candlin & Breen (1980):

> How are the Contents *sequenced* in the materials?
> What seem to be the criteria for *Sequencing* adopted by the author both for the materials as a whole and for the units or sections within the materials? Does the author, for example, base *Sequencing* on some serial progression from 'simplicity' to 'complexity', or from 'frequency' to 'infrequency'? As an alternative to serial progression of either kind, the Sequencing may be cyclic or modular. As such it may not necessarily depend on any linguistic continuum of simplicity to complexity or from frequency to infrequency. The *Sequencing* may be carried by some thematic development, or by interrelated activities, or by a developing repertoire of interdependent skills.
>
> (Candlin & Breen, 1980: 195. Authoress' highlighting of "Sequencing")

As can be seen, these authors establish two contexts for *sequencing* as framed within syllabus: "The materials as a whole" and "the units or sections within the materials" (i.e. syllabus content regarded in a more specific way by taking lessons or sections as units of such syllabus content). The first one refers to the complete syllabus content seen from a general perspective, whereas the second one adopts a more specific perspective by identifying units of such syllabus content (lessons or sections). As to sequencing parameters, these rely on the simple-complex and frequent-infrequent dichotomies in the serial presentation of contents. Cyclic and modular *sequencing* arrangements may be rooted in a thematic progression or in the implementation of activities and skills which are revisited and perfected, for which reason they are "interrelated" and "interdependent".

An analogous account of *sequencing* is found in Breen (1987a, 1987b), who is also the first scholar to provide an explicit definition of *sequencing* within the syllabus design context. Indeed, his articles are called "Contemporary Paradigms in Syllabus Design. Part I" and "Contemporary Paradigms in Syllabus Design. Part II".

> Sequencing […] involves the marking out of the content along a path of development. This is achieved often in a step-by-step way through more immediate or pre-requisite objectives towards some overall achievement. Sequencing may be cyclic, where the path from 'A' to 'B' is drawn as a widening spiral. Whilst a step-by-step sequence presents content in an additive way, a cyclic presentation assumes that content can be cumulative and worked upon by teachers and learners through a return to, and refinement of earlier steps along the route.
>
> (Breen, 1987a: 83)

Breen's 2001 explanation of *sequencing* greatly resembles the previous description as he also mentions the "step-by-step" and "cyclic" progressions (Breen, 2001: 152).

Other authors do not differentiate between the two types of *sequencing* established by Candlin & Breen (1980) and Breen (1987a, 2001), but they suggest different parameters to organise a general s*equencing* of content. Nunan (1988b) offers one of the most complete definitions of *sequencing* in the context of syllabus design. For him, this concept is, "determining the order in which syllabus content will be taught. Content can be sequenced according to difficulty, frequency, or the communicative needs of the learners" (Nunan, 1988b: 160). In reference to the question "How should the content be sequenced throughout the course?", Hutchinson & Waters

(1987) also allude to complexity and add two other factors: The creation of variety and the provision of recycling. From the perspective of textbook evaluation, an important figure in this area, Cunningsworth, includes the following list of aspects to take into account when *sequencing* content: Complexity, "learnability", usefulness, etc. (Cunningsworth, 1995; quoted in Richards, 2001: 274-276).

A different viewpoint is appreciated by other authors who approach *sequencing* issues on the basis of the *nature* of specific content units. In his criteria for evaluating textbooks, Williams (1983) deals with *sequencing* as affecting a particular portion of language - vocabulary:

> the *sequencing* of vocabulary, particularly the functional load, rate and manner of entry and re-entry; the relevance of its contexts and situations, and so on (cf. Tucker 1975).
>
> (Williams, 1983: 252. Authoress' highlighting)

Skierso's (1991) guide to textbook analysis offers even more precise *sequencing* parameters to order grammar and vocabulary content. The following points are suggested in response to the question "What pedagogical considerations prompted the presentation and *sequencing* of nouns, verbs, sentence patterns, modifier structures, and vocabulary?":

> a) simple to complex scheme, b) functional load; c) productivity in generating teaching points; d) frequency of occurrence; e) ease and difficulty for individual students (predicted by contrastive analysis); f) regular versus irregular patterns; g) utility for classroom and community; h) co-occurrence; i) universals; j) error analysis.
>
> (Skierso, 1991: 437)

With less detail than the two previous cases, Long & Crookes (1992) establish that the *sequencing* of the items to express notions and functions may differ from that in a structural syllabus owing to their classification according to communicative functions instead of linguistic relationships or learning difficulty (Long & Crookes, 1992).

As highlighted by this review, the *sequencing* of *syllabus content* is approached in different ways: Either by indicating different types or by distinguishing several parameters on which to base *sequencing* due to the general or particular nature of the

content dealt with. The most recurrent factors are frequency, learnability and complexity. My attention is directed to this final remark in section 2.3.3.

2.3.3. Distinguishing *sequencing* (as the ordering of syllabus content) from *grading*

Within the setting of syllabus content, there exists another notion which is related to *sequencing* to a large extent: *Grading/gradation.*[7] The apparent equivalence between one and another can be found in teaching situations which present a structural-based syllabus. In these cases, *sequencing* and *grading* are equated because there is a single parameter to organise the content: Linguistic simplicity and complexity. Tucker (1978) and Sheldon (1988) belong to this category. The former uses "sequencing" and the latter "grading":

> Appropriate *sequencing*. Since organization is so necessary to language learning, a primary function of instruction is to present the language in a way that helps the student either to understand the textbook's organization or to develop his own. In the case of a beginning textbook, these purposes are best served by a careful *sequencing* of the levels of structure so that the introduction of new structures or patterns rests upon a foundation of simpler patterns and structures already mastered.
>
> (Tucker, 1978: 224. Authoress' highlighting)

> Selection/*grading*:
> Is there a discernible system at work in the *selection* and *grading* of these items (e.g. on the basis of frequency counts, or on the basis of useful comparisons between the learner's mother tongue and English)?
>
> (Sheldon, 1988: 238. Authoress' highlighting)

With the advent of CLT and derived approaches (especially TBLT), both terms began to adopt related but differentiated meanings. As Nunan (1988a: 66-67) states, the communicative orientation demands, "specifying degrees of skill as well as describing performance", which means that organisation of the content becomes a much more complex and multiple-parameters-based subject.

Nunan's (1988b) glossary offers one of the clearest discriminations between the two terms.[8] For him, *grading* is, "the arrangement of syllabus content from easy to

[7] Similar to the note above regarding *sequencing / sequence*, from now onwards *grading* and *gradation* will be invariably employed except when mentioning other authors' particular nominal option.

[8] Paradoxically, an analysis of Nunan's works discloses a not-clearly-delimitated use of *sequencing* and *grading*. Due to the large amount of consulted works authored by this researcher, they will be separately included at the end of this section on pages 26-28.

difficult", whereas *sequencing*, as mentioned in section 2.3.2, is, "determining the order in which syllabus content will be taught. Content can be sequenced according to difficulty, frequency, or the communicative needs of the learners" (Nunan, 1988b: 159). It follows that *sequencing* is larger than "grading", which is solely related to the parameters of ease and difficulty. Besides, as can be seen in the following quotation by Long (1985), complexity no longer only reflects a linguistic nature but it also acquires a cognitive side:

> *Grading* is determined [in a task-based syllabus] by the degree of difficulty of the pedagogical tasks themselves (from simple to complex) […] as well as such normal considerations as variety, pace and duration.". 'Difficulty', here, however, does not mean difficulty in terms of the linguistic demands of the full version of a given target task which indirectly motivated selection of a particular pedagogic task. Rather, it refers to the difficulty of the pedagogical tasks in such aspects as the number of steps involved in their execution, the number of parties involved, the assumption they make about presupposed knowledge, the intellectual challenge they pose, their location (or not) in displaced time and space, and so on."
>
> (Long, 1985: 93. Quoted in Nunan, 1988a: 103. Authoress' highlighting)

However, it should be taken into account that Long finally seems to employ *grading* with a *sequencing* sense as he states that the former is determined by the degree of difficulty of the tasks as well as by the previously quoted, "such normal considerations as variety, pace and duration". Accordingly, he introduces three new criteria with respect to Nunan (1988b).

The procedure in which *grading* precedes *sequencing* is outlined by Long & Crookes (1992: 41): "Grading task difficulty and sequencing tasks [are] a problem for the process syllabus (and all task-based syllabuses)". Two years before, Widdowson (1990; quoted in Ellis, R., 2003) had already underlined the importance of *grading* tasks for *sequencing* purposes:

> *Sequencing* tasks
> We have now considered how tasks can be classified into types and the factors that need to be considered in determining their thematic content. This provides a basis for specifying which tasks to include in a syllabus. However, the design of a syllabus also requires that the content be *sequenced* so as to facilitate maximum learning. In effect, this requires determining the complexity of individual tasks [*gradation*] so that tasks can be matched to learners' level of development. Widdowson (1990) notes that *sequencing* tasks faces several problems, particularly the *grading* criteria to be used.
>
> (Ellis, R., 2003: 220. Authoress' highlighting)

Crookes, R. Ellis, Long and Nunan are important advocators of TBLT, where *gradation* issues are crucial. Indeed, tasks (as a whole unit of syllabus organisation in the same way as structures, functions, skills, etc.) require a specific *sequence* to the order in which they appear. A key factor to decide such a *sequence* is rooted in the *grading* process performed before. In other words: Tasks are firstly *graded* - i.e., their complexity is determined- and then *sequenced*.

With regard to the previous quotes from Long (1985; in Nunan 1988b), Nunan (1988b); Widdowson (1990; in Ellis, R., 2003) and Long & Crookes (1992), it can be concluded that grading refers to difficulty[9] as the parameter of ordering, either of a purely linguistic or a psycholinguistic nature. *Sequencing* refers then to the overall arrangement of that syllabus content by means of several criteria, one of which is complexity (*gradation*), the other ones being frequency, learnability, usefulness and learners' communicative needs.

I believe that it is necessary to make an aside here regarding the difficulty and frequency factors. The fact that an item of language is frequent does not necessarily imply its ease of learning for the learner, as it may be frequent but difficult to learn (e.g., prepositions and the article system in English). That is the reason why frequency is neatly separated from complexity.

In spite of the previously mentioned authors' neat separation between grading and *sequencing*, in quite a high number of works a terminological and conceptual ambiguity can be appreciated owing to the use of *grading* and *sequencing* as (quasi)synonyms in the same text. The earliest related examples are Cunningsworth (1984), Dubin (1986) and Breen (1987a). Cunningsworth's (1984) checklist for evaluation criteria mixes both

[9] It is acknowledged that some authors such as Robinson (2001) establish a distinction between "complexity" and "difficulty" as given by cognitive demands exercised by the task conditions and learner-internal factors respectively. In this thesis, both terms will be used interchangeably within the context of syllabus content *sequencing*.

terms (contrary to his 1995 work). The heading of the specific parameter is "Selection and grading of language items". However, "grading" is never used again but "sequence". The sense implied is definitely that of the latter, since not only is language complexity under discussion (this is what Cunningsworth (1984: 75) presumably means by, "the internal structure of the language"), but also students' needs:

> Selection and *grading* of language items
> Is the selection and *sequence* of the language to be taught based on
> a) an attempt to identify probable student need (student-centred approach)
> b) the internal structure of the language (subject-centred approach)
>
> (Cunningsworth, 1984: 75. Authoress' highlighting)

In her checklist textbook design, Dubin (1986) distinguishes between questions about basic assumptions and about shape and design. Within the latter, *grading* and *sequencing* are mentioned together, but the real meaning referred to is that of *sequencing* as the features alluded to are very similar to Candlin & Breen's (1980) parameters to distinguish types of syllabus *sequencing*:

> 3. *Sequencing/grading*: In what order will the separate parts be presented? Should the lessons increase in difficulty? Should we consider a matrix, a story line, or a cyclical ordering?
>
> (Dubin, 1986: 175. Authoress' highlighting)

As mentioned above, Breen (1987a) is the first author who introduces an explicit definition of *sequencing* as framed within the general setting of syllabi. However, Breen's 1987a article reflects an indistinct use of both terms after his clear definition of *sequencing* in Part I. Breen later describes three types of syllabus: The Formal, the Functional and the Task-Based syllabus. The heading corresponding to *sequencing* in each account is "How is the … syllabus sequenced?". In the Formal syllabus section, both concepts appear as synonyms (authoress' highlighting): "The criteria for *sequencing* – or *grading* – relate directly to the language itself" (Breen, 1987a: 86). Without any doubt, the sense referred to matches that of *sequencing,* since he includes both complexity issues and frequency, usefulness and learners' needs criteria:

> A Formal syllabus will therefore be sequenced primarily from simplicity to complexity but in ways which may also honour frequent of usage to less frequent usage, or from most useful structures, vocabulary, etc. to the less useful.
>
> (Breen, 1987a: 86)

The clearest example of the explicit assumption about *grading* and *sequencing* being synonyms is found in Richards et al. (1992). On page 332, they state that *sequencing* is another term for "gradation". The definition found for "gradation" on page 160 is as follows, which clearly makes reference to *sequencing*:

> *Gradation (also grading, sequencing*): the arrangement of a language course or a textbook so that it is presented in a helpful way. Gradation would affect the order in which words, word meanings, tenses, structures, topics, functions, skills, etc. are presented. *Gradation* may be based on the complexity of an item, its frequency in written or spoken English, or its importance for the learner.
>
> (Authoress' highlighting)

The opposite situation (in relation to the first term heading the definition) is observed in the Glossary from *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (2001). Following Breen's 1987a and 2001 definitions (see page 17), the meaning included is that of *sequencing*:

> Sequencing (grading): how areas of knowledge and particular skills and abilities are organised within a syllabus or within teaching materials so that they represent a path of progression and development.
>
> (Glossary. *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*, 2001: 226)

The non-distinction between *grading* and *sequencing* is equally appreciated in McDonough & Shaw's 1993 book on materials development. In their chapter of textbook evaluation, these authors differentiate an external (a brief 'overview' of the materials from the outside) from a closer and more detailed internal evaluation, which is followed by "overall evaluation" criteria. When discussing internal evaluation, *grading* and *sequencing* appear together in a heading; however, it is only *grading* which emerges all the way through the text with a parallel meaning to *sequencing* in Candlin & Breen (1980) and Breen (1987a, 2001):

> The *grading* and *sequencing* of the materials
> […]
> Sometimes the *grading* of the materials will be within the unit, other materials will be graded across the unit following a *progression of difficulty* in a linear fashion. Other materials claim to be modular by grouping a set of units at approximately the same level. In cases where there is virtually no *grading* at all – 'Most of the units do not have to be taught in any particular order…' – we have to investigate the extent to which we think this is true, and how such a book would suit our learners.
>
> (McDonough & Shaw, 1993: 76. Authoress' highlighting)

The same joint use of both labels and implied meaning may be remarked in their global criteria:

> The flexibility factor. How rigid is the *sequencing* and *grading*; can the materials be entered at different points/used in different ways? In some cases materials which are not so steeply *graded* offer a measure of flexibility which permits them to be integrated easily into various types of syllabus.
>
> (McDonough & Shaw, 1993: 77. Authoress' highlighting)

A similar ambiguity of the two terms is observed in the case of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) materials. McDonough (1998) establishes several criteria for *grading* and *sequencing*, but they are not differentiated. However, it is evident that *sequencing* is referred to as the criterion of complexity:

> Criteria for evaluating ESP materials
> What criteria are used for the *grading* and *sequencing* of the material? Is this carried out according to text length, type of exercise, or presumed linguistic or conceptual difficulty?
>
> (Authoress' highlighting)

Curiously, the distinction between *grading* and *sequencing* is conspicuous by its absence in TBLT literature despite the very clear differentiation established by Long & Crookes (1992), Nunan (1988b) and Widdowson (1990; in Ellis, R., 2003). In Long & Crookes (1993), *grading* and *sequencing* appear together in a similar fragment to Long's (1985). The final meaning alluded to seems to be *grading*, as there appear different parameters of complexity:

> Pedagogic tasks are then derived from task types and *sequenced* to form the task-based syllabus. […] Simplicity and complexity will not result from application of traditional linguistic grading criteria, however, but reside in some aspects of the tasks themselves. The number of steps involved, the number of solutions to a problem, the number of parties involved and the saliency of their distinguishing features, the location (or not) of the task in displaced time and space, and other aspects of the intellectual challenge a pedagogic task poses are some of the potential *grading and sequencing* criteria that have been proposed".
>
> (Long & Crookes, 1993: 40-41. Authoress' highlighting)

Skehan (1996a, 1996b) supplies a neat classification of the factors of complexity which affect tasks. He describes them in the two following sections: "Sequencing tasks: syllabus considerations" (Skehan, 1996a: 15-16) and as "Sequencing tasks" (Skehan, 1996b: 23). These are "code complexity", "cognitive complexity" (which affect both "cognitive familiarity" and "cognitive processing") and "communicative stress" (i.e. the result of the combinations between time pressure, the modality of the task performance and the "scale" (the number of participants and relationships implied)). Thus despite the *sequencing* label, all of these parameters clearly refer to *gradation* (complexity), which adopts both a linguistic and a cognitive nature in accordance with the demands of a TBLT syllabus framework.

In the abstract of his 2001 article, Robinson regards task *sequencing* as a sequence from simple to complex and vice versa. Consequently he seems to lower *sequencing* decisions to *grading* decisions (determination of complexity). Similar to McDonough & Shaw (1993), Robinson (2001) includes the two terms in the title of the second section. In this part, he reviews previous "grading and sequencing" proposals:

> The *Grading* and *Sequencing* Issue: Previous Proposals
> In task-based approaches to pedagogy and syllabus design such as those of Long (1985, 1997) and Skehan (1996) pedagogic tasks are not *sequenced* on the basis of their linguistic content but according to *variously defined notions of increases in task complexity or difficulty*.
>
> (Robinson, 2001: 28. Authoress' highlighting)

Robinson's "variously defined notions of increases in task complexity or difficulty" evidently refers to *grading* issues. Towards the end of this section, Robinson recovers both terms to refer to the focus of the previous proposals as, "grading and sequencing tasks".

R. Ellis (2003) includes a section called "sequencing tasks" but mentions the previous proposals as "criteria for grading tasks" (Ellis, R., 2003: 221). He compiles his own list of *grading* criteria, which resemble Skehan's "sequencing" factors. R. Ellis' parameters include "input" (medium, code complexity, cognitive complexity and familiarity of information); "conditions" (interactant relationship, task demands and discourse mode required to perform the task); "processes" (the cognitive operations demanded according to type and reasoning needed) and "outcomes" (which are studied in relation to medium, scope and discourse mode of task outcome).

To finish this section, and as indicated above, I will review Nunan's contributions on their own.

We have seen that in the glossary of his 1988b book, he plainly distinguishes *grading* from syllabus content *sequencing*. In accordance with this differentiation, part 7.5 of the same book is called "Grading content", whose title and content coincide with another section in his 1988a book.[10] "Grading" issues are considered from both linguistic and psycholinguistic perspectives:

> […] traditionally, items in a grammatical syllabus are *graded* largely according to whether they are *easy or difficult*, and that difficulty is defined in grammatical terms.
> […]
> Researchers such as Pienemann and Johnson (1987) claim that it is *learning difficulty*, determined by such things as short-term memory, *rather than grammatical difficulty*, which determines those items students will be capable of learning at a given stage.
>
> (Nunan, 1988b: 92-93. Authoress' highlighting)

Conversely, section 4.7 of his 1988b work is titled as "Grading tasks". In this part, Nunan is not addressing specifications of the syllabus content or the teaching "what". In keeping with the targeted object (tasks and not content), he is dealing with an activity (teaching "how") typology procedure. This typology is categorised according to learner responses (processing, productive and interactive ones) which are shaped by cognitive and performance requirements. In this way, Nunan becomes the first author who explicitly refers to psychological aspects in activity *sequencing*:

[10] Nunan's 1988a section also includes the term "sequence" used in the same way as in Tucker (1978).

> Nunan (1985) presents a typology of activities in which difficulty is determined by the cognitive and performance demands made upon the learner, i.e., activity type is categorized according to type of learner response […]. The typology exploits the traditional comprehension/production distinction and adds an interaction element.
>
> (Nunan, 1988b: 55)

There are two reasons why I am convinced that activity *sequencing* and not content "grading" questions are present here:

1) The content of this chapter is exactly the same as the first section of chapter 6 in his 1989 book: "Sequencing and integrating tasks".[11] Two important aspects should be paid attention to in this initial reason. On the one hand, Nunan titles this 1989 section as "A psycholinguistic processing approach". As will be seen in section 2.4.2., this is the first time that psycholinguistic issues are overtly referred to when dealing with the concept of *sequencing*. On the other hand, Nunan specifies two basic elements: The term "sequence" and its context of action - a unit of work. The latter refers to the lesson setting ascribed to my operationalisation of *sequencing*:

> In this ten-step *sequence*, the demands on the learners gradually increase. This *sequence*, […] could be used as the basis for a *unit of work* […]
>
> (Nunan, 1989: 119. Authoress' highlighting)

2) The preceding chapter of his 1989 book is called "Grading tasks", which comprises a compilation of the different factors laid down by the varied literature to shape task complexity:

> In this chapter we have looked at some factors involved in *grading* language tasks. […] Determining *task complexity* is made difficult, not only by the range of factors involved, but also by the interaction of these factors with each other.
>
> (Nunan, 1989: 116. Authoress' highlighting)

It should be observed that what Skehan (1996a, 1996b), Robinson (2001) and R. Ellis (2003) consider to be *sequencing* criteria or considerations are regarded as

[11] By "integrating" Nunan means, "the integration of communicative tasks with other tasks and exercises types which are designed to help students develop the enabling skills they will need to communicate successfully, or which are designed to develop such skills as learning-how-to-learn" (Nunan, 1989: 118).

"grading" issues by Nunan. This additionally supports my argument that Nunan's 1988b section is focused on activity *sequencing* and not on content *grading*.

In a later work, Nunan discriminates between the two terms: "Task-based Syllabus Design: Selecting, Grading and Sequencing Tasks" (1993). However, his use of both labels appears to show the same degree of vagueness as the works of R. Ellis (2003), Long & Crookes (1993) and Robinson (2001). This allows for interpreting both terms as (quasi) synonyms in Nunan (1993). *Sequencing* and *grading* are related to the same concept identified as "grading" by Nunan himself in his chapter "Grading tasks" (1989: 96), i.e. the ordering of tasks (taken as syllabus units) according to varied criteria of complexity.

Nunan edited his 1989 book as *Task-Based Language Teaching* in 2004. This contains new points and a revision of those introduced in the first edition. The 2004 work includes the following chapter: "Grading, sequencing and integrating tasks". Throughout the text, *grading* is used to denote difficulty issues whereas *sequencing* affects both tasks-as-syllabus-units ordering and activity ordering. Nunan's conclusion of this chapter reflects the dichotomy of the meanings of *sequencing*. Firstly, Nunan uses "task difficulty" and "ordering of tasks" as the respective synonyms for *grading* and *sequencing,* which are framed within syllabus content:

> In this chapter, I have explored some of the key factors involved in *grading*, *sequencing* and integrating tasks. As we have seen, there are many factors determining *task difficulty*, and deciding on the appropriate *ordering of tasks* is, in some cases, a matter of trial and error.
>
> (Nunan, 2004: 135. Authoress' highlighting)

Secondly, Nunan (2004) indicates that he had looked at, "some proposals for sequencing and integrating tasks [and that they] serve to demonstrate the ways in which tasks can be sequenced and integrated with other activity and exercise types" (p. 136). He is presumably referring to the 1989 "psycholinguistic processing approach" to *sequencing,* which he also introduces in 2004 together with project based proposals and his "within-task sequencing" description - both of which are framed within TBLT. The "within-task sequencing" refers to the ordering of the phases in an information gap task. This consists of a pre-task phase, a task-proper phase and a follow-up phase.

From all the previous accounts it can be concluded that there seems to exist a recurrent and somewhat arbitrary use and definition of the terms *grading* and

sequencing when the latter is framed within the context of general (long-term nature) syllabus. The reason for this is presumably that both terms are very frequently employed as synonyms. Sometimes the real meaning is that of "grading" (Ellis, R., 2003; Long & Crookes, 1993; Nunan, 1993; Robinson, 2001; Skehan, 1996a, 1996b). In other cases, the sense of *sequencing* will be present (Cunningsworth, 1984; Dubin, 1986; McDonough & Shaw, 1993; McDonough, 1998; Richards et al., 1992). What is more, imprecise employment of the two terms affects works by the same author. In this case I examined Long & Crookes' (1992) neat procedure regarding *grading* and *sequencing* and the indistinct use in Long & Crookes (1993); the equivalence of both labels in Cunningsworth 1984 work but the differentiated use in his 1995 evaluation checklist. As described above, Nunan's 1988b and 1993 works also fall into this category.

Despite the above, a very clear discrimination of *sequencing* and between *sequencing* and *grading* has been uncovered through the analysis of the definitions and contexts of use established by Cunningsworth (1995); Hutchinson & Waters (1987); Long & Crookes (1992); Nunan (1988b glossary); Skierso (1991); Widdowson (1990; quoted in Ellis, R., 2003); Williams (1983). *Grading*, then, refers to difficulty (either linguistic or of a psycholinguistic/cognitive nature) as the parameter of content arrangement. *Sequencing* refers to the overall organization of that syllabus by means of several criteria, one of which is complexity (*gradation*).

Table 2 offers a classification of all the senses of *sequencing* highlighted in the preceding sections: In the SLA (1) and in the FLT (2) areas, with the distinction in the latter between the *sequencing* of "syllabus content (teaching "what")" (2.1.) and of "Activity (teaching "how") (2.2.). The "ordering of the syllabus content" category is also divided into two groups: 2.1.1., which includes those works where *sequencing* is used on its own and it is clearly distinguished from *grading*; and 2.1.2., which entails those cases where *sequencing* (the ordering of the syllabus content) is also involved as opposed to *grading* (determination of complexity). In 2.1.2., the following groups are differentiated: 2.1.2.1. (One term in the text); 2.1.2.2. (Quasi-synonyms (both terms in the same text)) and 2.1.2.3., which comprises those works where both terms are used in the same text with an overt distinction of labels and meanings following Nunan (1988b), Widdowson (1990; quoted in Ellis, R., 2003) and Long & Crookes (1992). Within each category and group the works are included in a chronological order. In 2.1.2.1. and 2.1.2.3., the terms actually used are shown in inverted commas and the real

sense expressed is highlighted afterwards in italics within brackets. When the sense of *sequencing* coincides with my operationalisation, I have added it in capital letters. Those authors who appear in more than one section are preceded by an asterisk (Breen, 1987a; Long & Crookes, 1992 and Nunan, 1988b).

Table 2. Meanings of *sequencing* in SLA and FLT literature

1. SLA: Order of acquisition of language forms	2. FLT:					
	2.1. ORDERING OF CONTENT (TEACHING "WHAT")					2.2. ORDERING OF ACTIVITIES (TEACHING "HOW") (see Table 3, pp. 57-61)
• *Long & Crookes (1992) • R. Ellis (2001) • Goldscheneider & DeKeyser (2001)	2.1.1. ORDERING OF SYLLABUS CONTENT (*sequencing* on its own)	2.1.2. *SEQUENCING* (ordering of the syllabus content) as opposed to *GRADING* (determination of complexity)				
		2.1.2.1. ONE TERM IN THE TEXT	2.1.2.2. (QUASI) SYNONYMS (BOTH TERMS IN THE SAME TEXT)		2.1.2.3. EXPLICIT DISTINCTION OF TERMS AND CONCEPTS APPEARING IN THE SAME TEXT	
	• Candlin & Breen (1980) (TYPES OF SEQUENCING) • Williams (1983) • Breen (*1987a, 2001) (TYPES OF SEQUENCING) • Hutchinson & Waters (1987) • Nunan (1988a glossary) • Skierso (1991) • Cunningsworth (1995) (In Richards, 2001)	• Tucker (1978): "Sequencing" (either *grading* or *sequencing* due to a single parameter) • Long (1985; in Nunan, 1988b): "grading" (ordering tasks taken as syllabus units) (*sequencing*) • *Nunan (1988b): "Grading tasks" section (*ACTIVITY ORDERING*) • Sheldon (1988): "Grading" (idem as Tucker (1978)) • Skehan (1996a, 1996b): "sequencing" (*grading*)	2.1.2.2.1. *Grading* meaning • Long & Crookes (1993) • Nunan (1993) • Robinson (2001) • R. Ellis (2003)	2.1.2.2.2. *Sequencing* meaning • Cunningsworth (1984) • Dubin (1986) • *Breen (1987a) • Richards et al (1992) • McDonough & Shaw (1993) • McDonough (1998) • Glossary in Carter & Nunan (2001)	• *Nunan (1988b). Glossary: "Grading" (*grading*); "sequencing" (*sequencing*) • Nunan (1989). "Grading tasks" chapter: "Grading" (*grading*) • Nunan (1989). "Sequencing and integrating tasks" chapter: "Sequencing" (*ACTIVITY ORDERING*) • Widdowson (1990) (In Ellis, R., 2003): "Grading" (*grading*); "sequencing" (*sequencing*) • *Long & Crookes (1992): "Grading" (*grading*); "sequencing" (*sequencing*) • Nunan (2004). "Grading, sequencing and integrating tasks" chapter: "Grading" (*grading*); "sequencing" (*ordering of syllabus content* and *ACTIVITY ORDERING*)	
			• Special case: Nunan (1988a). Both terms in the same text and same meaning as in Tucker's (1978) *sequencing* and Sheldon's (1988) *grading*			

2.4. THE PRESENCE OF *SEQUENCING* AS THE ORDERING OF ACTIVITIES IN FLT LITERATURE

After the explanation of the two different meanings of *sequencing* found in the literature and the clarification of terminological and conceptual inconsistencies between *grading* and *sequencing* within the context of syllabi, it is now pertinent to examine the presence of *sequencing* as activity ordering in FLT literature. Terminological variations in the naming of *sequencing* will also be indicated.

This section is divided into three sub-sections: 2.4.1. Materials Development literature; 2.4.2. Other works and 2.4.3. Concluding remarks. The rationale for this categorisation derives from the remark in section 1.1. concerning materials development and their classroom applications as the specific field which frames activity *sequencing* in this thesis. The first category includes all the chapters, articles or books which are *explicitly* and *exclusively* focused on materials development in either of the following major sub-areas: Materials design, materials analysis, materials evaluation and materials adaptation**.** Sub-section 2.4.2. comprises all the works which do not touch upon the four sub-areas distinguished above for section 2.4.1.; however, their topics of discussion highlight the relevance of activity *sequencing* issues regardless of whether they are actually mentioned or not. Finally, sub-section 2.4.3. will offer a summary of all the previous results.

In general, the works are presented in a chronological order in each section. There are two exceptions to this rule. The first one encompasses those works which have been included together due to their very similar content. This measure was adopted to cater for thematic coherence. The second exception is represented by those authors' studies which are dated in different years and which belong to the same main category, for instance Harmer (1991, 1996, 2001); Richards (1993, 1998, 2001); Sánchez (1993, 2001, 2004a); Tomlinson (1999, 2003b, 2003c, unpublished manuscript a). In order to gain a better understanding of the overall contribution of these authors, I thought it pertinent to include their studies together. The inclusion of the first-dated study of each author will correspond with the chronological order resulting by the immediately preceding reviewed studies.

The works reviewed in this section include those from section 2.3. excluding the following cases: a) Long (1985) and Widdowson (1990) (as they are not a primary

source); b) Breen (1987a, 1987b, 2001), Long & Crookes (1992, 1993) and Robinson (2001), whose studies are specifically focused on syllabus design. The entire list of studies in chronological order from which this review is drawn is as follows:

Stevick (1971); Newton Bruder (1978); Tucker (1978); Brumfit (1979); Daoud & Celce-Murcia (1979); Candlin & Breen (1980); Littlewood (1981); Johnson (1982); Mariani (1983); Williams (1983); Cunningsworth (1984, 1995); Spratt (1985a, 1985b, 1985c); Read (1985); Byrne (1986); Dubin (1986, 1995); Breen & Candlin (1987); Di Pietro (1987); Grant (1987); Hutchinson (1987); Hutchinson & Waters (1987); Richards & Rodgers (1987); Nunan (1988a, 1988b, 1989, 1993, 2004); Sheldon (1988); Estaire & Zanón (1990); Harmer (1991, 1996, 2001); Skierso (1991); Littlejohn (1992, 1998); Richards et al. (1992 (1985)); McDonough & Shaw (1993); Richards (1993, 1998, 2001); Sánchez (1993, 2001, 2004a); Woodward (1993, 2001); Scrivener (1994, 1996, 2005); Byrd (1995b, 1995c); McCarthy & Carter (1995); Lewis (1996); Skehan (1996a, 1996b); Ur (1996); D. Willis (1996a, 1996b); J. Willis (1993, 1996a, 1996b); Savignon (1997); Carter et al. (1998); McDonough (1998); Tomlinson (1999, 2003b, 2003c, unpublished manuscript a, unpublished manuscript b); Hedge (2000); Hall (2001); Tomlinson et al. (2001); McGrath (2002); R. Ellis (2003); Islam & Mares (2003); Tomlinson & Masuahara (2004); Timmis (unpublished manuscript).

2.4.1. Materials Development literature

The first scholar who specifically and explicitly deals with Materials Development is Stevick (1971). In his book called *Adapting and Writing Language Lessons*, Stevick (1971) distinguishes the following three dimensions for the evaluation of, "the content of a textbook, or a lesson, or a drill, or a single line" (pp. 50): The "linguistic dimension" ('How well must they speak?'); the "social dimension" ('Who is talking with whom?') and the "topical dimension" ('What are they talking about?') (Stevick, 1971: 50-52). No reference is made to the *sequencing* of activities.

The same situation can be observed in Newton Bruder (1978), Tucker (1978) and Daoud & Celce-Murcia (1979). The former includes a simplified procedure for the evaluation of FLT textbooks. Her checklist contains the following criteria: "Level Comments", "Objectives Comments", "Style Comments", "Language background Comments", "Age Comments", "Time Comments", "Convictions Comments" (the theoretical and pedagogic training principles of the material and the teacher) and "Competency Comments" (the competence of the teacher in the target language).

Sequencing as syllabus content ordering does not appear either, contrary to Tucker (1978) (see section 2.3.3.). This author offers four categories for the evaluation of beginners' textbooks: "Pronunciation", "Grammar", "Content", and "General" criteria (Tucker 1978: 220). His remark of syllabus content *sequencing* is included in Grammar. However, there is no reference to the arrangement of exercises. An identical situation is observed in Daoud & Celce-Murcia's (1979) checklist for the selection and evaluation of textbooks, which includes two parameters: The "Textbook" and the "Teacher's manual".

On the other hand, Mariani (1983) incorporates a check question in his evaluation list concerning "sequence". In doing so this author indirectly refers to the P-P-P. He does not employ the label of *sequencing*:

> h) Are the various stages in a teaching unit (what you would probably call *presentation*, *practice and production*) adequately developed? Does the book provide, in particular, sufficient opportunities for contextualised language practice and for personal, creative language use?
>
> (Mariani, 1983: 29. Authoress' highlighting)

Mariani is referring to the traditional P-P-P, which will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3. In fact, similar indirect references to the concept of activity *ordering* (which lack the term *sequencing* and which are also associated with this traditional pattern) can be observed in many works from this and the following section.

In the same year as Mariani, Williams (1983) devised some suggestions for the design of criteria to be included in the evaluation of textbooks. He distinguishes four basic assumptions that have to be matched to linguistic and pedagogical criteria: "Up-to-date methodology of L2 teaching"; "Guidance for non-native speakers of English"; "Needs of learners" and "Relevance to socio-cultural environment" (Williams, 1983: 252). The reference to *sequencing* indicated in section 2.3.2. is offered within the latter criterion. *Activity sequencing* is not mentioned.

As also noted in section 2.3.2., Cunningsworth's 1984 book (the first book on textbook evaluation according to its author) presents the term *sequencing* as syllabus content ordering. This author devotes a whole chapter to "Presentation and Practice of New Language Items", where the two first Ps of the P-P-P are referred to again without any instance of the term *sequencing*. Identical circumstances can be appreciated in his 1995 textbook evaluation criteria list, which includes "Aims and approaches"; "Design

and organization"; "Language content"; "Skills"; "Topic"; "Methodology"; "Teachers' books" and "Practical considerations". Under "Methodology", the following question appears: "What techniques are used for presenting/practising new language items? Are they suitable for your learners? (Cunningsworth 1995; quoted in Richards, 2001: 276).

Dubin's (1986) checklist for material creation includes a question headed as *sequencing/grading* which refers to syllabus content (see section 2.3.3.); however, there is no mention of activity *sequencing*. This also occurs in Grant's chapter "Choosing and Evaluating Textbooks" from his 1987 book. Grant offers three types of evaluation: Initial, detailed and in-use evaluation. Two lists with questions for choosing textbooks are also included. Neither here nor in the rationale and description of all the three types of evaluation is there any reference to the *sequencing* of activities.

In his study about the design of an interactive textbook evaluation checklist, Hutchinson (1987) presents an extremely interesting and thought-provoking section dealing with *sequencing*. He differentiates between language and learning criteria and states the following regarding the latter:

> What does the appearance of the book tell you about the view of learning? Is there a regular pattern to the chapters with the same *sequence* of exercises following each text? Has this been done for the ease of layout, or are the authors perhaps saying that regularity is important to learning? Are they thinking of the teacher: a regular chapter structure helps with lesson planning? Do you think the appearance of a book affects attitudes to learning? If so in what ways?
>
> (Hutchinson, 1987: 40. Authoress' highlighting)

Hutchinson is indirectly targeting a key point affecting activity *sequencing*. This consists of the "conflict" between regularity and novelty, which is dealt with in sections 3.3.1.3., 3.3.1.4. and 3.3.2.5. Together with Waters, the same author uses *sequence* again to refer to *syllabus content ordering* (see section 2.3.2.) and also to *activity ordering*. Despite making reference to "content", basic issues concerning *sequencing* operationalised by myself are apparent:

> How should the content *be sequenced within a unit?*
> e.g. -from guided to free?
> -from comprehension to production?
> -from accuracy to fluency?
> - by some other means?
> Should there be no obvious sequence?
>
> (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987: 102. Emphasis in the original)

Indeed, activity *sequencing* needs to address whether the main goal of teaching is directed at triggering a guided or a free answer on the part of the students, at developing accuracy or fluency or at exploiting comprehension or *production*. Accordingly, different types of activities exist to cater for these varied objectives (see section 3.2.). A very similar approach to Hutchinson & Waters is found in McDonough's (1998) review of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) materials. She also refers to the nature of skills and learners' response parameters, and goes as far as specifying the possibility of not including any *sequencing* principle. The label *sequencing* is not included:

> Do the activities move from controlled to free? Do receptive skills occur before productive? Or is each unit of work free-standing, allowing the teacher open selection?
>
> (McDonough, 1998: 159)

As was seen in section 2.3.3., Sheldon (1988) uses "grading" to refer to both syllabus content ordering and complexity in his classic article on the evaluation of ELT textbooks and materials. He also uses this label for activity *sequencing*: "Selection/*grading*: -Does the introduction, practice, and recycling of new linguistic items seem to be shallow/steep enough for your students?" (Sheldon, 1988: 243. Authoress' highlighting). Here the author refers to the two first stages of the P-P-P ("introduction", "practice"). Likewise, he highlights a very important aspect which consists of the need for constant *recycling* so that foreign language mastery is correctly attained. I will comment on this issue in more detail in sections 3.3.2.3. and 4.4.1.

Skierso (1991) presents another interesting case concerning terminological issues. As seen in section 2.3.2., she approaches the ordering of syllabus content with the label of *sequencing*. However, in the specific evaluation criterion of "Exercises and Activities", she uses "graded" to refer to activity sequencing matters, similar to Sheldon (1988):

> Do the exercises involve vocabulary and structures which build up the learner's repertoire? Are they *graded* to provide a progression from manipulation to communication?
>
> (Skierso, 1991: 437. Authoress' highlighting)

As can be seen, Skierso is indirectly referring to the P-P-P if we consider *practice* and *production* as manipulation and communication respectively. See Chapter 3 for an account of the P-P-P.

To my knowledge, the only PhD specifically dealing with materials (and which has the term "materials" in the title) is Littlejohn's *Why are ELT materials the way they are?* (1992). In his thesis, Littlejohn presents a descriptive analytical model of English Language Teaching (ELT). It consists of "Realisation", "Design" and "Aims". After applying the model to certain selected materials, Littlejohn (1992: 82) states: "S*equencing* of tasks in the materials is characterised by a movement from teacher/materials presentation, through practice activities towards freer, often game-like, tasks" (authoress' highlighting). As can be seen, his findings point towards a P-P-P based pattern. *Presentation*, *practice* and *production* can be respectively identified as "teacher presentation", "practice activities" and "freer, often game-like, tasks". With this last element, he indirectly underlines an important factor to be taken into account when *sequencing*: The types of activities involved. This is immediately related to Hutchinson and Waters' (1987) specification concerning the targets of accuracy or fluency, comprehension or *production,* guided or free answers. Section 3.2. considers these issues.

With few terminological deviations, Littlejohn includes his 1992 analytical model in his 1998 chapter. Two main criteria can be found again: "Publication" (which is very similar to "Realisation" in 1992) and "Design". Within the latter he specifies "Aims", "Principles of selection", "Principles of sequencing", "Subject matter and focus of subject matter", "Types of teaching/learning activities", "Participation: who does what with whom", "Classroom roles of teachers and learners", "Learner roles in learning" and "Role of the materials as a whole" (Littlejohn, 1998: 193). In an exemplification of these criteria by means of the evaluation of an actual textbook, the author offers the following points in "Principles of sequencing":

> -tasks: movement from student ideas/opinions, to text presentation of information/language knowledge, to choice of practice exercises to larger 'whole task' activities
> -content: no clear principle for the sequence of content
> -language: simple to complex in terms of surface structure
>
> (Littlejohn, 1998: 215)

As can be appreciated, the first principle largely evokes Littlejohn's 1992 quotation. Besides, with the term *sequencing* he denotes both *activity ordering* and presumably *syllabus content ordering*.

McDonough and Shaw's *Materials and Methods in ELT* book (1993) devotes a chapter each to materials adaptation and evaluation. The former describes several techniques such as "Adding" (including "expanding" and "extending"); "Deleting" (including "substracting" and "abridging"); "Modifying" (embracing "re-writing" and "re-structuring"); "Simplifying" and "Re-ordering". Within the latter, they refer to *sequence* in the following way:

> It refers to the possibility of putting the parts [content] of a coursebook in a different order. This may mean adjusting the *sequence* of presentation within a unit, or taking units in a different *sequence* from that of the originally intended.
>
> (McDonough & Shaw, 1993: 95. Authoress' highlighting)

"Adjusting the sequence of presentation within a unit", we can reasonably suppose, encompasses activity *sequencing* in the sense of varying the order of presentation of the exercises. However, the examples provided exclude the consideration of this meaning. *Sequencing* deals with adjustments from a content point of view; for instance, the need to remove certain superfluous functions for adult learners who are living in the target language environment or to disregard grammar points of too high a level for a determined group of students, etc. Their chapter on evaluation does not contain any instance of *sequencing* as activity distribution.

Richards' works reveal a varied treatment of the arrangement of exercises. He does not address this issue in his 1993 article, which specifically deals with materials: "Beyond the textbook: The role of commercial materials in language teaching". The content of this work is largely similar to a chapter, "Textbooks: Help or hindrance in teaching?" (1998). In the "Developing criteria for evaluating textbooks" section, this author reports on the suggestions that arose from a teacher training session. During this

session there was a differentiation between a "macro-evaluation" and a "micro-evaluation". The former consists of teacher, learner and task factors, whereas the latter supplies a checklist of points for a conversation text (Richards, 1998). Activity *sequencing* was not pinpointed by any of the teachers involved. The reverse situation was found in the "A study of teachers' uses of lesson plans" section from another chapter, where the author reports the characteristics of lesson plans devised by the same teachers. These characteristics are quantified in several categories: Frequency, purposes and contents. "Activities and sequence" elements are included within "contents". When giving a later account of the "interactive decisions during lessons", one of the pedagogical factors listed was "changed sequence of activities" (Richards, 1998: 115). Revealingly, only a single person from both the less experienced and experienced teacher groups modified the sequence.

A curious situation can also be observed in Richards (2001). In his chapter titled "The Role of Instructional Materials", there is no reference to *sequencing* in the "Evaluating textbooks" section. This contrasts with the "Adapting textbooks" section. He includes a list of techniques which are very similar to McDonough & Shaw's (1993: 95): "Modifying content", "adding or deleting content", "reorganising content", "addressing omissions", "modifying tasks" and "extending tasks". Within "reorganising content", Richards states the following:

> A teacher may decide to reorganize the syllabus of the book, and arrange the units in what she considers a more suitable order. Or within a unit the teacher may decide not to follow the *sequence* of activities in the unit but to *reorder* them for a particular reason.
>
> (Richards, 2001: 260. Authoress' highlighting)

The first point is very similar to McDonough & Shaw's "re-ordering", whereas the second remark corresponds exactly with my own operationalisation of *sequencing*.

From my point of view, an astounding case is presented by three recent works whose titles directly refer to materials development but which do not include activity *sequencing* considerations. The first one is *Material Writers Guide*, edited by Byrd (1995a). In none of the chapters that I had access to ("Introduction" (Byrd, 1995b); "Issues in the Writing and Publication of Grammar Textbooks (Byrd, 1995c); "The Craft of Materials Writing" (Dubin, 1995)) did I find any mention of *sequencing* as activity ordering. The second work is Hall (2001). His chapter is called "Materials

production: Theory and Practice". Hall studies different principles to be taken into account when producing materials, such as the "need to communicate", "the need for long-term goals", for "authenticity", and for "student-centredness". He also exemplifies the above in several sample materials which are based on a notional-structural, communicative, genre-based and student-generated, experiential approaches. The *sequencing* of activities does not appear. The third case is McGrath's *Materials Evaluation and Design for Language Teaching* (2002), where no references to *sequencing* are included whatsoever in any of the four chapters devoted to materials evaluation and adaptation.

Savignon's second edition of her *Communicative Competence. Theory and Classroom Practice* (1997) includes a chapter on selecting materials which comprises a section about materials evaluation. In the summary of the guidelines provided, no reference is found regarding the *sequencing* of activities. An identical situation can be appreciated in the "Checklist for Textbook Comparison" that is supplied afterwards and which is divided into "organization" and "content".

A different situation is found in Islam & Mares (2003). In their chapter on classroom materials adaptation, they report a very similar list to McDonough & Shaw's (1993) adaptation techniques:

> Adding; extending and expanding
> Deleting; substracting and abridging
> Simplifying
> Reordering
> Replacing material
>
> (Islam & Mares, 2003: 91)

In line with McDonough & Shaw, Islam & Mares refer to *sequencing* within "reordering"; however, in contrast to these authors, they actually refer to activity ordering. Furthermore, this procedure is exactly the same as the second element outlined by Richards (2001) under the technique of "reorganising content":

> Reordering
> When reordering, the teacher has decided that it makes more pedagogic sense to *sequence* activities differently. An example is beginning with a general discussion before looking at a reading passage rather than using the reading as a basis for discussion.
>
> (Islam & Mares, 2003: 92. Authoress' highlighting)

In his account of the "text-based lexical approach", Timmis (unpublished manuscript) approaches *sequencing* in the section aimed at discussing methodological principles for highlighting language in this approach. He reports the current discontent with the P-P-P, which he labels as an "approach" or "paradigm" (see section 3.3. for an account of the negative criticisms directed towards this traditional model).

To finish this section, I will deal with the works of Tomlinson, the founder of MATSDA (the *Materials Development Association*).

Tomlinson (1999) reports the design of criteria for the evaluation of L2 teaching materials. *Sequencing* matters are dealt with by referring to the P-P-P in an evaluation of coursebooks for beginners. Activity ordering is discarded in his complete "Evaluation Sheet" (Tomlinson, unpublished manuscript a). These criteria were used in the evaluation of commercial textbooks that he co-authored with Bao, Masuhara & Rubdi (Tomlinson et al., 2001). In this work the reference to *sequencing* is rooted in the criticism towards the P-P-P:

> […] the emphasis is on explicit teaching of declarative knowledge, followed by controlled or guided practice. In other words, PPP (presentation-practice-production) still rules, but with the emphasis now very much on the first two Ps.
>
> (Tomlinson et al., 2001: 81)

In his description of the "Text-driven Approach to Materials Development", Tomlinson (2003c) offers a section on how to use this framework once all the stages are explained with their corresponding principles, procedures and objectives. This explanation draws on the *sequencing* of the stages:

> The above framework is best used *flexibly*. Obviously some stages must *precede* others (e.g. readiness activities before experiential activities) and there are strong arguments for some stages preceding others […] However, there is *no need to follow all the stages* in the framework (it depends on the engagement and the needs and wants of each particular class), the *sequence* of some of the stages can vary […] and sometimes the teacher might decide to focus on a particular type of activity because of the needs of the learners […]. It is useful though for the materials developer to include all the stages in the actual course materials so that the teachers (and possibly the learners) can make decisions for themselves about which stages to use and what *sequence* to use them in. The important point is that apprehension should come before comprehension (Kolb, 1984).
>
> (Tomlinson, 2003c: 116-117. Authoress' highlighting)

Identical reference to Kolb is made in his "Materials Evaluation" chapter (Tomlinson, 2003b), which constitutes the single reference to *sequencing* in this specific work. This learning principle is pedagogically translated as activities focusing on students' opinions preceding text comprehension-based exercises.

Tomlinson (unpublished manuscript b) focuses on the links between SLA research and Materials Development. He refers to activity *sequencing* matters by again criticising the P-P-P. Attention is drawn to the vital fact that it ignores the "delayed effect of instruction". This principle means that recycling is needed to ensure that the *production* stage truly reflects students' linguistic and communicative mastery and that it does not solely rely on short-term memory. Accordingly, the P-P-P (which is labelled as an "approach" by Tomlinson) needs to adapt the order and function of its stages. See section 3.3.2.3. for an account of the "delayed effect of instruction" as applied to the P-P-P.

The last work by Tomlinson that is reviewed is his booklet co-authored with Masuhara (2004): *Developing language course materials. Sequencing* is ignored in the first chapter ("Materials Evaluation"). However, they deal with this issue in the second chapter ("Materials Adaptation") at length. In the introduction to this chapter, and similar to Islam & Mares (2003), changing the order of the activities is claimed to be an adaptation procedure of lessons that are being implemented in the classroom (the context of my own definition of *sequencing*):

> When they teach this prepared lesson in classrooms, they may make further on-the-spot changes in response to the learners' reactions. They may, for instance:
> - shorten or lengthen an activity
> - skip an activity and go on to the next one
> - *change the order of activities*
>
> (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004: 15. Authoress' highlighting)

When reporting the "Principles in Material Adaptation", these researchers explicitly state that, "Unlike materials evaluation, materials adaptation involves *sequencing* activities" (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004: 16. Authoress' highlighting). They propose several principles derived from language learning theories in which *sequencing* decisions may be rooted: "Focus first on the meaning then on language", "reception before production"; "start with the learners, end with the learners" (beginning and ending with learners' free personal responses); and "listening before reading". Together with Sánchez (2004a), this is the most far-reaching list of elements to be considered in *sequencing* activities.

2.4.2. Other works

Two of the earliest works on CLT, Brumfit (1979) and Littlewood (1981), show the essential role of activity *sequencing* in the shaping of the new-born approach. In Brumfit (1979) the distribution of the exercises emerges as the distinctive parameter of a "post-communicative teaching model". Instead of following the "traditional pattern of procedure" or "present-drill-practise in context" (Brumfit, 1979: 183), the new communicative perspective on language teaching requires starting from purely communicative activities whose performance will oblige students to maximise their linguistic abilities. Johnson (1982) draws on Brumfit's "post-communicative teaching model" to describe his "deep end strategy". He refers to Brumfit's and to the traditional approach as "procedures".

Littlewood (1981) is the first author who explicitly devotes a section to *sequencing* matters: "Sequencing of pre-communicative and communicative work". Furthermore, his book constitutes the first recorded appearance of the label of "sequence" with an operationalisation very close to my own: Activity ordering within the context of "a teaching unit (e.g. a lesson or series of lessons)" (Littlewood, 1981: 87-88). This is "very close" because this author does not identify the textbook as the

support of lessons. Two possible types of sequences are described: from pre-communicative to communicative activities and the reverse route.

In the same methodology textbook, Spratt (1985a, 1985, 1985c) and Read (1985) deal with the *Presentation-Practice-Production* sequence as framed within oral lessons. The former devotes a whole section to the three stages without mentioning the term "sequence" or any synonym except when describing the Production phase: "The role of the production stage in the presentation, practice and production *sequence* can be illustrated by returning briefly to the learner-driver analogy of the presentation stage article" (Spratt, 1985c: 12. Authoress' highlighting). Read (1985: 17) offers an excellent P-P-P synopsis chart. Similar to Brumfit (1979), she does not include any term that brings the three stages together, such as "sequence" or "structure". See section 3.2.1. for a review of Read's chart.

In his book on the methodology of teaching oral English, Byrne (1986) explicitly discusses *sequencing* issues when referring to the P-P-P and refers to the *sequencing* pattern outlined by Brumfit (1979) as the "progressive view of the three stages of learning" (p. 3). The contributions of Byrne (1986), Brumfit (1979), Johnson (1982) and Littlewood (1981) are examined in section 5.2.

Di Pietro (1987) offers one of the earliest alternative proposals to the P-P-P: "Strategic interaction". It is inspired by assumption that students will be motivated to learn through the different developmental routes triggered by the social exchanges (interactions) that they engage in with their classmates.[12] Di Pietro (1987) indicates the three diverging types of activities which students have to perform: Rehearsal, performance and debriefing. The clear reference to *sequencing* is observed in the order of such activities:

[12] Di Pietro's proposal is the only one that I found to be exploited at an empirical level (Muranoi, 2000). In this study, the use of Di Pietro's contribution was a means to achieve the end of testing the efficacy of certain focus-on-form procedures. In particular, this study attempted to uncover the impact of feedback and interactional modifications on the learning of L2 English articles framed within a strategic interaction sequence. This sequence was used in two experimental groups and in one control group. Due to the two previous methodological points, I do not consider it accurate to regard Muranoi's work as a study truly focused on activity *sequencing*.

> Performances by individual students *follow* rehearsals. Performing students are free to interrupt their discourse in order to return to their rehearsal groups for impromptu consultations whenever they reach an impasse. Debriefing *follows* performance and engages the entire class in a discussion of any aspect of the scenario and its execution they wish to discuss.
>
> (Di Pietro, 1987: 9. Authoress' highlighting)

The specific motivational component of the "strategic interaction" is adopted by Sánchez to devise his "Communicative Processes-based model of activity sequencing". The link between both patterns is discussed in sections 5.2.5. and 5.2.8.

As was seen in section 2.3.3., Nunan's works present a certain terminological and conceptual changeability. In his 1988a book and 1993 article, Nunan ignores activity *sequencing* issues and exclusively deals with *grading* aspects. These are both labelled as "grading" and "sequencing" in his later work. On the other hand, his 1988b book includes a section called "Grading tasks" connected with my definition of *sequencing*. However, *activity ordering* denoted with the terms "sequencing" and "ordering" is present in his 1989 and 2004 books, where it is approached in a different chapter from *grading*.

> In this chapter, I should like to look at the place of communicative tasks within the broader framework of *lessons* or *units of work*. We shall look at a number of different ways in which tasks can be *sequenced*, and we shall also look at the integration of communicative tasks with other task and exercise types which are designed to help students develop the enabling skills they will need to communicate successfully, or which are designed to develop such skills as learning-how-to-learn".
>
> (Nunan, 1989: 118. Authoress' highlighting)

As recently mentioned, Littlewood (1981) was the first author who approached *sequencing* in a very similar context to my operationalisation and who assigned an individual section to this matter. Nunan's conceptualisation of *sequencing* clearly coincides with Littlewood's, but in his two books he expands the latter's treatment of *sequencing* by devoting a whole chapter to the analysis of *sequencing* issues from both theoretical and practical perspectives. As to the former, he is the first author who highlights cognitive issues in relation to *sequencing* (see section 2.3.3.); concerning the latter, he also exemplifies several proposals (e.g. his psycholinguistic processing approach, information-gap tasks).

Estaire & Zanón (1990) approach the application of TBLT to Spanish as a Foreign Language (SFL) lessons. These authors use both the terms *secuencia* and *secuenciación* ("sequence" and "sequencing" in English) to refer to the same context as that operationalised by myself in section 2.3.1. They discuss the "secuencia de articulación de las diferentes tareas que integran el desarrollo de las unidades didácticas"[13] and establish four types of tasks which lead to the fulfilment of the cognitive stages in language acquisition: Cognitive elaboration, associative, autonomous and re-elaboration. They exemplify this sequence in a later section. It includes the specific label of *secuenciación* to refer to the stages of implementation of a task in the SFL classroom.

Harmer's work (1991, 1996, 2001) discusses *sequencing* in detail. In the first edition of his most acclaimed general language teaching methodology book, Harmer approaches *sequencing* in lesson planning from a motivational point of view. He argues that variety and flexibility are the two key principles that govern a good lesson. Within the former, he states the role of variety as, "involving students in a number of different types of activity and where possible introducing them to a wide selection of materials; it means planning so that learning is interesting and never monotonous for the students" (Harmer, 1991: 258). More specifically, he highlights *sequencing* as one of the elements on which to found this much-desired quality of variety in a lesson: "In general our aim will be to provide a *sequence* that is varied and does not follow one activity with a completely similar activity and then follow that with one that is the same" (Harmer, 1991: 318. Authoress' highlighting). In this way, Harmer concurs with many authors who recognise the importance of variety as a trigger of students' motivation, both in general learning contexts (Alonso Tapia, 1991) and in foreign language learning (Dörnyei, 2001; Sánchez, 1993, 2001; Skehan, 1989; Tomlinson, 1998b; Ur, 1996). In the 2001 revised edition of the same book, Harmer does not highlight *sequencing* as a source of variety but continues stressing the importance of diversity in activities, since a balanced presence of variety positively influences the overall level of student involvement in the classroom.

Sequencing proposals are dealt with in Harmer's 1996 article and his 2001 book. In his earliest work, he titles a section "Describing teaching sequences". After explaining the P-P-P, he reviews those which are framed within TBLT, discovery-

[13] "sequence of articulation of the different tasks which shape the development of didactic units" (authoress' translation).

learning techniques (the 'three Is' of McCarthy & Carter, 1995; and Lewis' O-H-E proposal, 1996, as well as Scrivener's ARC pattern, 1994, 1996, and Harmer's own proposal: E(ngage)-S(tudy)-A(ctivate); see below). The same activity *sequencing* models are also described in a chapter called "Popular methodology" in his 2001 work. On page 301 of this book, Harmer mentions *activity ordering* in a section called "Choosing coursebooks". He lists several areas to assess textbooks for selection purposes but does not give details about them: "Price (of coursebook components); Availability; Layout and design; Instructions; Methodology; Syllabus type, Selection and Grading; Language study activities; Language skill activities; Topics; Cultural acceptability; Usability and Teacher's guide". As an example of assessment parameters, in "Layout and Design" he claims that the lesson *sequence* should be easy to follow (Harmer, 2001: 302). This is related to the regularity feature mentioned by Hutchinson (1987). Besides, Harmer also mentions activity *sequencing* in a latter section called "Options for coursebook use", where he includes several techniques for changing a textbook: "addition", "rewriting", "replacing activities", "re-ordering" and "reducing". Of these, "re-ordering" is connected to altering the order of the activities within a lesson, which coincides with Islam & Mares (2003) in aspects of both terminology and meaning. Another widely-appraised language teaching methodology text, Ur (1996), deals with *sequencing* from the point of view of how to establish a progression in practice. In a section called "Sequence and progression in practice", Ur affirms that such a progression should follow from initial teacher supported *practice* to gradually automatic *production* of language. As can be seen, Ur is referring to the *practice* and *production* stages of the P-P-P and favours a sequence composed of P2 followed by extensive and free P3 leading to automatisation in accordance with cognitive accounts of knowledge acquisition (see Chapter 4).

Sánchez (1993, 2001, 2004a) is another author who examines *sequencing* issues at length. In his 1993 book he deals with activity *sequencing* issues in a chapter called "Las actividades en la clase: ordenación y secuenciación" (Sánchez, 1993: 91). He equates both notions immediately afterwards: "El orden o secuenciación de las actividades dentro de la unidad docente en la clase, ha sido y sigue siendo una realidad sobre la cual no ha abundado la reflexión"[14] (Sánchez, 1993: 91). In this work, Sánchez critically reviews this topic and analyses several *sequencing* models (Di Pietro's

[14] "The ordering or sequencing of activities within a given teaching unit has been and still is a reality which has not attracted much reflection" (authoress' translation).

"strategic interaction", 1987; Nunan's "psycholinguistic processing approach" based model, 1985; Estaire & Zanón's TBLT-framed proposal, 1990; and TBLT as a general approach, including the "problem-solving model"). Another of these proposals is his "Communicative Processes-based model of activity sequencing" (CPM), whose learning effects are empirically compared to those of the P-P-P in this thesis.

Similar to Harmer (1991), Sánchez approaches *sequencing* from the point of view of motivation in his 2001 paper. According to this author (Sánchez, 2001), the source of variety in materials may derive from the number of activities in each lesson; the content of those activities; their underlying procedure and their varied *sequencing*. Together with Harmer (1991), Sánchez is the first author who explicitly draws our attention to the potential of exercise distribution as a prompt of variety. The extremely important link between activity *sequencing*, variety and motivation is dealt with in section 3.3.2.5., 5.2.5., 5.2.8. and 6.4.

As indicated in section 1.1., Sánchez (2004a) offers four angles from which to study *activity sequencing:* The textbook's or teachers' methodology; the human learning processes sequence; the variety in the teaching performance and the degree of complexity of a certain activity. No other author includes such a comprehensive record of factors affecting the ordering of exercises with the exception of Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004).

In her chapter on course design, Hedge (2000) points to an issue not raised by any other author before: The fact that the nature of the syllabus influences the determination of the *sequencing* of activities. She claims that a structural syllabus will result in a P-P-P, whereas a skill-based syllabus can be exploited in the units with the basic 'pre-reading, while-reading, post-reading' sequence (Hedge, 2000). Without denying the clear common-sense nature of Hedge's claims, I believe that exclusively relating a P-P-P with structural content and thus ignoring the possibility of including skills in this pattern is a somewhat simplified view. As argued in sections 3.2.2.2. and 3.4., the combination of structural aims and skill-based work in the same P-P-P sequence is a highly feasible possibility. On the other hand, this authoress also mentions an "events-based sequence", which evokes the CPM already proposed by Sánchez in 1993 in a much more detailed manner. Similar to Sánchez, Hedge highlights the increase of motivation as a quality of this model.

Most of the following authors are characterised by their common attack on the P-P-P and their suggestions of substitute models. The first is Woodward (1993), who

evaluates the P-P-P negatively (see section 3.3.2.1.) which she labels as a "model". On the other hand, in the introduction to Chapter 4 in her 2001 book, she sets herself the following objectives:

> I'll look at some common instructional *sequences* found in coursebooks and on teacher training courses. These are:
> - Test, teach, test
> - Pre-, in-, post- stages for receptive skills
> - PPP (Presentation, Practice, Production)
> - TBL (Task-based learning)
>
> (Woodward, 2001: 110. Authoress' highlighting)

In his 1994 and 1996 contributions, Scrivener criticises the P-P-P, which he respectively calls a "training model" and a "paradigm". He also supplies his own proposal for language units: The "(A)uthentic Use-(R)estricted use and (C)larification and Focus use". The term *sequencing* or similar is not mentioned in either of these two works; however, in his 2005 book, he titles a section within a chapter as "Sequencing lesson components". It deals with, "what to plan and what order to put the stages in" (Scrivener, 2005: 115). On the other hand, McCarthy & Carter's (1995) pioneering study about the description of spoken grammar overtly refers to materials developers who are willing to include oral grammar in materials. Accordingly, these authors warn about the need to supplement the P-P-P with awareness activities, for which reason they introduce their own teaching suggestion: The 'three Is' model ((I)llustration, (I)nteraction, (I)nduction)). They refer to both models as 'methodologies" (McCarthy & Carter, 1995: 17) and do not mention the term *sequencing* at all. The 'three I's" pattern is described again in their 1998 chapter (co-authored with Hughes), which includes two references to *sequencing*. Firstly, in the section called "Evaluating materials for spoken grammar teaching", the three authors pinpoint key issues connected with the precise weight assigned to the *practice* and *production* stages:

> What is an appropriate pedagogy for spoken grammar? What are appropriate demands for *practice and production*? Should greater emphasis be placed on student awareness of the forms in advance of *production*? Can *production* be claimed to be faithfully taught until we know more about the phonology, intonation and communicative meanings of the grammatical patterns?
>
> (Carter et al., 1998: 78. Authoress' highlighting)

Secondly, in a later section called "Language awareness and consciousness-raising", there is an explicit mention of *sequencing* as a pedagogic procedure concerning the value of introducing enhanced grammatical consciousness-raising activities before error identification exercises. It follows that *sequencing* is an essential teaching instrument to adequately develop and foster students' grammar noticing skills.

> iii) Activities should be *sequenced* so that students first respond to the meaning of the structure through content-based tasks, then are sufficiently encouraged to raise their consciousness to notice the form and function of the target structure and then finally engage in some kind of error identification activity (preferably of identifiable learner errors) where incorrect or inappropriate versions of the key structure are presented.
>
> (Carter et al., 1998: 79. Authoress' highlighting)

This focus on meaning so that students are better prepared to focus on language is also supported by D. Willis and J. Willis (see section 3.3.2.3.).

As also noted in section 3.3., Lewis (1996) supplies one of the most negative accounts of the P-P-P and offers O-H-E as an alternative sequencing model. The O-H-E sequencing model stands for "Observation-Hypothesize-Experiment" and, according to Lewis (1996: 13), it is apt both for short-term sequences such as individual lessons and long-term teaching strategies. Similar to Scrivener (1996), the traditional sequence pattern and his own proposal are termed as a "paradigm".

In two chapters of his co-edited book, D. Willis (1996a, 1996b) also approaches the issue of activity *sequencing* by criticising the P-P-P. It is labelled as "paradigm", "approach", "methodology" and "cycle" and "sequence". J. Willis, co-editor of the same book, also names the traditional pattern as a "cycle" and an "approach" (Willis, J., 1996a) and as a "paradigm" and "cycle" in her 1996b book**.** In both works she does not use the term *sequence* and extensively compares the P-P-P against her favoured alternative. This is the TBLT pattern, of which three major stages are distinguished: *Pre-task, task cycle* and *language focus.* Exactly the same line of argument and uses of terms to refer to the P-P-P as in her 1996a chapter are found in a previous paper (Willis, J., 1993). As great advocators of TBLT, D. Willis and J. Willis dedicate their most recent book: *Doing Task-based Teaching* (2007) to this area. It includes a chapter entitled "Task-based sequences in the classroom". The meaning of "sequence" corresponds to my operationalisation and not to the usual "grading tasks" sense found in R. Ellis (2003); Robinson (2001) and Skehan (1996a, 1996b). They distinguish the

following stages in a task-based sequence: Teacher-led introduction, learners' individual working on opinion about the topic, group discussion, a reading activity and discussion and evaluation of the writer's arguments. According to them, each of these stages could be regarded as a task itself so that "a task-based lesson would probably involve not a single task, but a sequence of tasks" (Willis, D. & Willis J., 2007: 21). Chapter 5 examines the TBLT approach as conceived by J. Willis (1993, 1996a, 1996b) together with the following models: Byrne's (1986) and Brumfit's (1979) and Johnson's (1982) reverse order of the P-P-P, Estaire & Zanón's application of TBLT (1990); Harmer's ESA (1996, 2001); Lewis' O-H-E (1996); McCarthy & Carter's III (1995); Sánchez's CPM (1993, 2001) and Scrivener's ARC (1994, 1996).

Skehan (1996a, 1996b) proceeds in a similar way to J. Willis (1996a, 1996b). He deals with *sequencing* issues by criticising the P-P-P "sequency" (Skehan, 1996a) and "approach" (Skehan, 1996b) and by comparing it against his preferred alternative (the TBLT pattern). Skehan does not mention the term "sequencing", but deals with activity ordering by distinguishing "the three major stages" in the implementation of tasks: "Pre-task", "during task" and "post-task" activities, which can easily be correlated with J. Willis' (1993, 1996a, 1996b) *pre-task, task cycle* and *language focus phases.* A very similar approach is also found in R. Ellis (2003). After the chapter which contained the "Sequencing tasks" section (most appropriately *grading* issues as was seen in section 2.3.3.), R. Ellis (2003) includes a chapter called "The methodology of task-based teaching". He considers, "the stages or components of a lesson that has a task as its principal component" (Ellis, R., 2003: 243), which are parallel to Skehan's (1996a, 1996b) steps: "Pre-task", "during task" and "post-task".

2.4.3. Concluding remarks

Table 3 summarises the results from the two preceding sections. The works are divided into two main categories: "Presence" and "no presence" of the concept of *sequencing*. The results in the first category are sub-divided into the following groups: "Materials design", "materials analysis", "materials evaluation", "materials adaptation" and "other works". The second category includes all the previous groups except for "materials analysis". In both categories, the "materials" groups encompass the works from section 2.4.1., whereas those from 2.4.2. are included in the "other works" set. The contributions in all the groups are offered in a chronological order.

The labels for the construct of *sequence*/*sequencing* are supplied in italics, both when referring to general issues and to sequencing models. *Sequencing* proposals are shown in inverted commas. An asterisk is added next to the authors whose works as a whole or parts of them are included in more than one group.

A total of 77 works are analysed in this section. However, the overall number of references in Table 3 amounts to 87. This is due to the fact that one individual study is present in three categories (Harmer, 2001) and that eight studies are considered in two categories (Breen & Candlin, 1987; Candlin & Breen, 1980; Carter et al., 1998; McDonough & Shaw, 1993; McGrath, 2002; Richards, 1998, 2001; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004).

Out of the total 87 cases, 59 belong the "presence" category and the remaining 28 to the "no presence" category (67.8% as opposed to 32.2%). However, these figures are not to be taken as a point of reference. The reason for this is that the studies in the "Other works" groups are not sufficiently discriminatory. In order to have a more global vision and to better comprehend the presence of *sequencing* in this "Other works" group, further related studies *not* targeted at materials development should be considered. This evidently surpasses the limits of the present study as the amount of this type of works is too wide to be covered. If we focus on the specific field in which activity *sequencing* is actually framed, i.e. materials development, there were 22 works which considered activity *sequencing* matters and 27 which ignored them (44.8% against 55.1%). It can be concluded that *sequencing* is not given an excessively high priority in materials development.

Within groups, 3 of the materials design works do touch on this subject as opposed to the 7 studies which do not (30% and 70% respectively). The number of materials evaluation works which deal with *sequencing* is also lower than those which disregard it: 13 against 18 (42% and 58% respectively). This tendency is reversed in the materials adaptation group, where 4 studies (66.6%) mention activity ordering and half of them do not (33.3%). Finally, no materials analysis works were recorded for the "no presence" category.

Interestingly, the neglect of *sequencing* matters is observed both in early works (e.g. Newton Bruder, 1978; Stevick, 1971; Tucker, 1978) and later works, which becomes more surprising especially taking into account their explicit focus on materials development (e.g. Byrd, 1995b, 1995c; Hall, 2001; McDonough & Shaw, 1993;

McGrath, 2002). Another case which astoundingly ignores activity *sequencing* issues is Richards et al.'s *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics* (1992).

From the previous review, I consider it worthwhile to specify the following proposals: Brumfit's (1979), Byrne's (1986) and Johnson's (1982) reverse order of the P-P-P; Estaire & Zanón's application of TBLT (1990); Harmer's ESA (1996, 2001); Hedge's events-based model (2000); Lewis' O-H-E (1993, 1996); McCarthy & Carter's III (1995); Sánchez's CPM (1993, 2001); Scrivener's ARC (1994, 1996); J. Willis' TBLT model (1993, 1996a, 1996b). In spite of the relatively high number of such proposals, in my literature search I did not find any related empirical-driven studies to show their efficiency (or lack of it). This is precisely one of the gaps in research I intend to cover in this thesis.

Terminological variability also needs to be underlined. We can differentiate two groups here: Those which use different labels from *sequencing* and those which show a certain degree of ambiguity concerning my distinction above between *grading* and *sequencing* when framed within syllabus context. In the first case, Richards (2001) draws on the phrase "reorganising content" as well as *sequencing*, whereas Harmer (2001) and Islam & Mares (2003) employ the term of "re-ordering". Besides, works on *sequencing* proposals included such terms as "cycle", "approach", "methodology" and "paradigm" to refer to both the traditional P-P-P and other *sequencing* models (Hedge, 2000; Lewis, 1996; Scrivener, 1994, 1996; Willis, D., 1996a, 1996b; Willis, J., 1993, 1996a; 1996b, etc.). As for the second case or the arbitrary use of *grading* and *sequencing*, Sheldon (1988) uses "grading" with both syllabus content and activity *sequencing* meanings. Nunan describes an activity sequencing model under his "Grading tasks" chapter (1988a). This can also be observed in Skierso's (1991) work, where *sequencing* appears for syllabus content ordering and *grading* for activity arrangement.

It is crucial to remember that within the first category of results, Littlewood (1981) is the first author who deals with activity *sequencing* issues as located in teaching lessons and who explicitly devotes a section on its own to this topic. Nunan (1989, 2004) and Sánchez (1993, 2001, 2004a) are the authors who most extensively deal with *sequencing* from both theoretical and practical perspectives. Sánchez (1993, 2001) and Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004) explicitly list essential features to take into account when dealing with activity *sequencing*, such as global methodology, learners' psychological processes, skills, etc. Without providing a complete list and/or without

exclusively devoting their studies to *sequencing* alone, other authors also report pertinent elements to bear in mind. Therefore the previous review has unveiled the following factors to consider in the *sequencing* of activities:

1. Learners' psychological processes of knowledge acquisition (Nunan, 1985, 1988b, 1989, 2004; Estaire & Zanón, 1990; Sánchez, 1993, 2004a). This is such an important parameter that Chapter 4 is devoted to the study of the *sequence* of general human learning processes and its application to language learning and to activity *sequencing*. Different learning paths will result in diverging pedagogic routes, as will also be revealed in Chapter 5.

2. Psycholinguistic learning principles ("delayed effect of instruction" (Tomlinson, unpublished manuscript b); "apprehension before comprehension" (Tomlinson, 2003b);"focus on meaning, then on language" (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004; Willis, D. & Willis, J., 2007)). This feature is connected to 1). It is not only convenient to study the structure of human psychological processes but also the specific nature of linguistic learning. This may call for a re-ordering of the original teaching stages as well as altering the initial objective of each one, as was indicated by Tomlinson (unpublished manuscript b). Factor 2 is explained in detail in section 3.3.2.3. and it is also discussed in 4.4.1.

3. Nature of skills involved (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Nunan, 1985, 1988b, 1989, 2004; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004). This feature is intrinsically related to parameter 1). Different types of learning situations will require divergent selections of skills to be included. In naturalistic learning circumstances, listening and speaking will most likely be the predominant skills at stake. This implies a different psychological route of learning than that existing in most formal contexts. In these settings, explicit instruction plus the combinations of receptive skills implemented before productive skills is a common procedure, with the expected nuances and deviations as the language level increases. Chapters 3 and 4 deal with this third parameter, especially sections 3.1., 3.2., 4.3. and 4.4. In the case of Chapter 4, the description of the general paths to language mastery is accompanied by their correspondence with pedagogic stages.

4. Language teaching methodology. Two points are included here: The importance of *sequencing* in the differentiation of traditional against new approaches (Brumfit, 1979; Byrne, 1986; Johnson, 1982; Littlewood, 1981); the dichotomy deductive-inductive (Sánchez, 2004a) and the significance of *recycling* (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Sheldon, 1988). The first point is dealt with in Chapter 5 with the account of the different activity sequencing proposals; the second is approached in section 3.2.2. and the third is examined in sections 3.3.2.3. and 4.4.1.).

5. Types of activities (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Littlejohn, 1992). This is also a crucial pedagogic feature for both the creation of activity *sequences* and the study of those already devised. A form-focused activity that introduces structures for the first time has different objectives and implementation procedures from a fluency-based activity aimed at discovering the learners' opinion of taboo statements or their performance ability at role-playing (see Chapter 3, in particular section 3.2.). Furthermore, as indicated in sections 4.3. and 4.4., different types of activities lead to the accomplishment of different cognitive phases in the path to language acquisition. These typological divergences have a strong influence on the configuration of a given teaching *sequence*. A third implication of factor 5 is that types of activities affect *sequencing* from a diverging and essential perspective: The working organisational procedures of the classroom (see section 3.2.2.1.). This new dimension of analysis will add to the great importance of activity *sequencing*.

6. Nature of learners' response implied, either guided, free or in-between (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Skierso, 1991). Factor 6 is a specification of factor 5 and greatly depends on the students' level and on the pedagogic purpose of the activity. Whereas for beginners it seems logical to include a free response activity towards the end of the *sequence* after all the linguistic and communicative elements have been developed, in higher levels this is not always a golden rule. Further, even in elementary levels a production-based activity may be located at the beginning for diagnostic and revision purposes. This specification calls for the malleability of the teaching *sequencing* (see sections 3.2., 3.3.2.3. and 3.4.). Some authors strongly favour production at the very beginning, as is described in Chapter 5.

7. Type of syllabus (Hedge, 2000). The characteristics of the content of the syllabus will have an effect on the kind of learning objectives and consequently on the type of activities, a key factor in *sequencing*. A structural-based syllabus such as that of the ALM and SLT will require *presentation* (listening and repetition) and *practice* (drill exercises with various degrees of manipulation). The communicative goals in CLT call for meaning-focused activities in its "strong" version, whereas an integration of both structural exercises and meaning-focused activities are targeted in its "weak" version. Factor 7 is considered in Chapters 3 and 5, particularly in sections 3.1., 3.2.2., 3.3.2.3., 3.4. and 5.2.

8. Learners' motivation. As stated in section 1.1., a sameness-rooted format of activity *sequencing* is likely to negatively impact upon learners' motivation (Harmer, 1991; Sánchez, 1993, 2001, 2004a). A carefully measured introduction of variety in the patterns of work will hopefully help to overcome this drawback. The negative effects on motivation of repetitive patterns and the moderate and sound presence of variety will be discussed in sections 3.3.2.5., 5.2.5., 5.2.8. and 6.9. As will be detailed in section 5.2., specific types of sequencing rather than the concept as a whole are purported to have a positive effect on students' attitudes towards learning (Di Pietro's "strategic interaction", 1987; Hedge's "events-based sequence", 2000; Sánchez's CPM, 1993, 2001).

This list of elements shows the great complexity and interaction of factors involved in the *ordering* of activities. This is a fact that undoubtedly demands heightened awareness to this topic on both teachers' and scholars' part when explicitly focusing their attention on *sequencing* and when taking other pedagogic and research decisions.

Table 3. The presence of *sequencing* as the ordering of activities in FLT literature

1. PRESENCE	1.1. Materials design	• *Richards (1998): *Sequence of activities* • Tomlinson (2003c): *Sequencing* • Timmis (unpublished manuscript): The P-P-P as an *approach; paradigm*
	1.2. Materials analysis	• Littlejohn (1992: *Sequencing;* 1998: *Principles of sequencing* for the ordering of both activity and syllabus content
	1.3. Materials evaluation	• Mariani (1983): Reference to the P-P-P (*stages* of *presentation, practice, production)* • Cunningsworth (1984, 1995): Reference to the P-P-P (*presentation, practice*) • Hutchinson (1987): *Sequence of exercises* • Hutchinson & Waters (1987): *Content sequenced* • Sheldon (1988): *Grading* content and activities (indirect reference to the P-P-P) • Skierso (1991): *Graded* exercises (indirect reference to the P-P-P) and *sequencing* grammatical points • *Carter et al. (1998): Indirect reference to the P-P-P model • McDonough (1998): Principles of sequencing (activities moving from controlled to free; receptive skills occurring before productive skills; free-standing unit of work) • *Harmer (2001): *Sequence* • Tomlinson (1999: The P-P-P; 2003b: "Apprehension before comprehension") • Tomlinson et al. (2001): The P-P-P

1. PRESENCE (continued)	1.4. Materials adaptation	• *Harmer (2001): *Re-ordering* • *Richards (2001): *Reorganising content, re-order, sequence* • Islam & Mares (2003): *Re-ordering* • *Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004): *Order of activities, sequencing activities*
	1.5. Other works	• Brumfit (1979): Reference to the P-P-P (*presentation, drilling, practising in context production);* advocated proposal: "post-communicative teaching model" • Littlewood (1981): *Sequencing.* Two sequence options*:* From pre-communicative to communicative activities and the reverse route • Johnson (1982): "Deep end strategy"; traditional and "post-communicative teaching" models named *procedures* • Read (1985): The P-P-P • Spratt (1985a, 1985b, 1985c)*: Sequence;* the P-P-P • Byrne (1986): *Sequence;* "progressive view of the three stages of learning" • Di Pietro (1987): "Strategic interaction" • Nunan → -1985: Typology of activities (see quotation on page 27) -1988b: *Grading* tasks; -1989: *Sequencing*; revision of previous proposals -2004: *Sequencing* and *ordering* / revision of previous proposals • Estaire & Zanón (1990): *Secuencia, secuenciación*; application of TBLT to SFL • Harmer (1991: *Sequence*; 1996: *Sequences*; *2001) In 1996 and 2001: Contribution of his own proposal (ESA -E(ngage)-S(tudy)-A(ctivate)); revision of previous proposals • Sánchez (1993, 2001, 2004a). *Secuenciación* in the three works and contribution of his own proposal: The "Communicative-Processes based model of activity sequencing or CPM. Revision of previous proposals in 1993 and 2001

1. PRESENCE (continued)	1.5. Other works	• J. Willis (1993, 1996a, 1996b): The P-P-P as a *cycle, approach, paradigm / Pre-task, task cycle* and *language focus* ("TBLT") • Woodward (1993: The P-P-P as a *model;* 2001: Revision of previous proposals) • Scrivener (1994: The P-P-P as a *training model* / "(A)uthentic Use-(R)estricted use and (C)larification and Focus use"); 1996: The P-P-P as a *paradigm* / "(A)uthentic Use-(R)estricted use and (C)larification and Focus use paradigm"; 2005: *Sequencing lesson components* • McCarthy & Carter (1995): "The 'three Is' model" ((I)llustration, (I)nteraction, (I)nduction)) / "The three I's" and the P-P-P models named *methodologies* • Lewis (1996). *Sequence* / The "O-H-E" sequence (Observation-Hypothesize-Experiment) / "O-H-E" and the P-P-P as *paradigms* • Skehan (1996a: P-P-P as a *sequency* / "Three major stages in the implementation of tasks"; 1996b: The P-P-P as an *approach / pre-task, during-task and post-task* ("TBLT") • Ur (1996*): Sequence and progression of practice* • *Carter et al. (1998): "The 'three Is' model" ((I)llustration, (I)nteraction, (I)nduction))". Reference to principles of sequencing (*sequenced*) • Hedge (2000): *Sequence; approach* / revision of previous proposals • R. Ellis (2003): *Pre-task, during-task and post-task* ("TBLT") • D. Willis & J. Willis (2007): *Task-based sequence* ("TBLT") • Tomlinson (unpublished manuscript b): The P-P-P as an *approach*

2. NO PRESENCE	2.1. Materials design	• *Candlin & Breen (1980) • Dubin (1986, 1995) • *Breen & Candlin (1987) • Byrd (1995b, 1995c) • Hall (2001)
	2.2. Materials evaluation	• Stevick (1971) • Newton Bruder (1978) • Tucker (1978) • Daoud & Celce-Murcia (1979) • *Candlin & Breen (1980) • Williams (1983) • *Breen & Candlin (1987) • Grant (1987) • *McDonough & Shaw (1993) • Richards (1993, *1998, *2001) • Savignon (1997) • *McGrath (2002) • *Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004)
	2.3. Materials adaptation	• *McDonough & Shaw (1993) • *McGrath (2002)

2. NO PRESENCE (continued)	2.4. Other works	• Richards & Rodgers (1987) • Nunan (1988a, 1993) • Richards et al. (1992)

Table 3. The presence of *sequencing* as the ordering of activities in FLT literature

Chapter 3.

A critical analysis of the traditional activity *sequencing* pattern in foreign language teaching materials: The P-P-P

The aim of this chapter is to offer a detailed account of the P-P-P, which is the most frequent activity *sequence* pattern in FLT teaching. Section 3.1. will encompass a historic introduction in which the acknowledged origins of this model will be traced back to mid-20th century materials. Section 3.2. will include the operationalisation of the three Ps plus important derived didactic implications. For this purpose I will draw on contributions from Read (1985) (sub-section 3.2.1.) and Sánchez (2004a) (sub-section 3.2.2.). In section 3.3. this traditional pattern will be analysed from both the positive and negative viewpoints found in the FLT literature with regard to linguistic, psychological, psycholinguistic, pedagogic and psycho-pedagogic parameters. The portrayal of its historic origins and its analysis will lead to my support for the existence of a contemporary ELT materials version of the P-P-P, which is defined in section 3.4.

3.1. INTRODUCTION: A BRIEF HISTORICAL ACCOUNT OF THE P-P-P

The purpose of this section is to offer a concise account of the origins of the P-P-P in EFL methodology as a comprehensive report would exceed the word limit of this thesis.

As stated in Chapter 1, the P-P-P is the traditional *sequencing* pattern on which many foreign language coursebooks have relied, and its presence can still be appreciated today. In this respect, Cook (2001) even identifies this pattern as the major distinctive trait of the "mainstream EFL style", which, according to him, has been in vogue for the last thirty years or even longer.

The three Ps correspond, in this order, to *presentation* (P1), *practice* (P2) and *production* (P3). Hence the shortest and clearest definition of this model emerges 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" (Tomlinson, 1998b: xii). This foreign language teaching structure clearly relates to the general learning and teaching procedure for all subjects within formal classrooms. This procedure is called the "school model" by Sánchez (1993, 2001, 2004a) and it consists of the *presentation, practice,* consolidation and transference stages, which correspond with cognitive parameters of acquisition (see section 4.3.1.).

Activity *sequencing* started to be explicitly considered in FLT literature after the change of methodological paradigm implied by CLT with respect to structural methods (the North-American Audio-Lingual method, the British Situational Language Teaching and the French Audio-Visual-Structural-Global methods (ALM, SLT, AVSG)). Such an explicit mention of this issue is exemplified in the disapproval towards the P-P-P, as confirmed by the review in section 2.4. The turning point of CLT against structural methods is its emphasis on real-life communication, which necessarily takes place in a context where there exist various participants. Context is no longer considered a sheer pedagogic medium to enhance understanding of vocabulary and structures as in the SLT. It becomes the framework of communication and defines the roles of the participants, whose interaction will always be ruled by the need or desire to say something. In other words, the emphasis is on meaning. Language is actually used for a reason; it consequently adopts a *pragmatic* nature and acquires specific communicative

functions which are shaped by differing contexts. As a result, language is seen as a contextualised entity in which grammar forms alone are insufficient to perform any communicative exchange. Accordingly, some authors (especially TBLT followers, e.g. D. Willis, J. Willis, etc.) support the fact that focus on meaning should be prioritised at the expense of focus on forms. A similar stance is taken by other authors (e.g. Brumfit, 1979 and Johnson, 1982), who argue that the teaching *sequence* should proceed from a meaning-based P3 (see sections 2.4.2. and 5.2.1).

Howatt (2004) offers a different perspective in the discussion on the suitability of the traditional P-P-P in CLT. He claims that all the preceding methods to CLT only demonstrated P1-P2 *sequences*:

> From the grammar-translation method onwards, foreign language lessons had a two-part structure: first the new material was *presented* to the learners and then it was *practised*. Every now and then there were rather ill-defined tasks like essay-writing or 'conversation', which were supposed to revise the language that had already been taught and give students an opportunity of using it to express themselves. However, the idea of *focused activities expressly designed to get learners to draw on their communicative resources in order to produce appropriate language* derived in part from the primary school projects in the 1960s (Nuffield French, for instance, and Scope, see chapter 19). *With CLT,* however, work of this kind was seen as a necessary conclusion to a new tripartite lesson design which teachers sometimes refer to as '*PPP' (presentation, practice and production).*
>
> (Howatt, 2004: 258. Authoress' highlighting)

This absence of P3 was ascertained by Criado (2008a, 2008b), whose works deal with an exhaustive study of the lesson activity *sequencing* patterns disclosed in several elementary-level materials ranging from the late 19th century to the end of the 1960s. A comprehensive and illustrated report of this diachronic analysis is beyond the limits of this thesis; however, for the purposes of illustrating Howatt's (2004) statement, let us succinctly deal with the main findings and derived comments.

The materials examined by Criado (2008a, 2008b) are as follows:

1) The much more accessible version of the G-T Method embodied by Ollendorff's courses, of which the specific adaptation by Velázquez and Simonée was selected (*Ollendorff's New Method of Learning to Read, Write, and Speak the Spanish Language,* 1895);
2) The commercial version of the Direct Method represented by Berlitz's *Method for Teaching Modern Languages. English Part. First Book* (1931) (439th ed.);

3) Eckersley's 1938 *Essential English*, a coursebook designed for foreign adults studying in the UK (Howatt, 2004).[15]
4) The SLT as represented in Alexander's *First Things First* (1967a), which became the prototypical work of this method.

The findings of this authoress revealed that the *practice* exercises of these methods and textbooks ranged from question-and-answer oral exchanges (Ollendorff, Berlitz), oral composition or retelling (Berlitz and Eckersley) to pattern *practice* (drills) of various manipulation degrees as shown in the SLT (for a complete drill typology, see Lado's ALM list (1964), which includes the question-and-answer technique previously mentioned in the two first materials). As can be seen, all such exercises do not offer the learners an opportunity, "to draw on their communicative resources in order to produce appropriate language" (Howatt, 2004: 258). Thus it can be concluded that drills and oral retellings do not allow students to become the main characters of communicative interactions.

However, as indicated above, Criado's studies (2008a, 2008b) deal with elementary level materials, for which reason their disclosed *sequences* conform to Howatt's previous statement. It could be argued, though, that this scholar's affirmation should be modulated in the case of more advanced levels. This remark especially applies to the SLT and the AVSG methods and is exemplified in Alexander's *Practice and Progress* (1967b) and the first SLT-based Spanish course: Sánchez et al.'s *Español en Directo* (1974). *Practice and Progress* is a pre-intermediate course which immediately followed *First Things First.* Mosf of the units did include a "transfer" phase which truly involved creativity on the students' part. It consisted of "composition" and "letter-writing" exercises in which the learners had to write short paragraphs about a topic from the previous reading passage. The last activities in each unit from *Español en Directo* comprised a succession of drawings whose dialogues had to be prepared by the students. The situation depicted in these dialogues was a different one from that proposed in the initial stages; nonetheless, it was framed within a similar context which required the use of parallel vocabulary and structures studied throughout

[15] *Essential English* belongs to the *compromise policy* during the inter war years outlined by Stern (1983), which supported the inclusion of certain techniques from the Direct Method and its emphasis on oral language without banning grammatical explanation. This was an immensely successful textbook from its year of publication until the 1950s, when it was replaced by more situationally-based courses such as Hornby's or Alexander's (see 4).

the lesson. Thus a P3 stage is actually present in these two SLT textbooks. In that regard, Richards & Rodgers (2001: 249) explicitly link the P-P-P to the, "standard lesson sequence in Situational Language Teaching". According to the same authors, this pattern was taught to teacher candidates doing the RSA/Cambridge in TEFL in the 1980s and early 1990s.

Interestingly, certain researchers ascribe a P3 phase alone to CLT. Immediately after the previous quotation on page 63, Howatt (2004: 258) states:

> The logical next step was to ask whether the preliminary stages of presenting and practising new linguistic items could be dispensed altogether. After all, it could be argued, they play little if any role in informal second language acquisition, a point that was made in connection with the South India project mentioned earlier.

Two important aspects emerge in this quotation. Firstly, the implicit opposition between informal (naturalistic) and formal language acquisition. The naturalistic or acquisition extreme considers that second language acquisition resembles that of the mother tongue to a great extent - see the work by 19th century individual pre-reformers (Gouin, Dufief, Prendergast, Marcel, etc.) in Howatt (2004); Richards & Rodgers (2001); Sánchez (1997). It follows that formal *presentation* of samples of language and controlled *practice* are useless. All that is needed is exposure to large amounts of listening and oral *production* (P3), which is what children actually do: Listen, repeat and speak as aided by gestures and real-life object demonstration.

With differing degrees and formats of sophistication, this naturalistic and informal view of language acquisition has exerted a strong influence on modern language teaching methodology. A well-known case is represented by the Direct Method, which pushed students to speak (i.e. to *produce* language) by a combination of gestures or *realia* demonstration plus the aforementioned question-and-answer technique. Another famous example is the South Indian project indicated by Howatt. This was the 1987 Bangalore Project led by Prabhu.[16] The Bangalore Project achieved international

[16] The immediate forerunners of the Bangalore Project were the school projects mentioned in Howatt's first quotation. According to Howatt (2004: 318-319), important school projects were 'Nuffield French' (targeted at English secondary students of French) and Scope (Schools Council Project in Primary English), which was directed to the teaching of English to immigrants' children. They were respectively started in 1963 and 1966 and involved the use of "activities" that conveyed a "problem-solving" and a "co-operative" approach to language learning. These are unequivocally the predecessors to Prabhu's tasks. As stated above, it was this author's project which gained the worldwide recognition as the first task-based syllabus to be implemented in real-life. The tasks consisted of "information-gap", "reasoning-gap" and "opinion-gap" activities (Prabhu, 1987). Related examples provided by Prabhu are completing a tabular representation with information from a piece of text; working out a teacher's timetable on the

recognition as the first contemporary attempt which drew on tasks that were targeted at making learners *use* English to learn English. In other words, tasks represented a P3 or *production* phase. In this way Prabhu became the precursor to TBLT (see the discussion of this approach in section 5.2.3.).

In reality, as Howatt (1984) explains, CLT has adopted two versions: A "strong" and a "weak" version. The former (e.g. Brumfit, 1979; Johnson, 1982; Prabhu, 1987; and TBLT) stresses that students must use their communicative capacities in order to learn the language (Howatt, 1984). In the latter version learners do not directly proceed to use English but learn how to use it. Sánchez's (1993, 1997) "integrative approach" derives from the "weak" version and attempts to integrate communicative as well as structural goals. This means that both form and meaning-focused activities are assimilated in the whole syllabus. It is this "weak" version of CLT or its spin-off the Integrative Approach which includes a full P-P-P *sequence*, although with deviations, transitions and nuances that will shape what I call the "contemporary ELT materials version of the P-P-P" (see section 3.4.).

3.2. OPERATIONALISATION OF THE THREE P STAGES

FLT literature offers several descriptions of the P-P-P with various degrees of depth: Brumfit (1979); Byrne (1986); Gibbons (1989); Harmer (1996, 2001); Hedge (2000); Scrivener (1994); Skehan (1998); Tomlinson (1998b); D. Willis (1996a); J. Willis (1996b); Woodward (1993, 2001); Wu (1998), etc. Given the existence of a wide variety of proposals, my aim in this section is not to provide a ("revolutionary") definition of my own. What I intend to do is offer an overview of this classical pattern by analysing and discussing resulting significant implications from the two contributions which I believe to be the most complete and instructive: Read (1985) and Sánchez (2004a). The former will also be accompanied by very specific notes from Hedge (2000).

It is very important to highlight two observations regarding the quasi-experimental study of this thesis and the content of this chapter. Firstly, the P stages are studied within the context of materials. As indicated in section 1.1., digressions from the actual

basis of given class timetables; discussion of a social issue. For a full account of Prabhu's Bangalore Project, see Prabhu (1987) and also Howatt (2004) for a thorough criticism of the former.

activities in the coursebooks (e.g. teacher's review of previous items by means of examples on the blackboard or in an OHP; students asking questions in the middle of the lesson in either P stage, etc.) are not the object of this P-P-P definition or of this thesis. I admit that they naturally arise in the actual implementation of the materials in class. However, it is very complicated to predict and to quantify exactly when they will occur as they depend on learners' needs, teacher's own perception of learners' needs, etc. Besides, by taking them into account, the analysis of the realisation of the P-P-P in textbooks would not be accurate since it would be distorted by such digressions.

3.2.1. Read's description of the P-P-P (1985). Important derived pedagogic implications

To my knowledge the most complete P-P-P report in the literature is Read's (1985) synopsis chart, which is included below in Table 4. What makes her description the most detailed is the use of eight descriptive parameters: "Purpose", "Important Features", "Typical Activities", "Role of Teacher", "Type of Interaction", "Degree of Control", "Correction" and "Length and Place in Lesson".

Table 4. "Presentation, practice and production at a glance" (title and table content from Read, C., 1985: 17)[17]

	Presentation	Practice	Production
Purpose	-to give Ss the opportunity to realise the usefulness and relevance of a new item -to present the meaning and form -to check understanding	-to provide maximum practice with controlled but realistic and contextualised frameworks -to build confidence in using new language	-to provide the opportunity for Ss to use new language in freer, more creative ways -to check how much has really been learnt -to integrate new language with old -to practise dealing with the unpredictable -to motivate Ss -can be used for revision or diagnostic purposes
Important Features	-clear, motivating, natural and relevant context -model (or marker) sentence(s) -concept checking -grammatical explanation if necessary	-framework provides guidance for utterances, reduces scope for errors -clear and realistic prompts -Student Talking Time maximised	-purposeful tasks -Ss work together at their own pace -clear instructions -allowance of possibility of making mistakes
Typical Activities	-build-up of appropriate situational and linguistic contexts for new language -listening to and initial repetition of model sentences	-drills (choral and individual) -2, 3, 4 line dialogues -information and opinion gap etc.	-games, role plays, discourse chains, discussions, information and opinion gaps etc.
Role of Teacher	-informant	-conductor -corrector	-monitor, adviser, encourager, mistake-hearer, consultant

[17] T = Teacher; S = Student; Ss = Students

Type of Interaction	-T → Ss choral -T → S individual	-T → S -S → S (open pairs) -S → S (closed pairs)	-S → pairs groups mingles
Degree of Control	-highly controlled, T model	-very controlled, Ss have limited choice	-greater element of freedom
Correction	-important to correct so that Ss have correct grasp of form	- T, other Ss or self-correction	-generally non-interference by T
Length and Place in Lesson	-short -usually at the beginning	-depends on Ss' needs and difficulty -follows presentation, or at the beginning for revision	-depends on level of Ss and type of activity -after presentation and practice -within or across lessons

Table 4. "Presentation, practice and production at a glance" (title and table content from Read, C., 1985: 17)

Read's P-P-P account specifically refers to oral lessons. Such an oral-focused nature can be appreciated in the "Typical Activities" and "Type of Interaction" rows, which clearly refer to the speaking skill. Despite this peculiarity, this authoress' chart can effortlessly be considered from a general perspective. In fact, the combination of all the eight parameters provides the following summary of the P-P-P:

- An initial *presentation* phase (P1) in which the teacher highly controls the teaching/learning process as he/she sets up the situation, elicits or models the targeted structure. Following Hedge (2000), this stage can also be used to link the new structures to what students already know, which should facilitate the students' understanding of the teacher's exposition.
- A *practice* phase (P2), which still reflects a high level of teacher control since he/she checks his/her students' correct understanding of the items presented in the first stage. For this purpose he/she makes them engage in various controlled practical exercises or drills whose linguistic outcomes are highly fixed; in this way, accuracy or near accuracy of form can be attained.
- A *production* stage (P3), which involves a (much) freer use by the students of the targeted language structures and which is aimed at achieving fluency. The activities under this phase can encompass discussions, debates, roleplays, problem-solving activities, opinion and information gaps, etc., i.e. contexts which trigger the expression of personal feelings, attitudes or simply extensive factual expressions. Consequently, this type of activities requires longer utterances on the learners' part than those of the P2 stage as well as a decrease in teacher's control. The latter is replaced by a monitoring, adviser or consultant role. These allow instructors, "to reduce control and encourage students to find out what they can do" (Hedge, 2000: 166).

In fact, despite its primary goal of fluency, the *production* stage could also embrace "advanced" *practice* of those items whose accuracy is not completely attained, a phenomenon that depends on the learners' actual learning stage.

Two significant aspects should be highlighted from Read (1985): Firstly, the significance of "Role of the Teacher", "Degree of Control" and "Typical Activities" for the configuration of the stages; and secondly, the flexibility of this traditional pattern as described in Chapter 5, which is absent in most accounts of the P-P-P.

In relation to the first aspect, although all the highlighted parameters are important in the shaping of each P, the two that could be said to supersede them all are "Degree of Control" (which is intrinsically related to "Role of Teacher") and "Typical Activities". The degree of control exercised by the language teaching professional accounts for a) different teachers' roles informant, corrector and advisor in P1, P2, P3 respectively) and, consequently, b) divergent students' linguistic output (whether none or simple repetition of modelled structures in P1, graded manipulated repetition in P2 with drills[18] and more creative stretches of discourse in P3). The three resulting teaching contexts from the mixture between a) and b) necessarily demand dissimilar activity types which suit each of them. This is inherently related to factors 5 and 6 ("types of activities" and "nature of learners' response implied") from the list of elements to be taken into account in *sequencing* in Chapter 2.

The previous graded control over the students' language outcomes justifies the appearance of information and opinion gaps within "Typical Activities" in both P2 and P3. In the former stage such exercises are more linguistically constrained in the sense of being discrete-item founded. In P3 the same type of exercise acquires a more definite meaning basis which is reflected in longer utterances on the students' part.[19] Taking this into account, it is important to illustrate the possible pertaining of information and opinion gaps to both P2 and P3. The example consists of an opinion gap activity set at an intermediate level. It includes a series of controversial situations expressed in interrogative type 2 conditional sentences which must be answered by the students. For example:

> What would you do in the following situations?:
> - If I were a priest and a criminal confessed to me that he's planning a crime, I would…
> - If I saw my best friend cheating in an exam, I would …
>
> Etc.

[18] Drills will be explained in section 3.2.2.1.

[19] At this point it should be observed that the degrees of manipulation and limits to learners' creativity in both the P2 and P3 phases will vary in accordance with the students' level. At a beginner's level, it seems more logical to expect a) a blurred frontier between these two phases owing to the students' narrow linguistic resources; b) a remarkably high degree of teacher's control reflected in a tighter manipulation in the exercises - even those from a P3 stage; c) as a result of d), language outcomes reproduced in considerably shorter utterances than in the P3 phases of advanced levels.

Depending on the time limits for answering and the actual stage of the lesson, this activity can be ascribed to a P2 or a P3 context. With the instructions read as*:* "What would you do in the following situations? Complete the sentences". This would most probably mean that the activity is framed within P2 either in a written or oral mode. If, on the contrary, the instructions were: "In groups of four discuss the situations and reach a consensus", this would imply that the activity conforms to a P3 stage. Most probably it would lead to a lively debate in which the learners would express their own perceptions and convictions.

3.2.2. Sánchez's (2004a) approach

3.2.2.1. Description of Sánchez's "school model" of teaching and activity typology according to the classroom organisational schemes (2004)

A contribution which skilfully complements Read's (1985) is Sánchez's (2004a) description of the general "school model" as applied to formal language teaching (see Table 5):

Table 5. Sánchez's description of the "school model" of teaching applied to language pedagogy (2004a: 181) [Authoress' translation from the Spanish original; emphasis in the original]

STEP 1.
1.1. Presentation:
Exposition to the learner of new materials, whatever 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 are 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 (in which it is overtly prohibited).
STEP 2.
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. 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 partially different way, or through rules application, etc.

Sánchez (2004a) ascribes this "school model" to a deductive mode of teaching. He claims that this mode has been consolidated throughout the history of formal teaching. The same author establishes a parallel between the "school model" and the P-P-P; accordingly, steps 1, 2 and 3 would correspond to P1, P2 and P3 respectively. One of the assets of Sánchez's contribution is that it perfectly correlates with his typology of activities according to the organisational schemes of the classroom (Sánchez, 2004a). This directly reveals another linked area to *sequencing* and which adds to its importance, as was alluded to in point 5 in the final list from Chapter 2. Indeed, as Sánchez (2004a) reveals, teachers materialise their ideas and specify their class planning through the activities that they intend to implement. In other words, teachers may refer to each phase of the lesson plan by the type of the activities implied. Table 6 below offers this new typology with the correlation of stages from the "school-model" in Table 5.

Table 6. Typology of activities according to the classroom organisational schemes contrasted against the "school-model" of teaching applied to FL pedagogy (Sánchez, 2004a)

Typology of activities according to the classroom organisational schemes (Sánchez, 2004a: 111-118) [Authoress' highlighting and translation from the Spanish original]	"School model" of teaching applied to FL pedagogy (Sánchez, 2004a: 181) [Authoress' translation from the Spanish original]
1) Contextualisation or introductory activities	
2) Activities presenting the work materials and proposed objectives	STEP 1 1.1. Presentation 1.2. Explicitness
3) Practice activities	STEP 2 2.1. Controlled and directed practice 2.2. Repetition and consolidation-based practice
4) Application activities	STEP 2 2.2. Repetition and consolidation-based practice
5) Transference activities	
6) Autonomous and creative activities	STEP 3 Production stage

The first type of activities, the "contextualisation or introductory activities", is not correlated with any step from the "school-model" as it deals with what is known in FLT as warming-up or brainstorming activities. The purpose of these activities is more motivational and organisational (i.e. contextualising the following *presentation*) rather than the (strict) compliance with the proper linguistic or communicative objectives as defined by the lesson goals. These activities may not even allude to the unit topic and solely act as motivation and attention triggers for later "hard" work. In either situation, related examples can be reading a poem, listening to a song or watching a brief video which may contain forms or skill strategies to be studied afterwards as well as eliciting the students' telling of personal anecdotes.

The second type of activities may offer the two perspectives of *presentation* and explicitness, i.e. strict introduction of the materials to the students or added explicit explanation. This second type of activities is evidently linked to the objectives of the lesson, which might be inductively taught as in the DM, ALM and SLT ("presentation") or be replaced by explicit explanation such as in the Grammar-Translation Method ("explicitness"). Modern didactic practice usually favours a combination of the two, either in the "weak" version of CLT (Howatt, 1984) or in the "mainstream EFL style" (Cook, 2001).

"Practice activities" are embraced within both sub-steps in step 2 of the "school model" due to the inclusion of "repetition-based practice" in the descriptor of 2.2. These activities are aimed at achieving accuracy of forms so that fluency can be later achieved in *production* activities. This aim accounts for the two elements of which they are composed (Sánchez, 2004a): A model to which the learners must adjust and the presence of a later control in which the model and the students' production are compared. This is the essence of drills. They also appear in Read's (1985) chart and it could be said that they embody the most common type of *practice* activities, whose aim is to achieve accuracy of forms so that fluency can be later attained in *production* activities. The habitual and weighty presence of drills in P2 and their cognitive implications in learning (see section 4.4.) warrant a more detailed description.

Drills are classified under "mechanical", "meaningful" and "communicative" (Dekeyser, 1998, 2007b). In mechanical drills, exclusive attention to form is achieved by means of the students' repeating or manipulating the cue supplied by the teacher, e.g. using the pronoun "she" (the cue) in the correct way after the given model sentence "I have a book". Meaningful drills, however, allow deviation towards some sort of attention to meaning. The speakers communicate but the content of this interaction is not unknown by them, e.g. "A: Is this a pencil or a pen? B: It is a pen", etc. (DeKeyser, 1998: 50). Lastly, communicative drills continue emphasising the form but permit exchanges in which the transmission of content is the primary goal; for instance the opinion gap from section 3.2.1.:

> What would you do if you were a priest and a criminal confessed to you that he's planning a crime?
> A: I would call the police.
> B: I wouldn't call the police because priests cannot do that. I would not tell anyone.
>
> What would you do if you saw your best friend cheating in an exam?
> A: I would do nothing.
> B: I would tell the teacher because it's not fair.

In some authors, such as Spratt (1985b), meaningful and communicative drills are subsumed under meaningful drills.

As can be seen, the various types of drills always involve some degree of "repetition" and "substitution", for which reason "Practice activities" encompass both sub-steps 2.1. and 2.2. See section 4.4.1. for the relationship of each drill class with the knowledge acquisition stages of the cognitive framework adopted in this thesis.

A remark worthy of note for the *practice* stage is that, traditionally, scholars have only identified *practice* with output-based *practice* as given by variously graded-manipulated drills. Their aim is to achieve accuracy of forms so that fluency can be attained later. The second half of the nineties witnessed a series of studies examining the influence of both input and output-based *practice* on the structure of learning (e.g. DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996 and DeKeyser, 1997). Both studies are framed within Anderson's skill acquisition model, the cognitive framework of this thesis (see section 4.4.2. for more related details).[20]

"Application" and "transference" activities represent two categories that are interrelated and that could be considered to be an amalgam of the second part of the definition of step 2.2.: "Consolidation-based practice". In the first type, the student must be able to use what he/she has studied before with a certain degree of fluency and creativity in such a way that old and new elements are combined together in the same activity. Summarising a previously read or listened text, answering questions about aural or written fragments, etc. are examples of "application" activities. The "transference" stage involves a step forward as it implies the *transfer* of students' production to divergent contexts that are still similar to those of the "application" activities (Sánchez, 2004a). For instance, at a beginner's level, asking for information about holiday prices in a travel agency might be similar (but still different) to asking for information about T.V. sets in a household appliance shop. Other related activities at higher levels might be linking and contrasting events, facts or sentences so as to extract similarities, differences and consequences; finishing a written or aural story, etc.

Finally, the P3 phase is implemented in the "autonomous and creative activities". The learners must be able to use their linguistic resources in any given context in an autonomous, creative, fluent and - most revealing of all - effective way. This stage naturally relates to the productive-skill-based activities such as an essay, a letter or e-mail writing, oral discussions and interviews, etc. The same appreciation as in my preceding summary of the P-P-P applies here: This final phase could encompass both advanced *practice* of still-non-automatised elements and actual *production* of assimilated items.

[20] It should be taken into account that the input-practice mentioned here does not coincide with that specified for Krashen's "Input Hypothesis". The latter type is most properly identified with "exposure" than with receptive form-focused practice as in DeKeyser & Sokalski (1996) and DeKeyser (1997) (see section 4.4.2.).

3.2.2.2. Important derived implications from Sánchez's approach (2004a)

This sub-section deals with the ways in which the combination of Sánchez's description of the "school model" applied to language teaching and his activity typology based classroom organisational schemes complement Read's (1985) contribution. The first and most outstanding aspect is the enlargement of P1 and P2, which allows for the differentiation between two types of *presentation* and for the establishment of different graded types of *practice*. Secondly is the insertion of "contextualised or introductory activities", which even if not truly belonging to the concrete objectives of the units may be essential to trigger motivation in the students.

The third aspect deserves a detailed report. In step 2.1. of his "school model" description, Sánchez includes the following specification within the exposition to the learners of new materials: "Whatever the nature of the latter (written or oral texts, grammar questions or rules, vocabulary lists, etc.)". Accordingly, Sánchez extends Read's oral basis by also explicitly encompassing written texts. This has two vital didactic consequences:

a) The indirect recognition of the role of receptive skills in the P1 phase. This implies that the *presentation* phase can introduce grammar structures and vocabulary not only in the traditional way (on their own or framed in a situation set up by the textbook or teacher), but that the linguistic items can also appear within reading and listening activities or sections.
b) It follows that a text-based activity or whole section can accomplish two different functions: Reading or listening *practice per se* (P2) and *presentation* (P1).

This second teaching consequence is intrinsically related to a final pedagogic remark of my own. It concerns the *presentation* phase, which is one of the characteristic elements of the contemporary ELT materials version of the P-P-P (see section 3.4.). In line with the aforementioned overall deductive nature of the P-P-P, the first stage has traditionally been shaped under a deductive teaching mode (Sánchez, 2004a): Concepts are firstly explained and are later practised. But P1 can adopt both a deductive and an inductive format, whose interaction with the presence or absence of receptive skills results in four types of *presentation*. These are described below (with apologies for their long names, but I nevertheless regard them as necessary). The first three belong to the "explicit instruction" category, whereas the last is linked to the opposite class, i.e. "implicit instruction".

1) Explicit (or direct) deductive non-contextualised presentation

By "explicit" or "direct" I refer to the teaching that is consciously addressed towards the fulfilment of the purpose involved in this phase, i.e. *presentation* of structures or vocabulary. This implies that the teacher exercises an explicit focus on such forms by way of overtly directing his/her learners' attention to them. The "deductive" label means that the rules or meaning and/or use guidelines for lexical items together with any related metalinguistic information are presented *before* the learners engage in the related ensuing *practice*. Finally, the "non-contextualised" feature derives from the "deductive" feature as it entails that the rules or vocabulary elements are not introduced via any context, be it a situation expressed prior to the statement of the theory, reference to extracts from a preceding or a later aural or a written text which include exemplars of the structural or lexical features, etc. This is the "strongest" variety of the deductive *presentation* and it appeared in the strict versions of the Grammar-Translation Method during the 18th and 19th centuries.

2) Explicit (or direct) inductive non-contextualised presentation

The same remarks from the previous type apply here with the exception of the inductive parameter. The latter implies that isolated samples of language in use are introduced to the learners so that they can discover or infer the underlying rules or meanings by themselves (hence, the synonym of "discovery learning" for inductive learning). This corresponds to Sánchez's (2004a) step 1.1. (*Presentation*) and it was implemented in all the inductive-based methods such as the Direct Method, the ALM, the SLT, etc. Even modern textbooks belonging to the "weak" CLT version include this type of *presentation*, e.g. *The New Cambridge English Course. Intermediate* (1992), *Making Progress to First Certificate* (2005) and the *New English File* series by Oxford University Press (especially the sections regarding vocabulary).

3) Explicit (or direct) inductive contextualised presentation

In this category and in the next, receptive skills come to the fore. This specific type coincides with *type 2* but the divergence is rooted in its contextualised framework. The examples of language use are not isolated and independent from each other. They can be extracted from aural or written texts (authentic or pedagogically adapted) which have been (previously) introduced as skill *practice* (P2). It has the additional advantage

of providing information on the stylistic and communicative use of language as shown in spoken and written texts.

This structural or lexical *presentation* may occur in between or after the reading or listening activities or sections. The targeted items may be highlighted in some form, for example in bold, to ensure that the students' attention is directed towards them. The learners are required to guess the meaning of the highlighted terms or to infer grammatical rules. This procedure is found in many modern textbooks located within the "weak" version of CLT such as the *Face 2 Face* series (Cambridge University Press).

Regarding grammar, contemporary ELT materials include P-P-P *sequences* where it is frequent to observe either a *type 2* or a *type 3* followed by an explicit statement of the rules (*type 1*). The rules are either fully written or have to be completed by the learners themselves. This combination of types of *presentation* can be found in *Upper Intermediate Matters* (1992 by Longman), *New Cutting Edge Intermediate* and *Upper Intermediate* (both released in 2005 by Longman), in the *New English File* (Oxford University Press) and *Face 2 Face* (Cambridge University Press) series. It should be taken into account that modern FLT approaches tend to incorporate examples next to the statement of rules so as to illustrate them, a practice that was overtly introduced by Ollendorff's followers (Sánchez, 1997). It can also be appreciated in textbooks which belong to the "weak" version of CLT, such as all the preceding examples.[21]

4) Implicit (or indirect) inductive contextualised presentation

As stated above, *type 4* belongs to the "implicit instruction" category, which is inherently related to "implicit induction", which stands in contrast with "explicit induction", as is claimed by DeKeyser (1998). Framed within the context of cognitive psychology research, he identifies implicit induction with, "mere exposure to a very large set of instances or memorization of a set of exemplars" (DeKeyser, 1998: 45) and explicit induction with a setting in which subjects, "are asked to figure out the rules" (DeKeyser, 1998: 45).

From a pedagogic perspective, *type 4* entails a reading or a listening text provided to the students as part of skill work (P2), but their attention is not explicitly addressed towards any form that the fragments may include. The *implicit presentation* of forms or

[21] *Cutting Edge* series introduce tasks at the end of each of their units (called "modules"). Apart from this, the remaining content of the modules complies with the "weak" version of CLT.

lexis comes from the simple reading of or listening to the extract. *Type 4* is very versatile in the sense that it can occur either before an *explicit presentation*, immediately after it or even following *practice* and *production* of the targeted items. This versatility of positions is essential from a cognitive perspective. Section 6.2.6.6. includes illustrated examples of these four categories of presentation and their effects on the cognitive *sequence* of knowledge acquisition depending on their placement in the teaching *sequence.* This section deals with the description of an original unit from the quasi-experimental textbook and its adapted version following the CPM.

To conclude, Read's implication concerning the flexibility of the P-P-P and the consequence derived from Sánchez's contribution as to the possibility of combining linguistic (structural and lexical) and skill work in the same activity or section of activities exerts a basic influence on my assertion concerning the existence of a contemporary ELT materials version of this model (section 3.4.), which is far from the format it presented in the 19th century and mid 20th century materials referred to in 3.1.

3.3. CRITICISMS OF THE P-P-P IN FLT LITERATURE

3.3.1. Positive criticisms

The positive criticisms of the traditional P-P-P may be divided into the following categories: General and second language learning psychological principles; psycho-pedagogic factors centred on the learners and didactic aspects focused on the teacher.

3.3.1.1. Positive criticisms based on general psychological knowledge acquisition factors

The long-lived nature of the "school model" and its deductive approach in formal teaching owes a great deal to the way that humans construct knowledge. As Sánchez (2001: 116) argues, the five phases of the "school model" are, "the result of a long and well proven historical observation on how human beings build up knowledge". This assertion appears to be supported by Rosenshine & Stevens' (1986) review of experimental studies about successful teaching practice. The studies deal with a variety of subjects (maths, reading and foreign language) at elementary and high-school levels.

Rosenshine & Stevens (1986: 379) identified the following general instructional "functions" or procedures on which effective teaching seems to be based:

1. Review, check previous day's work (and reteach if necessary)
2. Present new content/skills
3. Guided student practice (and check for understanding)
4. Feedback and correctives (and reteach, if necessary)
5. Independent student practice
6. Weekly and monthly reviews

As can be seen, from 1 to 5 these instructional functions largely correspond to the P-P-P and are located within a deductive approach to teaching too. Drawing on information-processing findings (humans being "limited-capacity processors", the necessity of having automatic, previously learned material for new learning and the advantages *of overlearning* (i.e. repeating and rehearsing)), Rosenshine & Stevens (1986) also claim that curricula structured in this way are generally better than more individualised or "discovery learning approaches".

Last but definitively not least, if we consider language knowledge to be a skill (like geometry, for instance), the three Ps correlate with the general learning stages of Anderson's skill-acquisition model (1982, 1983, 1987, 2005). This constitutes the psychological framework adopted in this PhD (see Chapter 4).

3.3.1.2. Positive criticisms based on second language learning psychological factors

As regards the particular field of foreign language learning, the two first phases are purported to be beneficial at a psycholinguistic level. If well-designed, the *presentation* stage complies with the essential function of making students notice features (especially highly frequent features) and link the new form to what they already know so as to utilise their existing knowledge and facilitate learning (Hedge, 2000).

Regarding the *practice* phase, only output *practice* - as opposed to input *practice* - will be considered due to its traditional ascription to this phase (see section 3.2.2.1.).

The significance of output *practice* in general language learning is intrinsically related to Swain's pioneering "Comprehensible Output Hypothesis" (1985, 1995, 2005, in Muranoi, 2007). Applied to oral skills, this theory claims that in order to learn to speak learners should be pushed to actually speak the language in class. The following four roles for output are indicated by Swain as recorded by Muranoi (2007). They are followed by another four roles added by Skehan (1998) and a final role by Hedge

(2000). Roles 1, 2, 3, 4, 9 can be applied to *controlled practice*, whereas all of them (1-9) are relevant to *freer practice* activities. These can even become proper *production* activities (P3) in roles 5, 6, 7 and possibly 8.

1. Noticing gaps in the learners' interlanguage. Indeed, the simple act of producing output may cause learners to realise that they cannot say something accurately, i.e. they may notice a "hole" in their interlanguage and therefore notice a gap between this and the target language. Consequently, they will pay more attention to those features whose absence or lack of command provoked the hole.
2. Hypothesis (re)formulation and testing. Learners' *production* can make them test out their hypotheses about the functioning of the language system, refine or restructure their interlanguage accordingly and formulate alternative hypotheses again if convenient.
3. Metalinguistic function. Learners consciously think about language use by means of their own verbalisations on the language system (metatalk). This triggers students' awareness of forms and rules and of their underlying working structures.
4. Syntactic processing. In a two-way interaction, producing language may direct learners to pay attention to how they express their intended meanings so that they are successfully understood by their listeners.

Skehan (1998) supplies the next roles:

5. To generate better input. This is related to role 4 and to the "negotiation for meaning" strand (Pica, 1994). Indeed, in order to produce appropriate and correct output, one needs to have previously obtained good quality input from which to derive such output.
6. To develop automaticity. With this role, Skehan attaches a different side to output *practice* besides the fostering of form acquisition: The perfecting of the speaking skill. This is the function which is mostly related to the traditional purpose of P3: achieving automaticity (at an oral level following the focus of the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis). This is reflected in correct and error-free messages transmitted with a, "natural speed and rhythm" (Skehan, 1998: 18), or, in other words, fluency.

7. To develop discourse skills. This role of output can also be attained not only through less restricted P2 activities but also via P3 activities. The following quotation by Skehan summarises this role:

> If meaning-making is a jointly collaborative activity, then we cannot read about these skills, or even acquire them passively, but instead have to take part in discourse and realize how our resources are put to work to build conversations and negotiate meaning. Extensive practice is therefore unavoidable.
>
> (Skehan, 1998: 18)

8. To develop a personal voice. Truly, topics of interest to the speaker may arise during conversation, which implies that the he/she has to think of personal ways to express personal meanings too.

Skehan (1998) explicitly asserts that the key roles for interlanguage development are forcing syntactic processing, hypothesis testing and the development of automaticity.

Finally, Hedge (2000) suggests the following output function:

9. Developing implicit grammatical knowledge, "by providing frequent occurrence of a particular form for students to notice" (p. 167).

It should be observed that Muranoi (2007) warns about the lack of empirical evidence to support the Comprehensible Output Hypothesis except for some studies dealing with the effect on noticing and output modification. I believe that despite this important limitation, the value of output *practice* appears logical from a learning point of view and thus holds important pedagogic implications. Furthermore, although this theory is focused on speaking, its transfer to writing skills appears to also make sense in most roles above in an live context such as Internet communication (using "Messenger"); and at least in roles 1, 2, 6, 7 in a non-live situation (e.g. email or letter writing).

As a final point, Timmis (unpublished manuscript) maintains that *practice* (or what he labels as "controlled experimentation" to avoid the non-fashionable label of "control practice") is valuable because, "it seems to meet a psychological need for both learners and teachers" (p. 127). Timmis reports that when he piloted some materials under a rigid noticing approach with no *production* tasks, the feedback he obtained from

both teachers and learners was that they had missed such tasks (i.e. output *practice*). D. Willis (1996b) argues that this psychological need may be rooted in the fact that controlled *practice* motivates learners in two ways: By specifying a clear and specific learning goal, which makes learning attainable; and by creating the, "comforting illusion that learning has actually taken place" (p. 45). This "illusory effect" is dealt with in section 3.3.2.3.

3.3.1.3. Positive criticisms based on learner-centred psycho-pedagogic factors

Psycho-pedagogic factors are also purported to support the P-P-P in relation to students. Foreign language students allegedly benefit from the recurrence of organisational working procedures because it gives them a feeling of security in relation to the *sequence* of classroom events and the strategies for content presentation (Sánchez, 2001). Consequently, they are better prepared to react in an atmosphere which is well-known to them (the same applies to teachers as can be seen immediately below). This is one of the reasons advocated by Cook (2001) for the current popularity of the Audio-Lingual Method. In effect, random or excessive novelty can mean that learners get lost or confused. They could also suffer a certain feeling of fear due to their lack of confidence in the validity of their reactions in the classroom. For this reason we may meet resistance from students when attempting to modify the P-P-P. This is a caveat that we should bear in mind when introducing variety in activity *sequencing*. Variety cannot be constrained to certain loose moments during the academic year nor be short of systematicity (Sánchez, 2001, 2004a; Ur, 1996). It follows that diversity and novelty need to be introduced soundly and moderately, an aspect that will be touched upon in the description of the CPM - section 5.2.8. - and in section 6.4.

3.3.1.4. Positive criticisms based on teacher-centred pedagogic factors

With regard to language teaching professionals, two consequences may be derived from the previously mentioned predictability of patterns of actions. On the one hand, such predictability entails a straightforward identification of didactic steps. The combination of this aspect with form/discrete item focused applications of this model justifies its "trainability" and its generalised use in teacher training courses. Whilst this could be seen as a bonus of this pattern, some authors criticise it as detailed below (Lewis, 1996; Scrivener, 1996; Skehan, 1998). On the other hand, this recurrence of pedagogic phases makes teachers more comfortable regarding lesson preparation and

testing. Indeed, the daily or frequent addition of novelty in the working organisational procedures demands a continuous effort. As Sánchez (2001) suggests, it is not an easy task to find a source(s) from where to extract related ideas, either for teacher training or actual lesson preparation. This shortage of resources could lead to a state of anxiety on the part of teachers.

Ultimately, there seems to exist a widespread assumption in teaching and materials development circles that language knowledge has to be internalized, understood and practised before it is used. Hence the recognition of the P-P-P as the most sensitive pattern to arrange classroom learning and teaching as highlighted in Littlejohn's (1992) five interviews with materials authors. These language teaching professionals believe that teachers and/or materials have to provide their students with a very solid basis so that they can later gradually work towards independency. The most enthusiastic related account is offered by an interviewee for whom this "learning-to-be-free" stance, "mirrors the foundations of democracy" (Littlejohn, 1992: 169). Although I acknowledge that only five case-studies is a limited number to extrapolate, my general impression of contemporary foreign language teaching materials leads me to conclude that Littlejohn's sixteen-year-old research appears to be fresher than ever. This can be easily testable with a simple flick through the pages of a textbook in any specialised bookshop.

Table 7 offers a summary of the positive criticisms of the P-P-P.

Table 7. Summary of the positive criticisms of the P-P-P in FLT literature

1. GENERAL PSYCHOLOGICAL KNOWLEDGE ACQUISITION FACTORS	1.1. Long-lived presence of the "school model" in formal teaching contexts → deductive mode of learning (Sánchez, 1993, 2001, 2004a). ↓ 1.2. Supported by Rosenshine & Stevens (1986): Record of instructional functions empirically shown to foster effective teaching - which can be identified with the Ps stages. Maths, reading and foreign language classes in elementary and high-school contexts. 1.3. Language knowledge as skill knowledge → correspondence of the P stages with the cognitive acquisition phases in Anderson's (1982, 1983, 1987, 2005) skill-acquisition model.
2. SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS	P1: Noticing features and linking the old knowledge with new knowledge to facilitate learning (Hedge, 2000). P2: Psychological need for learners and teachers (Willis, D., 1996b; Timmis, unpublished manuscript). P2-P3: Roles of output practice (Swain's Comprehensible Output Hypothesis, 1985, 1995, 2005) and revisions by Skehan (1998) and Hedge (2000).
3. LEARNER-CENTRED PSYCHO-PEDAGOGIC FACTORS	Predictability of working organisational procedures → feeling of security in their actions supplied by the recurrence of organisational working procedures (Sánchez, 2001).
4. TEACHER-CENTRED PEDAGOGIC FACTORS	4.1. Predictability of working organisational procedures → 4.1.1. Useful "trainability" for teacher training courses. 4.1.2. More comfort at lesson preparation (effort demanded by the addition of variety) (Sánchez, 1993, 2001). 4.2. Generalised view among the language teaching profession: Language knowledge has to be internalized, understood and practised before it is used; leading learners from solid basis supplied by teachers and/or materials to gradual independency (Littlejohn, 1992).

3.3.2. Negative criticisms

The P-P-P has suffered and continues to suffer negative criticisms on the part of many FLT researchers, materials developers and teachers who favour focus-on-meaning approaches (e.g. the "strong" CLT version, its TBLT spin-off, Lewis' Lexical Approach, Long's Focus on Form, etc.). The disapproval of this classical pattern reaches its climax in Lewis (1996: 16), whose following quotation is very revealing: "For a long time language teaching has gone in diametrically the wrong direction – the PPP paradigm was a travesty for philosophical, psychological, ideological and methodological reasons".

The most immediate conclusion that can be derived from Lewis' quotation is the variety of the nature of the factors implied in the negative evaluation of this model. Accordingly, the following report is classified into five categories: Linguistic, psychological, psycholinguistic, pedagogic and psycho-pedagogic.

3.3.2.1. Linguistic-based criticisms

Linguistic criticisms have been targeted at two different aspects. The first concerns its concentration on structures (Lewis, 1996). As the founder of the Lexical Approach, Lewis believes that the P-P-P is useless precisely due to its focus on what he regards to be the subsidiary part of language that is needed for communicative use. The core of meaning and thus of communication is lexicon in its varied forms (collocations, idioms, multi-word items, etc.). It should be taken into account, though, that the P-P-P is not and has not been restricted to forms but has also included vocabulary (Harmer, 1996).

A second cause of discontent with this traditional pattern is that it is based on discrete items. Both Scrivener (1994) and Woodward (1993) report its atomistic nature, which allows for the selection and dissection of such items into small pieces (Woodward, 1993) within a sentence-level theory of language (Scrivener, 1994). Woodward (1993) even relates this approach to Descartes' thought, which was premised on the idea that, "things should be 'divided up the better to study them' " (p. 3). She criticises this analytical view of study and argues for more holistic or ecological perspectives which cover a wider range of variables and elements in the configuration of language.

3.3.2.2. Psychological-based criticisms

This analytical linguistic view holds important influences on the behaviouristic psychological theory argued to be behind the P-P-P (Scrivener 1994, 1996; Willis, D., 1996b). D. Willis (1996b) contends that this model pursues the student's automatic response to the stimulus given by the teacher. In doing so it leads students to believe that the target language is an ensemble of discrete items which can be assimilated and added to previously learned elements after the teacher's cue. Scrivener (1994, 1996) calls this a "Straight-line" learning assumption, in the sense that, "following a routine will guarantee the required results". In all, a quantitative type of learning underlies the *sequence* of the traditional P-P-P due to the combination of both behaviouristic acquisition theory and discrete items as the learning content objectives**.**

The rigidity of its learning path constitutes the second psychological issue at the base of the disapproval of the P-P-P. It assumes that knowledge is solely acquired through the succeeding phases of *presentation, practice* and *production*. However, as Sánchez (1993) suggests, we have to consider the fact that sometimes we are capable of assimilating new knowledge without any need of practice and without the help of explicit explanation. This flexible nature of language learning is also acknowledged by Johnson (1994, 1996), who offers an account of L2 learning and acquisition as framed within Anderson's skill-acquisition cognitive theory (see Chapter 4).

3.3.2.3. Psycholinguistic-based criticisms

As to the psycholinguistic factors, they include a) the unimodal style of learning languages; b) an excessive focus on accuracy of forms at the expense of a focus on meaning (which results in the non-compliance with naturalistic learning principles and in a brake upon learners' experimentation with language); c) the *practice* phase as associated with mechanical drills; d) the ignorance of the readiness-to-learn, the delayed-effect-of-instruction and the silent period theories derived from the linear nature of learning allegedly assumed by the P-P-P.

In the first place, Tomlinson et al. (2001) attack the P-P-P for imposing a uni-modal learning style derived from its rational and analytic (i.e. and academic) nature. This implies that other styles such as the kinaesthetic, visual or musical are ignored.

Secondly, the strict discrete-item based version of the P-P-P has also been criticised for placing too much emphasis on the accuracy or correctness of forms (the precise delivering of structures and lexis). This criticism results in two intertwined

consequences. The first one consists of the learners' inhibition and avoidance of risk-taking. According to J. Willis (1993), these are crucial for the development of interlanguage -for instance, their own creation of hypotheses of language systems, etc. Lewis (1996) shares this view, arguing that the P-P-P gives learners a misleading feeling of security with its focus on well-formed sentence-level utterances. He encourages students, "to use even inadequate linguistic resources to attempt to communicate real meaning" (p. 14). This leads to the second consequence: The learning and teaching focus should prioritise meaning or communicative use of language (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004; Willis, D. & Willis, J., 2007).

Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004) offer the following reasons for the placement of form or language work ensuing a focus-on-meaning activity. According to them, a focus on meaning ensures a deep processing of language. This is necessary for effective long-term learning and can be achieved by ensuring the teaching *sequence* more closely resembles how humans process language for communication: To fulfil a real purpose. This real-life purpose will most probably consist of non-linguistic outcomes, such as the pure understanding or enjoyment of a text. Secondly, a priority on meaning meets very important learning principles highly appreciated by these authors such as a) mental connection; b) affect (manifested, among others, in apprehension (learner-centred) before comprehension (language-centred)); and c) multi-dimensional processing, which Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004: 14) define as, "the learners creating mental representations through sensory imaging (especially visualisation), emotional associations and the use of the inner voice".

Leading exponents of TBLT, D. Willis & J. Willis (2007), support an initial focus on meaning which is explicitly reflected in both receptive and productive activities. They justify this on the following grounds. Learners are allowed to "experience" language thanks to the fact that language work is preceded, in this order, by the teacher talk, reading or listening texts containing the form instances and the task itself. This provides students with a context which will help them to make sense of the targeted structures. Also, students' motivation is enhanced if linguistic exercises are located at the end. They will be more receptive to them once they have struggled with the expression of meaning in the prior task. Finally, language work will highlight language features and make learners notice them. This teaching *sequence* takes, "the more natural road of fluency to accuracy" expressed by J. Willis herself fourteen years before (1993). Taking into account that the first two Ps are associated with accuracy objectives

whereas fluency is the target of P3 (see section 3.2.), it follows that the order and language focus of the Ps should be changed. The new P-P-P *sequence* would be as follows: An implicit contextualised P1 (meaning-centred) ensued by P3 (communicative-based and thus meaning-grounded) and later form-focused explicit inductive P1 and P2. This alteration in the order of the stages from the traditional P-P-P is intrinsically related to the flexibility of this model introduced in section 3.2.1 and which is developed in Chapter 5. The cognitive perspective of such reversal in the position of the Ps will be described in section 4.3.2.

With regard to the preceding four authors' stances, and without neglecting the extreme importance of meaning, I think it is vital to consider that the expression of meanings in fluent communication - whether receptive or productive - is substantiated by a correct mastery of two linguistic components of language: Grammar and vocabulary. Section 6.2.4.2.1.4. includes a more thorough justification. One of the main criticisms directed at TBLT, especially in lower levels, is its procedure of making learners use language when they do not have the (adequate and suitable) resources yet (Harmer, 2001), although there have been some recent attempts to translate TBLT pedagogy to beginner learners (Duran & Ramaut, 2006). See section 5.2.3.2. for a discussion of TBLT as proposed by J. Willis (1993, 1996a, 1996b).

The P2 phase has also received harsh criticisms given that it has been frequently identified with mechanical drills on their own (as claimed by DeKeyser, 1998, 2007b; Spratt, 1985b; Timmis, unpublished manuscript). The origin of this negative evaluation is rooted in the ALM, "which has become almost synonymous with the use and abuse of mechanical drills" (DeKeyser, 1998: 51). Although a more detailed explanation of this issue can be seen in section 4.4.2., I will offer a related introduction here. Mechanical drills are the object of disapproval due to their lack of resemblance to real-life communication because they solely focus on forms at the expense of meaning. As a result, mechanical drills are faulty in cognitive terms owing to similar reasons argued earlier by Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004): They do not allow learners to create form-meaning relationships, which are the foundations of language processing (DeKeyser, 2007b; see section 4.4.2.). Section 3.4. contends that the P2 phase in the P-P-P *sequences* from contemporary ELT materials offers a richer typology of activities than mechanical drills alone.

The fourth psycholinguistic criticism is targeted at the linear nature of learning that P-P-P *sequences* based on discrete items seem to assume (Ellis, R., 2003; Skehan,

1996a, 1996b; Timmis, unpublished manuscript; Willis, J., 1993). This view of learning which is not integrative, i.e. it considers that language items can be learned as isolated chunks in one go without any need for further revisiting. This is derived from the erroneous belief that teaching equals learning (Tomlinson et al., 2001; Willis, J., 1993) which is demonstrated in the two following linked aspects: a) After items have been presented and explained in P1 and practised in P2 they are ready to be used in the P3 phase, even in the same lesson; and b) once items have undergone a single P-P-P *sequence* they do not require further experiencing. In other words, discrete-item based P-P-P *sequences* ignore *recycling*, which is a fundamental pedagogic factor for, on the one hand, the maintenance of declarative knowledge (knowledge of the facts) in long-term memory and, on the other, for its complete automatisation (see section 4.4.1. for a more detailed account). This teaching-equals-learning belief accounts for the overwhelming presence of the P-P-P in commercial materials, since according to Tomlinson (1998b) it gives the wrong appearance of systematicity and economy.

These linear and teaching-equals-learning didactic views of acquisition lead to the neglection of three very important second language learning principles: Readiness to learn, the delayed effect of instruction and the silent period.

The readiness-to-learn theory owes a great deal to the pioneering "multidimensional" or "processability model" developed by Pienemann (1984, 1989). This is a derivation of the grammatical- morphemes-*sequence* studies by Dulay & Burt (1973). Due to its importance in SLA and FLT, there follows a description of the basic insights of this model.

Pienemann (1984) studied the acquisition of German as a Foreign Language in 7-9 year old children who lived in Germany and who also received related extra instruction. His findings identified developmental learning sequences, i.e. fixed linguistic item learning routes. Developmental features are acquired in an absolute fixed order because the expansion of each feature can only take place when the necessary processing strategies have been activated; in other words, when the learner is *ready* to do so. Pienemann (1984: 201) summarises his confirmed hypothesis as follows: "An L2 structure can be learnt from instruction only if the learner's interlanguage is close to the point when this structure is acquired in the natural setting".

The linguistic example provided by this author shows that instruction cannot alter the natural learning sequence of German word order rules. In the acquisition of "inversion", which implies moving the verb into a *less salient* position, instruction only

benefited the child who was prepared to learn it. He was ready because he had already attained the command of "particle", which is the previous acquisitional stage (moving the verb into the *salient* final position). The child who had not reached this immediately preceding step due to internal factors did not improve and even showed very poor performance results. As Pienemann (1984: 209) concludes, "if formal input is constructed in contradiction to natural sequences it impedes rather than promotes language acquisition".

The readiness-to-learn principle has dramatic consequences in materials design both from activity and content ordering perspectives. If students follow a natural acquisition sequence, whose completion can take very long, then this learning *sequence* cannot be replicated by textbooks based on P-P-P teaching *sequences* showing a linear, static and accumulated-entities-acquisition view. At worst, premature instruction will result in *production* of erroneous forms, replacement by easier forms and avoidance strategies (Tomlinson, unpublished manuscript b). The reader is referred to Cook (2001) for an enlightening comparison of the correlation between the order in which coursebooks introduce different syntactical points and the *sequence* shown in the "processability model".

The "delayed effect of instruction" (Tomlinson, unpublished manuscript b; Willis, D., 1996b) is an additional psycholinguistic principle which provides further support for the wrongness of the equation between teaching and learning and the linear view of the latter. Given that both naturalistic and formal acquisition are not immediate but gradual processes, "it is quite unrealistic to expect students to make acquaintance with a "new" language form and, within the space of a single lesson, incorporate it into their working grammar of the language" (Willis, D., 1996b: 46). Put another way, the *presentation, practice* and *production* of forms in the very same lesson (or in different but succeeding classes within a short time span) do not automatically result in acquisition. As Tomlinson (unpublished manuscript b) argues, the fact that learners might be able to rehearse the feature, retrieve it from short term memory or even produce it does not mean that full learning (establishment of the form in long-term memory) has actually taken place. It is perfectly plausible, though, that instruction has a delayed effect. Tomlinson (unpublished manuscript b) offers the related example of situations in which learners correctly produce a linguistic feature but get it wrong the following week (i.e. the "illusory effect of learning" mentioned in section 3.3.1.2.).

The "silent period" (Duran & Ramaut, 2006; Islam, 2003; Krashen, 1982) is a crucial psycholinguistic principle for beginners which is indirectly related to the delayed effect of instruction. It deals with oral language and basically consists of the unsuitability of making beginner learners speak before they are ready to do so, i.e. before they have attained sufficient linguistic resources. Duran & Ramaut (2006) state that during this silent period learners acquire a solid receptive base from which they will start producing language and that at the same time they might develop a certain degree of confidence before they actually speak. Although the silent period is applied to speaking, its rationale also makes sense from a written skill perspective. It follows, then, that implementing a full *sequence* of the P-P-P from the onset of the instruction is counterproductive at a beginners' level.

The three preceding learning principles (readiness-to-learn, the delayed effect of instruction and the silent period) generate the following practical didactic implication: The imperative existence of *recycling* in teaching (see above). Firstly, the more instances of a form in the input phase, the more chances that learners will be ready to acquire it in a quicker way and thus be able to use it later. Secondly, constant recycling of forms in different communicative and stylistic functions in both receptive and productive activities ensures deep durable learning. This involves the fixation of declarative knowledge in long-term memory and its real automatisation. Thirdly, frequent recycling of features in the P1 stage may well boost the beginners' silent period and thus make them better prepared for later speaking (most probably short-utterance based). In all, recycling allows the development of a gradual process of learning instead of the additive perspective favoured by some versions of the P-P-P. For a detailed account of the functions of *recycling*, see section 4.4.1.

Both the delayed effect of instruction and the silent period have another pedagogic consequence. It consists of adapting the objectives of the P phases and changing their placement so that they do not always come in a fixed order, giving the illusory appearance of completed learning. This is directly related to the flexible nature of this traditional pattern and to the roles of output (sections 3.2.1. and 3.3.1.2.). In the case of beginners, as previously indicated, the P3 stage could be postponed to later units so as not to interrupt their necessary silent period. As Tomlinson (unpublished manuscript b) proposes, instead of viewing the objective of P3 as fluent and error-free *production*, it could be seen as reinforcement to be followed by more exposure and *practice*. This would comply with the hypothesis (re)formulation and testing function of

output. Tomlinson (unpublished manuscript b) further suggests that the *production* phase is deferred to other lessons in such a way that enough exposure (P1) and *practice* (P2) have previously taken place. In this manner the learners would be prepared to fully automatise the linguistic knowledge. This relates to the output role of "development of automaticity" (see section 3.3.1.2. and Chapter 4, especially sections 4.3. and 4.4.). Furthermore, as indicated in Read's description of the P-P-P (1985), the P2 phase could be placed at the beginning of the teaching *sequence* for diagnostic/revision purposes. This could trigger learners to notice gaps in their interlanguage and act accordingly. The same could be applied to *Presentation types 3* and *4* above (section 3.2.2.2).

3.3.2.4. Pedagogic-based criticisms

Regarding pedagogic issues, the disapproval of the P-P-P can be classified in the following factors: a) Its prescriptive nature (for both teachers and learners); b) its excessive fostering of teacher control; c) its faulty efficiency in its application to real-life communication; d) the allegedly incorrect conception of the P1 phase; and e) the learners' perception of the P3 stage, which does not necessarily coincide with the teacher's/materials.

The first three factors are linked to the quantitative type of learning presumably assumed by the P-P-P (as explained in section 3.3.2.2.). From a pedagogic perspective, the quantitative-acquisition view is reflected in neat and structured lessons together with, "clear and tangible goals, precise syllabuses, and a comforting itemizable basis for the evaluation of effectiveness" (Skehan, 1998: 94). This results in the widespread use of the P-P-P in teacher training courses (section 3.3.1.4.) and in the aforementioned generalised presence of the P-P-P in commercial materials (Tomlinson, 1998b).

The previous structured lesson plans supplied by this model account for its prescriptive nature concerning language teaching professionals. Scrivener (1994: 15) argues that this pattern, "confines teachers" and that, "it leaves no room for growth or exploration" for teacher trainees as it sets, "a limited number of teaching options, all of which can be pre-planned". Scrivener's criticisms can definitively be applied to the didactic practice exercised by qualified instructors. In this respect, Scrivener (1996: 79) added:

> [the P-P-P model] only describes one kind of lesson; it is inadequate as a general proposal concerning approaches to language in the classroom. It entirely fails to describe the many ways in which teachers can work when, for example, using coursebooks, or when adopting a task-based approach.

Furthermore, the P-P-P model also prescribes what learners can actually do in class because it tends to strengthen teachers' leadership. This is reflected both in their instructors' management of the class and in the way the syllabus objectives are achieved (Sánchez, 2004a). Teacher's leadership is also increasingly boosted due to their role as an informant in P1 and as a corrector in P2 (see section 3.2.1.). It is only in advanced stages of P2 and in P3 when the teacher's control over students' production is reduced.

As regards application to real-life interactions, J. Willis (1993) highlights that the focus on discrete items presented in isolation as offered by traditional P-P-P *sequences* disables learners to cope with real-life communication at both receptive and productive levels.

As to the wrong conception of the P1 phase, Lewis (1996) censures that it is teacher-centred and that only the other two stages are learner-focused. He claims that, "all modern learning paradigms, overtly or covertly, exclude reference to the teacher" (p. 13). It seems hard to submissively accept this affirmation. In contemporary eyes, even if the teachers' role has changed from a knowledge transmission agent to a guide in the learning process, they still have a decisive role in the formal learning process. One of their main functions is to motivate the learners. I am sure that I am not the only one who has said and heard the following: "What a superb teacher, I love his classes!" or "I do not particularly like this subject, but the teacher is soooo good!"

The P3 phase has also been the target of criticisms on the following grounds: its objective of consolidating the students' use of features and of achieving fluency is not always perceived as such by the learners themselves (Hedge, 2000; Willis, D., 1996b; Willis, D., personal communication; Willis, J., 1993). In connection with this, J. Willis (1993: 17) reasons:

> At the production stage, students either overuse the new language items, (e.g., using will for every future action regardless of meaning) or manage to complete the communication activity without using any of the new language at all. *In other words they either see it as a further controlled practice activity, or as a truly "free" activity.*
>
> (Authoress' highlighting)

Without dismissing the evident importance of considering the students' styles and attitudes to learning, I believe that if we subordinate the nature and goals of an activity only to the learners' perception, the general analysis of activities and of their underlying *sequence* would be impracticable. This is due to the impossibility of predicting the quantity and quality of such a perception, which would also depend on the students' characteristics and thus would prove very difficult to extrapolate.

3.3.2.5. Psycho-pedagogic-based criticisms

It was argued in section 3.3.1.3. that the highly, fixed nature of the order of the stages in the P-P-P involved an enhancement of the learners' confidence in the classroom. This feeling of security might be precisely overridden by the rigidity of the work patterns itself. In this case, as Sánchez (1993, 2001, 2004a) remarks, the inflexibility of the repetitive *sequencing* stages probably acts as a brake upon the development of students' motivation. They and even their teachers may not be conscious of the daily recurrence of class organisation procedures; however, "this is a real fact and students perceive and 'feel' it inside themselves" (Sánchez, 2001: 111). Although repetition is certainly a universally recognised learning mechanism, its excessive presence may generate a dreaded consequence for students: Boredom. As a result, repetition becomes counterproductive to learning. From a teaching perspective, a persistent sameness in *sequencing* patterns may also provoke a certain sense of monotony in the teachers.

Table 8 on pages 99-100 offers a *précis* of all these negative criticisms.

Table 8. Summary of the negative criticisms of the P-P-P in FLT literature

1. LINGUISTIC-BASED CRITICISMS	1.1. Concentration on structures at the expense of lexis (Lewis, 1996). 1.2. Analytic and atomistic view of language (Scrivener, 1994; Woodward, 1993): Discrete items framed within a sentence-level context.
2. PSYCHOLOGICAL-BASED CRITICISMS	2.1. Behaviouristic learning theory (Scrivener, 1994; Willis, D., 1996b); "straight-line" learning assumption (Scrivener, 1994). The combination of 1.2. and 2.1. → quantitative type of learning 2.2. Rigidity of learning path (Johnson, 1994, 1996; Sánchez, 1993).
3. PSYCHOLINGUISTIC-BASED CRITICISMS	3.1. Unimodal style of learning (rational, analytic (i.e. academic)). Ignorance of other learning styles such as kinaesthetic, visual or musical (Tomlinson et al., 2001). 3.2. Excessive focus on accuracy of forms → 3.2.1. Learners' inhibition and avoidance of risk-taking, which are essential for interlanguage development (Willis, J., 1993); misleading feeling of security given by well-formed sentences; need to make an effort to communicate real meaning (Lewis, 1996). 3.2.2. Neglecting naturalistic learning principles due to scarce or no focus on meaning. Advantages of the latter: 3.2.2.1. Resembling real-life non-linguistic outcomes; deep processing of language; attending to affect, the "inner-voice" and multi-dimensional processing (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004). 3.2.2.2. TBLT: Receptive activities and task performance allow for experiencing the language in context and to enhance students' motivation (Willis, D. & Willis, J., 2007) → 3.2.2.3. The fluency-to-accuracy path (Willis, J., 1993). Didactic implications: Changing the order and language focus of the Ps: Initial meaning-focused P1 and P3 (receptive and productive activities respectively) and later form-focused P1-P2. 3.3. P2 based on mechanical drills (Spratt, 1985b; Timmis, unpublished manuscript): Erroneous language processing because of not associating forms to meanings (DeKeyser, 1998, 2007b). 3.4. Linear view of learning or "teaching equals learning" belief (Ellis, R., 2003; Skehan, 1996a; Timmis, unpublished manuscript; Tomlinson et al., 2001; Willis, J., 1993) → ignorance of:

3. PSYCHOLINGUISTIC-BASED CRITICISMS (continued)	3.4.1. Pienemann's (1984) "readiness-to-learn" principle (Tomlinson, unpublished manuscript b) 3.4.2. The "delayed effect of instruction" (Tomlinson, unpublished manuscript b; Willis, D., 1996b) 3.4.3. Krashen's (1982) "silent period" (Duran & Ramaut, 2006; Islam, 2003) 3.5. Consequences of 3.4.: 3.5.1. From the whole of 3.4. → imperative need of recycling as opposed to the additive perspective favoured by strict linear versions of the P-P-P 3.5.2. From 3.4.2. and 3.4.3. → adapting the original objectives and changing the placement of the P stages (Tomlinson, unpublished manuscript b)
4. PEDAGOGIC-BASED CRITICISMS	4.1. Quantitative type of learning → "clear and tangible goals, precise syllabuses and a comforting itemizable basis for the evaluation of effectiveness" (Skehan, 1998) plus neat and structured lesson plans ↓ 4.1.1. Prescriptive nature for teachers ("limited set of teaching options" (Scrivener, 1994, 1996) for both trainees and qualified teachers). 4.1.2. Prescriptive nature for learners → strengthening of teacher' leadership in the management of the class and in the way the syllabus objectives are attained (Sánchez, 2004a). 4.1.3. Faulty efficiency when applied to real-life communication (Willis, J., 1993). 4.2. Wrong conception of the P1 phase as teacher-centred (Lewis, 1996). 4.3. Learners' perception of P3 may not coincide with its original intended fluency objective (Hedge, 2000; Willis, D., 1996b; Willis, J., 1993)
5. PSYCHO-PEDAGOGIC-BASED CRITICISMS	5.1. Learners' confidence in the classroom as given by a predictable order of stages overridden by students' boredom generated by repetitive working organisational patterns (Sánchez, 1993, 2001, 2004a). 5.2. Teachers' feeling of monotony.

Table 8. Summary of the negative criticisms of the P-P-P in FLT literature

3.4. CONTEMPORARY ELT MATERIALS AND THE P-P-P

The preceding modern dislike of the P-P-P is neatly summarised in Scrivener's words (1994: 15): "It is fundamentally disabling, not enabling". I believe that Scrivener's opinion is too severe, especially from a contemporary point of view. I wholeheartedly agree with Harmer (1996: 8) when he makes the case that this criticism, "may come as a surprise to the many hundreds of thousands of students who have managed to progress despite having been subjected to such discredited disablement". Furthermore, if the P-P-P was such an atrocious teaching pattern, it would be very surprising to find it mentioned in the *Common European Framework of Reference for Language Learning, Teaching and Assessment* (2001; from now on referred to as CEF). More precisely, this document includes certain varieties of the P-P-P to illustrate some of the ways in which learners are expected to learn a foreign or a second language:

> f) by a combination of presentations, explanations, (drill) exercises and exploitation activities, but with L1 as the language of classroom management, explanation, etc.;
> g) by a combination of activities as in f), but using L2 only for *all* classroom purposes;
> h) by some combination of the above activities, starting perhaps with f), but progressively reducing the use of L1 and including more tasks and authentic texts, spoken and written, and an increasing self-study component.
>
> (CEF, 2001: 143)

In all I strongly believe that all the preceding criticisms of the P-P-P model are not fully applicable to current textbooks. This traditional pattern has been modernised and its shape and format do not resemble the old days of the G-T and ALM. Indeed, especially regarding intermediate and higher levels, I definitely agree with Hopkins' affirmation (1995: 11. Quoted in Harmer, 2001: 82): "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".

In my opinion, it would be unfair and inaccurate not to recognise the existence of a contemporary ELT materials version of the P-P-P. This version owes a great deal to the "weak" CLT version that emerged during the eighties (see section 3.1.). Its characteristic aspects are as follows:

1) An addition of a wider range of language elements. An obvious conclusion from section 3.3.2. is that the harshest criticisms are directed at its focus on discrete structural items. However, as indicated in 3.3.2.1., this *sequencing* pattern can also encompass vocabulary and even longer stretches of language in context (Harmer, 1996).

2) The insertion of skill work besides linguistic work. This allows for a combination of linguistic and skill focus in the same activity or related group of activities, as depicted in *Presentation type 3* (*explicit (or direct) inductive contextualised presentation*) from section 3.2.2.2.

CLT brought a considerable range of activities framed within aural and written texts (see Sánchez, 1987 for extensive typologies of communicative activities). This contributed to the diversity of linguistic *practice* formats. Nowadays such *practice* is not solely presented in isolated sentence patterns or mechanical drills (see section 3.3.2.3). Besides the existence of meaningful and communicative drills, *practice* is also contextualised within receptive and productive activities. For example, a jigsaw listening or reading[22] can entail receptive work plus *practice* or perfecting of structures and lexis. Other pertinent examples are clozes (which mix reading and form or lexis *practice*) and all those from section 3.2.2.1. (summarising a previously read or listened text, answering questions or finishing aural or written fragments, linking and contrasting events, facts or sentences to extract similarities, differences and consequences, etc.).

3) A higher focus on meaning, if only due to the inclusion of questions which relate to the content of the aural and written texts (especially those concerning students' personal opinion of the topic or follow-up questions). This aspect is derived from the wider activity typology and the amalgamation of skill and linguistic work outlined in 2). The presence of this parameter does not mean that attention to form is eliminated, though.

[22] A jigsaw listening/reading consists of forming groups of students who have to read or listen to different sections of the same story or similar texts. Then each party shares their content with the others so that they can all accomplish a given task (form-filling in, deciding about the specific role of a character or the order of events, etc.). See Harmer (1991, 2001) for examples.

4) A certain degree of variety in the P-P-P and the ensuing lowering of its rigid and repetitive patterns thanks to:

4.1.) The same reasons as those mentioned in 3) and which resulted from factor 2).
4.2.) A somewhat moderate alteration of the order of stages. This is related to the flexibility trait of the P-P-P indirectly hinted at in Read (1985) (section 3.2.1). Nowadays it is not uncommon to find textbook lessons which from time to time offer P2 or P3 at the beginning and either a P1 or a P2 at the end. This feature is especially relevant in intermediate and more advanced levels due to the flexibility found in those levels. Furthermore, elementary textbooks may also include a P2 or even a P3 activity at the onset for diagnostic purposes (see the "length and place in lesson" feature in P2 from Table 4 on page 70).

5) With respect to the readiness-to-learn theory, *recycling* will only be effective in a textbook which reproduces a natural acquisition *sequence*, which applies not only to the P-P-P but also to any other *sequencing* proposal. Finally, *recycling* implies moderation in the underlying behaviouristic learning theory of the P-P-P and a relaxation of its teaching-equals-learning belief (see section 3.3.2.2.). Both points 4.2. and 5 apply to *English File Upper Intermediate* - the instructional material of the quasi-experiment reported in Chapter 6.

This contemporary ELT materials version of the P-P-P somehow soothes certain psychological and linguistic features which are the core of more severe criticisms. Admittedly, its prescriptive nature for learners is not dramatically lessened except for the higher focus on meaning in 3), which could be argued to provide some sort of deviation from accuracy -and thus teacher's control- during the *sequence.* Besides, the acknowledged higher degree of variety given by different activity types and formats of the stages does not exclude the constant repetitive patterns of action. The transitions created by the mixture between skill and linguistic *practice* in the same activity or section, by the modification of the phase order and even by small digressions (linguistic calls of attention, brief review sections, etc.) do not disguise the recurrent nature of this *sequence*. Such uniformity in the lesson structure constrains the teachers' potential for action. As stated in section 3.3.2.5., students may be unaware of this uniformity in the lesson structure; nevertheless, they perceive the sameness of structure in all the units. This most probably exercises a negative influence on their motivation.

The responsibility of FLT researchers is to try to offer alternatives to the P-P-P which eliminate the preceding psycho-pedagogic fault while ensuring the provision of the following essential aspects: a) Efficacy in language learning; b) not overwhelming students with an unbalanced degree of variety in the classroom working organisational procedures; c) conformity with the psycholinguistic and psychological principles illustrated in sections 3.3.2.2. and 3.3.2.3.; and d) reduction of the prescriptive nature of the P-P-P for both teachers' and learners' perspectives (as indicated in section 3.3.2.4.). This is the intention of this thesis and of its quasi-experiment, with which I will endeavour to compare the learning effects of the contemporary ELT materials version of the P-P-P against those of the CPM.

Chapter 4.

Cognitive psychology and activity *sequencing*

As remarked in sections 1.1. and 1.3., a solid examination of activity *sequencing* issues requires taking into account the *sequencing* of the cognitive processes involved in knowledge acquisition. Therefore the purpose of this chapter is to offer an illustrative overview of the cognitive theory that has been adopted as the psychological framework in this thesis. This is Anderson's model of skill learning or ACT (Adaptive Control of Thought) (Anderson, 1982, 1983, 1987, 2005; Anderson & Fincham, 1994). As indicated by Ranta & Lyster (2007), the more recent model is called ACT-R ("R" for rational), although this greatly resembles the ACT version.

Throughout this chapter, the terms "learning" and "acquisition" will be used as synonyms except when referring to Krashen's (1982) opposition of "learning" and "acquisition" as a conscious and an unconscious process respectively. Krashen's meanings will be indicated in the text by highlighting both terms in italics.

This chapter is divided into four main sections. Section 4.1. comprises the rationale for the selection of this specific cognitive model of skill learning. Section 4.2. describes the two types of knowledge on which this model draws (declarative and procedural). A succinct description of the functioning of Anderson's model is provided in section 4.3., which is sub-divided into two sub-sections: 4.3.1., which describes Anderson's main cognitive *sequence* (*DECPRO*) and 4.3.2., which reports the alternative *PRODEC sequence* identified by Johnson (1994, 1996). Finally, section 4.4.

includes the relationship between the cognitive stages described and language teaching *sequences* (sub-section 4.4.1.) together with a discussion of certain cognitive implications affecting activity *sequencing* (sub-section 4.4.2.).

4.1. INTRODUCTION: RATIONALE FOR THE SELECTION OF ANDERSON'S MODEL OF SKILL LEARNING AS THE PSYCHOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK OF THIS THESIS

The last quarter of the twentieth century has witnessed quite a remarkable explosion of several cognitive psychological theories on second language acquisition as recorded by Johnson (1996: 78-79): Bialystock, 1982, 1994; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a, 1983b; Gasser, 1990; Hatch & Hawkins, 1985; McLaughlin, 1987, 1990; Raupach, 1987; Schmidt, 1990. Cognitive approaches view (language) learning as, "an active, constructive and goal-oriented process that is dependent upon the mental activities of the learner" (Shuell, 1986: 415).

As stated above, this chapter concentrates on Anderson's ACT Production System (Anderson, 1982, 1983, 1987, 2005; Anderson & Fincham, 1994). According to DeKeyser (1998), this is the most widely recognised framework of skill acquisition in cognitive psychology. It is premised on the view that foreign language learning is analogous to other types of complex cognitive skill acquisition (such as geometry, mathematics, engineering, etc.), in both the representation of information in memory and the mental processes involved in the achievement of language mastery.

Several reasons account for my selection of Anderson's skill learning model as the psychological framework for this PhD:

1. It draws on the generally accepted distinction in contemporary cognitive psychology between declarative and procedural knowledge as the modes to characterise knowledge 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". As applied to foreign languages, declarative knowledge implies knowledge about the system and procedural knowledge refers to knowledge of how to use that system.

2. The usefulness of Anderson's model in relation to other cognitive accounts is that it provides a helpful framework of learning by explicitly indicating the successive stages towards language expertise. Although it is explained in more detail in section 4.3.1., Anderson (1982, 2005) describes the process of acquisition of cognitive skills as declarative knowledge being transformed into procedural knowledge which is later automatised. This is achieved through three different stages (in this order): Cognitive, associative and autonomous.

3. As DeKeyser (1998) indicates, there exists empirical evidence in relation to the three-stage model of skill acquisition (see Anderson, 1995 and Anderson & Fincham, 1994). Johnson (1996) also quotes O'Malley & Chamot (1990) as providing certain data-based evidence for the declarative/procedural processing as well as the development over time from one to the other.

4. Anderson's model has been applied to SLA by DeKeyser (1997, 1998, 2007b, 2007c); DeKeyser & Sokalski (1996); Johnson (1994, 1996); O'Malley et al. (1987), O'Malley & Chamot (1990), etc. The CEF (2001) also draws on the distinction between declarative knowledge ("savoir") and procedural knowledge ("skills and know-how" or "savoir-faire").

5. As can be seen in section 4.3.2., the single favoured route to mastery highlighted in Anderson's model may be used as the starting point for recognising other learning paths by way of altering the original path. *Acquisition* in Krashen's sense, for instance, implies direct proceduralisation (see the aforementioned section 4.3.2.).

A teaching consequence derived from 5) is the possibility of introducing variety in activity *sequencing* as supported on cognitive grounds. If it is assumed that a) the "declarative-to-procedural" *sequence* underlies the P-P-P and b) psychological learning paths do not always rely on a single compulsory direction (i.e., they show a mixture of directions in differing degrees), it follows that the ordering of the P phases should not strictly be the same all the time either. Finally, a non-cognitive implication from b) is that formal learners' motivation can in principle be enhanced through a sensible implementation of variety in activity *sequencing*. This is the intention of the CPM as explained in Chapter 5.

4.2. DECLARATIVE AND PROCEDURAL KNOWLEDGE

The purpose of this section is to offer an overview of declarative and procedural knowledge in order to better understand how Anderson's model works (section 4.3.).[23]

As stated in section 4.1., declarative knowledge is "knowing what", i.e. knowledge or information about rules, facts and things. In computing terms, it has two components: A *data base* in the form of semantic networks or nodes and a general *program* for applying the data which is composed of "interpretative procedures"/"rules" (as indicated by Johnson, 1996). If declarative knowledge has not been transformed into procedural knowledge, these interpretative procedures are applied to certain parts of these data from the data store so as to achieve a given end. Johnson offers the foreign language learning example associated with the formation of the present perfect in English. The rule about how to form this tense is applied every single time that the learner is expected to construct an instance of this tense. For instance, when the learner needs to create the present perfect of "he works", they will resort to the pertinent metalinguistic information kept in memory about the formation of the third person singular of "have". Then the student will follow "he has" with the past participle of "work" by adding –ed, according to its status as a regular verb.

An important aspect of declarative knowledge is its *economy*, since a fact or a rule is immediately available for any given purpose once it has been stored in the data base. A second and vital advantage is its *generative capacity*. This permits us to draw on a fact or a rule for any operation in which they are required because all operations utilise data from the same data store. Regarding the previous example, a student can form the present perfect for verbs that they have not seen before as long as they have a set of generalised rules on the formation of the present perfect. A third benefit of declarative knowledge is its *low risk* nature as conscious attention is present in every single use of any given rule or fact. As Johnson (1996: 83) states, "consciously known rules are relatively easy to abandon if they should prove faulty; information stored as facts can relatively easily be replaced by modified information". For instance, if a student

[23] The following account of the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge is greatly indebted to Johnson (1996: 82-83), which contains the clearest related description that I have found regarding this issue. Likewise, I will largely draw on Johnson (1994, 1996) and DeKeyser (1998) to describe the relationship between cognitive and teaching sequences in section 4.4.

erroneously employs the present perfect, they can modify this behaviour after being explicitly told about the wrongness of their rule.

However, declarative knowledge which has not been proceduralised shows disadvantages too. The first one is that it is *slow*. In the declarative system, the relevant information to execute an operation is retrieved from long-term memory. It is then carried into the working memory, which holds the rule while the operation is being performed. Returning to the same linguistic example, learners have to remember the targeted rule consciously and go through the stages of such a rule one by one. Furthermore, declarative processing is *heavy on channel capacity*. Interpretative procedures need to keep the declarative information in the working memory and, "this can place a heavy burden on working memory capacity" (Anderson, 1982: 381). Continuing with the preceding linguistic case, devoting conscious attention to the configuration of the present perfect implies that there is less attention available for other things (thoroughly attending to message content, for example).

Procedural knowledge is "knowing how" and it refers to knowledge about how to perform various mental procedures, activities or behaviours, e.g., "our ability to understand language or to apply our knowledge of rules to solve a problem" (O'Malley et al., 1987: 294). It is represented in memory as "productions" (Anderson, 1982) or "procedures for action" (Johnson, 1996). Following the computer simile, the production system consists of, "specific programs which incorporate required data within them" (Johnson, 1996: 83). As a result, the specific forms or actions are readily available. Returning to the previous example, one of such programs informs the students that the present perfect of "he works" is "he has worked".

The procedural path is *fast* and *light on channel capacity* because having the knowledge implanted in programs for action reduces the load on working memory. The reason for this is that the, "long-term information need no longer be held in working memory" (Anderson, 1982: 383). Consequently, little space in working memory is occupied while performing the operation. Nevertheless, the procedural processing also has disadvantages. It *lacks generative capacity* because data stored in one production system or procedure for action will not necessarily be available for other productions or programs. The procedural processing is also *uneconomical* since, "the same data may need to be retained in many programs" (Johnson, 1996: 84). As demonstrated by the same author, the declarative rule about the construction of the present perfect is stored only once, whereas each specific present perfect instance is stored as a separate item of

information (“he has eaten”, “he has loved”, “he has worked”, etc.). Besides, procedural knowledge is *high risk*. Anderson (1982) compares the different degree of risk between declarative and procedural knowledge as follows: “If a new piece of knowledge proves to be faulty, it can be tagged as such and so disregarded. It is much more difficult to correct a faulty procedure” (p. 380). Johnson (1996) offers the related example of a violin player who learns to play a note erroneously or a language learner who acquires a wrong rule for tense formation. These two behaviours are extremely difficult to rectify.

Both declarative and procedural knowledge are important for overall language mastery. The learner needs a solid generative and declarative base which allows them to go beyond the data already met. In this way, and following the preceding example, the learner can form the present perfect of verbs unseen before. Likewise, the learner needs to have readily available forms so that their attention can be applied to higher-level skills instead of the manipulation of forms. This will prevent communication from being slow.

In accordance with their respective advantages and disadvantages, declarative and procedural knowledge are necessary for different kinds of language activities. Drawing from Bialystock (1982), Johnson (1994, 1996) argues that spontaneous oral conversation requires procedural knowledge due to the need for instant access to knowledge. In contrast, such speed of production is not so frequently demanded in many writing activities. In this case it seems to be more beneficial to have a declarative data base of rules to refer to and to utilise. Evidently, this kind of writing does not contemplate on-line chatting, which is more similar to spontaneous oral conversation than to time-allotted, planned writing.

As a final point, I think it is necessary to discuss the issue of the frequent equivalence in the SLA literature between declarative and procedural knowledge with explicit and implicit knowledge respectively. R. Ellis (2005) is one of the authors located within this tendency. In order to differentiate between explicit and implicit knowledge, this researcher resorts to the presence and absence of consciousness, controlled and automatic processing:

> *Implicit knowledge* is *procedural*, is held *unconsciously* and can only be verbalized if it is made explicit. It is accessed rapidly and easily and thus is available for use in rapid, fluent communication […]. *Explicit knowledge* is the *declarative* and often anomalous knowledge of the phonological, lexical, grammatical, pragmatic and socio-critical features of an L2 together with the metalanguage for labelling this knowledge (Ellis, 2004). It is held *consciously*, is learnable and verbalizable and is typically accessed through controlled processing when learners experience some kind of linguistic difficulty in the use of the L2.
>
> (Ellis, R., 2005: 214. Authoress' highlighting)

There are two reasons why I rely on Anderson's distinction and do not consider R. Ellis' previous equation. The first is based on the types of learning of structures/forms whereas the other draws on the relationship between automatisation and awareness. Regarding the former, N. C. Ellis (1994b) establishes that the knowledge of structures can be attained in three different ways. These are implicit learning on the one hand and explicit learning with two variations on the other, which consist of selective learning on the learners' part and rule instruction. The latter two correspond to inductive and deductive modes of learning respectively, as can be inferred from the following quotation:

> Implicit learning is acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operations. Explicit learning is a more conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structure. Knowledge attainment can thus take place implicitly (a nonconscious and automatic abstraction of the structural nature of the material arrived at from experience of instances), explicitly through selective learning (the learner searching for information and building then testing hypotheses), or, […] explicitly via given rules (assimilation of a rule following explicit instruction).
>
> (Ellis, N. C., 1994b: 1)

If knowledge of structures is assumed to be knowledge *about* the language, it follows from N. C. Ellis' reference that we can acquire declarative knowledge without being aware of this process. This clashes with the conscious nature and controlled processing ascribed to declarative/explicit knowledge by R. Ellis. In other words, one thing is the category of knowledge (declarative) and another very different thing is the two main types of learning through which such knowledge can be acquired (explicitly and implicitly).

Contrary to implicit knowledge, automatised knowledge does not always necessarily entail an absence of awareness. As DeKeyser (2007c) shrewdly claims,

"even at the endpoint of the acquisition process, highly automatized knowledge may remain largely accessible to awareness, while some implicit knowledge may be used only very hesitantly, haltingly, or haphazardly" (p. 288). The first case applies to those learners who have achieved an (almost) error-free fluency but are still conscious of the rules (similar to language teachers or linguists). In the second situation, knowledge is implicit but not automatic as is reflected in a slow performance with a high amount of errors. This occurs because the process of implicit learning is not definitively fulfilled and, "the pattern may be merely probabilistic, so the learner feels unsure, hesitates, and often gets it wrong" (DeKeyser, 2007b: 4).

From DeKeyser (2007b, 2007c) it can thus be concluded that the category of knowledge does not preclude a single related mode of retrieval. Automatised knowledge (which is the final stage of the cognitive *sequence* of knowledge acquisition) can be accessed in two different ways: With awareness and without awareness, which are respectively linked to explicit and implicit knowledge by R. Ellis.

Thus the identification of declarative and procedural knowledge with explicit and implicit knowledge respectively is neutralised by the differentiation between a) declarative knowledge and its two main types of learning, and b) automatised knowledge and its modes of retrieval.

After the previous description of the two types of knowledge represented in memory and their differentiation concerning explicit and implicit knowledge, let us turn our attention to the functioning of Anderson's model of skill learning.

4.3. ANDERSON'S MODEL IN ACTION

4.3.1. *DECPRO* [24]

Anderson's stance concerning the progression of skill acquisition is summarised in the following quotation from his 1982 article: "When a person initially learns about a skill, he or she learns only facts about the skill and does not directly acquire productions" (p. 374). Transferred into the field of foreign language learning, we first learn about the language system and then apply this knowledge to a given task or

[24] The following report is largely based on Anderson (2005) and Ranta & Lyster (2007). For a more detailed description, the reader is referred to Anderson (1982).

behaviour (writing an email, listening to the radio, speaking to friends, etc.). As will be seen below, this is of course not the only way in which we can learn a language.

Following Fitts & Posner (1967), Anderson (2005) describes the process of skill learning on the basis of three learning stages: Cognitive, associative and autonomous. In the *cognitive* stage, learners develop a declarative encoding, i.e. they learn rules and items of the factual information that are relevant to the skill. Learners acquire this declarative knowledge via instruction, observing an expert or by themselves. This stage implies conscious attention on the learners' part and is characterised by a slow speed and a high rate of errors. R. Ellis (1994) exemplifies this phase with the case of a student who may be aware that "drowned" is the past of "drown" but who is unable to accurately produce it in speech.

Concerning the *associative* stage, two main things can occur according to Anderson (2005: 282): "Errors in the initial understanding are gradually detected and eliminated" and "the connections among the various elements required for successful performance are strengthened". This means that the declarative encodings are organised in more efficient production sets through a pair of processes (Ellis, R., 1994): "Composition" (collapsing a sequence of productions into a single production) and "proceduralisation" (applying a general rule to a specific instance). R. Ellis (1994) also sets the example of a student who has separately learnt "drowned" and "saved" and realises that they can be more economically represented as an individual production set which reads as, "If the goal is to generate a past tense verb, then add –ed to the verb".

Through *practice* in the *associative* stage, declarative knowledge is transformed in a correct procedure for performing the skill. However, performance is still slower and more imperfect than that from the autonomous stage. Besides, the fact that declarative knowledge is converted into procedural knowledge does not mean that declarative encodings are always lost. Anderson (2005) provides the same example included by DeKeyser (2007b) to illustrate a possible relationship between automaticity and awareness (section 4.2.). It refers to a person who can speak a foreign language fluently and still remember the underlying rules of the system.

According to DeKeyser (1998), the essential aspect in the conversion of declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge is that proceduralisation is reached by engaging in procedures whilst relying on temporary declarative crutches. As explained above, the latter are held in working memory and have previously been searched for in long-term memory. In this way,

> Repeated behaviours of this kind allow the restructuring (cf. Cheng, 1985, McLaughlin 1990) of declarative knowledge in ways that make it easier to proceduralize and allow the combination of co-occurring elements into larger chunks that reduce the working memory load.
>
> (DeKeyser, 1998: 49)

Finally, procedural knowledge is automatised ("automised" in Johnson's 1994 and 1996 terminology) in the *autonomous* stage by way of extensive *practice* and feedback. The outcome of this stage is automatic and error-free performance. As can be seen, this cognitive *sequence* in which knowledge is primarily attained in a declarative form and that the resulting declarative knowledge is later proceduralised and automatised somehow supports the notion that comprehension should precede *production*.

Johnson (1994: 121-122) provides the following example of a production which shows the previously described *sequence:*

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 putting general rules like P1 and P2 into operation. They relate them to knowledge held in the declarative memory data base (cognitive phase) and they gradually proceduralise the knowledge (associative stage) until it is transformed into a form like P3, which is used with speed (autonomous stage).

Following Johnson (1996: 95), the aforementioned "declarative to procedural" *sequence* will be labelled as *DECPRO* from now onwards.[25] In my terms, *DEC* means the complete acquisition of declarative knowledge; *PRO* entails the full

[25] Whether authored by Anderson or others, all *DECPRO* accounts framed within ACT and which are associated to language learning seem to be based on the cognitive development of structures or forms. Although O' Malley et al. (1987) represent vocabulary as declarative knowledge alone, I think there is not a clash in considering lexicon as a linguistic element that can be acquired through a *DECPRO* sequence, as it is actually shown in sections 6.2.6.6.1.1.2. and 6.2.6.6.1.3. This section also includes the cognitive characterisation of activities which practise reading and listening skills (P2). Since no related reference was found in any of the works consulted, such activities were finally related to a *pro* stage. The small letters indicate an on-going development of such skills. Their complete proceduralisation and automatisation are claimed to be reached in advanced stages of learning, following abundant practice in supplementary written and aural input-based tasks.

proceduralisation of declarative knowledge and later automatisation of the resulting procedural knowledge. It should be taken into account that *DEC* and *PRO* do not refer to declarative and procedural knowledge as types of knowledge but to their underlying acquisition processes. As previously mentioned, proceduralising knowledge does not always entail losing the declarative representation.

Section 6.2.6.6.1.1. (which illustrates an original unit from the quasi-experimental textbook at both pedagogic and psychological levels) includes intermediate cognitive stages instead of solely relying on a *DEC* and a *PRO* phases. The first is *dec*, i.e., the incipient but incomplete acquisition of declarative knowledge. The second and third are *DEC* and *pro*, which appear together many times (*DECpro)*. As explained in the aforementioned section, certain activities do not permit the automatisation of procedural knowledge completely (*PRO*) but the start of proceduralisation (*pro*) of the previously acquired declarative knowledge (*DEC*). The completion of *pro* is *PRO*: The full proceduralisation and later automatisation of the resulting procedural knowledge. Table 9 offers a legend of the cognitive labels used in sections 5.2., 6.2.6.6.1.1.2., 6.2.6.6.1.3.

Table 9. Full and intermediate cognitive phases distinguished in a *DECPRO sequence* according to the authoress

Abbreviation	Meaning
dec	Declarative knowledge which starts to be developed and/or is developing.
DEC	Full acquisition of declarative knowledge.
pro	Starting and/or development of the transformation of declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge.
DECpro	Full acquisition of declarative knowledge and starting and/or development of the transformation of declarative knowledge into procedural knowledge.
PRO	Complete proceduralisation of declarative knowledge and later automatisation of the resulting procedural knowledge.
DECPRO	Full acquisition of declarative knowledge followed by its full proceduralisation and automatisation.

4.3.2. *PRODEC*

Following the ACT model, we firstly develop declarative knowledge which is automatised over time. In this way, *DECPRO* does not contemplate the direct acquisition of procedural encodings without a prior declarative representation (Anderson, 1982). According to Johnson (1996), it seems that in Anderson's theory

DECPRO is pertinent for all types of learning (linguistic and non-linguistic, first and second languages) and to all learners. However, Johnson also states that, "in the mastery of skills in general, we may directly proceduralise knowledge, without going through the declarative" (p. 97). As seen in section 3.3.2.2., this view is equally shared by Sánchez (1993). Likewise, Anderson & Fincham (1994: 1323) also admit that not all knowledge is or has to be initially declarative:

> It is too strong to argue that procedural knowledge can never be acquired without a declarative representation or that the declarative representation always has to be in the form of an example that is used in an analogy process.

It follows that the consideration of *DECPRO* as the single *sequence* of mastery for skills in general and for L1 and L2 in particular emerges as a too rigid path. Thus we have to acknowledge the existence of a different path of skill attainment, which consists of the direct creation of productions or procedures for action. Following Johnson (1994, 1996), this corresponds to Krashen's *acquisition* and is referred to as *PRO*. Accordingly, *DECPRO* is related to Krashen's *learning*, i.e. a conscious process in which learners attend to forms, infer rules and are aware of the whole process. It is extremely important to remark that *PRO* in Krashen's *acquisition* is *not* the same as *PRO* following *DEC* in *DECPRO,* since both refer to two different processes.

Prototypical linguistic examples framed within *PRO* are child L1 acquisition and immigrants who do not attend formal language lessons and have urgent communicative needs. These two situations relate to the "naturalistic" category of acquisition dealt with in section 3.1. Both children and immigrants of whatever age do not go through an initial conscious declarativisation process (triggered by teacher's explanation, for instance) and then achieve automatisation through extensive *practice*. The case of immigrants is especially illustrative of the difference between *DECPRO* and *PRO* in adults and young adults. Since this type of population has to quickly develop procedures ready to use, they immediately proceed to practise language instead of learning about it as a formal system - recall the fast and light-on-channel-capacity advantages of procedural knowledge in section 4.2. Consequently, they tend to free the channel capacity from linguistic matters in order to focus on the content of the message as much as possible. In other words, those learners in non-formal contexts are more likely to draw on language chunks rooted in meaning rather than in language structures (O'Malley et al., 1987).

As explained in section 4.2., the direct formation of proceduralised productions is highly risky. Following Johnson (1996: 99), "Acquired encodings, which come into the system in an already proceduralised form, quickly become highly automized and impermeable to change". Apparently effective communication may be prompted by the rapid development of readily available productions. However, this efficacy may be counterproductive in the long term as the interlanguage becomes less apt to restructuring changes (Skehan, 1998). Furthermore, if the wrong productions are automatised, there emerges the danger of fossilisation of the interlanguage. This is related to the examples introduced in section 4.2. to illustrate this same problem. These concerned the automatisation of a wrong note by a musician and of an incorrect formation a tense by a learner, both of which demand strong remedial action.

The excessively risky nature of *PRO* accounts for the importance granted in Anderson's model of skill acquisition to the initial creation of declarative knowledge, which is supported in various works of his. Anderson (1982) states that, "ACT should not be expected to encode its knowledge into procedures until it has seen examples of how the knowledge is to be used" (p. 380). Furthermore, Anderson & Fincham (1994: 1323) claim that early declarative representation, "is a major avenue for the acquisition of procedural knowledge". This role of declarative knowledge - being a solid base out of which procedural knowledge is developed - applies to the *DECPRO sequence*. Johnson (1996) reports the findings of several studies which indicate an advantage of initial declarative knowledge in skill attainment, as opposed to those cases where productions are encoded straightforwardly. Such is the importance of *DEC* in *DECPRO* that Johnson (1994, 1996) highlights the need to maintain declarative knowledge to prevent its disappearance after proceduralisation. In pedagogic terms, this means that the teacher should periodically revisit the rules formerly presented and practised; in other words, they should ensure recycling. For that purpose Johnson (1994, 1996) suggests consciousness-raising techniques.

Given the significance of *DEC* and the drawback of the risky nature of *PRO* alone, the expected remedial teaching action in a formal learning context is to ensure that *DEC* follows *PRO (PRODEC).* Although Johnson (1996) admits that this can occur naturally, he argues for the need of explicit didactic strategies that can facilitate the appearance of declarative processing. Thus according to Johnson (1996), *PRODEC* is the only valid alternative to *DECPRO* in a formal learning setting, but not just *PRO*. In relation to this same issue, both Muranoi's (2000) and Pica's (2000) reviews of empirical studies on

meaning and form focused instruction conclude that the most helpful teaching strategy for learners consists of an appropriate combination of these two types of instruction.

The identification of *PRODEC* permits the establishment of a divergent role for the abbreviations *dec, DEC, pro* and *PRO* from Table 9, which can be seen in Table 10 below. The cognitive phases from these two tables will be drawn on in the cognitive analysis of the *sequence* proposals (Chapter 5).

Table 10. Full and intermediate cognitive phases distinguished in a *PRODEC sequence* according to the authoress

Abbreviation	Meaning
pro	Direct starting and/or development of proceduralisation of knowledge without prior *DEC.*
PRO	a) If preceded by *pro*: Complete proceduralisation and later automatisation of knowledge. b) If not preceded by *pro:* Direct creation and automatisation of procedural knowledge.
dec	Declarative knowledge which starts to be developed and/or is developing.
DEC	Full acquisition of declarative knowledge.
PRODEC	Direct automatisation followed by the attainment of declarative knowledge

It should be taken into account that the cognitive stages outlined in Tables 9 and 10 correspond to a formal learning context. Therefore, *PRO* in Table 10 is not associated with Krashen's *acquisition.* Two different functions are fulfilled by *PRO* depending on whether it is actually preceded by *pro* or not. This *pro* applies to those cases where learners first engage in language *practice* which is controlled in some way due to the presence of a focus on form besides a focus on meaning. Later creative *production* with a definite focus on meaning leads to the ensuing complete proceduralisation and automatisation (function a) of *PRO*). However, learners can directly start with free *production* in the teaching *sequence*, which accounts for function b) of *PRO*.

The detection of *PRODEC* also allows for recognising another role of *DEC* different from the starting point for proceduralisation in *DECPRO*. As indicated by Johnson (1996), declarative knowledge can also act as a database of knowledge, which is useful for language in general and for certain specific tasks such as writing. Although this new role can be appreciated in either *sequence*, this author admits that it is perhaps

best placed after proceduralisation has occurred, "when complexities may be presented to the learner without obstructing the proceduralization process" (Johnson, 1996: 104). Of course this occurs in *PRODEC*. In the case of *DECPRO* it is necessary to add *DEC* behind *PRO,* which results in a new *sequence*: *DECPRODEC*. The aforementioned "complexities" can be best offered to the learners in actual language use as framed within "consciousness-raising" and "language awareness" activities. These can consist of either discussion of forms/structures within texts or productive exercises aimed at creating samples of the targeted structures. As can be seen, the "noticing the gap", "hypothesis (re)formulation and testing)", "metalinguistic" and "syntactic processing" roles of output from section 3.3.1.2. are notably relevant here. By performing such activities students subsequently develop related declarative knowledge. See Johnson (1996) for related examples.

Despite the acknowledgement of *DECPRODEC*, and following Johnson's stance in both his 1994 article and 1996 book, *DECPRO* and *PRODEC* will be referred to as the main cognitive paths in this thesis.

Once both mental *sequences* have been identified, several crucial points need to be borne in mind concerning skill acquisition.

1) Firstly, we should not only admit flexibility in Anderson's original model by recognising an inverse option to *DECPRO.* We should also take into account the fact that the learner may not exclusively follow one or another *sequence* but that they may actually merge them both (Johnson, 1996). As the same author reveals, learners may form rules after *practice* or may follow the opposite direction on other occasions. The former is inherently related to the different output roles indicated in section 3.3.1.2., in particular those mentioned above.

2) Secondly, especially in a long-term, on-going process such as language learning, *DEC* and *PRO* should not be regarded as self-enclosed blocks with perfectly delineated borders. It is more sensible to consider them occurring in a cumulative process within a continuum. Furthermore, constant *recycling* is a vital teaching strategy to ensure definitive and correct implantation of both declarative and procedural knowledge.

Points 1 and 2 are dealt with in section 4.4.

4.4. COGNITIVE *SEQUENCING* APPLIED TO LANGUAGE TEACHING *SEQUENCING*

The purpose of this section is twofold. In 4.4.1., there is an overview of the authors' accounts in which activity *sequencing* issues are approached in accordance with psychological *sequencing* considerations (Johnson, 1994, 1996 and DeKeyser, 1998). Lastly, in 4.4.2., some important cognitive implications from DeKeyser's (1998) account that are relevant to activity *sequencing* are discussed.

4.4.1. *DECPRO*, *PRODEC* and the P-P-P

Johnson (1994, 1996) overtly relates the P-P-P to *DECPRO*: The first P (*presentation*/P1) is mostly devoted to declarativisation while proceduralisation corresponds to the other two (*practice*/P2 and *production*/P3). From reading the entirety of Johnson's contribution it seems that he also ascribes automatisation to *production*/P3.

With regard to pedagogic strategies, Johnson (1996) offers several examples of *presentation* techniques: Explanation, key sentences, dialogues, passage and teacher action. In relation to *practice* and *production*, Johnson does not elaborate a typology of didactic procedures. Instead, he dwells on the characteristics that the activities from these phases must have in order to attain proceduralisation and automatisation. The definition of such characteristics springs from one of the two causes advocated by Johnson to explain why students perform badly. The specific cause at stake is a lack of procedural knowledge and/or of a processing ability, which according to Johnson evolves into Corder's "mistake". The other reason is the absence of an appropriate declarative knowledge or even faulty declarative knowledge, which results in what Corder calls an "error" - hence the need to create and maintain *DEC* (see section 4.3.2.).

With respect to the first reason, it is essential to introduce Johnson's (1996: 122) distinction between type of knowledge - "what learners know" - and processing ability - "in what circumstances learners can use what they know". As an example, Johnson suggests that the requirements of a blank-filling text with present perfect instances are completely different from those regarding the use of this tense over a bad intercontinental telephone line. The second case obviously embodies much more difficult circumstances for a correct performance. These "less-than-ideal conditions" are what Johnson refers to as "real operating conditions" - or ROCs in short. As examples

of "less-than-ideal conditions", Johnson (1996) indicates increasing the speed of the response and stressing affective conditions (anxiety and attitude towards the interactant, etc.).

ROCs should be manipulated by teachers so that they are not the same on all occasions; furthermore, they should exert different variable demands on the learners' ability to process. What actually derives from the application of ROCs in language teaching is a repertoire of graded activities. In fact, task *grading* or determination of complexity (see section 2.3.3.) is based on the management of such conditions (Johnson, 1996).

Two objectives are pursued by the application of ROCs in activities and tasks. The first one comprises the gradual avoidance of processing mistakes in contexts which resemble authentic communicative situations. In relation to this, Johnson also supports the need of explicit feedback to facilitate the eradication of mistakes. The second one consists of gradually decreasing the attention to form through the simulation of pressures exercised in real-life interaction. Johnson (1994) argues that such simulated conditions should be present even in the most form-focused *practice* exercises. By reducing attention to form, *practice* and *production* activities conform to what Johnson labels as the "form-defocus" technique, which constitutes a strategy to facilitate automatisation. He illustrates this procedure by means of a drill for young learners (Johnson, 1994). In the original exercise, students are asked to look at a picture with numbered objects for one minute. Then they drill the following structure: "Number 1. Is this a(n) x? No, it isn't". In order to deflect attention to form, Johnson suggests converting this drill into a memory game. In the new version, students also have one minute to look at the drawing but this time they should memorise the objects and respond to the questions with the picture down.

In summary, through the performance of activities shaped by ROCs, learners are expected to achieve automatisation. This is described by Johnson (1996: 137) as, "the ability to get "the how" (forms) right when full attention is focused on "the what" (messages)". In the previous drill, the memorisation element deviates attention from focus on form and onto the task of remembering concepts and numbers. In this way it facilitates the progress towards automatisation. This illustrates why Johnson (1994, 1996) gives an extraordinary importance to the application of ROCs in language teaching activities.

Besides *DECPRO*, Johnson (1994, 1996) also relates *acquisition* approaches to activity *sequencing*. Following Krashen (1977), the essential requirement for the development of acquisition is that the learners take part in communicative situations. Evidently, if following this methodology, the classroom should resemble real-life as much as possible to trigger such conditions. The debate on the degree to which the teachers can actually transform or approximate the classroom to real life falls outside the limits of this thesis.

According to Johnson (1994, 1996), most *naturalistic acquisition* approaches are pedagogically based on the final P of the P-P-P. *Presentation* is claimed to naturally occur in the input provided whereas *practice* is silently performed during the process of "incubation". This term, which was first applied to foreign language learning by Harold Palmer (1877-1949), refers to the period prior to active *production* in which the learners develop a certain proficiency at a passive level (Kelly, 1969). At a cognitive level, *acquisition* approaches are indices of *PRO,* since language is first internalised in a procedural form (see section 4.3.2.).

Johnson (1996) discusses the *acquisition* approaches by specifically referring to Prabhu's Bangalore Project. As explained in section 3.1., this was the precursor to TBLT. It drew on a "procedural syllabus" in Prabhu's terms, which means that a linguistic syllabus was banned - there was no conscious attention to structures, rules were not studied and error correction was largely ignored. Because of the dangers of a single *PRO* stage (see section 4.3.2.), Johnson suggests that most *naturalistic* or *acquisition* approaches may be enhanced by explicitly adding a declarative encoding after *PRO*. Following Johnson's (1996) previous association between P1-P2-P3 and *DECPRO*, the comparison of *PRODEC* against *DECPRO* reveals that *PRO* is linked to P2-P3 and *DEC* to P1. From Table 10 it could be argued that *PRO* most properly corresponds to P3 and that P2 - if present - is linked to *pro*. The reader is referred to section 5.2. for a) the differentiation between *pro* and *PRO* in the pedagogic phases of *sequencing* proposals (such as Littlewood, 1981 and Scrivener, 1994, 1996); and b) the illustration of a full *PRODEC* in activity *sequencing* proposals such as Brumfit's "post-communicative teaching model" (1979), Johnson's "deep end strategy" (1982) and Di Pietro's "strategic interaction" (1987).

DeKeyser's account (1998) draws on a *DECPRO sequence*. Although he does not explicitly connect it with the P-P-P, in his 2007b chapter he relates *practice* with

proceduralisation and *production* with automatisation. DeKeyser (1998) summarises his proposed correlation between cognitive stages and activities as follows:

> Explicit teaching of grammar, followed by FonF[26] activities to develop declarative knowledge, and then gradually less focused communicative exercises to foster proceduralisation and automatisation.
>
> (DeKeyser, 1998: 58)

This quotation precedes a section called "Implications for the sequencing of learning activities".[27] According to DeKeyser (1998), teaching should start with *explicit instruction of formal knowledge rules* to attain full understanding. This corresponds to *presentation* of the knowledge or *P1*, through which the process of declarativisation is launched. The full development of declarative knowledge should be achieved with *form-focused exercises* following the initial P1. Examples of such exercises are fill-in-the-blanks, sentence-combining, some forms of translation, etc., which certainly belong to a type of very controlled *practice* (*P2*). This is what mostly distinguishes DeKeyser's approach from Johnson's, since the latter does not ascribe the formation of declarative knowledge to the performance of such types of exercise. Two aims are pursued in this controlled *practice*. The first does not consist of checking the adequate reproduction of forms but it is aimed at developing, testing and refining declarative knowledge in long-term memory instead. The second ensures the correct anchoring of declarative knowledge in the students' consciousness so that it can be kept in the working memory while performing later communicative drills. Accordingly, the learner should have enough time to grasp declarative knowledge before undertaking such drills, which means that they should not be pushed to premature *production*. Similar to Johnson (1996), an inadequately developed declarative knowledge is one of the two reasons advocated by DeKeyser to explain a faulty performance (see below for the second reason).

Once declarative knowledge has been fully acquired, learners should go through extensive *practice* of the forms in *communicative drills*. These also constitute an instance of P2 but present a lesser degree of control. Furthermore, contrary to the

[26] FonF: Focus on form.

[27] As recently stated, since DeKeyser's (1998) account does not explicitly link the cognitive stages to pedagogic stages, the correspondence of the former with the latter in this report are my own contribution.

previous exercises, these drills are aimed at communicating something in the language. A related example by DeKeyser (1998) is telling people what you did this weekend through the use of the simple tense. Communicative drills should allow learners to engage in the target behaviour or procedures while relying on temporary declarative crutches in the working memory (see section 4.3.1.). In this way, the process of proceduralisation can be started, i.e. the establishment in long-term memory of form-meaning relationships as revealed by the new structure. Finally, the learner should undergo *extensive practice* of the procedures in open-ended or communicative activities (*production*) so as to attain *automatisation*. The lack of *practice* and *production* opportunities to proceduralise and automatise the previously acquired declarative knowledge is the second cause put forward by DeKeyser in relation to students' errors in their output.

In all, the key consideration in this *sequence* is that:

> one should not jump back and forth between exclusively formS-focused activities such as mechanical drills and exclusively meaning-focused activities such as free conversation without error correction, and then think that one has covered the spectrum of practice activities.
>
> (DeKeyser, 1998: 59)[28]

There are three important implications of DeKeyser's (1998) account. Firstly, we could refine Johnson's (1996) general equation of P1-P2-P3 to *DECPRO* in section 4.4.1. as follows: P1 (*dec*); P2 (*DECpro*); P3 (*PRO*). P2 involves both the form-focused *practice* required for fixing declarative knowledge in the students' consciousness (*DEC*) and the combination between form-focused and meaning-focused *practice* which is necessary to start the proceduralisation of such declarative knowledge (*pro*). The reader is addressed to Chapter 5 for an illustration of this cognitive path and pedagogic *sequence* in Nunan's (1985, 1988b, 1989, 2004) and Estaire & Zanón's (1990)

[28] Two considerations must be made regarding DeKeyser's account (1998). Firstly, as can be seen in this report, DeKeyser subsumes both P2 and P3 as "practice" activities. This also seems to be the case regarding his studies on input and output-based practice (see section 4.4.2.). In this thesis I have acknowledged those cases where a blurred frontier can be appreciated between one and another (see section 3.2.1.). However, I have also tried to distinguish both concepts and terms whenever possible for the sake of characterising the actual different types of activities pertaining to P2 and P3. When authors such as DeKeyser do not differentiate between the two but just use one term, I have followed their labelling. Secondly, since DeKeyser (1998) focuses on grammar forms, I consider that declarative knowledge concerning vocabulary can be directly acquired in long-term memory without any further need of additional form-focused practice as it is the case in grammar. This is the procedure followed in sections 5.2., 6.2.6.6.1.1.2. and 6.2.6.6.1.3.

sequencing proposals. Secondly, DeKeyser's cognitive and teaching *sequence* complies with the "delayed effect of instruction" (see section 3.3.2.3.). This principle is taken into account owing to two explicit factors: The need for enough time to develop declarative knowledge and the "extensive" feature in the *practice* leading towards proceduralisation and automatisation. Thirdly, contrary to what is commonly done, DeKeyser claims that a reading text with instances of the new forms should not be placed at the beginning in the *presentation* phase but at the end. Accordingly, it can then become comprehensible input and thus contribute to additional automatisation. However, as DeKeyser (1998) explains, this is not comprehensible input in Krashen's sense because it is fully understood thanks to the prior explanation. This leaves the learner with adequate mental resources to notice and process the form-meaning associations. The essential aspect here is that, without mentioning it, DeKeyser is supporting the need for the introduction of a very desirable quality in teaching: *Recycling* (see section 3.3.2.3).

Indeed, in both Johnson's and DeKeyser's described *sequencing*, it is essential to guarantee the permanent recycling of the elements that have been previously introduced and practised (*DECPRO*) or explicitly presented after initial *practice* (*PRODEC*). Recycling in similar and divergent functions and contexts with ROCs that are progressively graded in complexity is an indispensable requirement to ensure: a) Strengthening of declarative knowledge in long-term memory; b) firm automatisation of the resulting procedural knowledge. These two conditions are triggered by receptive and productive activities in point a), which corresponds to the "hypothesis (re)formulation and testing" role of output highlighted in section 3.3.1.2., and by productive activities in point b). Their ultimate consequence is c) automatic retrieval in different activity structure, timing and skill-focus conditions, either at a comprehension or productive level.

4.4.2. Other important aspects in the application of cognitive issues to language teaching *sequencing*

The purpose of this sub-section is to outline certain implications for language teaching *sequences* which mostly derive from DeKeyser's previous account. Such implications especially concern the *practice* stage.

In the first place, DeKeyser asserts that not all types of drills can legitimately be used in the FL classroom. As explained and exemplified in section 3.2.2.1., DeKeyser (1998, 2007b) establishes the following typology of drills: Mechanical, meaningful and

communicative. He explicitly dismisses mechanical drills as an unsuitable *practice* technique aimed at beginning the proceduralisation of the previously acquired declarative knowledge. Instead, DeKeyser opts for communicative drills owing to the reasons advocated in section 4.4.1. Mechanical drills are radically opposed to communicative drills because they are solely form-focused and thus they do not allow the establishment of any form-meaning relationships in long-term memory. Accordingly, they can be (easily) solved by simple formal analogy between items, such as in the example provided in section 3.2.2.1.: There is no need to attend to meaning in the transformation from "I have a book" to "She has a book", "They have a book", etc.

In spite of DeKeyser's criticisms, it could be argued that it is precisely the focus on forms of mechanical drills which permits learners to correctly grasp the formal/structural side of rules. Spratt's stance (1985b) seems to support this view. She distinguishes between mechanical and meaningful drills and suggests the following order of drills in the *practice* stage:

> - One or two drills to allow practice with the form of the language;
> - One or two controlled communicative activities to consolidate the meaning of the new language and provide opportunities for real language use.

In the second place, a not yet mentioned insight of Anderson's model of skill learning is that *practice* is skill-specific. As stated by DeKeyser (2007c: 215), "practice in writing computer programs improves performance in writing them, not necessarily in reading them and viceversa". Within the realm of SLA, this phenomenon has been explored in the two studies mentioned in section 3.3.2.1.: DeKeyser (1997) and DeKeyser & Sokalski (1996).

These works examined the effect on learning of input and output-based *practice*. DeKeyser & Sokalski (1996) studied the acquisition of direct objects and conditionals in Spanish. Their findings revealed that learners who had received comprehension *practice* did better on comprehension-based exercises (selecting one out of two options) and that those who had followed productive *practice* did better on productive-based exercises (fill-in-the-blanks, answering questions and sentence translation). The significant difference in both types of results tended to dissipate when measured in delayed tests. In this situation the patterns of the outcomes also seemed to depend on the morphosyntactic nature of the structure in question. The authors concluded that their findings went along the lines of the predictions of skill acquisition theory, i.e. input

practice is better for comprehension skills while output *practice* is better for *production* skills. However, far more *practice* than what the subjects actually received is necessary to precisely, "assess the effect of long-term systematic comprehension and production practice on the automatisation processes" (DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996: 105). In DeKeyser (1997), the previous predictions were also shown regarding the acquisition of four grammar rules and 32 vocabulary items. DeKeyser (2007c: 215) summarises such findings as follows: "They [the participants of the study] had to have practiced the specific rule in the specific skill in order to do well in terms of both speed and accuracy".

The pedagogic implications from the previous results concerning skill-specificity are obvious: In relation to structures, learners should not only be exposed to output *practice* but also to input *practice* in order to attain mastery at both communication levels.

To my knowledge, DeKeyser & Sokalski (1996) and DeKeyser (1997) constitute the only empirical studies framed within ACT which approach the cognitive development of formal FL learners. No other empirical studies - either quasi-experiments implemented for several weeks or longitudinal works - contemplate this issue. With this respect, DeKeyser (1998: 60) states that,

> It is really surprising that so little research from the point of view of cognitive psychology has been done on issues so essential to language teaching as task sequencing at the level of the teaching unit or at the curricular level.[29]

Although it is not its main goal, it could be argued that this PhD somewhat contributes to fill in the research gap concerning "the level of the teaching unit" by comparing the effects on learning of two teaching *sequences* (the P-P-P and the CPM), which are analysed from both pedagogic and psychological perspectives.

[29] "Task" here does not exclusively refer to the meaning ascribed to this term in TBLT.

Chapter 5.

A critical review of activity *sequencing* proposals

This chapter includes a review of the most significant activity *sequencing* proposals to date. It is divided into four sections. Section 5.1. encompasses an introduction with certain preliminary notes on the methodological analysis of this review. Section 5.2. includes an examination of the proposals, which are classified in several sub-sections. Sub-section 5.2.1. presents early CLT-led models (Brumfit, 1979; Byrne, 1986; Johnson, 1982, and Littlewood, 1981). Language awareness-based models are described in sub-section 5.2.2. These include the O-H-E (Lewis, 1993, 1996) and the III (McCarthy & Carter, 1995) models. Section 5.2.3. reports proposals framed within TBLT: Estaire & Zanón (1990) and the specific approach followed by J. Willis (1993, 1996a, 1996b). There is a final fourth block composed of individual proposals: Nunan's "psycholinguistic processing approach" based *sequence* (1985, 1988b, 1989, 2004); Di Pietro's "strategic interaction" (1987); Scrivener's ARC (1994, 1996) and Harmer's ESA (1996, 2001). These four proposals are respectively explained in sub-sections 5.2.4., 5.2.5., 5.2.6. and 5.2.7. Sánchez's (1993, 2001) "Communicative Processes-based model of activity sequencing" - or CPM - is the last contribution to be examined, which appears in sub-section 5.2.8. Finally, section 5.3. presents some concluding remarks of the previous analysis.

5.1. INTRODUCTION

As indicated in section 2.4.2., earlier reviews of *sequencing* proposals can be found in Harmer (1996, 2001); Nunan (1989, 2004); Sánchez (1993, 2001) and Woodward (2001). A key difference of the present review with respect to the previous reviews is that it systematically examines the stages of the models from a pedagogic perspective and from the viewpoint of a cognitive model of knowledge acquisition. This double-edged analytical procedure is not followed in any of the preceding accounts with the exclusion of Nunan's (1989, 2004) pioneering considerations of psycholinguistic issues (which were reconsidered by Sánchez, 1993, 2001).

The pedagogic categorisation for each of the steps of every proposal is based on the P stages from the P-P-P. The cognitive analysis uses two different types of factors. The first consists of the phases highlighted in Johnson's (1996) application of Anderson's ACT model (1982, 1983, 1987, 2005) to language learning. Such phases are accompanied by the intermediate phases identified by the authoress herself where appropriate. The second factor is related to DeKeyser's (1998) suggested implications of Anderson's ACT model (1982, 1983, 1987, 2005) on activity *sequencing* (see section 4.4.1.). Depending on the actual psychological learning path uncovered in each proposal, the reader is referred to Tables 9 (section 4.3.1.) and 10 (section 4.3.2.) for a description of the pertinent full and intermediate cognitive phases.

An explicit isolation of the phases is undertaken for the purposes of the exposition. Nevertheless, it is admitted that precise divisions between the cognitive phases do not exist and that such phases most probably appear within a continuum. The need for extensive recycling is also acknowledged (see section 4.4.1.). Moreover, it is recognised that the cognitive classification reported here is tentative in nature and that future empirical works should uncover the specific cognitive development triggered in all these proposals.

As regards Table 14, the proposals are included in a chronological order and are structured in six columns: "Name of the activity sequencing proposal"; "stage"; "P phase"; "cognitive phase"; "global pedagogic sequence" and "global cognitive sequence". The third and fourth columns refer to each of the stages on their own, whereas the fifth and sixth columns refer to the overall underlying *sequence* in each model.

Finally, as explained sections 2.4.2. and 2.4.3., before this thesis none of the proposals reviewed here has been empirically tested within an extended instructional period. The only proposal that had been implemented in an empirical study by Muranoi (2000) was Di Pietro's "strategic interaction". However, this study cannot be considered as a proper study of activity *sequencing*. Its main goal was not to assess the efficacy of this proposed *sequence* against an alternative pattern but to uncover the effectiveness of diverse interactional modifications placed within "scenarios".

5.2. CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF ACTIVITY *SEQUENCING* PROPOSALS

5.2.1. Early CLT proposals

5.2.1.1. Brumfit (1979), Johnson (1982) and Byrne (1986)

These three authors are included together because they propose the same type of activity *sequencing*. As was explained in section 2.4.2., Brumfit (1979) characterises what he terms as the "traditional pattern of procedure" (i.e. the P-P-P) and a widespread "post-communicative teaching model" as follows:

Table 11. Brumfit's (1979) characterisation of traditional and post-communicative activity *sequencing* patterns

Traditional	Post-Communicative
Stage 1: Present	Stage 1: Communicate as far as possible with all available resources
Stage 2: Drill	Stage 2: Present language items to be necessary for effective communication
Stage 3: Practise in context	Stage 3: Drill if necessary

This new model is located within Howatt's (1984) "strong" version of CLT as it constitutes an example of the early CLT acute reactions to the form-focused approach present in the Structural Methods and partially included in the Notio-Functional syllabus. Indeed, it thus represents one of the most radical departures from the traditional P-P-P. The order of the stages in the CLT pattern reveals a P3-P1-P2 *sequence* in correspondence with stages 1, 2 and 3 respectively: P3, P1 and P2 *sequence* in correspondence with stages 1, 2 and 3 respectively. In cognitive terms, *PRO*

underlies stage 1. Stage 2 points towards *dec*, which signifies the starting point of the development of declarative knowledge. This process is meant to be completed in the later drills from stage 3 (*DEC*) if they are finally implemented and if they consist of the suitable form-focused *practice* required by DeKeyser (1998) (see section 4.4.1.). Such practice has the aim of developing declarative knowledge in long-term memory. If stage 3 is not used, then the *sequence* only becomes *PROdec.*

Brumfit unequivocally favours the "post-communicative model" on several pedagogic and psychological grounds. Firstly, he argues that if language is being learnt for use, the new language should evidently be learnt by using it. In this way, fluency will be emphasised contrary to the stress on accuracy of the traditional *sequence*. Brumfit (1979: 188) states that, "the learners may be more responsive to fluency", which should enhance their motivation. Even more important is that the premature isolation of language in the traditional pattern prevents us from considering language learning within the, "cognitive and cultural processes in which it is embedded" (Brumfit, 1979: 189). The stress on fluency allows the CLT approach to resemble the learning situation of a student who is in a total immersion situation. According to Brumfit (1979), this unavoidably leads to a reconsideration of the teacher and student roles and to the configuration of a student-centred approach.

Johnson (1982) discusses Brumfit's (1979) "post-communicative model", which he calls a "deep end strategy". This author also favours the new pattern due to several didactic reasons. The first one is rooted in the most significant difference between CLT and the P-P-P: In the first stage of the former, the learner needs to use language which has not been taught yet. In this way,

> the deep end strategy should help to develop in the student a type of confidence essential to learning a foreign language: the confidence to attempt to say something which he knows that he does not really know how to say.
>
> (Johnson, 1982: 196)

Another reason supporting the "deep end strategy" is accounted for by its diagnostic value, which corresponds with the "noticing the gap" role of output (section 3.3.1.2.). By starting with *production* activities, the teacher can identify their students' weak areas and apply remedial action. As acknowledged by Johnson (1982), such

remedial action can hardly be prepared in advance, since the teacher identifies the problematic areas on the spot.

With the passing of years, Johnson (1996) seems to have softened his stance towards the traditional model. Rather than exclusively focusing on an extreme alternative, he seems to be inclined towards the form-defocus procedure explained in section 4.4.1. Besides, in his application of Anderson's ACT model to language teaching, Johnson (1994, 1996) identifies P1 as *DEC* and P2 and P3 as *PRO*, and he also insists on the need for a *DEC* phase whether preceding *PRO* or following it.

Byrne (1986) deals with the two types of *sequencing* distinguished by Brumfit (1979), which he ascribes to "traditional" and "progressive" views of the three stages of learning. Byrne's (1986) stance, however, is more flexible than Brumfit's (1979) and Johnson's (1982). This author considers the possibility of using both *sequences*, whose implementation depends on, "the level of the students, their need and the type of teaching materials used" (Byrne, 1986: 3). Because Byrne (1986) seems to include P1 without any restrictions, the resulting P3-P1-P2 *sequence* reveals a *PRODEC* cognitive progression.

5.2.1.2. Littlewood (1981)

As indicated in section 2.4.2., Littlewood (1981) is the first author whose account explicitly comprises a section on activity *sequencing*. Two main types of activities are distinguished by Littlewood in this section: Pre-communicative and communicative activities. The former category is divided into two groups: Structural exercises (drills, question and answer, etc.) and quasi-communicative exercises (cued dialogues and roleplays, etc.). Contrary to structural *practice*, which solely focuses on form, quasi-communicative activities may trigger form and meaning associations. However, both pre-communicative types of activities are aimed at giving the learners "fluent control over linguistic forms". This accounts for their subordinate function of preparing the learner for later communicative work. In communicative activities, learners are actually required to, "activate and integrate his pre-communicative knowledge and skills, in order to use them for the communication of meanings" (Littlewood, 1981: 86). These also include two sub-groups: "Functional communication" activities (processing and exchanging information with various degrees of co-operation) and "social interaction" activities (roleplays and simulations). In the "functional communication" sub-group, the

criterion for success is the effectiveness of the activity performed. In the second type, the performance of the activity has to comply with socially acceptable standards as well.

Littlewood's stance towards *sequencing* permits a higher degree of flexibility than Brumfit's (1979) and Johnson's (1982). He proposes two *sequences*: From pre-communicative to communicative activities and from communicative to pre-communicative activities (hence option A and option B). Option A is similar to the traditional approach but differs on a key point, which consists of the absence of any explicit prior *presentation* of rules (P1). Thus the *sequence* is identified as P2 (pre-communicative activities) followed by P3 (communicative activities). Because of the aforementioned missing P1, the underlying cognitive *sequence* could be regarded as *PRO* without *DEC*. P2 and P3 respectively underlie *pro* and a full *PRO*. Option B embodies a P3-P2 pedagogic progression and a *PRO* cognitive *sequence* also. In this case the cognitive function of the pre-communicative activities is subsumed by the first *PRO*; it could be argued that they perfect the previous automatisation.

Littlewood justifies option B on two grounds. The first is rooted in the supposed fostering of students' motivation because they will see the purposes of the subsequent pre-communicative *practice* more clearly. The second coincides with another reason suggested by Johnson (1982): Initial *production* can adopt a diagnostic purpose.

5.2.2. Language awareness-based proposals

One of the most distinctive traits of CLT is the incorporation of a language awareness approach in teaching. The term "language awareness" has been purposefully chosen against "discovery-learning" (as Harmer (1996) chose to discuss the III and the O-H-E models) or "consciousness-raising". "Language awareness" seems to be a standard name to refer to the inductive techniques through which learners observe, analyse and produce their own descriptions of language patterns. This generalised use of the term "language awareness" is reflected, among others, in the publication of a journal titled as *Language Awareness* and in van Lier's chapter with the same title in *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages* (2001). As indicated by this author, "proponents of language awareness claim that drawing attention to and working with interesting and meaningful manifestations of language enhances motivation and positive attitudes to language and language learning" (van Lier, 2001: 162). The reader is referred to this work for research trends in language

awareness regarding its influence on metacognitive strategies and on language performance.

5.2.2.1. O-H-E (Lewis, 1993, 1996)

As indicated in sections 2.4.2. and 3.3.2. Lewis is one of the strongest detractors of the P-P-P. This author suggests his own alternative: The O-H-E paradigm. It represents *Observation*, *Hypothetize* and *Experiment*. Basically, it comprises observation of language, hypothesis-formulation based on that observation and experimentation to check the correctness of the previous hypotheses. Lewis argues that his O-H-E *paradigm* is applicable in both short-term *sequences* and long-term teaching strategies because it summarises the whole process of language learning.

The first phase, *Observation*, should not be identified with mere exposure but with, "exposure subjected to critical examination" (Lewis, 1996: 15). This involves reading or listening to texts and is targeted at making learners aware of forms. A precise perception of such forms is basic so that *Observation* can trigger later *Hypothesize* and *Experiment*. As stated in section 3.3.2.1., Lewis claims that the learners' attention should be directed to lexical chunks (words, collocations, institutionalized expressions, sentence frames or heads, etc.). These are essential for effective communication at both receptive and productive levels.

Lewis next describes the *Hypothesize* and *Experiment* phases together because of the frequent overlaps between one and the other. He discusses two levels of analysis: Linguistic and methodological. Regarding the former, the teacher's task is to help students

> make explicit their perceptions of similarity and difference, and then, by selecting the further input materials or providing the learners with good questions about the input, helps them to correct, clarify and deepen those perceptions.
>
> (Lewis, 1996: 15)

The methodology used for that purpose involves activities which entail sorting, matching, identifying and describing, such as language puzzles, collocation dominoes, dictations with specially selected utterances to be copied, etc.

As can be seen, *Observe* involves an inductive P1. The types of activities mentioned in *Hypothesize* and *Experiment* lead to the consideration of these stages as inductive P1 and controlled P2. Some exercises require the passive manipulation of the

lexical items (collocation dominoes, language puzzles) and others entail controlled P2 because they allow for certain restricted use of the lexical items ("describing", "dictations"). Due to the explicit absence of a *practice* and a *production* stages, from a cognitive perspective O-H-E only involves *DEC*. Despite Lewis' overt rejection of a neat separation between the phases, for the purposes of analysis, declarative knowledge could be considered to start developing in *Observation* (*dec*). Its full acquisition is achieved in the *Hypothesize* and *Experimentation* phases (*DEC*).

5.2.2.2. III (McCarthy & Carter, 1995)

III or the "three Is model" stands for (I)llustration, (I)nteraction, (I)nduction. Drawing on the Nottingham Corpus, Carter & McCarthy (1995) and McCarthy & Carter (1995) show how patterns of informal spoken English grammar are systematic and pervasive enough to be described on their own as separate from accounts of formal or written English. These authors do not support the P-P-P as a tool to teach informal spoken English grammar. They believe that it should be complemented or replaced with inductive methodologies that foster consciousness-raising and language awareness. Accordingly, McCarthy & Carter (1995) propose the III *sequence*, which is similar to O-H-E (Lewis, 1993, 1996). It should be recalled from section 3.2.2.2. that the *presentation* phase in the P-P-P does not exclusively follow a deductive methodology but can also offer an *explicit inductive contextualised* format (or *type 3* as it is labelled in that section).

III is defined as follows:

> 'Illustration' here means wherever possible examining real data which is presented in terms of choices of forms relative to context and use. 'Interaction' means that learners are introduced to discourse sensitive activities which focus on interpersonal uses of language and the negotiation of meanings, and which are designed to raise conscious awareness of these interactive properties through observation and class discussion. 'Induction' takes the consciousness-raising a stage further by encouraging learners to draw conclusions about the interpersonal functions of different lexico-grammatical options, and to develop a capacity for noticing such features as they move through the different stages and cycles of language learning.
>
> (McCarthy & Carter, 1995: 217)

The following example is set by McCarthy & Carter (1995) to illustrate how the III model can be used to introduce oral ellipsis to upper-intermediate learners. "Illustration" takes place through the reading of a transcript of a conversation. Students

have to mark the places where they feel that more words would be necessary if the text was a sample of formal written English. Next, in the *Interaction* phase, the learners decide the correct answer(s) out of a series of options to respond to a specific oral question. Afterwards the class discusses which of a series of guidelines would the most useful for them to decide their previous answers. These guidelines deal with the patterns of omission of subjects and auxiliary verbs in informal English speaking. Finally, the *Induction* stage consists of another transcription of a spoken English conversation which is exploited in four steps: Firstly, they underline the places where they think that there is a missing word; secondly, they decide what the characters would have said in a written context; thirdly, they are asked what their impression is about the formality of the fragment. On the basis of all the previous work with the preceding texts and the current text, they are encouraged to *induce* or devise their own rules.

The three Is involve an inductive type of P1. In the case of *Interaction*, this P1 is explicitly accompanied by P3 due to the "class discussion" feature (see quotation above). No specific reference is made as to whether this discussion should be in the learners' mother tongue or in English. Most importantly, the objective of this discussion is not to gain fluency with focused-on-meaning activities but to reflect on the language system by means of the "metalinguistic" role of output (section 3.3.1.2.). Accordingly, there is no instance of *pro* or *PRO* in the cognitive *sequence*. Initial *dec* applies to the three I stages, through which learners progressively become aware, notice and discover the rules by themselves. The full implantation of declarative knowledge in the students' long-term memory would not be attained because *Induction* in III is not followed by the specific (extensive) form-focused *practice* advocated by DeKeyser (1998) for that purpose (see section 4.4.1.). Therefore it could be argued that the whole III *sequence* only involves *dec,* contrary to Lewis' O-H-E, since vocabulary in the latter is directly acquired without the need of controlled practice (see footnote 28 in section 4.4.1., page 124).[30]

[30] For an account of a framework which suggests certain principles for the selection of texts and related activity design to teach spoken English grammar, see Timmis (2005).

5.2.3. TBLT-based proposals

TBLT developed in the mid 1980s as an approach to language teaching located within the "strong" version of CLT, as stated in section 3.1. Both the "weak" and "strong" versions emphasise a focus on meaning and on language use but they approach it in different ways. According to D. Willis & J. Willis (2001), in the "weak" CLT version, which is the most frequent, tasks are seen as the logical concluding phase after the *presentation* and *practice* of language forms. Therefore, they are subordinate to previous linguistic work. In TBLT, however, tasks become the basic unit of teaching and language forms adopt a secondary role. This means that tasks aim to develop language acquisition through language use and creation and exchange of meanings. This requires learners to participate in realistic and meaningful communicative interactions as if they were performing real-life tasks such as applying for university, cooking a Spanish tortilla, giving directions, writing an email or a letter to the editor. Accordingly, Skehan (1998: 95) defines a task as, "an activity in which meaning is primary, there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities, task completion has some priority and the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome". However, I consider that from a pedagogic perspective, it is more precise to define a task as: "An action/activity or a series of actions/activities, organised and *sequenced* so as to achieve a specific goal".

Following the last definition, the operationalisation of *sequencing* in this thesis achieves great importance through TBLT because an incorrect position of the activities within a task results in a failed accomplishment of such a task. Taking one of the preceding real-life tasks examples, in order to cook a Spanish tortilla you must first of all peel potatoes, slice them, put them in a saucepan with hot olive oil, beat some eggs, wait for the potatoes to be fried and then add the beaten eggs to the saucepan, mix everything together, wait for the lower side of this mass to thicken and reverse the saucepan so that the original upper part also thickens. If one reverses the basic order, i.e. first, put the beaten eggs in the saucepan and the potatoes later, the result would be scrambled eggs with (fried) potatoes. It would *not* be a Spanish tortilla. Thus the activities within a task have to be ordered in a logical way so that their performance in sequence leads to the correct fulfilment of the task. In reality, all TBLT proposals directed at classroom teaching do not approach the *sequence* of the steps/actions or in-between activities within the actual task. They focus on the *sequencing* of those linguistic activities as placed before or following the task performance. This is the case

of the models reviewed in this sub-section (Estaire & Zanón, 1990 and Willis, J., 1993, 1996a, 1996b). Such a situation could most probably be due to the types of activities actually used as tasks. These do not really differ from CLT free communicative activities, with the possible exception of "projects". Examples of tasks proposed for the FLT classroom are problem-solving, games, matching, story-telling, etc. See J. Willis (1996b) and D. Willis & J. Willis (2007) for a compilation.

As indicated by Richards & Rodgers (2001) and D. Willis & J. Willis (2001), the scholarly support for TBLT derives from SLA studies in which engaging in interaction seems to be crucial for the fostering of the cognitive processes involved in language learning. Swain's "Comprehensible Output Hypothesis" (1985, 1995, 2005) and research on the effect of the negotiation of meaning and recasts (Doughty & Varela, 1998; Long, 1983; Long & Robinson, 1998; Mackey, 2007; Mackey & Abbuhl, 2005; Pica, 1994; Pica & Doughty, 1985, etc.) show that interaction leads learners to modify, restructure and develop their interlanguage system, "even without the intervention of instruction" (Willis, D. & Willis, J., 2001: 175). The focus on meaning provided by TBLT promotes the development of fluency triggered by the use of various communicative strategies to successfully perform the interaction. Such communicative strategies could consist of the learners' modification or rephrasing of their input when their interlocutor shows lack of understanding, asking for clarification when it is them who do not understand, etc.

Without neglecting the primary importance of meaning, TBLT advocators have recently underlined the need for an explicit focus on form in TBLT (Long & Robinson, 1998; Skehan, 1996a, 1996b, 1998, 2001, 2003). As will be seen in the account of J. Willis (1993, 1996a, 1996b) (see below), this has a straightforward influence on the analysis of task implementation. Skehan (1996a, 1996b, 1998, 2001, 2003) warns about the disadvantages of an exclusive focus on meaning on the following grounds: The non-development of the language system may derive in the fossilisation of the wrongly constructed forms. According to the cognitive terms used in this thesis, this situation corresponds to *PRO*. As stated in section 4.4.1., *PRO* as the sole cognitive phase in learning development applies to Prabhu's procedural syllabus, which explicitly rejected any focus on form. Another main type of syllabus using tasks as the syllabus unit is the process syllabus (Breen, 1987b; Candlin, 1987). It has also been criticised by Long & Crookes (1992) for similar reasons to Prabhu's implementation of the procedural

syllabus in the Bangalore Project. Most precisely, the process syllabus only contemplates a focus on form if demanded by the learners themselves.

Other researchers have highlighted further criticisms of TBLT. Among others, such criticisms revolve around the following points:

a) The difficulty of implementing TBLT in low levels (Harmer, 1996, 2001; Macaro, 2003).
b) The role of the mother tongue (Macaro, 2003).
c) The need to devise parameters to *sequence* tasks as syllabus units and to *sequence* activities within tasks (Harmer, 2001; Sánchez, 2004a, 2004b).
d) The responsibility assigned to the learners in the organisation of tasks and the activities within them as derived from the learner-centred focus of TBLT. This prohibits any planning in advance, which is necessary to prevent any serious hindrance to the linguistic potential of the learner and to foster their capacity for being involved in the learning process (Sánchez, 2004b).
e) Given that real-life communication is not concerned with language learning, there emerges the issue of how to adapt real-life tasks to pedagogic tasks so that the latter maintain the same (or as similar as possible) types of objective and procedures to achieve a given goal (Howatt, 2004; Sánchez, 2004b).

A thorough description of the criticisms above is beyond the limits of this thesis. The reader is referred to Harmer (1996, 2001) and Macaro (2003) for summarised accounts, and to Sánchez (2004b) and Sheen (1994) for more detailed reports.

The *sequencing* of tasks regarded as whole units or the "teaching what" (see section 2.3.2.) has attracted remarkable attention from researchers. Almost all the relevant studies have focused on one element that affects *sequencing* to a large extent: *Grading*. Indeed, the consideration of tasks as the unit of the syllabus magnifies the difficulty of *grading* triggered by the development of CLT, as was indicated in section 2.3.3. In task *grading*, linguistic complexity becomes a single factor to determine the overall complexity since it is also necessary to take into account cognitive demands and the skill conditions required in the performance. The majority of the works within this group consist of theoretical proposals which compile lists of factors involved in the establishment of complexity (see, *inter alia,* Brindley, 1987; Candlin, 1987; Ellis, R., 2003; Johnson, 1996; Nunan, 1989 and Skehan, 1996a, 1996b, 1998). Far fewer data-

based studies on grading have been performed, such as Brown et al. (1984) (see Skehan, 1998).

Most empirical research on TBLT has focused on the effects on learner's performance (output, input) and attention as revealed by the manipulation of certain variables of tasks, such as task types (interactive vs. monologic; concrete vs. abstract); tasks characteristics (cognitive complexity, topic familiarity, relationships between participants) and conditions of task implementation (planning time, repetition). As Skehan (2003) reports, this research has been performed under laboratory conditions or in intact classes whose intervention did not cover more than two weeks and less than an hour per week (for comprehensive reviews of this SLA-driven research, see Ellis, R., 2003; Skehan, 1998, 2003).

Two of the strongest advocators of TBLT, D. Willis & J. Willis (2001), acknowledge that TBLT formal research in classrooms is virtually non existent. In this respect, it is interesting to note Skehan's (2003) justification for this lack of research. According to him, task-led classroom elements of prime interest to teachers such as teaching *sequences*, project work, syllabus design and coursebooks, "are less likely to be derived from research (which is not to say that relevant research is not desirable) but grounded in classroom experience" (p. 9).

As regards the particular purposes of this thesis, it should be noted that no empirical studies have assessed the effect on FL learning derived from teaching *sequences* which a) are placed within an extended period of instruction; b) are based on tasks as the only lesson material; c) provide certain focus on form as is the current tendency in TBLT. Such research would involve the determination in advance not only of the *sequence* of tasks considered as whole units, but also the *sequence* concerning the in-between activities of tasks. Undoubtedly, this would demand considerable time-consuming preparation on the part of the researchers.

As indicated above, two proposals framed within TBLT are examined in this section. The first is Estaire & Zanón's (1990), in which TBLT is applied to the teaching of Spanish as a Foreign Language. The second is the most well-known model of task implementation, which was devised by J. Willis (1993, 1996a, 1996b). Her contribution is the most comprehensive TBLT framework applied to classroom teaching. It is explicitly (although not exclusively) directed to FLT teachers, especially her 1993 article and her 1996b book. This is the reason why other TBLT accounts such as R. Ellis (2003) and Skehan (1996a, 1996b, 1998) are not discussed here. In any event, the

contributions of these latter authors, as well as Nunan's (2004) description of an information gap task, largely resemble J. Willis' in the *sequence* of steps outlined (see sections 2.3.3. and 2.4.2.).

5.2.3.1. Estaire & Zanón (1990)

This study is located within "enseñanza del lenguaje mediante tareas" (ELMT), i.e. TBLT applied to SFL. Estaire & Zanón (1990) distinguish between "tareas finales" or "tareas de comunicación" (final tasks or communicative tasks) and "tareas posibilitadoras" (enabling tasks, which are also called minor tasks). The former are those which are completely focused on meaning, such as information gap and discussion of decision taking. The latter, "son las formadas por las actividades centradas en el desarrollo del dominio de los contenidos necesarios para la realización de las tareas de comunicación"[31] (Estaire & Zanón, 1990: 63). "Presentation", "exploration", "explanation and discussion" and "practice and correction" are the examples of "tareas posibilitadoras" provided by these authors. They represent the exercises and activities that develop the necessary linguistic competence for the performance of the final task.

According to Estaire & Zanón (1990), a key advantage of a curriculum based on ELTM is that it allows for the negotiation between teacher and students regarding four main levels: a) The decisions taken with respect to the language course; b) the topics and contents to be developed and the procedures for that purpose; c) the selection of the final tasks and their enabling in-between tasks; d) the solution to the final tasks in the classroom.

In order to propose a *sequence* of the different tasks that a teaching unit is composed of, Estaire & Zanón (1990) draw on the insights of cognitive psychology. More precisely, they refer to O'Malley et al. (1987), whose account, as indicated in section 4.1., is based on Anderson's ACT model (1982, 1983, 1987, 2005). The following description faithfully adheres to Estaire & Zanón's.

"Cognitive elaboration" represents the first phase distinguished in this *sequence*. This is the name given by these two authors to Anderson's "cognitive" stage. This phase is characterised by a conscious intensive attention to FL samples and a deliberate effort to construct the most salient meanings within the context of the activity. The types of activities include, "presentation/contextualization/controlled practice tasks" (Estaire &

[31] "… are those tasks constituted by activities centred on the development of mastery of the necessary contents which are necessary for the performance of communicative tasks" (authoress' translation).

Zanón, 1990: 64), which are exemplified as contextual *presentation*, exercises, revision, etc. The second phase is the "associative" stage. It encompasses teacher and student controlled *practice*, which is illustrated as narrations, transference of information, guided dialogue, etc. As stated by Estaire & Zanón (1990), this type of *practice* permits the application of the initial control of the content developed in the previous phase to other tasks which are, "not too ambitious in terms of communication" (p. 64). Accordingly, this phase triggers two phenomena: a) The start of the development of procedural knowledge and b) the regeneration of declarative knowledge. The latter is reflected in the contrast and elaboration of new hypotheses about the form-and-function relationships of the language samples involved. This is achieved through the output *practice* involved in this phase, whose performance still reflects a considerable amount of formal errors.

The third phase or "autonomous" stage aims at developing the instrumental aspects of language as much as possible, or, in other words, automatising procedural knowledge. For that purpose, communicative tasks are employed. The last phase, which is named "re-elaboration", is not mentioned in O'Malley & et al. (1987). It refers to the need for establishing new networks of meaning, "en ambas dimensiones formal/instrumental del lenguaje empleado"[32] (Estaire & Zanón, 1990: 64).

As can be seen, Estaire & Zanón's proposal unequivocally corresponds to a *DECPRO sequence* at a cognitive level. From a pedagogic viewpoint, and following D. Willis & J. Willis (2001), the previous *sequence* coincides with the generalised "weak" version of CLT concerning the position and objective of tasks ("final or communicative tasks"). These are located at the end of the *sequence* for free *production* purposes after the previous *presentation* and controlled form-focused activities. Thus Estaire and Zanón's proposal corresponds to the P-P-P. In fact, their contribution greatly resembles Read's (1985) account of the P-P-P, Sánchez's (2004a) account of the "school model" and the teaching functions revealed by Rosenshine & Stevens (1986) (see sections 3.2.1., 3.2.2.1., and 3.3.1.1. respectively). P1 and very controlled P2 appear in the "cognitive elaboration" phase, which accounts for the start of the development of declarative knowledge (*dec*). Further controlled and less controlled P2 applies in the "associative" stage, where the previous declarative knowledge is fully acquired and proceduralisation begins (*DECpro*). Complete proceduralisation and automatisation are

[32] "in both formal and instrumental dimensions of the language used" (authoress' translation).

attained in the "autonomous" phase (*PRO*), which corresponds to a P3 in didactic terms. "Re-elaboration" involves a repetition of the previous, complete cognitive and didactic process.

5.2.3.2. J. Willis' TBLT model (1993, 1996a, 1996b)

J. Willis (1996b: 155) offers the following comprehensive summary of her model:

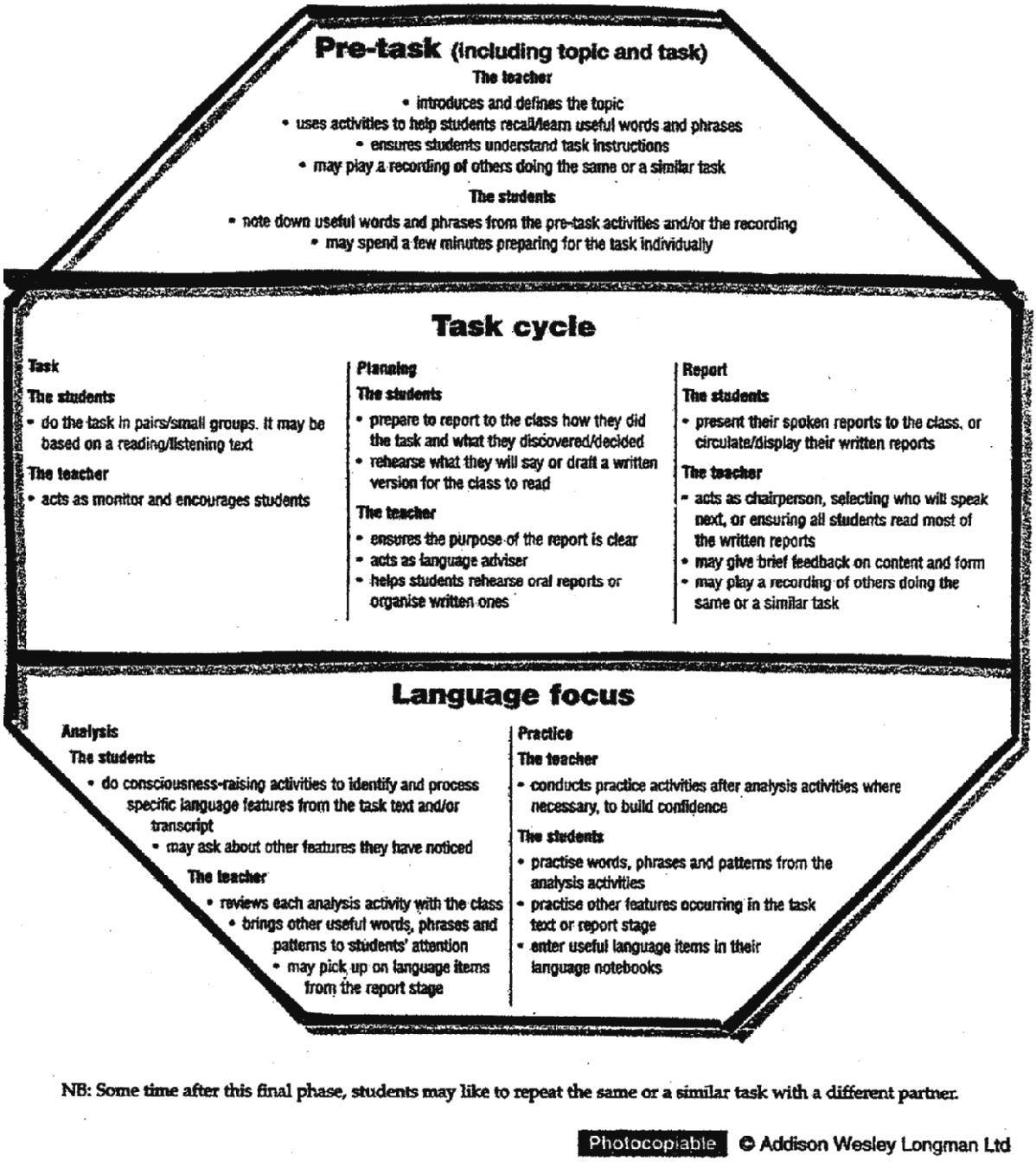


Figure 1. Overview of J. Willis' TBLT framework (1996b: 155)

J. Willis (1993, 1996a, 1996b) claims that the model above fulfils four key conditions for language learning. These are exposure, opportunities for real use of language, motivation to process and use the language and focus on language. In her proposal, exposure to rich and comprehensible input derives from the teacher talk, especially in the *pre-task* and in the *language analysis* phases. The opportunities for the real use of language are provided in the whole of the *task cycle* phase. These chances allow learners to, "experiment and test hypotheses, to mean what they say and express what they mean in a variety of circumstances" (Willis, J., 1996a: 59). The *task* sub-phase is mostly concerned with fluency. J. Willis (1996a) explicitly advises teachers to reduce their concerns about grammatical accuracy to a large extent. The penalisation of errors would hinder learners' necessary achievement of confidence. Accuracy starts to be considered in the "planning" and "report" sub-phases. Students need to focus on both form and meaning consciously so that they can express their ideas correctly, either orally or in writing. Motivation is actually present in all the stages. As J. Willis (1996a: 60) states,

> Students generally want to achieve the task outcomes which involve them in playing a game or solving a problem. Success in completing the task is in itself a motivation factor. Then, because they have done or will do the task themselves, they are keen to listen to a related recording and read the transcript or a related text.

Finally, the *language focus* phase allows for an explicit attention to form in order to prevent fossilisation. The remedial action centres on the linguistic forms needed for the actual performance of the task, similar to Di Pietro's (1987) *debriefing* phase (see section 5.2.5.).

As can be seen, the particular approach to fluency and accuracy in the whole model entails a certain departure from the traditional teachers' and learners' roles in the P-P-P, whose second stage is mostly concerned with accuracy and the third with fluency (see section 3.2.1.).

J. Willis (1996a) explicitly claims that TBLT cannot be identified with a P-P-P upside down because, "it is more flexible and offers students far richer learning opportunities". Nevertheless, it is not difficult to correlate the phases in her TBLT proposal to P stages. The *pre-task* stage can be associated to P1, which introduces both the topic and, "a few vital topic-based words and phrases that students are unlikely to know" (Willis, J., 1996b: 43). Thus the language emphasis is on lexis. In accordance

with the variety of guidelines indicated in Figure 1 and on pages 43-46 of J. Willis' 1996 book, the *pre-task* phase may adopt various formats:

a) *Explicit inductive presentation* of vocabulary in form-focused exercises. This *presentation* derives from the activities designed to assist students in learning and recalling words and phrases. Most of the examples proposed by J. Willis (1996b) are language awareness activities such as classifying words and phrases, odd one out, matching phrases to pictures, memory challenge, etc.
b) Two options are offered in order for students to understand the instructions and what the task involves. The first consists of an *explicit inductive contextualised aural presentation* of the overall task performance (see section 3.2.2.2.). This corresponds to listening to the recording and to demonstration of the task or part of it by a teacher and a good student. The listening may include native speakers' or previous students' performances of the same task. The second option constitutes another instance of an *explicit inductive contextualised presentation* but in the written mode this time, and it is provided by the students' reading of instructions. In both types of presentation in b), the label "explicit" is accounted for by the conscious attention of learners to the extracts from both content and lexical points of view. Conscious attention to lexis results from the previous *explicit inductive presentation* of vocabulary in a). Furthermore, the two types of *presentation* in b) involve receptive *practice* (P2). This double role of text-based activities is present in the original and adapted lessons from the quasi-experimental textbook (see sections 6.2.6.6.1.1. and 6.2.6.6.1.3.).

J. Willis (1996b) also assigns a few minutes to individual preparation of certain tasks after the preceding sub-steps. In this preparation, "the learners will be able to plan how to tackle the task, think of what to say and how to say it" (Willis, J., 1996b: 46). Seeing that some sort of individual productive use of language may be observed, this feature somehow affects the global consideration of this *pre-task* phase as P1. Nevertheless, J. Willis (1996b) acknowledges that this preparation can be omitted when students are to practise language as they would perform in real life. Accordingly, since it does not necessarily happen in every *sequence* and given the overall aim of this phase - introduction to the topic and task - the entire *pre-task* stage is regarded as P1.

The whole of the *task cycle* corresponds to P3. Speaking *production* is triggered by the performance of the task, the discussion involved in the *planning* stage and the actual *report* stage when the latter is to be orally delivered. Written *production* also

emerges in the actual drafting of the report whether the latter is orally delivered or not. If present, the post-task listening suggested in the third "Teacher" bullet point of the *report* stage has a double role: Additional aural *practice* (P2) and a second *explicit inductive contextualised presentation* (P1). This P1 acts as review for the learners. The *report* stage also provides receptive *practice* (P2) for those learners who listen to the performer students and read the written reports of their classmates.

Lastly, the *language focus* implies inductive P1 in *analysis* through language awareness activities and controlled P2 in *practice*, such as repetition, listen and complete, gapped examples, progressive deletion, dictionary exercises, computer games, etc.

On the whole, J. Willis' model corresponds to P1 (*pre-task*); P3 (*task cycle*); P1-P2 (*language focus*) in accordance with the main objectives of the three phases: Introduction to the topic and task in *pre-task*; task performance in the *task cycle*; focus on form in *language focus*.

From a cognitive perspective, J. Willis' TBLT model can be identified as a *DECPRODEC sequence* in correspondence with the previously outlined P phases. The *pre-task* phase accounts for the development of declarative knowledge of the language relevant to the task (*DEC*). This is provided by teacher's highlighting of words and phrases through the implementation of language awareness exercises. It could be argued that the listening to the recording and to the demonstration as well as the reading of instructions also indirectly contribute to this phase. The listening and reading *practice* itself involves some sort of *pro* (on-going development of the listening and reading skill competence) as indicated in section 4.3.1. The whole of the *task cycle* corresponds to *PRO*, i.e. the direct formation of procedural knowledge concerning grammar forms and the proceduralisation of the previously declarativised vocabulary from the *pre-task* phase. For grammar, *analysis* embraces *dec*, which is fully developed (*DEC*) through the controlled form-focused *practice*. As to vocabulary, the *language focus* phase reviews and recycles the previously acquired declarative knowledge in the *pre-task*; in this way, such declarative knowledge is strengthened in long-term memory.

Finally, it should be taken into account that this *DECPRODEC sequence* does not correspond to the same *sequence* identified in section 4.3.2., since the first *DEC* here is related to the full acquisition of vocabulary and the second *DEC* concerns the acquisition of declarative knowledge regarding grammar together with a revision of the

previously attained lexical items in the *pre-task*. Thus this second *DEC* has nothing to do with the second role of declarative knowledge as a database of knowledge (see section 4.3.2.).

5.2.4. Nunan's "psycholinguistic processing approach" based *sequence* (1985, 1988b, 1989, 2004)

In several of his works, Nunan (1985, 1988b, 1989, 2004) introduces a ten-step *sequence* of activities. With minor alterations, the model remains the same. In his 1985 and 1988b works this author refers to this *sequence* as, "activity type categorised according to learner responses", whilst in 1989 and 2004 Nunan classifies this sequence within a "psycholinguistic processing approach". Accordingly, and as indicated in sections 2.3.3. and 2.4.3., Nunan becomes the first author who takes into account cognitive issues in activity *sequencing*.

Table 12 shows Nunan's 2004 version:

Table 12. Nunan's ten-step *sequence* ("a psycholinguistic processing approach") (2004)

Phases	Steps within the phase
A. Processing (comprehension)	1. Read or study a text – no other response required. 2. Read or listen to a text and give a non-verbal, physical response (e.g. learner raises hand every time key words are heard). 3. Read or listen to a text and give a non-physical, non-verbal response (e.g. tick a box or grid each time key words are heard). 4. Read or listen to a text and give a verbal response (repeat or write key words when they are heard).
B. Productive	5. Listen to cue utterances, dialogue fragments and repeat. 6. Listen to a cue and complete a substitution or transformation drill. 7. Listen to a cue (e.g. a question) and give a meaningful response (i.e. one that is true for the learner).
C. Interactive	8. Role play (e.g. having listened to a conversation in which people talk about their family, students, working from role cards, circulate and find other members of their family). 9. Simulation (e.g. having listened to a conversation in which people talk about their family, students, working from role cards, circulate and find other members of their family). 10. Problem solving/information gap (e.g. in an information gap task, students split into three groups; each group listens to an incomplete description of a family; students recombine and have to complete a family tree, identify which picture from a number of alternatives represents the family, etc.).

As can be seen, three main groups of learners' responses are distinguished: processing, productive and interactive. This order of presentation correlates with a gradual increment of the cognitive and performance demands placed on the learner. Similar to Estaire & Zanón (1990), this ten-step *sequence* does not substantially differ from the teaching functions uncovered by Rosenshine & Stevens (1986), from Read's (1985) account of the P-P-P and from the "school-model" described by Sánchez (2004a) (see sections 3.3.1.1., 3.2.1. and 3.2.2.1. respectively). Therefore the processing, productive and interactive phases correspond to P1, P2 and P3 respectively.

In cognitive terms, a *DECPRO sequence* is uncovered from the preceding P-P-P. Nunan's proposal underlies the belief that comprehension goes before *production* and that progressively graded *practice* leads to automatisation, which is reflected in a performance complying with the requirements of a real-life interaction. Initial declarative knowledge begins in the *processing* stage (*dec*). It is completely acquired in the *productive* phase, which also allows for the starting of proceduralisation of the previously acquired declarative knowledge (*DECpro*). Final automatisation is achieved in the *interactive* phase (*PRO*).

5.2.5. Di Pietro's "strategic interaction" (1987)

Di Pietro's "strategic interaction" (1987) can be located within the meaning-based approaches mentioned in section 3.3.2., such as the "strong" version of CLT, TBLT, Lewis' Lexical Approach, Long's Focus on Form, etc.

There are two key pedagogic assumptions in Di Pietro's "strategic interaction": firstly, the fact that language learning should be as meaningful as any other social activity; and secondly, the excitement that derives from the management of the unexpected in situations - or "scenarios" - where there exist different approaches to attain a given goal or solve a dilemma. The strategic value of language precisely derives from the unexpected, as the language becomes a strategy to achieve such extra-linguistic goals.

Di Pietro (1987: vii) describes "scenarios" and "strategic interaction" as follows:

> The term "scenario" will be used to give a label to real-life happenings that entail the unexpected and require the use of language to resolve them. The approach organized around scenarios is called "strategic interaction" (SI), to feature the way it calls upon learners to invoke the target language purposefully and artfully in dealing with others. [33]

Thus "scenarios" become the framework through which learners are encouraged to participate in a realistic interactive type of discourse. As a psychological basis for "strategic interaction", Di Pietro draws on Vygotsky, for whom, "individuals develop thinking processes through dialog with other individuals" (Di Pietro, 1987: 4).

The following example of a "scenario" recorded by Di Pietro illustrates the potential various paths to reach a solution in "scenarios":

> Dining out (role pair: guest/host)
> Role A: You are the guest at a business dinner. Your host represents a firm with which your company is trying to establish a relationship. This firm has a reputation for lavish entertaining. You must decide on a meal from the menu. What price meal will you select?
> Role B: You are entertaining someone at a business dinner. Your boss has told you to cut back somewhat on expenses but not to be obvious about it to your guest. How will you react to your guest's choice of a meal?
>
> (Di Pietro, 1987: 44)

This "scenario" evokes the well-known teaching technique of roleplays. Di Pietro (1987) argues that "scenarios" go beyond roleplays. Contrary to "scenarios", roleplays usually prescribe what students have to do or think and the players frequently know what the others will say and do. Indeed, as can be seen in the preceding example, there is no single manner to resolve the problem described in this "scenario". This variety is the reason advocated by Di Pietro in his passionate support for "scenarios": "Each class meeting becomes a refreshing experience for the teacher as well as for the students. The refreshed teacher is an enthusiastic one, and enthusiasm is infectious within the restricted space of a language classroom" (Di Pietro, 1987: viii). However, Di Pietro also acknowledges that a generalised application of "scenarios" in institutions will not always be possible due to the usual numerous restrictions in their curricula.

As will be seen in section 5.2.8., the diversity of the solutions to real-life situations or "scenarios" is revised and expanded by Sánchez (1993, 2001) to devise his CPM proposal. Both *sequences* coincide in their consideration of communicative processes as

[33] Following Di Pietro's quotation, "strategic interaction" is referred to as SI from now onwards.

their key foundation stone. Therefore, they notably depart from the P-P-P and from its base on the cognitive schemes for the construction of knowledge (acquiring declarative knowledge through explicit instruction and attaining automatic error-free performance through *practice*). Nevertheless, there are important differences between SI and the CPM, which are outlined in section 5.2.8.

Di Pietro (1987: viii) establishes three steps in the implementation of "strategic scenarios": "Rehearsal", "performance" and "debriefing". In *rehearsal*, the students work in groups to discover and analyse possible solutions for the situation underlying the "scenarios". *Performance* is undertaken by individual students. In this phase, such learners are allowed to interrupt their discourse when in trouble and ask for help or counselling from their other classmates. Finally, the *debriefing* phase involves a class discussion of any feature of the "scenario" and the performance of its solution that students wish to consider. Di Pietro (1987: 2) provides a description of the teacher and students' actions in each of these three phases:

> *Phase 1 (Rehearsal):*
> Students form groups and prepare agendas to fulfil the roles assigned to them. Teacher acts as adviser and guide to student groups as needed.
> *Phase 2 (Performance):*
> Students perform their roles with support of their respective groups while teacher and remainder of class look on.
> *Phase 3 (Debriefing):*
> Teacher leads the entire class in a discussion of the students' performance.

According to Di Pietro (1987: 76), the students may adopt three main roles in the *performance* phase: "Scenario performers", "group members" to whom the first learners can resort for help and advice during the performance and the "onlookers", who witness the performance. It seems that Di Pietro assigns two main facets to the following phase: Productive and form-focused. Concerning the former, learners suggest other possible solutions to those of the previous stage. As to the form-focused part, the teacher proposes alternatives to the forms that the students have used to perform the "scenario", giving explanations and setting exercises of different types. Di Pietro (1987) claims that this is the closest phase to traditional activities; however, he also warns that the pedagogic perspective is completely different. The linguistic work from the *debriefing* phase directly derives from the language that learners have attempted to produce in the target language. This author maintains that learners attain competence more effectively through the explanation of grammar topics arisen from their own needs. This stance is

also shared by J. Willis, a TBLT supporter, as seen in section 5.2.3.2. After the *debriefing* phase, Di Pietro advises teachers to take two further measures: To offer some writing exercises that derive from the "scenarios" and to devise an outline for the grammar logs. The latter will be used by the students to keep a record of what they have learnt about the language.

In pedagogic terms, Di Pietro's *strategic interaction* can be identified as a P3-P1-P2 *sequence*. From an overall perspective, there is a considerable emphasis on the initial P3. Such a notable presence of P3 is reflected in the first two phases of the strategic interaction with the discussion implied in devising a solution - which in principle applies to all learners - and the speaking task involved in the performance of that solution - which only applies to those learners acting as scenario performers. The *debriefing* phase entails further P3 on account of the output *practice* provided by the suggestion of other paths to performance. It also involves P1-P2 given the focus form supplied by explanations about the forms unveiled in the previous performance and related practical exercises. From a cognitive viewpoint, "strategic interaction" corresponds to a *PRODEC sequence* without any intermediate phases (similar to Brumfit's "post-communicative model", 1979; Johnson's "deep end strategy", 1982 and Littlewood's communicative-to-pre-communicative activity *sequence*, 1981). *PRO* or the direct formation of procedural forms without a prior *DEC* applies to *rehearsal* and *performance*. The *debriefing* phase also underlies *PRO* due to the aforementioned P3. Declarative knowledge is meant to be developed and acquired in this phase and in the later writing exercises and grammar reports indicated above (*DEC*).

5.2.6. Scrivener's ARC (1994, 1996)

Section 3.3.2. includes abundant references to Scrivener's discontent with the P-P-P. Scrivener (1994, 1996) maintains that the traditional pattern is a prescriptive model for teaching and learning since it offers a single type of lesson. In order to overcome this deficiency, he proposes three elements to categorise all the ways that language can be used in the classroom: ARC (Scrivener, 1994, 1996). ARC represents Authentic (use)-Restricted (use)-Clarification. Scrivener (1994: 15) states that, "By ordering the A-C-R components in different ways we can describe a wide variety of lessons". Hence the *descriptive* quality of the ARC model as opposed to the prescriptive nature of the P-P-P.

A succinct account of the ARC can be found in Scrivener (1994: 15):

> Restricted Use: (The language available for the learners to use or understand is in some way restricted). Authentic Use: (The language available to the students to use or understand is unrestricted). Clarification and Focus: (The part of the lesson where learners focus in on a language item – to see it, think about it and understand it better).[34]

In a synopsis chart, Scrivener (1994, 1996) further explains his model by specifying the emphasis of each phase and by indicating "example activities". *Authentic* focuses on meaning, communication, fluency, real-life and pleasure, whilst *restricted* centres on form, *practice*, accuracy, testing and display. Both *authentic* and *restricted* are illustrated with activities that belong to the four skills. For example, "drills" and "language practice" activities are included within speaking; "copying" and "guided writing" belong to writing; "coursebook texts" and "exercises" are placed in reading and "examples from coursebooks" and "sentences" appear in listening. *Clarification* consists of a continuum of the following teaching actions: "I tell you", "I show you", "I help you find out for yourself", "You find out for yourself".

From the description above it is possible to establish a correspondence between these three phases and the P stages. *Clarification* may be associated with P1. It involves learning about the language through various techniques such as explanation, substitution tables, demonstration, diagrams, etc. Scrivener (1996: 86) explicitly warns that, "Clarification is not simply another name for 'Presentation' because the latter only accounts for "I tell you" or "I show you" ". However, as indicated in section 3.2.2.2., the *presentation* stage of the P-P-P, especially in contemporary ELT material versions, can also adopt inductive formats. *Restricted* use implies language *practice* and is therefore linked to P2 in speaking and writing. *Authentic* activities can involve communicative or creative tasks in which, "students have opportunities to use all the language they know to really communicate or to understand what they are reading and hearing" (Scrivener, 1996: 85). In accordance with my ascription of receptive *practice* activities to P2 (see sections 3.2.2.2. and 4.3.1.), *authentic* use relates not only to P3 (productive activities) but also to P2 (receptive activities) since the examples provided by Scrivener also refer to reading and listening: Novels, conversations, etc.

It seems that apart from receptive skills being included in *authentic*, the difference with the P-P-P is rooted in Scrivener's explicit reference to the possibility of the reordering of the parts to account for different lessons.

[34] Following Scrivener's later work in 1996, which does not add "Focus" after "Clarification", only the latter label will be used in this report.

Scrivener (1996: 87-89) outlines six different types of lessons to illustrate how the A, C and R elements can be combined:

Type 1 lesson

1 The teacher presents information about an item of language.
2 The students then work on oral practice of examples of these items.
3 The students do a written exercise to practice these items.
4 The students are given the opportunity to use these items, along with the other language they know, in communicative activities.

(Scrivener, 1996: 87)

Type 1 lesson displays a CRRA *sequence*, which Scrivener equates with the P-P-P. To be precise, it would correspond to P1-P2-P2-P3. The double R and P2 are triggered by stages 2 and 3. Thus the cognitive *sequence* underlying this first type of lesson is *DECPRO,* similar to an ordinary P-P-P pattern. *Clarification* initiates the development of declarative knowledge (*dec*), which is fully acquired and starts its proceduralisation in *restricted* use (*DECpro*). Finally, automatisation of knowledge is attained in *authentic* use (*PRO*).

Type 2 lesson

1 The teacher selects an activity requiring the use of specific language points. The students do the activity. While they are speaking the teacher listens in discreetly and notes down problems.
2 After they have finished the teacher uses the sentences he/she noted down to focus on and discuss difficulties and teach potentially useful language items that were avoided during the activity.
3 The teacher follows on with a similar activity to the first one. The students now have better resources to deal with some of the problems they may have faced.

(Scrivener, 1996: 87)

Type 2 corresponds to a RCR chain. Scrivener (1996) links this P2-P1-P2 pattern to a Test-Teach-Test *sequence*. Procedural knowledge starts to be developed without any prior declarative base (*pro*) in the first *restricted* use. It is followed by the initial development of declarative knowledge in *clarification* (*dec*). For the purposes of this type of lesson, this latter process is arguably completed in the second *restricted* use (*DEC*). It could be argued that the types of activities proposed under *restricted* use (especially in speaking and writing) point towards the kind of form-focused *practice*

advocated by DeKeyser (1998) to fully attain declarative knowledge in long-term memory (*DEC*).

Type 3 lesson

1 The teacher selects a communicative activity. The students do the activity. While they are speaking the teacher listens in discreetly and notes down problems.
2 After they have finished, the teacher uses the sentences he/she has noted down to focus on and discuss difficulties and teach potentially useful language items that were avoided during the activity.
3 The teacher follows on with a similar communicative activity to the first one. The students now have better resources to deal with some of the communicative problems they may have faced.

(Scrivener, 1996: 87-88)

Type 3 reveals an ACA pattern. It corresponds to a P3-P1-P3 pattern and reflects a *PROdecPRO sequence*. *PRO* underlies the two instances of *authentic* use, whilst declarative knowledge is initiated in *clarification* (*dec*). However, following DeKeyser (1998) (see section 4.4.1.), its complete acquisition is not attained owing to the direct leap to further *authentic* use and the resulting omission of form-focused *practice* activities that could contribute towards the correct implantation of declarative knowledge in the students' long-term memory.

Type 4 lesson

1 The students read the text (or listen to the tape).
2 The teacher focuses them in on specific language points.
3 The students do a follow-on exercise or communicative activity.

(Scrivener, 1996: 87-88)

Type 4 has two variations given the choice in stage 3 depending on the choice of stage 3: 4.a. ("follow-on exercise") and 4.b ("communicative activity"). According to Scrivener (1996), the first phase corresponds to R (*restricted* use). Thus 4.a. would correspond to RCR and 4.b. to RCA. However, since the first activity in both lessons is the reading or listening of a text, *restricted* use is regarded as P1 in this analysis for the "specific language points" and not as P2. Accordingly, 4.a. correlates to a P1-P1-P2 *sequence* and 4.b. to a P1-P1-P3 pattern. In the two variations, stage 1 represents an instance of an *implicit inductive contextualised presentation* (P1) - given the apparent

absence of any explicit focus on form - and it also involves receptive *practice* (P2). Hence, the final pedagogic characterisation of stage 1 as P1/P2. Also, stage 2 entails an *explicit inductive contextualised presentation* (see section 3.2.2.2.) in both types of lesson.

In 4.a., declarative knowledge begins its formation (*dec*) in the first two P1's and it is fully attained (*DEC*) through the practical exercise in the *restricted* use from stage 3, similar to Type 2. Some proceduralisation is also present in the receptive *practice* (*pro*), as indicated in section 4.3.1.

In 4.b., the existence of a final *authentic* activity without any preceding *restricted* use accounts for *dec* alone. The reason for this is that *authentic* use occurring immediately after *clarification* does not allow for the solid development of declarative knowledge in the students' long-term memory or its temporary transfer from there to the working memory so as to start proceduralisation. Following DeKeyser (1998) (see section 4.4.1.), extensive *practice* with specific form-focused exercises is needed to attain the complete acquisition of declarative knowledge. Accordingly, explanation followed by immediate *production* only entails *dec*. Similar to 4.b., *pro* hinting towards the development of the receptive skill in question is also present.

Type 5 lesson

This lesson follows a task-based model:

1 Learners use whatever language they have at their disposal to do a task.
2 They plan a report, helped by the teacher where appropriate.
3 They report to other learners.
4 They listen to competent users working on the same task.
5 They study specific language problems arising from earlier activities, practising language patterns where appropriate.

(Scrivener, 1996: 88)

Scrivener (1996) claims that the *sequence* in Type 5 is A (stage 1); A/C (stage 2); A (stage 3); A (stage 4); C/R (stage 5). This *sequence* corresponds to the following P-based structure: P3- P3/P1 -P3 (stages 1-3), P1/P2 (stage 4); P1/P2 (stage 5). As can be seen, except for the omission of a *pre-task* phase, this Type 5 lesson roughly corresponds to J. Willis' (1993, 1996a, 1996b) TBLT framework. It should be taken into account that, in the same way as stage 1 in Type 4 above, stage 4 here is not regarded as P3 because it consists of listening to a recording. Such listening corresponds to an *explicit inductive contextualised presentation* and to receptive aural *practice,*

similar to J. Willis' listening in the *pre-task* phase (see section 5.2.3.2.). The second instance of P1 and P2 in stage 5 matches J. Willis' *language focus* phase. In cognitive terms, a *PRODEC sequence* is reflected in Type 5 and not *DECPRODEC* as in J. Willis' TBLT framework due to the aforementioned absence of the *pre-task* phase this lesson. Direct formation of procedural knowledge (*PRO*) is encompassed by *authentic* use in stages 1-3.[35] This is followed by the beginning of the creation of declarative knowledge (*dec*) in stage 4 as accounted for by the *explicit inductive contextualised aural presentation* (P1). Stage 4 also reveals some sort of *pro* due to the receptive practice (P2) implied in the listening. Formal knowledge is fully acquired (*DEC*) in stage 5, which includes explicit explanation of forms and related *practice* (P1-P2).

Type 6 lesson
1 Learners take part in natural conversation with other learners and the teacher.
(Scrivener, 1996: 89)

This solely reflects A, which is therefore linked to P3. Because there is no previous or later formal work specified, the "natural" feature allows for the comparison with Krashen's sense of *acquisition*. Thus A alone corresponds to *PRO* (see section 4.3.2.).

A final type of lesson not mentioned by Scrivener is ACR. This is a reduced version of Type 5. Such a P3-P1-P2 *sequence* correlates to *PRODEC* in the same way as Brumfit's "post-communicative model" (1979); Byrne's "progressive view of the three stages of learning" (1986); Di Pietro's SI (1987) and Johnson's "deep end strategy" (1982).

In his 2005 book, Scrivener provides an account of the three elements above - *Authentic*, *Restricted* and *Clarification*. This new description includes certain specifications absent in his preceding studies. Basically, the original *authentic* use is now subdivided into *Authentic Exposure* and *Authentic Output*. The former involved authentic reading and listening texts, whilst the latter refers to the traditional P3

[35] For the purposes of the cognitive analysis, given that the main objective of stage 2 is planning a report (P3), the role of the teacher as a language adviser in this stage - which constitutes an occurrence of P1 - is not considered.

communicative activities at both written and spoken levels. As to the original *restricted* use, Scrivener also differentiates between *Restricted Output* (the P2 activities in the skills of speaking and writing) and *Restricted Exposure*, which corresponds to non-authentic reading and listening texts created for a pedagogic purpose. As indicated in section 2.4.2., Scrivener devotes the "Sequencing lesson components" section to the ordering of the previously defined elements. However, he does not mention his ARC pattern as such and deals with the *sequencing* of these components in a notably briefer manner than in his 1994 and 1996 works. This the reason why I have concentrated on Scrivener's oldest studies for the purposes of this thesis.

5.2.7. Harmer's ESA (1996, 2001)

ESA represents *Engage*, *Study* and *Activate*. According to Harmer (2001), these three components are present in every lesson. As can be seen, the main distinctive feature of this proposal in relation to all the previous proposals is the explicit incorporation of the *engagement* element (E), which this author considers to be essential for successful language learning. This E part corresponds to the "contextualisation or introductory activities" from Sánchez's (2004a) typology of activities based on the organisational scheme of the classroom (see section 3.2.2.1.). Similar to the description of this typology, no P stage is ascribed to E here. This does not mean that the importance of this element is not acknowledged in this section and in the entirety of this thesis. In fact, the description of the CPM in 5.2.8. will frequently refer to students' motivation.

Study involves the conscious attention on linguistic forms. Harmer (1996) equates it to the explanation and *practice* of the P-P-P (i.e. P1-P2), Willis' *language focus* (see section 5.2.3.2.) and discovery learning techniques (the language awareness-based proposals described in section 5.2.2.). *Activate* entails the performance of any activity in which the students are encouraged to use (*activate*) their language knowledge from two different perspectives. These coincide with Scrivener's description of the *authentic* element in section 5.2.6.: The processing of meaning in reading and listening activities and the actual *production* of meaning in speaking and writing activities. In the same way as indicated for *authentic* use in section 5.2.6., *activate* corresponds to P3 (productive skills) and to P2 (receptive skills). As opposed to the ARC examples of *sequences*, the four skill nature of "activate" will have an effect on the identification of the cognitive *sequence* of the lessons that Harmer proposes.

Harmer (1996, 2001) offers three types of lessons provided by the different ordering of *Engage*, *Study* and *Activate*:

1) ESA. Otherwise called "straight arrows". Harmer (2001) identifies this lesson procedure with the P-P-P and Scrivener's CRA (see above). This author exemplifies this lesson as follows (Harmer, 1996): Students are *engaged* by looking at a picture and guessing what is happening, then they are offered a dialogue and drill *practice* in apologising (*study*) and they finally *activate* such functions in a role-play. This example can definitely be ascribed to the P-P-P - with *study* as P1 and P2 and *activate* as P3 as long as the related activities focus on productive skills. Therefore the cognitive *sequence* is *DECPRO*. *Study* accounts for the development of declarative knowledge and the beginning of its proceduralisation (*DECpro*). Automatisation would follow in *activate* (*PRO*).

2) EAS (or "boomerang" lessons). Harmer (1996, 2001) explicitly relates this type of lesson to task-based procedures, Johnson's (1982) "deep end strategy" and Byrne's (1986) "progressive view of the three stages of learning". Harmer (1996) illustrates the *engage* stage as students telling each other what they think of fortune telling and if they have ever encountered it. This is followed by the performance of a roleplay (*activate*) (P3) and the listening to an extract and highlighting of the language students need (*study*) (P1). This latter phase is implemented as long as the teacher believes it necessary; if he/she believes so, the pedagogic *sequence* is P3-P1; if not, it is P3 alone. In the first case, the cognitive sequence revealed is *PROdec*, whilst a single *PRO* appears in the second case. The initial option or P3-P1 is not associated with a *PRODEC* cognitive *sequence* - as Brumfit's "post-communicative teaching model" (1979), Johnson's "deep end strategy" (1982) and Di Pietro's SI (1987) - but to *PROdec*. This is due to the explicit lack of form-focused exercises targeted at the correct fixing of declarative knowledge in the learners' long-term memory (as it is supported by DeKeyser (1998); see section 4.4.1.).

3) "Patchwork" lessons. *Engage* is adopted as the starting point for multiple varieties of *sequences* (hence the "patchwork" label). Harmer (2001: 84) describes one of the possibilities involved by this type of lessons in this way:

> […] *engaged* students are encouraged to *activate* their knowledge before *studying* one and then another language element, and then returning to more *active* tasks, after which the teacher *re-engages* them before doing some more *study*, etc.
>
> (Authoress' highlighting)

The previous example reflects an EASAES model. This can be identified with two different pedagogic sequences depending on the format and conditions of *study*. A P3-P1/P2-P3-P1/P2 *sequence,* i.e. a double P3-P1-P2 pattern, can be appreciated if *study* appears as the explanation and *practice* in the ordinary P1 and P2 phases (as is suggested by Harmer, 1996). P3 corresponds to *activate*, whilst P1 and P2 apply to *study*. When the latter coincides with the same named phase as in the preceding example from the "boomerang" lesson, the teaching *sequence* becomes P3-P1-P3-P1. A double repetition of *PRODEC* underlies the dual P3-P1-P2 chain, whereas *PROdec* is revealed twice in P3-P1-P3-P1. Since Harmer (1996, 2001) claims that these "patchwork" lessons can adopt various combinations, it could be possible to identify other different orderings of the Ps stages as well as different amalgamations of *DECPRO* and *PRODEC*/*PROdec* accordingly.

5.2.8. Sánchez's Communicative Processes-based model of activity *sequencing* (1993, 2001) (CPM)

In Sánchez's (1993, 2001) CPM, the central point for activity *sequencing* in lesson planning and design is the communicative processes leading up to communicative goals in real communicative situations. The reader is referred to pages 168-170 for an illustration of an actual CPM unit created from anew and sections 6.2.6.6.1.2. and 6.2.6.6.1.3. for the report of the CPM adaptation process concerning an original lesson from the quasi-experimental textbook.

Something of a forerunner of Sánchez's CPM is Corbel's (1985) action-sequence approach. Contrary to the CPM, Corbel's proposal deals with the *sequence* of the learning input instead of the activities. In this model, the language points to learn derive from communicative situations which have been previously selected. Accordingly, their order of presentation correlates to the order of the stages within a given communicative situation. For example, Corbel indicates "A person arrives at a party" as the first action in the context of a party. The description of the functions of language implied are "meeting strangers", "introductions" and "first names". Examples of teaching points are "I'm Ron. He's Ken. She's Sandra".

As stated in section 5.2.5., Sánchez (1993, 2001) develops Di Pietro's SI to devise his own Communicative Processes-based model. Both proposals revolve around real-life communicative situations, but there exist some important differences. The first one consists of the particular use of the communicative situation in each model. In SI, the main stage in the *sequence* is the solution to a specific communicative situation or "scenario". However, in Sánchez's proposal, the order of all the activities in the teaching *sequence* corresponds to the logical order of a series of communicative processes leading up to the fulfilment of a particular communicative situation. This communicative situation is framed within a general communicative nucleus or notion. For example, the nucleus of "holidays" can be approached in different situations: Booking a holiday, going on holiday, complaining about a holiday… Each of these specific situations is composed of a succession of processes or steps. Concerning complaining about a holiday, we could proceed by taking note of all the aspects that we want to complain about, commenting on the issue with relatives or friends, asking for legal advice, writing the letter of complaint, etc.

The second difference between Sánchez's CPM and Di Pietro's is that Sánchez (2001) explicitly relates the provision of variety in activity *sequencing* to the use of communicative situations:

> novelty and variety in sequencing will gain if they take root in the communicative situations themselves, which offer an inexhaustible source for unexpected patterns in the organization and pacing of action and in carrying out communicative goals.
>
> (p. 119)

In Di Pietro (1987) the unexpected element is supplied by the diverse plausible solutions to the same "scenario", whereas in the CPM this feature derives from the different possibilities concerning the *sequences* of events generating a certain communicative situation. This variety is ensured because every person does not follow an identical order of steps or processes in each communicative situation, i.e. we do not approach reality homogenously. For instance, in booking a holiday, an undecided person can decide where to go by looking on the Internet, going to a travel agency or asking some friend or relatives, etc. This simple example already points towards the varied paths that can be followed in real-life situations.

The CPM was created in an attempt to offer an alternative to the current situation found in FLT materials. The tables of contents of many - if not all - contemporary CLT textbooks targeted at the global international market comprise a list of those general knowledge topics considered to be relevant for the students. These include relationships, leisure time, sports, health, nature, food, money, holidays, etc. A wide range of communicative situations can certainly be derived from these topics; in fact, if CLT adopts real communication as its point of reference, communicative situations should actually be employed in CLT textbooks. What makes the CPM innovative is that it does not only approach communicative situations in terms of the topics themselves, but bases activity *sequencing* on the sequence in which the communicative situations develop. Contemporary topic-based textbooks frequently draw on P-P-P lessons to exploit such topics, which is the usual lesson pattern procedure in CLT as I indicated in section 1.1. This affirmation is also shared by Howatt (2004) and D. Willis & J. Willis (2001) (see sections 3.1. and 5.2.3. respectively). A common format of current topic-based lessons is the following: Firstly, there appears an initial dialogue or a text. It most probably leads to receptive *practice* and it may be also used as an *explicit inductive contextualised presentation* for either vocabulary or rules; this is normally followed by an *explicit type of presentation in a discovery learning mode* with samples extracted from the previous text; then come various practical exercises which require the application of the preceding rules or lexis. They will include different degrees of manipulation in the case of rules; the *sequence* is concluded with a *production* activity at an oral or written level or both.

The example above constitutes a persistent pattern in current textbook lessons despite the acknowledged moderate flexibility in the *sequencing* as shown in certain instances of contemporary P-P-P *sequences* (see section 3.4.), the short transitions and overlaps between the phases and the variety of activities and procedures, etc. As indicated in section 3.3.2.5., this linearity may negatively influence the learners' motivation and accentuate their boredom. From the point of view of the CPM, such uniformity and sameness in the *sequencing* do not contemplate the varied procedures that each one of us can follow when facing a given communicative situation. Thus the main difference between the CPM and the P-P-P is rooted in their respective parameters for activity *sequencing*. The P-P-P favours cognitive schemes for the construction of knowledge (acquiring declarative knowledge through *presentation* and attaining automatic error-free performance through *practice*). The CPM attempts to comply with

the *sequence* of events as they would happen in real life; the resulting activity *sequencing* may either resemble a P-P-P unit or differ from it in various degrees. It is claimed that the variety in CPM teaching *sequences* may contribute to enhance students' motivation (see below).

As Sánchez (1993, 2001) acknowledges, the communicative situations need to be pedagogically adapted in order to be implemented in the classroom. Such reconstruction involves the specification of the kinds of classroom activities, their underlying *sequence* and procedures (teaching "how") and the selection of the language areas that will be focused on in the lesson (the teaching "what"). The latter involve skills, linguistic elements - grammar, structural patterns, vocabulary, pronunciation – as well as register issues. The two didactic aspects, i.e. teaching "what" and teaching "how", should be carefully planned and integrated in a coherent unit whole so that both pedagogic and psychological requirements are complied with, such as the learners' cognitive development according to their age, the students' linguistic and extra-linguistic background, their learner styles, the specific objectives of the course, etc.

On account of its basis on real-life communicative processes and situations, the CPM fulfils several basic didactic principles purported by CLT: Integration of skills, the importance of motivation and the need to provide both a focus on form and a focus on meaning. Let us focus on them separately.

1) Integration of skills (Cunningsworth, 1984; Harmer, 1991; 2001; Hedge, 2000; McDonough & Shaw, 1993; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Sánchez, 1993, 1997, 2004a; Ur, 1996). Similar to what occurs in real life, the teaching *sequence* will naturally include activities where different skills are practised. For example, a speaking activity may involve reading a text or taking notes from a listening on which the discussion will be based. Also, the pedagogic adaptation of communicative processes complies with the "receptive before productive" SLA learning principle (Sánchez, 2001; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004).

2) Attention to motivational issues. In the CPM, motivation should be triggered by two different elements:

2.a.) Variety in the *sequencing*. This is provided by the diversity intrinsic to the unexpected patterns of actions from real-life communicative situations. The general

inclusion of variety in the classroom procedures is greatly supported in current FLT literature (Alonso Tapia, 1991; Dörnyei, 2001; Harmer, 2001; Sánchez, 1993, 2001; 2004a; Tomlinson, 1998c, 2003b, 2003c; Ur, 1996). According to Sánchez (1993, 2001), the issue of variety in activity *sequencing* requires us to take two vital aspects in consideration. In the first place, as indicated in section 3.3.1.3., the actual introduction cannot be arbitrary and unsystematic. Secondly, the inclusion of variety has to be performed with moderation. As claimed in the same aforementioned section, learners may not feel comfortable with unpredictable procedures and thus show resistance to new patterns of action and of organisation. In accordance with these two points, diversity in activity *sequencing* should be introduced in the right proportion and in a systematic way. Otherwise, learners will feel overwhelmed and such *sequencing* patterns would probably inhibit learning.

The consideration of variety in activity *sequencing* also affects teachers to a great extent. As claimed in section 3.3.2.5., repetitive patterns of action may also lead teachers to experience a negative feeling of monotony in their teaching but, on the other hand, a frequent insertion of variety requires a permanent effort on the teacher's part in lesson preparation (see section 3.3.1.4.). The didactic conversion of real-life communicative processes may become a "compromise solution". In connection with this, the EG teacher informed me in our weekly meetings (see section 6.2.5.3.) that she had quickly got used to the CPM *sequencing* patterns and that she had actually enjoyed her CPM teaching. For her it seemed that no games or other "motivational" activities alike were necessary when using this model. Her reasons were rooted in the thematic contextualization of every activity within the overall *sequence* regardless of the nature of the activities (whether a speaking-focused activity or a form-focused exercise).

2.b.) Relevance to the learners' needs and interests (Grant, 1987; Rubdy, 2003; Tomlinson, 2003b). Relevance emerges as a key feature in modern language pedagogy, and is present in most materials evaluation checklists. In Rubdy's (2003), for instance, there is a clear concern for real-life communicative intercourse under "Authenticity": "Do the activities relate to pupils' interests and 'real-life' tasks?; do the tasks exploit language in a communicative or 'real-world' way?; do the texts generate 'real-life communication processes?" (p. 52). Tomlinson (2003b) goes a step further than this, as he considers that, "The most important thing that learning materials have to do is to help the learner to connect the learning experience in the classroom to their own life outside

the course" (p. 18). One procedure to achieve students' connection to the world beyond the classroom precisely consists of basing activity *sequencing* on the ordering of events which shape a real communicative situation. With respect to this, Hedge (2000) mentions the motivation of an events-based *sequence* resulting from, "the realism and the opportunity for using authentic texts from the English-language environment" (p. 349). Hedge's events-based *sequence* greatly resembles Sánchez's CPM, but lacks the explicit reference to variety in activity *sequencing* as derived from real-life communicative processes.

It is precisely this connection with real life which justifies the affirmation that the CPM has a suitable degree of variety. Because humans do not proceed in the same way for a given situation, CPM *sequences* may or not may correspond to those that students would have actually followed or thought of for the accomplishment of a given communicative situation. But learners will always be able to link the authentic events and situations described in the teaching *sequence* towards their own perception of such situations, as long as they are not placed in cultural settings too different from their own.

3) Focus on both meaning (Lewis, 1996; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2004; Willis, D. & Willis, J., 2007), and form (Long & Robinson, 1998; Skehan, 1996a, 1996b, 1998, 2001, 2003). A *sequence* based on real-life events necessarily focuses on meaning at a reception and *production* level. However, the CPM also contemplates the need to focus on form to prevent fossilised forms. See the example of a real CPM unit on pages 168-170 and section 6.2.6.6.1.3. (a CPM adaptation) to observe the smooth integration of linguistic exercises into the overall communicative processes based *sequence*.

In relation to the criticism targeted at the prescriptive nature of the P-P-P (see section 3.3.2.4.), it should be noted that all *sequences* are ultimately prescriptive in the ordering of steps unless learners are given the chance to select any given *sequence*. In any event, it could be argued that the variety in the patterns of actions proposed by the CPM moves away from the rigidity of the P-P-P. Indeed, teachers would not always implement the same *sequence* of actions in class; moreover, fluency and accuracy would be differently emphasised from one lesson to another.

Likewise, the CPM also provides for important psychological factors:

1) Compliance with the paths to knowledge acquisition described in sections 4.3.1. and 4.3.2. These are *DECPRO* - as established by Anderson's ACT - and *PRODEC* - the alternative route unveiled in Johnson's (1994, 1996) application of this theory into SLA. It was stated above that, contrary to the P-P-P, a CPM pattern is not primarily driven by a cognitive *sequence* of explanation, assimilation, *practice* and application. However, it is also acknowledged that the pedagogic adaptation of real-life *sequences* implies that the psychological learning paths in CPM materials will not offer a dramatic deviation from the related stages of the P-P-P. As explained in section 4.4.1., the cognitive basis of the traditional pattern is not ineffective in attaining language mastery, since it has been related to a *DECPRO sequence*. This means that we should not dismiss CPM *sequences* which could reveal a *DECPRO* cognitive path. Also, all the possible departures derived from the use of real-life communicative processes will be soundly grounded owing to two elements: The accepted flexibility in the routes to language mastery - *PRODEC* - and the actual feasible combination between *DECPRO* and *PRODEC,* as indicated by Johnson (1996; see section 4.3.2.).

In the adaptation of all the seven experimental group units (see sections 6.2.6.6.1.3. and 6.2.6.6.2.), only the *sequencing* of activities was altered regarding the original lessons. Evidently, the impossibility of modifying the learning input and the procedures of the activities restrained the actual adaptation. This accounts for an overall P-P-P and *DECPRO sequences* in the CPM lessons, similar to the original units. However, as indicated in the aforementioned sections, the CPM lessons present a considerably higher degree of flexibility in their pedagogic and psychological *sequences* as well as more instances of recycling. This is manifested in certain intermediate digressions from the original P-P-P and *DECPRO sequences*.

2) Consideration of *scripts* in language learning. *Scripts* were proposed by Shank & Abelson (1977) as the event version of schemata. *Schemata* (Rumelhart & Ortony, 1976) consist of structures that represent the knowledge of concepts in our memory. *Scripts* specifically involve standard or prototypical *sequences* of events or actions in certain situations. Shank & Abelson (1977) illustrate this notion with a *script* for going to a restaurant. This involves the following ordered *sequence* of actions: Entering, ordering, eating and exiting. According to Anderson (2005: 165), *scripts* and *schemata*, "can serve as valuable bases for predicting missing information and for correcting errors

in the information". In this way they become very important tools for the comprehension of the outer world, both objects and events. They encode our background knowledge, which is formed out of our own experience or transmission from others. It should be taken into account that *scripts* tend to be socio-culturally driven; for example, the ceremony of mourning in Spain is different from India and the UK.

The two concepts have been widely applied in SLA, especially in the field of reading and listening (see Cook, 2001; Hedge, 2000 and Macaro, 2003 for reviews). According to Buck (2001: 20), *schemata* and *scripts,* "guide the interpretation of a text, setting up expectations for people, places or events", because, for example, "we know what happens in a restaurant, and there is no need to explain that the waiter brings the food or that the customer pays the bill". The CEF (2001) also draws on *schemata* a) as a support in receptive strategies to enhance comprehension and b) as an aid to perform effective interactions thanks to our internalised background knowledge about the succession of stages in such communicative interactions.

As can be seen, the notion of a *script* is of particular relevance to the CPM. The link with real life provides a justification for the aforementioned non-overwhelming degree of variety included in the CPM. Learners might be able to relate the communicative situation described in the teaching *sequence* to their own *scripts*, whether the latter fully coincide with the teaching *sequence* or show some deviations. There will always be some basic common procedures in both representations of the same situation. For example, if planning to go for holiday, one normally looks for information about different places. Another thing is the source and manner of obtaining such information (through the Internet, a travel agency, speaking to some friends, etc., or even a combination of those).

There are other didactic and psycholinguistic principles that materials authors could take into account for CPM lessons implemented over a long-term instructional period. These principles are *recycling* (sections 3.3.2.3. and 4.4.1.), the readiness-to-learn theory, the delayed effect of instruction and the silent period (section 3.3.2.3.). It is acknowledged that these principles could also be considered in other *sequencing* models.

To finish this section, let us illustrate the CPM in action by means of an example of a real SFL unit from the *Antena 3* texbook (by Sánchez et al., 1988). The following

related account is greatly indebted to Sánchez (2001). The general communicative nucleus is the press. Sánchez (2001) initially distinguishes reading the press as a narrower nucleus. This could involve a *sequence* of steps such as going out in the morning, stopping at the newsagents' stand, buying the newspaper, reading the headlines, reading a particular page or section first and proceeding to other sections or pages, etc. According to Sánchez (2001), a much more entertaining *sequence* to be applied to FL can be found in another specific nucleus: How the news is generated. Of the many possibilities available, Sánchez et al. (1988) chose a setting of news as devised by a correspondent in Nicaragua during the 1980s. The whole *sequence* of communicative processes is as follows:

1. A journalist listens to the radio early in the morning, while having breakfast.

2. Some details of the news he listens to on the radio make him suspicious about the implications that might be behind the facts narrated.

3. The journalist buys the local newspaper, takes a taxi and heads for the Press Club.

4. He reads in the paper about an attack by the guerrilla and relates this to the news he listened to earlier.

5. He decides to engage in an investigation and calls a neutral embassy.

6. He also reads a report by the Nicaraguan Office for Human Rights.

7. The Commission for Human Rights visits the area of the attack. The journalist joins the Commission and interviews some eyewitnesses on the spot.

8. Finally he writes a report with the information gathered.

(From Sánchez, 2001: 123)

The pedagogic adaptation of this communicative situation resulted in 32 activities distributed in four sections. Table 13 deals with the first section. The text belongs to Sánchez (2001) and the actual correlation between communicative stages and activities is the authoress' own contribution.

As Sánchez (2001) claims, this section is integrative because it combines a focus on form with a focus on meaning. Both forms and meanings are contextualised within the framework of the communicative situation. In this way, the linguistic work becomes meaningful for the learners as it is dependent upon the specific messages to be conveyed. Focus on meaning prevails and the content derives from the communicative

needs created by the communicative situation itself. Sánchez (2001) also highlights other features which show how basic pedagogic criteria are contemplated in the adaptation of this communicative situation:

> a) Skills: Listening and reading, as passive skills prevail in Section 1.
>
> b) Comprehension is stressed before language used is activated.
>
> c) Reading comprehension is attempted with both 'global' (1, 2, 3, 6) and'specific' (4, 5) activities.
>
> e) Interactive activities are also present (2, 3, 6).
>
> f) Activities based on 'meaning' and more 'grammatically biased' do not exclude each other (1 and 2 vs. 4 and 5).
>
> g) At the end of Section 1 a productive activity (writing) is suggested.
>
> (From Sánchez, 2001: 125)

As can be seen, this relatively short example shows the great potential of the application of real-life communicative situations in the FL classroom. It is certain that patterns of action can be notably enriched by drawing on communicative processes as the key parameter in the organisation and *sequencing* of activities.

Table 13. Description of an actual CPM unit applied to SFL (in Sánchez et al.'s *Antena 3*, 1988)

Communicative stage	Wording of the activities (italics) and their procedure
1. A journalist listens to the radio early in the morning, while having breakfast.	1. *Listen and complete the news* (Students listen to the news on the radio and at the same time they can read the incomplete text and fill in the gaps). 2. *Which of the following headlines is more appropriate? Say why.* (Three different headlines are suggested. The final decision can be reached after group or class discussion and it will require a re-reading of the news).
2. Some details of the news he listens to on the radio make him suspicious about the implications that might be behind the facts narrated.	3. *Answer the following questions and give an outline of the news.* (The questions point to the key issues in the news: what happens, who the protagonists are, where the news takes place, how things happen and when). 4. *In the previous text identify equivalent words for ...* (Words or phrases suggested make it necessary to use context for a full understanding. The goal is to increase vocabulary control). 5. *Do you remember? Complete.* (Manipulation of contextual words through derivational affixes).
3. The journalist buys the local newspaper, takes a taxi and heads for the Press Club.	6. *Miguel (this is the name of the journalist) goes out to the street, takes a taxi and...* *a) Read the news in the official newspaper 'La Barricada'.* (An official piece of news from *La Barricada* is given). *b) Read the news once more and write some reasons which might explain the events.* (The goal is to reach a full understanding of the news by focusing the attention of the learners on the main points).

5.3. CONCLUSION

As can be seen, some of the previous proposals do not allow for the introduction of variety in the *sequencing* of activities. They greatly resemble the P-P-P regarding both its linearity of patterns of action and its underlying exclusive cognitive scheme of knowledge acquisition (*DECPRO*). This is the TBLT-based proposal of Estaire & Zanón (1990) - despite their own ascription to TBLT - and Nunan's "psycholinguistic processing approach" based model (1985, 1988b, 1989, 2004).

Other proposals do not include all the P stages and do not entail a complete process of knowledge acquisition from the point of view of Anderson's ACT model. This observation applies to both of Littlewood's (1981) types of *sequences*; O-H-E (Lewis, 1993, 1996); III (McCarthy & Carter, 1995). The first proposal only offers P2-P3 and thus covers *PRO*; the last two do not go beyond P1-P2 and *dec/DEC*. Certain models imply a reordering of the P stages and a reversal of the cognitive *sequence* found in the traditional P-P-P, i.e. P3-P1-P2 and *PRODEC*. This applies to Brumfit's "post-communicative teaching model" (1979), Johnson's "deep end strategy" (1982), Byrne's "progressive view of the three stages of learning" (1986), Di Pietro's SI (1987). J. Willis' TBLT model (1993, 1996a, 1996b) represents a *DECPRODEC* cognitive *sequence* because of the explicit teaching of vocabulary in the *pre-task* prior to the fulfilment of the *task cycle*. Harmer's ESA (1996, 2001) highlights the engagement element and the combination of the three elements accounts for various lesson patterns, both similar and different from the P-P-P. This also applies to some lesson models based on ARC (Scrivener, 1994, 1996), whilst others offer the same situation indicated in Lewis (1993, 1996), Littlewood (1981) and McCarthy and Carter (1995).

The CPM may include all the stages of the P-P-P. However, since the CPM is based on the *sequencing* of authentic communicative processes as they would happen in real life, the order of the phases will not necessarily appear in the linear *sequence* of *presentation-practice-production*. For the same reason, a strict *DECPRO* cognitive *sequence* does not apply all the time in the CPM. It offers either a full *DECPRO*, an overall discontinuous *DECPRO* with intermediate digressions or a combination of both *DECPRO* and *PRODEC*.

With the present thesis the CPM has become the only proposal to be empirically tested within the context of an extended instructional period. As reported in Chapter 6, contrary to the contemporary ELT materials version of the P-P-P, the CPM had a

significant positive effect on L2 linguistic learning. Moreover, this quasi-experiment did not only reveal the efficacy of the CPM. The feedback from students in two final questionnaires permits the hypothesis that the *sequencing* based on the adaptation of real-life communicative situations presented the appropriate degree of both variety and moderation in such variety. In this way, the experimental students did not feel overwhelmed by the new *sequencing* pattern; furthermore, it could be suggested that the diversity in the organisational procedures boosted their motivation (see sections 6.3.2., 6.4., 6.5. and *General conclusions of this thesis. Pedagogical recommendations and implications).*

Finally, it should be remarked that the final intention in this thesis is not to provide a radically different model from the P-P-P, but to offer an alternative which a) enriches the cognitive rigidity of the traditional pattern; b) provides variety in activity *sequencing* in the right proportions, fostering students' motivation accordingly; and c) complies with essential pedagogic and psychological principles.

Table 14. Pedagogic and cognitive *sequences* revealed in the activity *sequencing* proposals described in section 5.2.

NAME OF THE ACTIVITY SEQUENCING PROPOSAL	STAGE	P PHASE	COGNITIVE PHASE	GLOBAL PEDAGOGIC SEQUENCE	GLOBAL COGNITIVE SEQUENCE
1. Brumfit (1979) – "post-communicative" model	1. Communicate as far as possible with all available resources	P3	PRO	• P3-P1 (if stage 3 is not implemented)	• PROdec (if stage 3 is not implemented)
2. Johnson (1982) – "deep end strategy"	2. Present language items shown to be necessary to achieve effective communication	P1	dec	• P3-P1-P2 (if stage 3 is implemented)	• PRODEC (if stage 3 is implemented)
	3. Drill if necessary	P2	DEC		
3. Littlewood (1981) – sequences of pre-communicative and communicative activities	Option A: 1. Pre-communicative activities	P2	pro	P2-P3	PRO
	Option A: 2. Communicative activities	P3	PRO		
	Option B: 1. Communicative activities	P3	PRO	P3-P2	PRO
	Option B: 2. Pre-communicative activities	P2	further PRO		
4. Byrne (1986) – description of the "progressive view of the three stages of learning"	1. P3	P3	PRO	P3-P1-P2	PRODEC
	2. P1	P1	dec		
	3. P2	P2	DEC		

NAME OF THE ACTIVITY SEQUENCING PROPOSAL	STAGE	P PHASE	COGNITIVE PHASE	GLOBAL PEDAGOGIC SEQUENCE	GLOBAL COGNITIVE SEQUENCE
5. Nunan (1985, 1988b, 1989, 2004) – "psycholinguistic processing approach"	A. Processing (comprehension)	P1	dec	P1-P2-P3	DECPRO
	B. Productive	P2	DECpro		
	C. Interactive	P3	PRO		
6. Di Pietro (1987) – "strategic interaction"	*Phase 1 (Rehearsal):* Students form groups and prepare agendas to fulfil the roles assigned to them. Teacher acts as adviser and guide to student groups as needed.	P3	PRO	P3-P1-P2	PRODEC
	Phase 2 (Performance): Students perform their roles with support of their respective groups while teacher and remainder of class look on.	P3	PRO		
	Phase 3 (Debriefing): a) Teacher leads the entire class in a discussion of the students' performance;	P3	PRO		
	b) form-focused work derived from previous performance Later: Writing exercises and grammar logs	P1-P2	DEC		

NAME OF THE ACTIVITY SEQUENCING PROPOSAL	STAGE	P PHASE	COGNITIVE PHASE	GLOBAL PEDAGOGIC SEQUENCE	GLOBAL COGNITIVE SEQUENCE
7. Estaire & Zanón (1990) – task-based sequence	1. Cognitive elaboration phase (presentation/contextualization/ controlled practice tasks)	P1-P2	dec	P1-P2-P3	DECPRO
	2. Associative phase (teacher and student controlled practice)	P2	DECpro		
	3. Autonomous phase (communicative tasks)	P3	PRO		
	4. Re-elaboration phase (activities for enlarging the network of new meanings in both declarative and procedural knowledge)	P1-P2-P3 (starting a new sequence)	DECPRO		

NAME OF THE ACTIVITY SEQUENCING PROPOSAL	STAGE		P PHASE	COGNITIVE PHASE		GLOBAL PEDAGOGIC SEQUENCE	GLOBAL COGNITIVE SEQUENCE
8. J. Willis (1993, 1996a, 1996b) – TBLT framework	1) Pre-task		• Overall: P1 • If listening to the recording, listening to the demonstration between teacher and good student and reading of instructions are present, also: • Explicit inductive contextualised P1 • P2 (receptive skill practice)	• DEC (vocabulary) • pro (receptive skill practice)		P1-P3-P1-P2	DECPRODEC
	2) Task cycle	2.a.) Task 2.b.) Planning 2.c.) Report	• Overall: P3	• PRO (grammar and vocabulary forms)			
		Post-task listening (if present)	• P2 (listening practice)	pro (listening practice)			
	3) Language focus	3.a.) Analysis	P1	• dec (grammar)	Recycling of declarative knowledge regarding vocabulary acquired in *pre-task*		
		3.b.) Practice	P2	• DEC (grammar)			

NAME OF THE ACTIVITY SEQUENCING PROPOSAL	STAGE	P PHASE	COGNITIVE PHASE	GLOBAL PEDAGOGIC SEQUENCE	GLOBAL COGNITIVE SEQUENCE
9. O-H-E (Observation-Hypothesize and Experiment) Lewis (1993, 1996)	1. Observe	P1	dec	P1-P2	DEC
	2. Hypothesize 3. Experiment	P1-P2	DEC		
10. III (Ilustration, Interaction, Induction) McCarthy & Carter (1995)	1. Illustration	P1	dec	P1	dec
	2. Interaction	• P1- • P3 ("metalinguistic" role of output)			
	3. Induction	P1			
11. ARC (Authentic-Restricted-Clarification) Scrivener (1994, 1996)	Authentic	P3	See the types of lesson below	P1-P2-P3 in various combinations	DECPRO and PRODEC depending on the combination of the A, R and C elements
	Restricted	P2			
	Clarification	P1			

TYPES OF LESSONS 1-6: Outlined by Scrivener (1996) 7: Outlined by the authoress	GLOBAL PEDAGOGIC SEQUENCE	GLOBAL COGNITIVE SEQUENCE
1) CRRA	P1-P2-P2-P3	DECPRO
2) RCR	P2-P1-P2	proDEC
3) ACA	P3-P1-P3	PROdecPRO
4.a.) RCR	P1/P2 - P1-P2 Initial *restricted* activity specified by Scrivener (1996: 88): Reading or listening to a tape → implicit inductive contextualised P1 and receptive practice (P2); hence P1/P2 for *restricted.*	• DEC • pro (receptive practice)
4.b.) RCA	P1/P2 - P1-P3 Initial *restricted* activity specified by Scrivener (1996): Reading or listening to a tape → implicit inductive contextualised P1 and receptive practice (P2); hence P1/P2 for *restricted.*	• dec • pro (receptive practice)
5) A-A/C-A-A-C/R	P3- P3/P1 - P3 - P1/P2 - P1/P2 • Fourth *authentic use* specified by Scrivener (1996) (first instance of P1-P2): Students listening to a tape → explicit inductive contextualised P1 and receptive practice (P2); • second instance of P1-P2: Form-focused presentation and practice	• PRODEC • pro (receptive practice)
6) A	P3	PRO
7) A-C-R	P3-P1-P2	PRODEC

NAME OF THE ACTIVITY SEQUENCING PROPOSAL	STAGE	P PHASE	COGNITIVE PHASE	GLOBAL PEDAGOGIC SEQUENCE	GLOBAL COGNITIVE SEQUENCE
12. ESA (Engage-Study-Activate) Harmer (1996, 2001)	Engage	Sánchez's (2004a) "contextualisation or introductory activities"	See the types of lesson below	P1-P2-P3 in various combinations	DECPRO and PRODEC depending on the combination of the E, A and S elements
	Study	P1-P2 (if *study* activities reflect explanation and practice as in P1-P2 and as in Willis' *language focus*)			
	Activate	P3			
		GLOBAL PEDAGOGIC SEQUENCE		GLOBAL COGNITIVE SEQUENCE	
	Types of lesson: 1) ESA ("straight-arrows")	P1-P2-P3		DECPRO	
	2) EAS ("boomerang")	Harmer's 1996 example: a) P3-P1 (if *study* is implemented); b) P3 (if *study* is not implemented). In other cases, P3-P1-P2 as well		Harmer's 1996 example: a) PROdec (if *study* is implemented); b) PRO (if *study* is not implemented). In other cases, PRODEC as well	
	3) "Patchwork" Example: E-A-S-A-E-S	Harmer's 2001 example: Either P3-P1/P2-P3-P1/P2 or P3-P1-P3-P1		Harmer's 2001 example: a) If P3-P1/P2-P3-P1/P2 → PRODEC; b) if P3-P1-P3-P1 →PROdec	

NAME OF THE ACTIVITY SEQUENCING PROPOSAL	STAGE	GLOBAL PEDAGOGIC SEQUENCE	GLOBAL COGNITIVE SEQUENCE
13. Sánchez (1993, 2001) – CPM	Stages are constituted by any activity or group of interrelated activities which have been pedagogically adapted to reflect a real-life sequence of communicative processes leading to a communicative goal	Potentially, various combinations of P1-P2-P3	Potentially, either a full DECPRO, a discontinuous DECPRO or a combination of DECPRO and PRODEC

Table 14. Pedagogic and cognitive sequences revealed in the activity sequencing proposals described in section 5.2.

Chapter 6.

The quasi-experimental study

6.1. HYPOTHESIS

In contrast to the P-P-P (Presentation-Practice-Production model of activity *sequencing*) found in contemporary ELT materials, the instruction through textbooks with lessons based on the CPM (Communicative Processes-based model of activity *sequencing*) will achieve a higher degree of proficiency in L2 English linguistic ability.

6.2. METHOD

6.2.1. Design

The general research design of this study is "quasi-experimental" (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). It compares the subjects' performance before and after the quasi-experiment (pre-test and post-test). During the intervention a comparison group (control group) is used without previous randomised selection or assignation. The main difference between quasi-experimental designs and true experimental works is the lack of randomisation of the former. As reported by Seliger & Sohamy (1989: 143), this mechanism lessens "the amount of systematic error that might occur from biases in the distribution of subjects to groups". Thus, thanks to randomisation, we are able to contend that "any effects of extraneous variables occur by chance and that chance is equally distributed between groups" (Seliger & Sohamy, 1989: 143). In other words,

randomisation permits the assumption that the two groups are truly equivalent before the beginning of the experiment (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1992).

However, as many SLA researchers indicate, the administrative restrictions in naturally occurring settings with pre-existing classes very often impede the application of randomisation (Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1992; Nunan, 1992; Seliger & Sohamy, 1989, among others). Accordingly, quasi-experimental designs are implemented in those contexts, such as that of the present study, where randomisation is not possible. As a result of this, it is difficult to fully control many individual variables (gender, age, intelligence, aptitude, motivation, etc.) as well as extraneous variables (the L2 input external to the lessons, the learners' tiredness due to inconvenient lesson timetables, etc.). External validity is more likely to be catered for in this type of design owing to its application in real-life environments, whereas internal validity may be affected by the extraneous variables mentioned above. The researcher has to attempt to statistically neutralise the effects of such variables as much as possible.

The quasi-experimental method of this thesis has a two-group within-subject design, which is also called a repeated-measure design with two groups, experimental (EG) and control (CG). The continuous dependent variable is the effectiveness of a teaching program on L2 proficiency. This is the "Communicative Processes-based model of activity sequencing" (CPM). As will be indicated in section 6.2.4.2.2.2, this efficacy was measured by means of the results of *grammar* and *vocabulary* measures. Accordingly, such measures or dependent variables became integrated forming a single dependent variable: The efficacy of the CPM intervention. The independent variable is the group, which has two levels: A CG who followed a P-P-P-based teaching and an EG who received a CPM-based instruction.

The effectiveness of the CPM intervention was measured through a test specially selected for this research. The results of this test were complemented with those of the official one used in the institution where this quasi-experimental study took place. The outcomes were measured at two different moments before and after the intervention (Pre-test and Post-test time measures) to control for the subjects' individual characteristics.

The two-group within-subject design compares an experimental group's extent of change due to the intervention with the variation of a control (or comparison-intervention) group (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). The control group's results provide an

estimate of the amount of change owing to retesting, historical artefacts, and growth (maturation).

In a repeated-measure design, the same individual is observed under multiple treatment conditions or time measures. The focus of interest is on how the individual's performance changes as a result of successive trials (Keppel, 1982). Research on individual change is better analysed using a repeated-measure design, as this type of design allows the same individual to be tracked across conditions or time measures, thereby facilitating the analysis of change.

6.2.2. Variables

6.2.2.1. Independent and dependent variables

As mentioned in section 6.2.1., the independent variable is the "Group". Accordingly, the scale of this variable is categorical and dichotomous, since it only has two values: CG and EG. The former received a P-P-P teaching and the latter followed a CPM instruction. The dependent continuous variable is the efficiency of the CPM on subjects' L2 English linguistic proficiency (*grammar* and *vocabulary* knowledge).[36]

6.2.2.2. Control of variables

6.2.2.2.1. Individual variables

Many individual factors may influence second language acquisition. To control for effects due to such factors, information on a number of covariates was collected from the EG and the CG at the beginning and at the end of this study. Such information concerned therefore the preceding and the actual period of the quasi-experiment and it dealt with the subjects' personal and academic background as well as their English and other foreign language(s) experience (if applicable). The complete data were gathered

[36] Following the CEF (2001: 108-109), which classifies grammatical and lexical competences within "linguistic competences" (together with semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competences), whenever the term *linguistic* appears in a context which denotes language mastery, it will refer to the language components tested by the main exam in this study: *Grammar* and *vocabulary*. It should be taken into account that its other use in the phrase "subjects' linguistic and non-linguistic background" (or "characteristics" or "features") does not correspond to the former meaning. Here "linguistic" alludes to informants' general language facets (e.g. number of years of L2 study, other foreign languages knowledge, etc.). *Grammar* and *vocabulary* - as well as *Pronunciation* - will also be named as *subskills* in opposition to the four main *skills*, i.e., *reading, writing, listening* and *speaking.*

through two questionnaires, an initial and a final one (IQ and FQ1). As will be explained in section 6.2.3., the t-test and chi-square test showed that the subjects belonged to the same subject population. See sections 6.2.4.3.4. and 6.2.4.3.5. for an exhaustive description of these two questionnaires and Appendix D for their content (Appendices D.1. and D.3. for the Spanish original of the IQ and the FQ1 respectively, their English translations being included in Appendices D.2. and D.4.).

Table 15 offers the entirety of the individual variables.

Table 15. Individual variables

VARIABLE	SCALE MEASURE
1. Gender	Categorical (dichotomous)
2. Age	Quantitative (interval)
3. Profession	Categorical (politomous)
4. Years of L2 English study	Quantitative (ratio)
5. Presence of L2 English study gap year	Categorical (dichotomous)
6. Knowledge of any of the Spanish co-official languages	Categorical (dichotomous)
7. Knowledge of other foreign language(s) besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment	Categorical (dichotomous)
8. Identification of the foreign language(s) known besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment	Categorical (politomous)
9. Presence of stays in English-speaking countries	Categorical (dichotomous)
10. Number of stays in English-speaking countries	Quantitative (ratio)
11. Stays: Number of L2 English study weeks	Quantitative (ratio)
12. Stays: Number of weeks holiday	Quantitative (ratio)
13. Stays: Number of work weeks	Quantitative (ratio)
14. Stays: Number of exchange ("other" reasons) weeks	Quantitative (ratio)
15. Presence of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment.	Categorical (dichotomous)
16. Type of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	Categorical (politomous)
17. Weekly hours of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)
18. Number of months of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)

19. Weekly hours of individual L2 English study before the experiment	Quantitative (ratio)
20. Studying other foreign language(s) besides L2 English during the quasi-experiment	Categorical (dichotomous)
21. Identification of the foreign language(s) studied besides L2 English during the quasi-experiment	Categorical (politomous)
22. Presence of extra L2 English instruction during the quasi-experiment	Categorical (dichotomous)
23. Type of extra L2 English instruction during the quasi-experiment	Categorical (politomous)
24. Weekly hours of extra L2 English instruction during the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)
25. Weekly hours of individual L2 English study during the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)

Table 15. Individual variables

The rationale behind the inclusion of these variables was linked to several factors depending on the targeted item. Age is an individual variable extensively dealt with in the literature (Ellis, R., 1994; Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991; Muñoz, 2007; Skehan, 1989). Gender has gained attention from researchers in recent years at both theoretical and empirical levels (Manchón & Murphy, 2002; Ullman et al., 2002; Wood Bowden et al., 2005). The introduction of items which uncovered the participants' knowledge and study of other languages different from English was also without doubt owing to the plethora of recent empirical and non-empirical studies on bilingualism, third language acquisition and multicompetence (Cenoz et al., 2001; Cenoz & Hoffman, 2003; Cook, 1995, 2001; Ellis, N. C. & Larsen-Freeman, 2006; Wood Bowden et al., 2005, among others).

Concerning nationality, it was incorporated for descriptive purposes solely, since from my previous experience as an *OSL* student I assumed that the great majority of subjects would be Spanish. Illustrative reasons are also responsible for the insertion of level of studies and profession. With regard to variable 6 (*Knowledge of any of the Spanish co-official languages*), I thought it pertinent to include it for the sake of foreseeing any possible emigrants' cases from other bilingual regions. It referred to full or high competence, in contrast to variable 7 (*Knowledge of other foreign language(s) besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment*), which alluded to any degree of command.

On the other hand, and besides descriptive grounds, my actual experience as an L2 English learner accounts for the addition of the questions regarding a) the previously mentioned variables about knowledge of other foreign languages (given my status as an L3 French learner in the past); b) the overall number of years of English study; c) the weekly hours devoted to its study; d) presence and frequency of extra English instruction lessons; and e) subjects' stay(s) in English-speaking countries. The related nations and dates were complementary details that I was curious about.

In relation to stays, despite the number of studies being much less abundant than those devoted to the issues of age, gender and bilingualism, the last decade of the 20th century and first years of the 21st have witnessed a series of studies on the influence on L2 learning and mastery during stays abroad. The most recent literature review to-date is DeKeyser's (2007c), which states that the pertinent studies on listening, reading and writing skills are extremely scarce, those concentrating on speaking skills being more numerous.

As will be thoroughly explained in section 6.2.3., the subjects of this quasi-experiment were studying their 4th year of English at a Spanish centre called *Escuela Oficial de Idiomas* (Official School of Languages (*OSL*)). The mark obtained in the third year course was not included as an individual feature because of the three different ways to access the status of a 4th year learner and their associated divergences in the make-up of the students' grade. The actual test content and part percentages coincided in the following three modes:

Firstly, subjects could be official *OSL* 4th year students who had completed their third year course. In this case there existed two sub-variants: Those who had passed in June 2002 and those who had done so in September 2002. As I learned from the teachers involved in this research, the grade of the students who had passed the June 2002 exam (i.e., the final test) was a composite of this result plus that obtained in the February 2002 exam (the mid term test). The score of the February exam was multiplied by one and that of the June test was multiplied by two; the addition of both was divided into three, which made the final score. This was not the situation for those learners who had failed in June, as their mark solely depended on their September 2002 exam result. In the second place, some students had enrolled in the fourth academic year 2002-2003 through a non-official access, i.e., by doing a special exam that had allowed them to skip attendance of the three initial years. These non-official learners' marks were only based on the result of this exam. Thirdly, students could have accessed the fourth year

by means of a regional distance-learning program called "Open English". The materials consisted of a textbook with keys, CDs and a videotape. The structure of this program was organised into six modules, the last two corresponding to the third year. As can be seen, the heterogeneity concerning the grade configuration of the three systems was substantial enough to justify the exclusion of a "3rd year English grade" variable.

6.2.2.2.2. Extraneous variables

Seliger & Shohamy (1989: 148) bluntly highlight a very serious drawback to quasi-experimental research: "In the real world in which schools and classes exist, serious limitations are placed on the freedom of researchers to manipulate and control the conditions under which they conduct research". Indeed, despite the extremely kind treatment I received by the *OSL* managers and teachers, this quotation applies to this research. Even so, an attempt was made to counteract the influence of several extraneous variables that were considered to affect the internal and external validity of this study. In this section such variables are described in detail in two different parts: Internal and external validity. The identification of these variables and their definitions are mostly taken from Seliger & Shohamy (1989: 95-112) and from Sierra Bravo (1994: 141-147). In my opinion of all the sources consulted (even the most modern ones), they are those which I consider best explain these issues.

6.2.2.2.2.1. Internal validity

The following extraneous variables purported to endanger the internal validity of this research (i.e., the degree to which the results can be accurately interpreted (Brown & Rodgers, 2002) were classified into the following categories: "Variables linked to subject effects" (section 6.2.2.2.2.1.1.); "Variables linked to time effects" (section 6.2.2.2.2.1.2.) and "Other extraneous variables intrinsic to this study" (section 6.2.2.2.2.1.3.).

6.2.2.2.2.1.1. Variables linked to subject effects (subject variability)

According to Seliger & Shohamy (1989), this concerns whether the sample used in the research can be regarded as being representative of a population with the same characteristics to which the results may be extrapolated. These authors suggest two ways to control this extraneous variable: random sampling (choosing at random a group of subjects from a much larger sample) and random assignment (distributing the actual

study sample in different groups). In this study neither type of randomisation was possible due to *OSL* administrative restrictions, as explained in sections 6.2.3. and 6.2.5.2. However, as it has also been recently indicated, the sample proved to be homogenous in their individual variables despite the unfeasibility of using a randomised sample.

6.2.2.2.2.1.2. Variables linked to time effects

- Attrition

Attrition or dropouts during the study might be due to subjects' illnesses or loss of interest, etc. Seliger & Shohamy (1989) suggest beginning with a population larger than necessary if the study is going to develop over an extended period of time. In this quasi-experimental study, it was not possible to adopt this measure since the potential overall amount of subjects corresponded to the official number of students registered in the classes. On the other hand, as explained in sections 6.2.3. and 6.2.5.2., implementing the quasi-experiment in different classes was not a workable option either.

Table 16 supplies information about the number of dropouts in the two groups of this study.

Table 16. Attrition

	EG	CG
Total no. of registered students	35	39
Total no. of students who did the Pre-test	26	25
Total no. of students who did both the Pre-test and the Post-test	19	15

As can be seen in Table 16, the CG presented a higher number of dropouts than the EG (10 against 7). More specifically, within the EG, 7 students did the Pre-test but not the Post-test, whereas 6 learners did the Post-test but not the Pre-test. Regarding the CG, 10 subjects did the Pre-test but not the Post-test, whilst 1 subject did the Post-test but not the Pre-test. A chi-square test was calculated to check whether the effect of the CPM intervention could have been contaminated due to the difference between such dropouts. This difference was not found to be significant (χ^2 (1) = 5.885, $p > .05$).

Therefore, it can be stated that the attrition in this quasi-experiment did not lead to an inaccurate interpretation of the results.

The dropouts in both groups are believed to have happened because of the following reason. At the time of the quasi-experiment, the *OSL* students were allowed to do the exams as long as they had attended a minimum of 60% of the overall classes. It should be taken into account that, despite these students' supposed high motivation, most of them had other primary obligations (studying or working) which sometimes made them use some or all of the permitted 40% non-attendance. When commenting on the dropouts with the teachers involved, they stated that this was a natural tendency although the number of students involved was generally lower than those who regularly attended the classes.

- Attendance

Besides attrition, in this study I considered it pertinent to discover the attendance effects of those subjects who did both the Pre-test and the Post-test. This was possible to calculate thanks to the administration of an attendance list that was distributed in all the 35 sessions of this quasi-experiment. The mean was 26.41 and the standard deviation (SD) was 3.91 (see Table 17 for the means and SD within groups). In order to discover whether the missing sessions could have interfered with the results, a t-test for independent samples was computed. As can be seen in Table 18, the statistics of both the Levene test and the t-test were not significant. Hence, the lack of attendance to all 35 sessions was disregarded as an extraneous variable.

Table 17. Descriptive information regarding attendance of the subjects who did both the Pre-test and the Post- test

	EG		CG	
Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Total attended no. of sessions (out of the overall 35 ones)	27.37	4.08	25.20	3.44

Table 18. Total attendance comparing the EG and the CG, assuming equal variances

Variable	Levene (F)	*p*	t	*p*
Total attended no. of sessions (out of the overall 35 ones)	0.49	.49	-1.64	.11

- History

Sierra Bravo (1994: 147) defines history as, "acontecimientos ocurridos entre la primera y la segunda medición, además de la variable experimental" (events happened between the first and the second test, despite the experimental variable). [Authoress' translation]. In the case of second and foreign languages, Seliger & Shohamy (1989) indicate the following problem for longitudinal studies: The possible extraneous influence of being exposed to sources of input other than the classroom, which is more difficult to control in the former setting. In the present research, such exposure during the actual quasi-experiment was identified by means of the following variables (numbers 22-24 in Table 15 on page 184): *Presence of extra L2 English instruction during the quasi-experiment*; *type of extra L2 English instruction during the quasi-experiment* and *weekly hours of extra L2 English instruction during the quasi-experiment.* As explained in section 6.2.3., the possible distorting effects of these variables were shown to be non-existent.

- Maturation

Maturation concerns biological and pyschological processes that produce changes in the participants in such a way that they may alter their response to the experimental variable (Sierra Bravo, 1994). As Seliger & Shohamy indicate (1989), maturation is more significant with younger than with older subjects as the former do not have their cognitive abilities fully developed. This extraneous variable is believed to be of little importance in this study for two reasons. Firstly, all subjects of the EG were adults (whether young or mature); thus there was an absence of changes in their cognitive development, as it had already been completed. Secondly, the negative effect of this variable was controlled thanks to the CG, whose age was distributed in the same way as in the EG.

- Instrument/task sensitivity

Seliger & Shohamy (1989) differentiate between two types of this pre-testing influence. Firstly, learners may become test-wise, i.e. familiar with the format of the instrument or task. Secondly, the pre-test might cause a practice-effect; in other words, because of the simple fact of taking the test, the subjects may have actually practised the content focus of the study. In both situations, the final results cannot be claimed to be solely due to the independent variable as they might have been affected by subjects'

sensitivity to the research instrument. In the present work, the official Pre-test and Post-test were different in content and only coincided in format. In any case, the distorting effect of this extraneous variable was counteracted thanks to the CG.

- Time allotted for data collection or the experimental treatment

Seliger & Shohamy (1989: 101) state that, "it should be obvious that there is no hard and fast rule for deciding when enough time has elapsed for collecting a valid sample data or for a treatment to have an effect". This decision will depend on the context, the length of time, the sensitivity of the instruments and the criteria to determine whether subjects' performance implies real acquisition or not. Despite these authors' remarks, in the present study the time allotted for the experimental treatment (the second semester of an academic year) was solely chosen on the basis of the teachers' advice (see section 6.2.5.1.).

6.2.2.2.2.1.3. Other extraneous variables intrinsic to this study

a) Teachers. As will be seen in section 6.2.3., their selection was due to *OSL* administrative factors. This accounted for me asking them to complete a card which would provide me with their personal and academic profiles. Even if they were not randomly selected, the information that both teachers supplied suggests that, at least from a qualitative perspective, their backgrounds largely coincided. This evidently enhanced the internal validity of this research. See the previously referred to section for a summary of the information obtained in such cards.
b) Environmental variables. These are mentioned by Cantos (1993) and by Sierra Bravo (1994). They include noise, light, quality of the context's furniture, etc. In the present research the related conditions of the two classrooms were remarkably alike and therefore acceptable.
c) The effect of the groups' timetable. The CG has lessons from 1:30 pm to 3:00 pm on Mondays, Thursdays and Fridays and the EG from 3:00 pm to 4:30 pm on Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Thursdays. As will be explained in sections 6.2.3. and 6.2.5.1., these lesson times were fixed by the *OSL* without any possibility of change on my part. Due to their similarity, it could be argued that their positive and negative effects on the sample (if any at all) were analogous.

6.2.2.2.2.2. External validity

The following extraneous variables that might affect the external validity of this quasi-experimental study (whether the results can be generalised to other wider populations (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989) are categorised in three parts: "Variables linked to subject effects"; "Variables linked to the researcher or experimenter effects" and "Variables linked to time effects" (sections 6.2.2.2.2.2.1., 6.2.2.2.2.2.1.2., 6.2.2.2.2.2.1.3. respectively).

6.2.2.2.2.2.1. Variables linked to subject effects

- Population characteristics

  According to Seliger & Shohamy (1989: 107), this variable is linked to

> the degree to which the sample population in the study has the same characteristics as the population to which the research findings are to be applied. Is the population used in the research a specific subset of the larger population?

In the case of this study, the target population was that which attended the *OSL* and specifically those students registered in the fourth year. Even though a single *OSL* centre and solely two groups could be employed (see section 6.2.5.2.), this two-group subset was shown to be sufficiently heterogeneous to become representative of the *OSL* population objective (see section 6.2.3. for all the related information).

- Interaction of subject selection and research

Seliger & Shohamy (1989) warn about the difficulty of finding an adequate number of subjects for studies that are longitudinal or which require different treatments. This problem is especially serious in cases where subjects have to devote time outside their normal timetables for the research. In these situations, they might be paid or asked to volunteer, which leads the two authors to question the external validity of such works. In the present research, the participants' timetables and classrooms were not altered in any way; furthermore, the participants were not paid and did not volunteer either.

As will be thoroughly explained in section 6.2.5.3. (specifically, within *Meetings prior to the quasi-experiment*), on the first day of the quasi-experiment teachers informed their learners about the implementation of a research study during the second

semester. Teachers explained to them the related conditions and told them that they could decide not to participate; however, since confidentiality would be guaranteed and their marks would not be altered, the teachers asked them to remain in the research. Finally, there were no learners who officially left the study. All the students in both classes took part in the research, with the exception of dropouts (see *Attrition* above in 6.2.2.2.2.1.2.).

- "Hawthorne effect" or the effect of the research environment

This owes its name to a manufacturing plant where the workers who were the subjects of the research study increased their production under both improved and worsened conditions. The prestige acquired in front of their other colleagues accounted for their behaviour (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989; Sierra Bravo, 1994). In the study of this thesis, I considered it ethical that the teachers explicitly informed their students about the development of a research study in their classes. I thought this was also convenient from a practical viewpoint since it was obvious that they would notice certain changes in their ordinary teaching (namely, the *FCE* test in both Pre and Post-test time measures and the three questionnaires). In an attempt to counteract the effect of this extraneous variable, teachers did not tell their learners the purpose of the research and assured them that their final grades would not be influenced by their participation in this study. Besides, the teachers themselves implemented the entire quasi-experiment.

- Evaluative apprehension

This extraneous variable is mostly related to the study of social and personal facets. Sierra Bravo (1994) defines it as the situation in which the subjects believe that the researchers' task is to judge or assess their knowledge, mental health, ideology, etc. Consequently, the participants act according to this impression. As indicated before, in order to cancel out this negative influence, teachers guaranteed their learners that the data of either the exams or the questionnaires would be confidential and that it would not affect their fourth year grades. Besides, such a guarantee was explicitly included in the questionnaires themselves (see section 6.2.4.3.3.).

- Characteristics of the research question or task required of the participants

Sierra Bravo (1994) specifies Orne as the author who identified this extraneous variable for the first time and identified it as *características de la demanda* in Spanish.

It consists of the subjects' learning of the experimental hypothesis through clues given in the research. This means that their responses are driven not only by the independent variable(s) but also by the participants' idea of what they believe the research objectives are. With the aim of neutralising this negative effect as much as possible, six measures were adopted: a) The teachers not telling their students the purpose of the research; b) the teachers themselves being in charge of implementing this quasi-experimental study following the guidelines provided by myself in our meetings; c) observer's sessions (see below in *Researcher's expectations*); d) certain video and audio recorded sessions; e) the teachers' daily worksheets; and f) the weekly meetings with the teachers both prior to and during the intervention (see sections 6.2.4.4. and 6.2.5.3).

6.2.2.2.2.2.2. Variables linked to the researcher or experimenter effects

- Researcher's expectations

This is very similar to the preceding one. Here the researcher him/herself is responsible for subtly communicating to the subjects his/her own expectations about the research results, as well as whether he/she expects the hypothesis to be confirmed or rejected (Sierra Bravo, 1994). Several methodological decisions were taken to counteract the effects of this extraneous variable. The first two are the same as those of the preceding *Characteristics of the research question or task required of the participants* in section 6.2.2.2.2.2.1. A third decision consisted of an advice given by Sierra Bravo: The incorporation of a blind observer. This person was an English-native speaker and a specialist in ELT who had nothing to do with this research and who, therefore, was not aware of its hypothesis and purpose. They attended five lessons (two of the CG and three of the EG) where they filled in certain cards devised for this study. For the description of such cards, the instructions given to this observer and the frequency of the observed sessions see sections 6.2.4.4.2. and 6.2.5.6.2.

- Presence of the researcher in the research context

In this case it is not the researcher's insinuations or hints to the subjects but his/her actual presence which endangers the external validity of the study (Sierra Bravo, 1994). As previously mentioned, the present quasi-experiment was not implemented by myself but only by the teachers who were assigned to each group. Precisely due to the reason that I did not participate in any stage of the implementation of this study, I took

several measures to control its correct application on the teachers' part. These were the same as those in *Characteristics of the research question or task required of the participants* in section 6.2.2.2.2.2.1.

6.2.2.2.2.2.3. Variables linked to time effects

The impact of time on external validity concerns, "the degree to which the time frame established by the research context can be extended to the real world to which the results of the research will be generalized" (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989: 110). In other words, this draws attention to the fact of whether the research results could also be applied to long-term learning processes and related changes. The same remarks as in the previously discussed *Time allotted for data collection or the experimental treatment* under section 6.2.2.2.2.1.2. are relevant here.

6.2.2.3. Moderator variables

These are all the previous individual variables included in Table 15 (section 6.2.2.2.1.). Their effect on the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables is explained in section 6.3.1.2.

6.2.3. Sample

As required by the type of research design chosen for this study, a sample was selected in order to reach the objectives of the present work. The final sample comprised 34 students enrolled in the 2002-2003 4th year of English at the *Escuela Oficial de Idiomas (OSL)* in the Spanish city of Murcia.

The *OSL* is a Spanish national educational institution at a state level. It is devoted to the teaching of the official languages spoken in the countries which belong to the European Union and other co-official languages in Spain, as well as Spanish as a Foreign Language. The study of other languages which do not belong to the preceding categories but which are considered to be of special cultural, social and economic interests are also offered, such as Arabic and Japanese. Undertaking the courses of the *OSL* is not compulsory to attain any job, although the certificates from this institution are well-recognised throughout of Spain and are important merits when applying for a state post. The requirements to study a (foreign) language there are to have the *Graduado Escolar* (Spanish school-leaving certificate) title or to have studied the first part of the *Estudios de Bachillerato* (compulsory Secondary School). Thus the lowest

age to enrol in this institution is 14. At the time of the quasi-experiment, the following specific official Spanish law issued on 1st December, 1989 *(RD 1523/1989)* ruled that the minimum learning contents and the structure of the language courses of the *OSLs* in the Region of Murcia. These were organised in the following way: Five years distributed as an Elementary Cycle which lasts three years (360 classroom hours as a minimum) and a Superior Cycle which consists of two years (240 classroom hours). The first year is elementary; the second one leads to a pre-intermediate level; the third and fourth ones develop intermediate and upper-intermediate levels respectively and the fifth year completes an Advanced level.[37] In relation to the CEF, another official Spanish Education law issued on 3rd May 2006 (LOE (*Ley Orgánica 2/2006, 3 de mayo*)) establishes that the teaching of languages at the Official Schools of Languages will have to completely abide by the requirements of the Council of Europe. This will be effective from the academic year 2007-2008 and, among many other elements, it will require a complete restructuring of this institution's exams.

Two complete classes and two different teachers from the *OSL* participated in the research. Both groups had the same amount of lesson hours per week: 4.5 distributed over three days. The following table displays both groups' timetables.

Table 19. Groups' timetables

EG	CG
Tuesdays, Wednesdays and Thursdays (3:00 pm - 4:30 pm)	Mondays, Thursdays and Fridays (1:30 pm - 3:00 pm)

OSL administrative constraints accounted for the following limitations: a) The impossibility of using more than two groups; b) the selection of these two particular 4th year English classes and teachers; c) the unfeasibility of randomly assigning the subjects to any of the two groups (as students had already been distributed in each one before I first contacted this institution); d) their specific timetables. It should be added that the students had been assigned to these specific groups because of the following reason: Their timetable preferences. This means that I was unable to control the number of students in each group, their sex and their age. In this way, the only difference

[37] The information from this paragraph up to this sentence is taken from http://centros6.pntic.mec.es/eoi.de.hellin/pfc.PDF and from the 2002-2003 Didactic Programme (*Programación Didáctica*) of the Murcia *OSL* (a copy of which the teachers of this study very kindly provided me with). See section 6.2.6.2. for a detailed account of this Didactic Programme.

between both groups imposed by me was the instruction. The reader is referred to section 6.2.5.2., which thoroughly explains the rationale for the selection of the *OSL* as the setting for this research, further details concerning the assignment of the groups who took part in this study, the distribution of the teachers involved in the CG and the EG, etc.

From now onwards the teacher of the CG and of the EG will be named as Teacher A and Teacher B respectively. Their key personal and academic information was collected through a one-page "technical specification card" that I gave to them during our first meeting (see also section 6.2.4.5.).

Table 20 shows the resulting profile of both teachers up to January 2003 (the month prior to the beginning of the quasi-experiment). The first column on the left offers the items that were contained in this "technical specification card". They were thought to be the most suitable ones so as to obtain the nature of the data recently outlined. It should be remarked that items 4) and 11) were added due to the idiosyncrasies of the *OSL*. In order to have a fixed post in this institution, candidates have to pass what is called in Spanish *oposiciones*. These consist of a series of exams that are compulsory to pass in order to obtain many permanent contract jobs in the public sector. There are different *oposiciones* depending on the specific post applied for. Those concerning the *OSL* are at the base of the three different categories in which the teaching staff in this institution is graded. At the bottom there are the temporary teachers who have not obtained their fixed post through *oposiciones* yet. Next there is the most abundant type of "ordinary" *OSL* teachers, i.e., those who passed these official exams. The highest rank is composed of *OSL* full-professors, who attain this title after some specialised *oposiciones*.

From the information in Table 20 it could be stated that their profiles were analogous. The most outstanding difference between the two was the CG teacher's BA degree in Spanish Studies and her *OSL* full-professorship as opposed the EG teacher's ordinary *OSL* teacher rank. Apart from this, both of them were of similar ages and their length of careers virtually coincided. They had a vast training and specialization background as shown by their courses and conferences at a national and international level. Most of this training dealt with EFL methodology and had taken place either in refresher courses in England or within programs sponsored by the Spanish Ministry of Education. The two teachers had also participated in some government-funded projects. All these courses and projects covered a wide range of areas from general issues to

specific topics such as learner-centred teaching, English for Specific Purposes, and the use of TICS (the latter especially for the EG teacher).

Table 20. Teachers' personal and professional profile

	EG teacher	CG teacher
1. Nationality	Spanish	Spanish
2. Gender	Woman	Woman
3. Age	44	45
4. Type of *OSL* post	Ordinary *OSL* teacher	Full-professor (since March 2002)
5. Qualifications	English Studies	English and Spanish Studies
6. Duration of studies	5	7
7. Final year of degree studies	1982 (University of Salamanca, Spain)	Spanish Studies: 1979; English Studies: 1992 (University of Murcia, Spain)
8. Overall years of professional experience	20	22
9. Years of non-*OSL* professional experience (if applicable)	1	1
10. First *OSL* teaching year	1983	1981
11. Year when *OSL* fixed post obtained	1985	1984
12. Management titles	*OSL* Director of Studies (from 1999 until the time of the quasi-experiment)	Head of the English Department (1982-1986; 1989-1990)
13. Training and specialisation courses	• Spanish *CAP* course (similar to British PGCE) • Teacher's refresher courses in England. • National and international conferences, seminars and courses on EFL methodology (TESOL, OSL National Conferences, etc.). • Participation in Spanish Ministry of Education-funded projects.	• Spanish *CAP* course (similar to British PGCE) • Teacher's refresher courses in England. • National and international conferences, seminars and courses on EFL methodology (TESOL, OSL National Conferences, etc.). • Participation in Spanish Ministry of Education-funded projects. • 2 national conferences on Applied Linguistics

There were 15 subjects in the CG and 19 in the EG (see *Attrition* and *Attendance* above in section 6.2.2.2.2.1.2.). Their linguistic and non-linguistic characteristics concerning the time period "before" and "during" the quasi-experiment were obtained thanks to the administration of the Initial Questionnaire (IQ) and the Final Questionnaire 1 (FQ1) respectively.

All the 34 participants were Spanish-native speakers. They were mixed-gender students, although as can be seen in Table 21, the number of women was much higher than that of men:

Table 21. Gender

	EG	CG
Males	2	3
Females	17	12

The participants' ages ranged between 16 and 41, with a mean of 23.79 and a standard deviation (SD) of 5.04. See Table 22 below, which includes the means and SD of age in both groups as well as those of the other quantitative variables, which refer to the subjects' linguistic background.

Table 22. Quantitative variables of the subjects who participated in the study (age and linguistic descriptive information)

	EG		CG	
Variable	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Age	22.79	3.71	25.07	6.25
Years of L2 English study	8.89	2.60	10.93	4.28
Number of stays in English-speaking countries	0.74	0.81	1.20	1.70
Stays: Number of L2 English study weeks	3.57	7.72	3.66	5.57
Stays: Number of weeks holiday	0.36	0.89	0.20	0.41
Stays: Number of exchange ("other" reasons) weeks	0.05	0.23	0	0
Number of months of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	7.53	24.32	.67	1.8
Weekly hours of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment	0.48	1.12	0.40	1.30
Weekly hours of individual L2 English study before the quasi-experiment	2.74	2.44	3.57	4.12
Weekly hours of individual L2 English study during the quasi-experiment	3.21	3.29	3.33	4.77

All the participants belonged to different fields of study from that of foreign languages and were learning English as a Second Language (L2).[38] The vast majority of the subjects were still studying (55.88% of them were undergraduate students and 11.76% were high-school students). The qualifications of the remaining 32.36% participants varied from Vocational Training, three-year-degree titles in Arts, Health and Technical Science to BA and BSc graduates in Arts and in Health Science

[38] This category solely relates to the status of English as the students' first foreign language in contrast to both their mother tongue (L1) and other non-first foreign languages, such as L3 French, for instance. It bears no relation to Foreign or Second Language contexts, since as was established in section 1.1., this research is EFL setting-based.

respectively. Table 23 includes the subjects' profession frequencies distributed in the two groups.

Table 23. Subjects' profession frequencies

	EG	CG
Profession	Frequency	Frequency
High-school student	3	1
University student	11	8
Qualified worker (from Vocational Training)	1	2
(3-year-Arts degree) BA	1	0
(3-year-Health Science degree) BSc	1	0
(3-year-Technical-Science degree) BSc	0	2
(5-year-Arts degree) BA	2	0
(5-year-Health-Science degree) BSc	0	2

The reader is also referred to Table A1 in Appendix A.1., which offers the frequencies of all the categorical dichotomous variables except gender for both groups.

With reference to the number of years of English study, all of them had previously studied at least 5, the highest value being 25. The mean was 9.84 (SD = 3.54). Thus, there existed a remarkable variance across the participants (see Table 22 on page 201 for the means and SD within each group). When answering the previous question, 29.41% of subjects indicated some gap years in their overall period of English study. Figure 2 offers the percentages of this variable distributed in both groups.

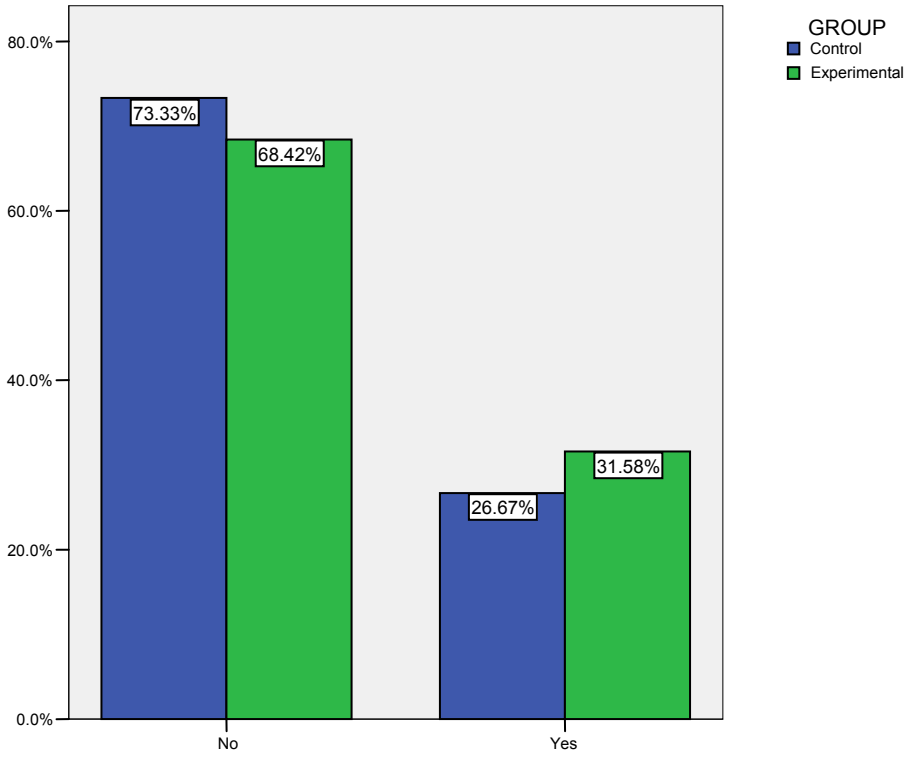


FIGURE 2
PRESENCE OF L2 ENGLISH STUDY GAP YEAR

Regarding the knowledge of other languages before the quasi-experiment, only one participant was fluent in a co-official Spanish language (Valencian). 44.17% of the subjects could speak or had some knowledge of other foreign languages besides L2 English. Figures 3 and 4 contain the percentages of these two variables as shown in both groups.

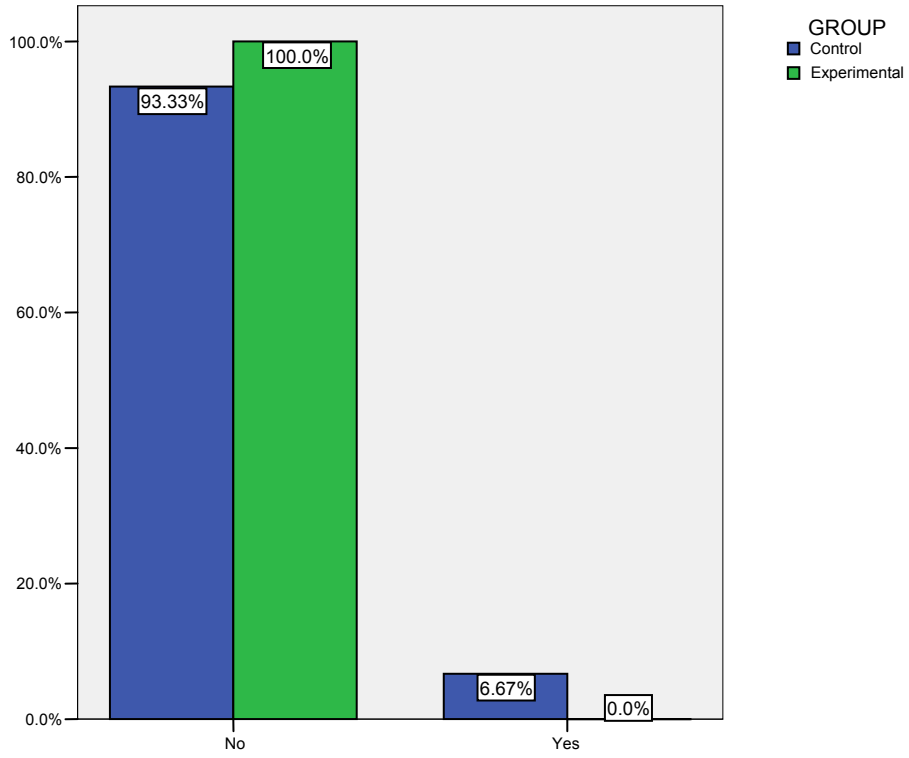


FIGURE 3
KNOWLEDGE OF ANY OF THE CO-OFFICIAL SPANISH LANGUAGES

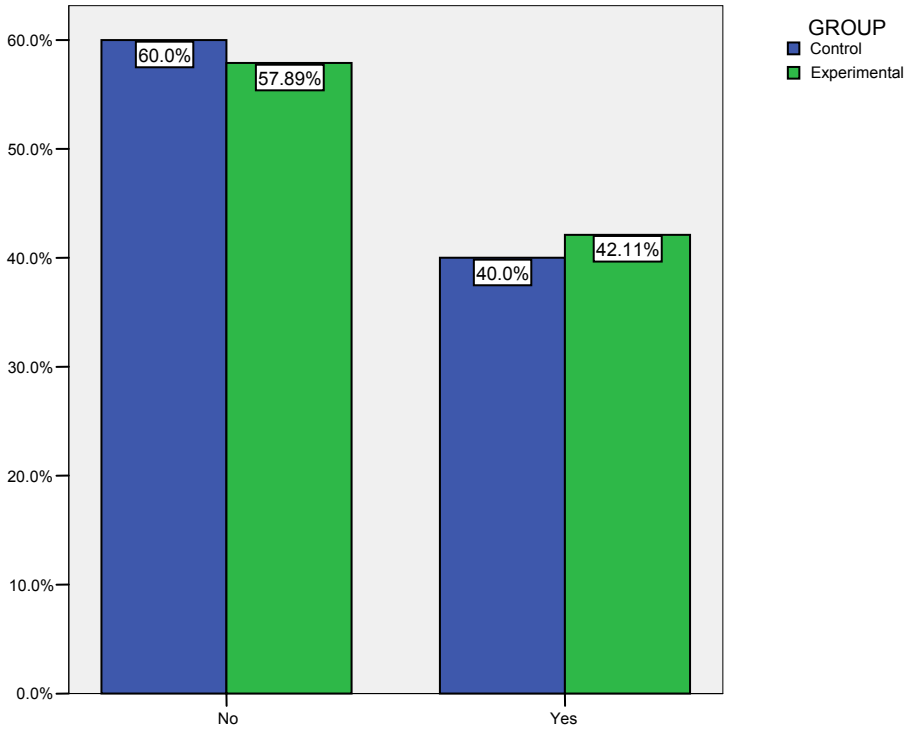


FIGURE 4
KNOWLEDGE OF OTHER FOREIGN LANGUAGE(S) BESIDES L2 ENGLISH BEFORE THE QUASI-EXPERIMENT

The specific foreign languages indicated were as follows: L2 French (2.94%); L3 French (29.41%); L3 French and L4 German (2.94%); L3 Italian and L4 French (5.92%).[39] The related frequencies within each group are comprised in Table 24:

Table 24. Identification of the foreign language(s) known besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment ordered by level of mastery

GROUP	None	L2 French	L3 French	L3 French; L4 German	L3 Italian; L4 French
EG	11	0	6	0	2
CG	9	1	4	1	0

58.8% of the informants had visited English-speaking countries. The mean was less than one visit (.9412, SD = 1.28) because only 10.03% of the participants had travelled abroad three or more times (see Table 22 on page 201 for the means and SD within groups). Figure 5 shows the percentages of subjects who had undertaken any stays distributed in both groups.

[39] It should be observed that since a single subject mentioned a foreign language different from English (French) as his/her L2, English was regarded as L2 in all the pertinent variables. Besides, I learnt from the teachers that there were not any bilingual subjects in their groups (involving English or any other foreign language).

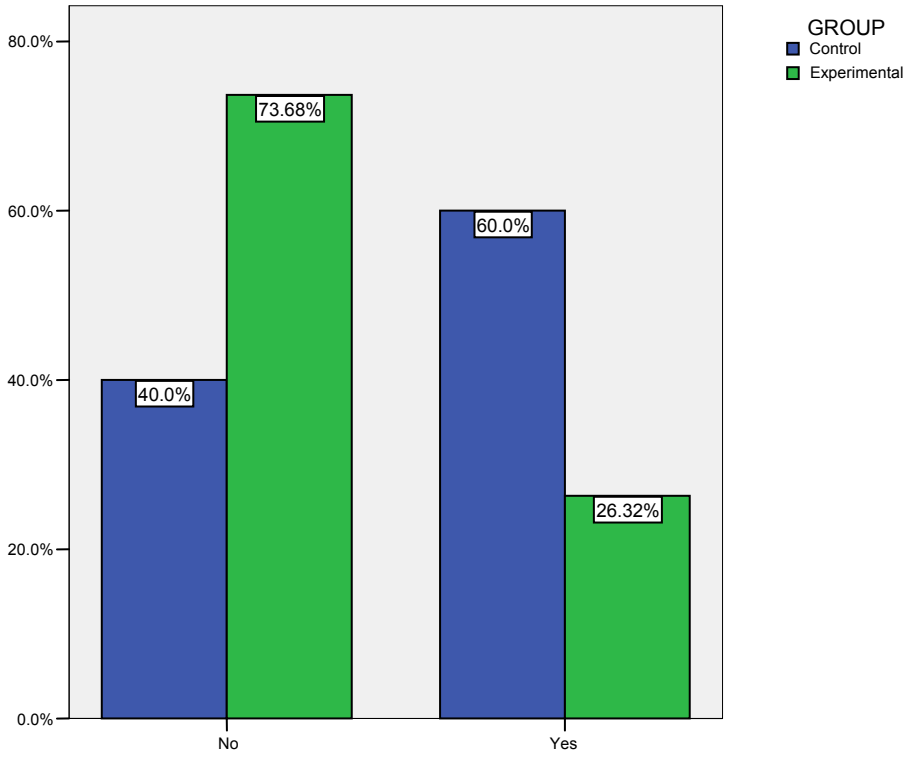


FIGURE 5
PRESENCE OF STAYS IN ENGLISH-SPEAKING COUNTRIES

The UK was the most frequently visited Anglo-Saxon country, followed by the USA, Ireland and Canada. With regard to the actual number of weeks of the stays, just 14.70% of the subjects spent more than two months in the English-speaking country in question. As to the purpose of the visits, some of them were rooted in English-study, whereas others were related to tourism or to "other" reasons, specifically exchange. None of the subjects stated "work" as the aim of their visits. Table 25 supplies the frequencies of each purpose in accordance with the number of subjects who performed them in each group:

Table 25. Purpose of stays as shown by the number of subjects who performed them in each group

GROUP	Study purposes	Holiday purposes	Exchange purposes (within "others")	Work purposes
EG	6	2	1	0
CG	6	1	0	0

14.70% of subjects received extra instruction in L2 English both before and during the quasi-experiment. These subjects were the same in the two periods. Figure 6 offers the percentages within groups.

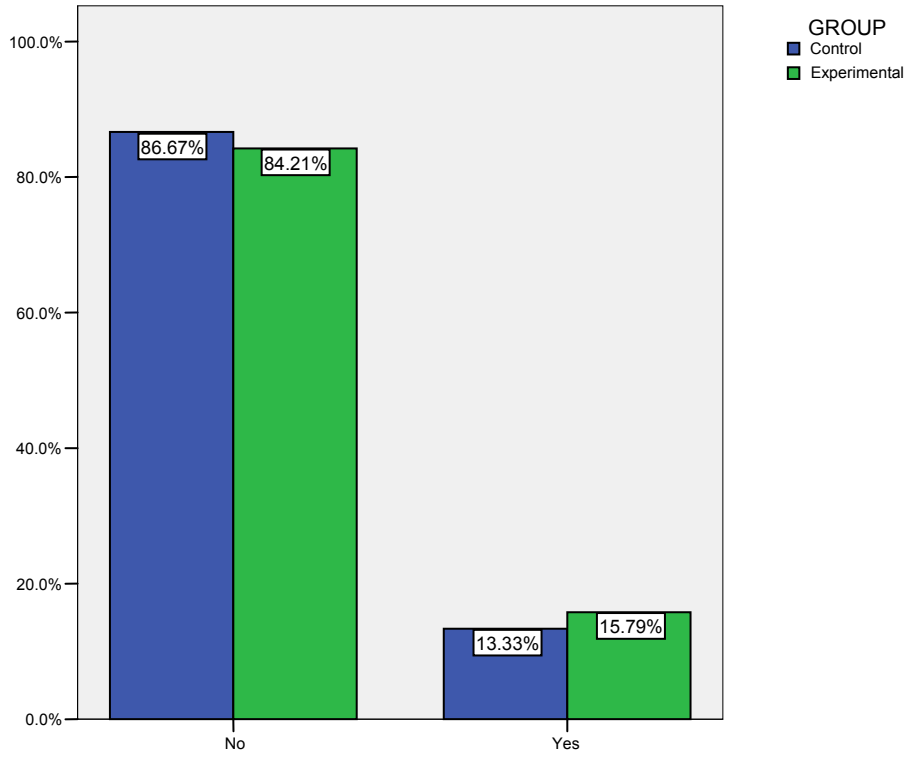


FIGURE 6
PRESENCE OF EXTRA L2 ENGLISH INSTRUCTION BEFORE AND DURING THE QUASI-EXPERIMENT

Private and high-school lessons were each attended by 5.88% of participants. The remaining 2.94% went to University lessons. Table 26 offers the specific frequencies of the extra L2 English instruction type as found in both groups.

Table 26. Type of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment

GROUP	None	Private lessons	High school (within "others")	University (within "others")
EG	16	1	2	0
CG	13	1	0	1

As for the weekly hours of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment, the mean was not more than 1 (.44, SD = 1.18) and the range of actual hours of instruction was between 1 and 5. The number of months during which this extra instruction took place before the quasi-experiment revealed a noteworthy variance across the subjects, as the mean was 4.5 (SD = 18.3) and the values ranged from 5 to 106 (see Table 22 on page 201 for the means and SD within each group). 8.82% of the subjects had been receiving this supplementary instruction for 5 months; 2.94% for 36 and the remaining 2.94% for 102.

Concerning the weekly hours of individual L2 English study before the quasi-experiment, the mean was 3.1. (SD = 3.2), the range being between 0 and 15. The minimum number of actual hours excluding 0 was 1. During the quasi-experiment the mean was 3.2. (SD = 3.9), with 0 and 20 as minimum and maximum values respectively.

Finally, during the quasi-experiment only 20.58% of the participants studied a foreign language other than L2 English. Figure 7 includes the percentages of this variable as shown in the two groups.

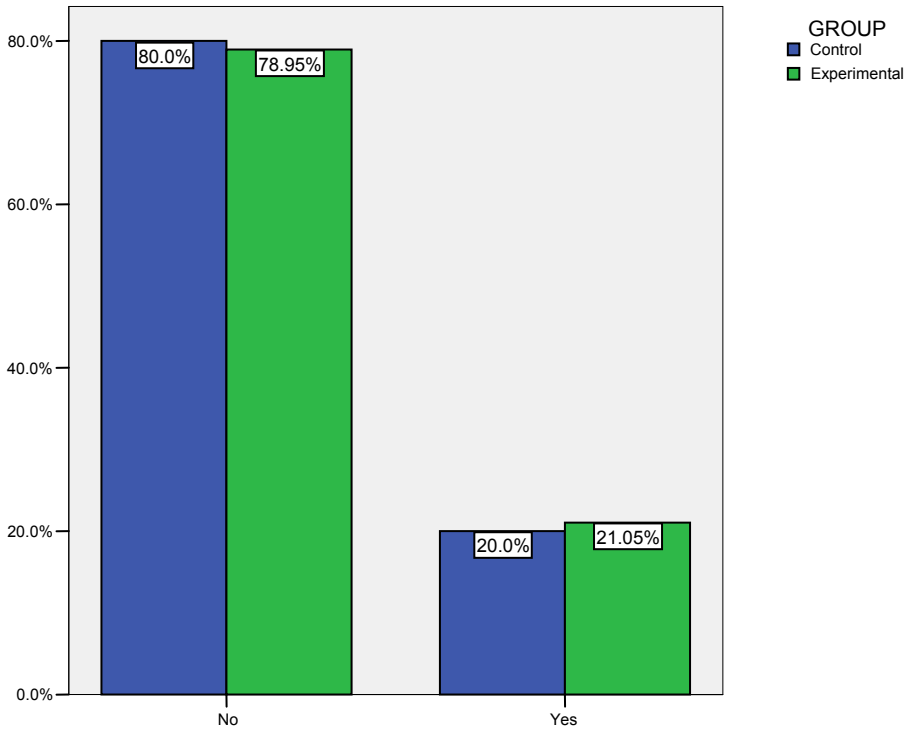


FIGURE 7
STUDYING OTHER FOREIGN LANGUAGE(S) BESIDES L2 ENGLISH DURING THE QUASI-EXPERIMENT

The specific languages studied were French (11.76% of subjects); Italian, German (2.94% of participants) and Greek and Latin (also 2.94% of subjects). Table 27 presents the specific frequencies within each group:

Table 27. Identification of the foreign language(s) studied during the quasi-experiment

GROUP	None	French	Italian	German	Greek and Latin
EG	15	2	1	0	1
CG	12	2	0	1	0

To determine whether the two groups had different linguistic and non-linguistic backgrounds, the data were statistically tested with a t-test for independent groups in the case of the quantitative variables and a chi-square analysis for categorical variables. Although randomisation could not be used in the present study for sampling purposes, the two groups were not found to differ significantly in any of the covariates considered here (see Tables 28 and 29 on pages 210-211). The t-test for quantitative covariates and the chi-square, χ^2, for the categorical covariates were calculated to test the null hypothesis that the observed means for the experimental and the control group in those variables are the same at the baseline.

The Levene test and the t-test were computed to compare the EG and the CG in the quantitative variables that could affect the results. Both statistics were not significant (see Table 28). The former indicate that the groups had a homogeneous variance, with the exception of the "Number of months of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment" (p = .03). However, this variable was not considered to disrupt the sample's overall homogeneity. As previously indicated, there were only 5 subjects with values above 0, of whom only one presented a remarkably higher value than 0 (102) in comparison with the other 4 participants. Consequently, a regression analysis was disregarded because of the reduced sample size. The 5 subjects were equally distributed in the two groups (3 in the EG and 2 in the CG). The results of the t-test show that there were not significant differences between the EG and the CG. Regarding the categorical dichotomous variables, a chi-square test was calculated to assess the differences between the groups. The results were not significant for any of them (see Table 29). Therefore both groups were comparable and successfully

controlled using an equivalent control group, in spite of the fact that neither the groups nor the subjects in each group were randomly selected and distributed.

Table 28. Quantitative variables comparing the EG and the CG, assuming equal variances

Variable	Levene (F)	*p*	t	*p*
Age	1.67	.20	1.32	.19
Years of L2 English study	0.00	.92	1.72	.09
Number of stays in English-speaking countries	2.58	.12	1.05	.30
Stays: Number of L2 English study weeks	0.09	.76	0.04	.97
Stays: Number of weeks holiday	3.04	.09	-0.67	.50
Stays: Number of exchange ("other" reasons) weeks	3.52	.07	-0.88	.38
Weekly hours of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment	0.11	.744	-0.17	.86
Number of months of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	4.97	.03	-1.09	.28
Weekly hours of individual L2 English study before the quasi-experiment	1.26	.27	0.73	.47
Weekly hours of individual L2 English study during the quasi-experiment	0.34	.56	0.09	.93

Table 29. Categorical variables comparing the EG and the CG

Variable	χ^2	*df*	*p*
Gender	0.60	1	.43
Profession	9.46	7	.22
Presence of L2 English study gap year	0.09	1	.75
Knowledge of any of the co-official Spanish languages	1.30	1	.253
Knowledge of other foreign language(s) besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment	0.01	1	.90
Identification of the foreign language(s) known besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment	4.18	4	.38
Presence of stays in English-speaking countries	3.92	1	.48
Presence of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment	0.04	1	.84
Type of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment	2.88	3	.41
Studying other foreign language(s) besides L2 English during the quasi-experiment	0.00	1	.94
Identification of the foreign language(s) studied besides L2 English during the quasi-experiment	2.9	4	.57

6.2.4. Instruments

6.2.4.1. General Introduction

The following instruments were used in the present quasi-experimental study:

1. Two different exams to measure the L2 English linguistic knowledge of the 34 subjects' at two different moments: Pre-test (beginning of the quasi-experimental study) and Post-test (end of the quasi-experimental study). The exams were *FCE* Paper 3 (Use of English) and the *OSL* rephrasing section.
2. An "Initial Questionnaire" to obtain information from all the participants about several subjects' individual characteristics before the quasi-experimental study.
3. A "Final Questionnaire" to gather the following data from the 34 subjects: a) Several individual features; b) their discernment of certain teachers' ways of using the textbook; c) their opinions on certain features of the lessons they attended. Points a) and b) correspond with the period of the quasi-experiment.
4. A "Questionnaire about certain aspects of the English as a Foreign Language classroom" to discover the opinions of all the participants about selected EFL classroom elements relevant to this study.
5. Teachers' daily worksheets completed by the teachers in every session of the quasi-experiment.
6. Observer's files identical in format and completed by a blind observer.
7. Audio and video recorded sessions.
8. A "Teachers' technical specification card" to acquire key personal and academic data of the teachers involved in this research.

It should be noted that, in terms of the verification of the correct implementation of the quasi-experiment, five types of instruments were employed to obtain information from different sources: The students' themselves (3.b.); the teachers (5); observer's files (6); audio recorded and videotaped sessions (7). The following sub-sections (6.2.4.2., 6.2.4.3., 6.2.4.4, 6.2.4.5.) thoroughly explain the design of each of the eight types of instruments. The reader is also referred to sections 6.2.5.4., 6.2.5.5. and 6.2.5.6. for further details about their actual implementation (dates, administration, etc.) and about the scoring procedures of the two tests.

6.2.4.2. Tests

Each subject was given ten tasks from two different exams as a Pre-test in February 2003 and as a Post-test in May-June 2003[40] (immediately after the intervention had finished) to evaluate the semester strategy teaching program. The achievement test selected in this research to measure the *OSL* fourth year participants' L2 English linguistic proficiency in the Pre and Post-test time measures was Paper 3 ("Use of English") from *Cambridge First Certificate in English* (hence *FCE)*.

As indicated in section 6.2.1., since I had access to the subjects' scores from the *OSL* official mid and end of term tests, the results of these exams were added for purely complementary purposes. It should not be forgotten that the efficacy of the CPM intervention as measured by the *FCE* Paper 3 encompasses the main results in this research. It should be taken into account that the actual content of the *FCE* test in the Pre-test was the same for both groups, as was the content of the *FCE* exam in the Post-test as well as the *OSL* exam in the Pre-test and the Post-test.

The reader is addressed to: a) Table 34 in section 6.2.5.1. for the dates of administration of both exams; b) section 6.2.5.1. again for the difference in the Pre-test and Post-test administration dates of both exams between groups; c) section 6.2.5.4. for details of administration as well as scoring procedures of both exams; d) Appendices C.1. and C.2. for the content of the *FCE* exam (Pre-test and Post-test; samples from the EG and CG respectively); e) Appendices C.5. and C.6. for the content of the *OSL* exam (Pre-test and Post-test).

6.2.4.2.1. Cambridge First Certificate in English (FCE)

6.2.4.2.1.1. Rationale for its selection

The choice of *FCE* to measure the fourth year subjects' language knowledge was due to the fact that it complied with two extremely important requirements for the purposes of this research: a) Reliability and validity standards and b) ease of access to the authoress. As described by Saville (2003: 62-63), a further advantage of using *FCE* is that all Cambridge ESOL exams are criterion-referenced given that they are linked to

[40] As described in section 6.2.5.1., subjects were assessed with the *FCE* test in May (Post-test) and with the *OSL* test in June (Post-test). Subjects only had two more classes after the *FCE* (Post-test). Such classes were devoted to exam review purposes and they took place the week immediately before the *OSL* exam period (see the aforementioned section 6.2.5.1.).

the ALTE levels; the latter are in turn interpretable within the context of the CEF. The specific ALTE and CEF level of *FCE* is 3 and B2 (Vantage) respectively. When learners finish the instruction corresponding to the B2 level, which is labelled as "Independent user", their communicative abilities are expressed in the "Global Scale" outlined by the CEF as follows:

> Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
>
> (CEF, 2001: 24)

The *OSL* year that closest resembled this level at the time of the quasi-experiment was the fourth year (see sections 6.2.5.2. and 6.2.6.2. for other reasons supporting the selection of this Cambridge exam). In the first section, such reasons are based on the lower language level required for the immediately preceding exam (*PET*) as compared to the third *OSL* year and thus the fourth year. As to the second section, the similarity of the communicative competence objectives between the CEF level B2 and *FCE* and those proposed in the *OSL Didactic Programme* accounts for the adequacy of the *FCE* as the official test in this study. Besides, the teachers involved in this research informed me that they used the Listening tasks from the *FCE Past Papers* books as material for their own exams (see the *References* section).

6.2.4.2.1.2. Construct and operationalisation. Overview of all the FCE *Papers: General description and scoring guidelines*

The construct that all UCLES exams attempt to measure is that of communicative language ability. Several influences affect the definition of this construct, which are detailed by Saville (2003: 66-67):

> the model proposed by Bacham's (1990) based on Canale and Swain, the work of the Council of Europe (the revised Waystage and Threshold specifications Van Ek & Trim, 1990) and the work of other researchers working in the field of task-based learning and assessment (e.g. Skehan 1996 and 1998; Weir 1990).

Accordingly, Cambridge ESOL exams comprise various tasks that test different language abilities. This section provides a general overview of all the *FCE* parts, which underlie this multi-faceted construct[41], considered together. It should be taken into account that this overview concerns the *FCE* exam at the time of the quasi-experiment, which abode by the 1996 revised version of this exam following the reviews started in 1991 (*Cambridge First Certificate in English Handbook,* 2001: 6). A new revised version of this and of the *Cambridge Advanced* exam will be implemented from December 2008 onwards (*http://www.cambridgeesol.org/exams/fce.htm).*

The following report will consist of a brief general description of each *FCE* Paper, which will be followed by a succinct piece of explanation of their marking schemes. Even if just Paper 3 was used in this study - the reason of which will be explained in section 6.2.4.2.1.4. - I consider it appropriate to offer a brief overview of the remaining Papers owing to the following factors: a) Supplying a faithful account of this exam, which would have been partial with the sole inclusion of Paper 3; b) later comparison purposes with the explanation of the equivalent *OSL* parts.[42]

FCE consists of the five following papers:

[41] The information of this and of the following section belongs to the electronic source *Cambridge First Certificate in English Handbook* (2001) and to the printed material *Cambridge First Certificate in English Examination Papers 5. Teacher's Book* (2001) - which from now onwards will be referred to as FCEH and FCEP respectively. Although it is acknowledged that similar documents appeared in later years in both storage formats, I thought it more convenient to rely on those immediately closer to the date of the actual tests that were used in this research. The reason behind this decision was due to the minor but still existing variances in the description of parts between former and later sources. The current Cambridge ESOL webpage does not host the FCEH any longer. This document was composed of six different files (the *Introduction* and five *Sample Papers*); those actually used in this thesis were the *Introduction*, *Sample Paper 2, Sample Paper 3* and *Sample Paper 5*. See the *References* section.

[42] It should be taken into account that a more detailed report of all the *OSL* test parts has been undertaken due to their use in the correlations between all the two test parts. See section 6.3.1.1. and Tables A12-A17 in Appendix A.3.2.

Table 30. *FCE* Papers

Reading *(Paper 1)*	1 hour 15 minutes
Writing *(Paper 2)*	1 hour 30 minutes
Use of English *(Paper 3)*	1 hour 15 minutes
Listening *(Paper 4)*	40 minutes (approximately)
Speaking *(Paper 5)*	14 minutes (approximately)

Reading

Candidates are expected to be able to read semi-authentic texts of various kinds (informative and general interest) and to show understanding of gist, detail and text structure, and deduce meaning.

The paper contains four parts and 35 questions. Each part contains a text and corresponding comprehension task. One part may contain two or more shorter related texts.

Writing

Candidates are expected to be able to write non-specialised text types such as letters, articles, reports and compositions for a given purpose and target reader, covering a range of topics. One of the optional tasks in Part 2 is based on the reading of one of five sets of books.

Candidates are required to carry out two tasks; a compulsory one in Part 1 and one from a choice of four in Part 2. The word length of each answer is 120-180 words.

Use of English

Candidates are expected to demonstrate their knowledge and control of the language system by completing a number of tasks, some of which are based on specially written texts.

The paper contains five parts and 65 questions, which take the form of multiple-choice cloze, open cloze, key word transformations, error correction and word-formation task types.

Listening

Candidates are provided with short extracts and longer monologues, announcements, extracts from radio programmes, news, features, etc., at an intermediate level. They are expected to show understanding of detail and gist, and to deduce meaning.

The paper contains four parts and 30 questions. Each part contains a recorded text or texts and corresponding comprehension tasks.

Speaking

The standard test format is two candidates and two examiners. Candidates must be able to respond to questions and interact in conversational English. Prompt materials are used by the examiner to stimulate and guide the interaction.

The paper contains four parts, including short exchanges with the examiner and with the other candidate, and a 'long turn' of about one minute.

(Taken from FCEH, 2001: 7. Italic segments added by the authoress)

The exam handouts of all the parts in each Paper have clear instructions as to performance guidelines and answering procedures. With regard to global scoring and grades, FCEH (2001) states that each paper is weighted to 40 marks and the global highest number of total marks 200. A candidate's overall *FCE* grade is derived from the whole score obtained in each of the five sections. It is not necessary to attain a satisfactory level in all the papers in order to pass the exam. Nominal grades range within the following boundaries: The first three pass grades (A, B, C) and the two fail grades (D and E). The minimum percentage to achieve a Grade C is 60%.

With respect to marking systems, the FCEP (2001) explains the following guidelines for each of the different parts in each Paper. All the objectively-scored multiple choice items of Papers 1, 3 and 4 are directly scanned by computer. As to the open-answer questions in Papers 3 and 4, these are corrected according to a mark scheme devised after a pre-testing process and which, "is adjusted at the beginning of the marking procedure to take account of candidate actual performance and then finalised" (FCEP, 2001: 18 and 20). Also, all scripts are double-marked and the examiners may consult the question papers themselves in case of doubt during the marking process. With respect to Paper 3 (*Use of English*), correct spelling is compulsory in open-answer items. Conversely, in Paper 4 (*Listening*), minor spelling errors are allowed in the note-taking and blank-filling tasks as long as the candidate's intention is clear, except when the word had been spelt out letter-by-letter.

With regard to Paper 2 (*Writing*), the two compositions are corrected in line with a "General impression mark scheme" which must be accompanied by a task-specific mark scheme. The general scheme details five descriptive performance bands that relate to the five following criteria (FCEH, 2001): 1) Content; 2) organisation and cohesion; 3) range of structures and vocabulary (this also includes accuracy as well as spelling and punctuation); 4) register and format; 5) target reader effect. All the writing pieces are assessed by a small team of examiners coordinated by an experienced Team Leader. The whole process is supervised by a Principal Examiner.

Finally, in Paper 5 (*Speaking*), candidates' assessment is undertaken against their own individual performance in the whole test (not in relation to each other). This assessment is done by two examiners. One acts as an assessor, who does not take part in the conversation but just listens; the other one acts an interlocutor who administers the test and directs the interaction. The former supplies four analytical marks and the latter provides one global mark on the basis of the following criteria (as specified in FCEH, 2001): Grammar and Vocabulary (Accuracy and Appropriacy); Discourse Management (Range, Coherence and Extent); Pronunciation (Individual Sounds and Prosodic Features); Interactive Communication (Turn-taking, Initiating and Responding); Global Achievement. These criteria are interpreted in the light of Cambridge Level 3 within the Cambridge Common Scale for Speaking. The actual oral assessment is preceded by a complex examiners' training and standardisation process.

6.2.4.2.1.3. Validity and reliability of the FCE *exam*

The average reliability figure was 0.91-calculated using the alpha coefficient- for the 2002 Paper 3 (Cambridge ESOL, personal communication). In relation to validity, an exhaustive search was performed and no sources report any numerical data. It is acknowledged, however, that Cambridge employs a variety of methods for this purpose. More precisely, a combination of qualitative and quantitative studies is performed in an attempt to provide evidence for claims about the validity and usefulness of the exams as based on the two following well-known approaches: a) Classical Test Theory (e.g., inter-rater agreement, correlations with other questionnaires, etc.) and b) Item Response Theory (IRT) - specifically, the Rasch model (Saville, 2003).

6.2.4.2.1.4. Rationale for the use of FCE *Paper 3 alone*

The reason why only Paper 3 was used in this quasi-experiment is rooted in the managerial constraints of the *OSL* as is explained in section 6.2.5.3. The teachers informed me that it was not possible to use the entire *FCE* exam and that the administration of the *FCE* exam (Pre-test and Post-test) together with the questionnaires should not occupy more than one session for each time measure.

After learning of these restrictions, the precise selection of the *Use of English* part and not other *FCE* tasks was primarily driven by the time stipulations of each paper as specified in FCEP (2001). Paper 2 (*Writing*) was disregarded straight away as it took one hour and thirty minutes, which did not allow the subjects any time to complete the questionnaires (see section 6.2.5.5.1.). Paper 5 (*Speaking*) lasted for 14 minutes but it was also immediately omitted due to the great amount of time (more than one session) that would have to be spent on examining all the students in both groups. 40 minutes were approximately scheduled for Paper 4 (*Listening*), which I believed to fall a bit too short for the overall ninety-minute sessions. Lastly, Papers 1 (*Reading*) and 3 (*Use of English*) took 1 hour and 15 minutes each. Out of these two, Paper 3 was finally selected on the following grounds. To begin with, the *OSL* exam did not have a reading section so that the potential comparison of the results that I wanted to carry out would not have been possible. Besides, I considered that the students' performance in a single skill would supply an unbalanced representation of their L2 English knowledge, especially taking into account that this study was not purposefully focused and designed for the testing of reading skills alone. Thus I decided to choose the *Use of English* part, which concerned the outcomes of *grammar* and *vocabulary*.

I acknowledge that the testing of these two linguistic components alone does not fully correlate with the present-day integrative and communicative view of overall L2 ability (Bachman, 1990; Canale & Swain, 1980; Heaton, 1975). However, what I believe cannot be rejected is that *grammar* and *vocabulary* do underlie all the four skills and that their mastery is necessary for the correct - or at least acceptable - performance in both receptive and productive based activities. The CEF (2001) affirms that the linguistic competences (lexical competence; grammatical competence; semantic competence; phonological competence; orthographic competence; orthoepic competence) are, "the formal resources from which well-formed, meaningful messages may be assembled and formulated" (p. 109). It also asserts that, "The development of the learner's linguistic competences is a central, indispensable aspect of language learning" and that "Grammatical competence, the ability to organise sentences to convey meaning, is clearly central to communicative competence" (CEF, 2001: 149 and 152 respectively).

From a skill-theory acquisition perspective, the above means that declarative knowledge of grammar rules acts as the foundation for developing receptive and productive procedural knowledge, which is subsequently automatised (DeKeyser, 2007c). Of course, as argued in section 4.3.2., this does not indicate that a) declarative knowledge cannot be developed out of procedural knowledge by means of explicit formal instruction - *PRODEC*; and that b) declarative knowledge cannot arise from the noticing, hypothesis testing and (re)formulating prompted by output *practice* (Muranoi, 2007; Skehan, 1998; Swain, 1985, 1995, 2005). What is actually implied is that correctly proceduralised grammar (together with deeply internalised vocabulary) is an indispensable condition on the language users' part for successful communication, whether receptive or productive. Therefore, as stated above, this is the reason why I considered that focusing on grammar and vocabulary was a more balanced decision than the use of Paper 1 (*Reading*).

6.2.4.2.1.5. Description of FCE *Paper 3 (Use of English): Parts, scoring guidelines and variable scale measures*

The Use of English Paper 3 is composed of 65 questions distributed in the following sections:

Table 31. Parts of *FCE* Paper 3 (*Use of English*)

Part	Type and Focus	Number of Questions	Task format
1	Multiple-choice cloze An emphasis on vocabulary	15	*A modified cloze text containing 15 gaps and followed by 15 four-option multiple-choice questions.*
2	Open cloze Grammar and vocabulary	15	*A modified cloze text containing 15 gaps.*
3	Key word transformations Grammar and vocabulary	10	*Discrete items with a lead-in sentence and a gapped response to complete using a given word.*
4	Error correction An emphasis on grammar	15	*A text containing errors. Some lines of the text are correct, other lines contain an extra, incorrect word which must be identified.*
5	Word formation Vocabulary	10	*A text containing 10 gaps. Each gap corresponds to a word. The 'stems' of the missing words are given beside the text and must be transformed to provide the missing word.*

(Taken from FCEH, 2001: 28)

As can be seen, recognition alone was required in Parts 1 and 4, whereas Parts 2, 3 and 5 demanded both linguistic recognition and production. For the analysis of the results in section 6.3., all these five parts from Paper 3 plus the sum of them were taken as the test parts which measured the two dependent variables (*grammar* and *vocabulary*). Regarding the terminology used when referring to each of these exam parts in that section and in the entirety of Appendix A.3., see Table 32 on page 226. It contains a legend with the equivalents between the full names of each part from the two tests and their summarising labels.

In reference to scoring procedures the FCEP (2001: 17-18) states, as previously mentioned, that the answers to the multiple-choice modified cloze of Part 1 are directly scanned by computer. Correct spelling is required in Parts 2, 3, 4, and 5. All the questions from Parts 1, 2 and 4 have one mark, whereas those of Part 3 carry two, one or zero according to the accuracy of the candidate's response. The total mark is weighted to 40 marks. Along with the numerical nature of the scorings in the responses, the scale of the underlying dependent variables in Paper 3 (*grammar* and *vocabulary*) is interval based.

As to the actual exams used in this quasi-experiment, the specific *Use of English* Paper 3 administered to the EG and CG in the Pre-test (February 2003) and in the Post-test (June 2003) respectively belonged to Test 1 and Test 4 from *Cambridge First Certificate in English Examination Papers 5* (2001). The exams included in this material corresponded to those set in 1998. Of the four tests in this book, the two employed were selected at random.

6.2.4.2.2. Official School of Languages (OSL) *exam*

6.2.4.2.2.1. Construct and operationalisation. Description of all the OSL *exam parts, scoring guidelines and variable scale measures*

As will be specified in the account of the *OSL Didactic Programme* (section 6.2.6.2.), references to CLT as the pedagogic model adopted in the teaching of English are recurrent. Accordingly, the language proficiency construct intended to be measured in the *OSL* 4th year exam is that of communicative language ability, similar to the UCLES tests. The operationalisation of the aforementioned construct by the *OSL* exam is slightly divergent from the *FCE* one. There also exist outstanding differences concerning the approach to test construction, which will be conveniently indicated.

The *OSL* 4th year exam of the 2002-2003 academic year consisted of the following parts: *Uso de la lengua* (Use of English); *Comprensión Oral* (Listening); *Expresión escrita* (Writing) and *Expresión oral* (Speaking). As mentioned above in section 6.2.4.2.1.4., there were not any reading tasks. Contrary to Cambridge ESOL, the *OSL* did not calculate any validity and reliability indices and did not perform any pre-testing or monitoring processes either. In Appendices C.5 and C.6. the reader will find the text of both the February and the June exams respectively with the exception of the *Speaking* part, for which no specific papers were devised - see its description below.

The minimum score to pass the exam was 60%. The percentages of each part were 40% for the *Use of English* and 20% for the remaining parts (40 and 20 maximum points respectively). There were several minimum performance percentages in all the sections: 55% (11 points) in the *Speaking* part and 40% in each one of the other three (16 points in *Use of English* and 8 points in both *Listening* and *Writing*, which altogether accounted for 55%, i.e., 44 out of the overall 80 points).

These parameters were indicative in February in the sense that all the sections were administered to the students regardless of the mark obtained in each individual

part. However, those who were allowed to do the oral exam in June had previously had to pass the *Use of English*, *Writing* and *Listening* parts with the aforementioned individual minimum performance percentages (40% in each part) and with the global minimum score of 55%.

As explained in section 6.2.2.2.1., the final grade of those learners who passed the June exam covered, with differing percentages, the results of this June test plus those of the February exam. The mark of the students who failed in June was solely based on their September exam result.

In reference to the following description of all parts of the *OSL* exam, it should be taken into account that the *Didactic Programme* does not offer any information related to the exact timing, detailed description and objectives of any parts except for the Speaking. Therefore, the report below is taken from the actual exams and from my queries to the teachers themselves.

The *Use of English* section was divided into *Multiple Choice* and *Rephrasing* (30% and 10% respectively out of the global 40% assigned to this section). Forty items were encompassed in the former, whose correct responses were multiplied by 0.75 points. These objectively-scored multiple-choice items were not submitted to a computer for marking as in *FCE* but were manually corrected. The right answers of the ten Rephrasing questions were, on the other hand, multiplied by one point. As opposed to *FCE*, no specifications were added in the *Didactic Programme* as to correction guidelines in terms of spelling mistakes, etc.

The *Multiple Choice* part covered *vocabulary, grammar* and *pronunciation.* The latter were tested with ten discrete-based items. In the February exam there were five odd-one-out questions and the other five required students to choose the correct stress pattern of the word out of two possible answers. In the June test, seven odd-one-out questions were incorporated with three items where students had to select the word with a different stress pattern out of four options. As to *grammar* and *vocabulary*, they were tested together by means of 20 multiple choice sentences and a text with ten gaps, both of which had a four-option format. Regarding the text, although the actual term employed in the *Didactic Programme* and the February exam is “cloze”, the related tasks in both tests were not fixed-ratio deletion clozes but “modified clozes” in Cambridge terminology or “gap-filling tests” following Alderson (2000: 207-208), which are based on a rational-deletion mechanism (Cohen, 1996). The “gap-filling” label was in fact used in the June exam.

As to the ten questions in the *Rephrasing* section, they mostly tested *grammar* (as opposed to the part 3 of *FCE Use of English*, which focused on both *grammar* and *vocabulary*). This section consisted of a variant of the "key word transformation" in the aforementioned part 3 in *FCE Paper 3*. In the latter there was an initial sentence followed by a word whose use was compulsory in the ensuing unfinished sentence in whichever position. In the *OSL Rephrasing* part, students were provided with a first sentence and the beginning of a second one to be completed by them. Sometimes a key phrase whose use is forbidden or which hints at the meaning of the new sentence was included below the second sentence; for example:

6.- Jerry didn´t steal the jewels. He didn´t know where the key to the safe was.

Jerry……
(It´s impossible)

(From *OSL* 4th year February 2003 exam)

With regard to scoring methods, no specifications about the marking of the open answer items were added in the *Didactic Programme* for this *Rephrasing* part.

The *Listening* part was sub-divided into two parts, each of which counted for 10%. The total number of questions was 15. The type of text (either monologues or interacting speakers), task formats and answering procedures were very similar to those of the equivalent *FCE* part. However, the latter two aspects did not exactly coincide in the February and June tests. The February exam contained five multiple-choice items with four options each and a text with ten blank-fillings. The June exam was more varied as it included five four-option-choice questions; six note-taking items, one short answer question and two sentence-completion exercises. In both exams the skill focus was gist understanding and detailed or specific information. Similar to the *Rephrasing* sub-part in the *Use of English*, the *Didactic Programme* did not comprise any guidelines about the marking of the open answer items. When I asked the teachers about this, they answered that spelling mistakes were disregarded in both *Listening* and *Rephrasing* unless they interfered with meaning and thus with comprehension. In the same way as in the *Multiple Choice* sub-part, the objectively-scored multiple choice items were corrected by hand.

Concerning the *Writing* section, the students could choose one topic out of two in both tests. The tasks included descriptive and argumentative compositions with no

obvious target reader or specific purpose (other than the type of text). The *Didactic Programme* comprised a detailed mark scheme with the following four five-point bands: Fluency; grammar; vocabulary; process and mechanics (which embrace paragraph organisation and linking, punctuation and spelling). *FCE* content, register and format and target reader were missing. This scheme was adapted for the various language levels. Contrary to *FCE*, there did not exist a specific task-scheme and teacher team correction is not undertaken.

With regard to the *Speaking* part, the *Didactic Programme* described it as a teacher-student interview in which, depending on the latter's level, he/she had to describe pictures, comment on newspaper articles, express his/her opinion about certain topics and so on. This procedure is similar to the *FCE* in terms of the speech prompts employed to trigger candidates' oral *production*, but differs in the following aspects: Whereas in *FCE* a two-examiner jury is compulsory, the candidates have to perform four tasks and are evaluated in pairs, in the *OSL* test students were interviewed one by one; they had to perform a single task and there was flexibility regarding the number of examiners. As explicitly indicated in the *Didactic Programme*, the latter aspect depended on the time allotted to the teachers for the correction of all the written exams. This is the only instance in the *Didactic Programme* where double-marking was suggested; no details as to the role and tasks of each examiner (if more than one) were included. At the beginning of the quasi-experiment the teachers informed me that for that year there would only be juries for the 5th year. In the same way as the Cambridge exam, the *OSL Speaking* section was accompanied with a marking scale. It contained four parameters, each of which was evaluated from 0 to 5 points - the maximum score being 20 points: Fluency; grammatical accuracy; pronunciation and intonation; lexical ability. The *FCE* "discourse management" and "interactive communication" were absent. All these parameters were adjusted to the various specific language levels.

Finally, with regard to the timing of each part, the *Listening* and the *Use of English* sections were performed in the same session. The former lasted for half an hour and the other took the remaining hour. 1 hour and 15 minutes were devoted to the *Writing* part. The *Speaking* test covered around ten minutes.

6.2.4.2.2.2. Rationale for the use of the OSL *rephrasing part alone*

The part of the *OSL* exam that was used in the analysis of the results was *Rephrasing*. Similar to the *FCE* exam, the scale measure of the dependent variable underlying this *Rephrasing* section (i.e., *grammar*) is interval based in accordance with the numerical nature of the scoring of its responses.

Four remarks should be observed regarding the selection of this *OSL* part. Firstly, the specific *OSL* oral scores and the total of the marks obtained in all five parts were not taken into account in the statistical analyses due to the aforementioned differing conditions of administration and marking in the Pre-test and the Post-test (section 6.2.4.2.2.1.). Such divergences implied that the *OSL* total scores in February and June were not equivalent in the types of evaluated language abilities. Secondly, *Multiple Choice* was omitted as a whole section in the results owing to the fact that it included *pronunciation* items which were not included in the *FCE* Paper 3. Thirdly, the inclusion in the analyses of the gapped text scores as separated from the multiple choice questions in the aforementioned section was disregarded because it was not possible for me to gain access to the specific score of the *OSL* gap-filling. In this respect, the teachers each devised an Excel file with their students' scores in February and in June. Such files (of which both teachers kindly gave me a printed copy at the end of the quasi-experiment) included the *Use of English* section divided into *Multiple Choice* -as a single global part without any subdivisions- and *Rephrasing*. Fourthly, the *listening* and *writing* sections were left out since the equivalent *FCE* papers (2 and 4) could not be administered in this quasi-experiment, which meant that the related outcomes and their results would not have been comparable.

Thus the single section within the whole of the *OSL* exam that measured one of the two *FCE* outcomes (specifically *grammar,* as stated above) was *Rephrasing*. Accordingly, only this *OSL* part was included as a *grammar* measure in the statistical analyses. Nevertheless, the scores of the *OSL Multiple choice, Listening* and *Writing* parts together with those of the *Rephrasing* task were used in all the correlation analyses between both exam scores. In this way, such correlations determined as accurately as possible whether the two tests presented construct validity or not (see section 6.3.1.1. on pages 328-329 and Tables A12-A17 in Appendix A.3.2.).

In the same way as the *FCE* exam, the reader is also referred to Table 32 below for the legend with the correspondence between full and summarising labels of all the *OSL* exam parts as they appear in section 6.3. and in the whole of Appendix A.3.

Table 32. Legend of the equivalence between the summarising labels and the full descriptions of the *FCE* and *OSL* exam parts[43]

OSL (Official School of Languages exam)		*FCE* (Cambridge First Certificate in English exam, Paper 3)	
Summarising label	Full description	Summarising label	Full description
OSL_rep	OSL, rephrasing section	FCE_1	FCE, part 1 (multiple-choice cloze)
OSL_mc	OSL, multiple-choice section	FCE_2	FCE, part 2 (open cloze)
OSL_writ	OSL, writing section	FCE_3	FCE, part 3 (key word transformations)
OSL_lis	OSL, listening section	FCE_4	FCE, part 4 (error correction)
		FCE_5	FCE, part 5 (word formation)
		FCE_total	FCE total exam (addition of parts 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5)

[43] Two observations must be made regarding Table 32. Firstly, for the purposes of brevity in the naming of the *FCE* Paper 3, such a part is globally referred to as *FCE* (*exam* or *test*). This naming system will be followed from now onwards unless otherwise specified. Secondly, whenever it is pertinent to refer to the Pre-test and Post-test time measures of each exam on their own, the prefixes "pre" and "post" will be added to the summarising labels. For example, *preOSL_rep* stands for *OSL* (Pre-test) rephrasing section; *postFCE_5* represents *FCE* (Post-test), part 5 (word formation).

6.2.4.3. Questionnaires

6.2.4.3.1. Introduction

Three different questionnaires in Spanish were handed to the students of both groups during the quasi-experiment. The former was called *Cuestionario Inicial* ("Initial Questionnaire" or IQ) as it was administered at the beginning of the quasi-experiment; the first final questionnaire was entitled *Cuestionario Final* ("Final questionnaire") and the second final one was labelled as *Cuestionario de opinión general sobre ciertos aspectos de la clase de inglés como lengua extranjera* ("Questionnaire about certain aspects of the English as a Foreign Language classroom"). These two final questionnaires were administered at the end of the intervention and will be referred to as FQ1 and FQ2 respectively from now onwards.[44]

6.2.4.3.2. Objectives

The objective of the IQ and of the first three questions of the FQ1 was to obtain information on a series of subjects' linguistic and non-linguistic characteristics both before (IQ) and during the quasi-experiment (FQ1). Due to the similarity of nature between the IQ items and the first three ones in FQ1, an account of these latter questions will be included in section 6.2.4.3.4.

As for the remaining items of the FQ1, their aims were to gather certain informants' perceptions about the teachers' manner of using the textbook as well as their opinions about their quasi-experimental lessons. The objective of the FQ2 was to unveil subjects' attitudes about general aspects of the EFL class. All such opinions and judgements were thought to be relevant to the topic of the present study. Following Brown (2001: 34), the functions of these questionnaires were thus a biodata survey (IQ); a biodata and judgement survey (FQ1) and an opinion survey (FQ2). It should be strongly remarked that the FQ1 (excluding the initial three items) and the FQ2 were administered solely for descriptive purposes and will be used to illustrate the main findings in section 6.4.

The reader is referred to: a) Appendix D for the complete Spanish text of the three questionnaires in the same format as they were distributed to the participants (Appendices D.1., D.3., D.5. English translations of these Appendices can be found in

[44] Items will be referred to by the initials of their corresponding questionnaire plus slash and the number of the item (for example, FQ1/1 indicates the first item in the first final questionnaire).

Appendices D.2., D.4. and D.6. respectively); b) section 6.2.3. - for the results of the IQ and for the first three questions of the FQ1 - and section 6.3.2. - for the remaining items of the FQ1 and FQ2.[45]

6.2.4.3.3. Common characteristics and procedures for the elaboration of the questionnaires

The three questionnaires were not anonymous as I needed to ensure that I received information from the very same subjects that had done the two exams at both Pre-test and Post-test time measures. A note was added to the beginning of each questionnaire informing the subjects about the confidentiality of the data and about the fact that it would not affect the marks of their fourth year at the *OSL* either:

> *Este cuestionario no afectará en absoluto a ninguna de las calificaciones que obtenga en el 4º curso de inglés de la E.O.I. Asimismo se garantiza la confidencialidad total de los datos. Por todo ello le rogamos que conteste a las preguntas con la mayor sinceridad posible. MUCHAS GRACIAS.*
>
> This questionnaire will not in any way affect your scores in the fourth year of the OSL. Likewise complete data confidentiality is guaranteed. Because of this we would really appreciate it if you answered these questions as honestly as possible. THANK YOU VERY MUCH.

The participants were thanked at the end of each questionnaire. A second note was also included in FQ1/1 warning of the time period referred to in all the questions. The following extracts belongs to the FQ1:

> *ATENCIÓN: TODAS las preguntas se refieren al período transcurrido entre el primer test de "Use of English" (17/02/03) y la última clase (23/05/03).*
>
> ATTENTION: ALL the questions refer to the period from the first "Use of English" test (17/02/03) and the last class (23/05/03).
>
> (From the FQ1 as administered to the CG)

[45] The translation into English of the Appendices originally written in Spanish as well as the extracts from the questionnaires in the following section are those of the authoress.

ATENCIÓN: TODAS las preguntas se refieren al período transcurrido entre el primer test de "Use of English" (18/02/03) y la última clase (22/05/03).

ATTENTION: ALL the questions refer to the period from the first "Use of English" test (18/02/03) and the last class (22/05/03).

(From the FQ1 as administered to the EG)[46]

With regard to the construction of the questionnaires, I tried as far as possible to closely follow Brown's "guidelines for producing good questionnaires" (Brown, 2001: 55). These largely coincide with Dörnyei's (2003a) guidelines, which were also drawn upon for this report although they appeared after the quasi-experiment had been implemented. Such parameters included writing good questions (thinking about the form, the meaning and the respondents); ordering the questions rationally; formatting the questionnaire for clarity; writing clear instructions and editing carefully. An indicator of the compliance with the questionnaires with these specifications (particularly clarity) is the absence of any missing values in any of them.

6.2.4.3.4. "Initial questionnaire" (IQ). Description

The IQ comprised 11 questions.[47] The purpose of these 11 questions and that of the first three questions of the FQ1 was three-fold: Firstly, to obtain the profiles of subjects from both groups (EG and CG) before (IQ) and during the intervention (FQ1); secondly, to discover whether the extraneous variables preceding and occurring during the quasi-experiment were different between groups in such a way that they could have distorted the testing of the hypothesis; thirdly, to reveal any correlation(s) (if applicable) between these variables and the results of the test measures. For the first and second purposes see section 6.2.3.; for the third, see section 6.3.1.2.

The following information was obtained through the IQ and the first section of the FQ1:

[46] See section 6.2.5.1. for the rationale behind the differences between both groups regarding the administration dates of this FQ1 as well as of the IQ, the FQ2 and the Pre-test and Post-test time measures of the *FCE* and *OSL* exams.

[47] Following Brown (2001), I will interchangeably use the labels of "question" and "item" to refer to either direct questions or reactions to statements and checklists.

1. IQ/1: Subjects' gender

2. IQ/2: Subjects' date of birth

3. IQ/3: Subjects' nationality

4. IQ/4: Subjects' level of studies

5. IQ/5: Subjects' profession

6. IQ/6: Subjects' overall years of English study

7. IQ/7: Subjects' knowledge of any of the co-official Spanish languages

8. IQ/7.1: Identification of the co-official Spanish language(s) known

9. IQ/8: Subjects' knowledge of any other foreign language(s) besides English before the quasi-experiment

10. IQ/8.1.: Identification of all the foreign languages known before the quasi-experiment ordered by level of mastery

11. IQ/9: Presence of stays in English-speaking countries

12. IQ/9.1: Country, number of weeks and date of each stay

13. IQ/9.2.: Purpose(s) of such stays

14. IQ/10: Presence of extra English instruction before the quasi-experiment

15. IQ/10.1: Type of extra English instruction before the quasi-experiment

16. IQ/10.2.: Weekly hours of extra English instruction before the quasi-experiment

17. IQ/10.3.: Time during which subjects had been attending extra English instruction classes before the quasi-experiment

18. IQ/11: Weekly hours of individual English study before the experiment

19. FQ1/1: Subjects' study of any other foreign language(s) besides English during the quasi-experiment

20. FQ1/1.1.: Identification of the foreign language(s) studied besides English during the quasi-experiment

21. FQ1/2: Presence of extra English instruction during the quasi-experiment

22. FQ1/2.1.: Type of extra English instruction during the quasi-experiment

23. FQ1/2.2.: Weekly hours of extra English instruction during the quasi-experiment

24. FQ1/3: Weekly hours of individual English study during the quasi-experiment

With reference to aspects of the answer format, the following response types are found:

a) "Close-response questions" (Brown, 2001) or "close-ended questions" (Dörnyei, 2003a): Items IQ/1, IQ/7, IQ/8, IQ/9, IQ/10, FQ1/1 and FQ1/2. More precisely, these belonged to the sub-class of "alternate-answer questions" (Brown, 2001), as the subjects had to choose between two options ("male" or "female", "yes" or "no").
b) "Open-response questions" (Brown, 2001) or "open-ended questions" (Dörnyei, 2003a): items IQ/2, IQ/3, IQ/4, IQ/5, IQ/6, IQ/7.1., IQ/8.1, IQ/9.1, IQ/10.2, IQ/10.3, IQ/11, FQ1/0, FQ1/1.1, FQ1/2.2, FQ1/3. Within this general category, the specific sub-class of such items is "fill-in questions", which according to Brown (2001: 38) are "relatively restricted in what they require the respondents to produce". Normally, they are related to respondents' biodata information, as is the present case.

c) Combination of "checklist questions"[48] (within the closed-response type (Brown, 2001)) and "fill-in questions": items IQ/9.2, IQ/10.1, FQ1/2.1. These questions presented both a multiple-choice format answer and an "Others" option that could be completed by students whose answers were not provided in the multiple options.

Table 33 offers the original items from the IQ and the FQ1 (three initial questions) and the scale measure of the underlying variables of such items. This table is very similar to Table 15 in section 6.2.2.2.1.; however, they differ in that Table 33 includes all the items and sub-items prior to the process of codification described in section 6.2.5.5.2.

Table 33. Original items and scale measure of their underlying variables from the whole of the IQ and the three initial questions of the FQ1

ITEM NO. AND LABEL		SCALE MEASURE
IQ/1: Subjects' gender		Categorical (dichotomous)
IQ/2: Subjects' date of birth		Quantitative (ratio)
IQ/3: Subjects' nationality		Categorical (politomous)
IQ/4: Subjects' level of studies		Categorical (politomous)
IQ/5: Subjects' profession		Categorical (politomous)
IQ/6: Subjects' overall years of English study		Quantitative (ratio)
IQ/7: Subjects' knowledge of any of the co-official Spanish languages		Categorical (dichotomous)
IQ/7.1: Identification of the co-official Spanish language(s) known		Categorical (politomous)
IQ/8: Subjects' knowledge of any other foreign language(s) besides English		Categorical (dichotomous)
IQ/8.1.: Identification of all the foreign languages known before the quasi-experiment ordered by level of mastery		Categorical (politomous)
IQ/9: Presence of stays in English-speaking countries		Categorical (dichotomous)
IQ/9.1: Country, number of weeks and date of each stay	IQ/9.1.a): Country of each stay	Categorical (politomous)
	IQ/9.1.b): Number of weeks of each stay	Quantitative (ratio)
	IQ/9.1.c): Date of each stay	Categorical (politomous)

[48] Dörnyei (2003a) considers "multiple choice" items as a distinct category from "checklists".

IQ/9.2.: Purpose(s) of such stays	Categorical (politomous)
IQ/10: Presence of extra English instruction before the quasi-experiment	Categorical (dichotomous)
IQ/10.1: Type of extra English instruction before the quasi-experiment	Categorical (politomous)
IQ/10.2.: Weekly hours of extra English instruction before the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)
IQ/10.3.: Time during which subjects had been attending extra English instruction classes before the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)
IQ/11: Weekly hours of individual English study before the experiment	Quantitative (ratio)
FQ1/1: Subjects' study of any other foreign language(s) besides English during the quasi-experiment	Categorical (dichotomous)
FQ1/1.1.: Identification of the foreign language(s) studied besides English during the quasi-experiment.	Categorical (politomous)
FQ1/2: Presence of extra English instruction of English during the quasi-experiment	Categorical (dichotomous)
FQ1/2.1.: Type of extra English instruction during the quasi-experiment	Categorical (politomous)
FQ1/2.2.: Weekly hours of extra English instruction during the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)
FQ1/3: Weekly hours of individual English study during the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)

Table 33. Original items and scale measure of their underlying variables from the whole of the IQ and the three initial questions of the FQ1

6.2.4.3.5. Final questionnaire 1 (FQ1): "Final questionnaire" and Final questionnaire 2 (FQ2): "Questionnaire about certain aspects of the English as a Foreign Language classroom". Description. Rationale for the statistical analyses

This section provides a description of all the items in both questionnaires.[49] It also includes an account of the statistical analyses performed. In relation to the latter, certain items from these two questionnaires were analysed with an inferential statistical test (Mann-Whitney) to uncover any significant differences between both groups. These items refer to elements considered to be relevant for the purposes of this research, either

[49] For the purposes of an optimum understanding of this section, the reader is referred to Appendices D.3. and D.4. (Spanish original and English translation of FQ1) and D.5. and D.6. (Spanish original and English translation of FQ2).

from a content viewpoint or from a quasi-experimental implementation perspective. The specific justification for the use and non-use of the Mann-Whitney test for each item is detailed together with its description and rationale for inclusion.

The FQ1 contained 13 items classified in three different sections. The first included the previously mentioned questions 1 to 3 (section 6.2.4.3.4.). The objective of the second and third sections was to gather a) the participants' perceptions about the teachers' use of the textbook (FQ1/4-8 items: *Preguntas relacionadas con el libro de texto* ("Questions related to the textbook")) and b) their opinions about certain aspects of the lessons they had attended (FQ1/9-13 items: *Preguntas relacionadas con las clases* ("Questions related to the lessons")). I considered it appropriate to include in the same questionnaire the questions of these two sections and the initial three questions related to subjects' linguistic characteristics since all the items were focused on the quasi-experimental period.

The instructions of the second and third parts required students to mark an X in the option they chose. Their response type in answering the closed questions FQ1/4 to FQ1/13.2 was a Likert scale format. Accordingly, the scale measure of the variables corresponding to such items is ordinal. Likert scales (of which there exist several variations) firstly appeared in 1932 and owe their name to their inventor, Rensis Likert (Dörnyei, 2003a). This technique is frequently used in research questionnaires aimed at gathering participants' attitudes toward a collection of statements (Brown, 2001; Brown & Rodgers, 2002; Cantos, 1993; Dörnyei, 2003a). There were three different types of content in the Likert scales used in FQ1: 1) Strongly agree – agree – neither agree nor disagree – disagree - strongly disagree (items FQ1/4; FQ1/5, FQ1/9, FQ1/12, FQ1/13.1, FQ1/13.2); 2) always - very often – often – sometimes – never (items FQ1/6, FQ1/7, FQ1/8, FQ1/11); 3) very much – quite a lot – so-so – not really – not at all (FQ1/10.1 to FQ1/10.7). The response type of item FQ1/13.3 was a combination of the previously outlined "short-answer questions" (Brown, 2001, Dörnyei, 2003a) plus a Likert-scale format answer. In case the subjects wanted to add different elements from those of FQ1/13.1 and FQ1/13.2, they were supplied with an "Others" alternative divided into five options which were measured using the same Likert scale.

Item FQ1/4 dealt with the subjects' perceptions of the textbook in terms of its usefulness. Its aims were a) to discover if the EG subjects had found the core of their learning tools (the coursebook) beneficial after the intervention and b) to compare their opinions with the CG. A Mann-Whitney test was run to determine whether or not

significant differences existed between the EG and the CG regarding the association (if any) between the teaching programs and the participants' opinion of the usefulness of the textbook in relation to their learning, as well as to compare the answers from both groups.

Question FQ1/5 was included for my own curiosity. Since the coursebook was already established at the *OSL* and I could not replace it with another, I thought that it would be interesting to obtain the subjects' evaluative perceptions about its range of activities. The FQ1/9 item is intrinsically related to FQ1/5, but it is specifically located within "Questions related to the lessons". In this way, participants' opinions about the variety of activities during the quasi-experiment was collected through two different source items.

Items FQ1/6, FQ1/7 and FQ1/8 were related to the manner in which the teachers employed the textbook. The students were required to answer whether they believed if their teachers had begun and finished the files with the activity from the textbook in the same way as it was included (items FQ1/6 and FQ1/8) and whether they had used all the activities from the textbook in the order and way they were included (item FQ1/7). The collection of these data and their subsequent statistical analysis with a Mann-Whitney test allowed me to discover two things respectively: a) If the teachers had followed the ordering of the initial, middle and ending activities in each lesson in accordance with their planning and b) if there had been significant differences in both groups regarding such a procedure. This information was crucial as it derived from the students themselves, who constituted a different source of information from the teachers' daily worksheets, the observer's files and the video and audio recorded lessons with regard to whether the teachers had correctly implemented the quasi-experiment or not.

Questions FQ1/10.1 to FQ1/10.7 required the students' opinion as to their degree of preference of different types of activities: Listening (FQ1/10.1); reading (FQ1/10.2); speaking (FQ1/10.3); writing (FQ1/10.4); grammar (FQ1/10.5); vocabulary (FQ1/10.6); and pronunciation (FQ1/10.7). The aim of such questions was merely illustrative; this information would uncover the participants' views on common pedagogic elements intrinsically related to general classroom practices.

Items FQ1/11 and FQ1/12 dealt with a crucial issue in this research. As described in section 3.2.2.1., activity *sequencing* is directly related to the organisational patterns of work in the FLT classroom. Therefore, questions FQ1/11 and FQ1/12 were added so as to gather students' perceptions towards the degree of effort when following the

lesson development (FQ1/11) and their attitudes to the variation and entertaining nature of the organisation of the classes they had received (FQ1/12). In these two items, I was especially interested in the EG answers, since their instruction involved a different teaching program which the participants had never experienced before. The aims of FQ1/11 were: a) To unveil the possible existence of a correlation between the variety in the patterns of work introduced by the CPM instruction and an increase (if any) in the EG subjects' effort to follow the development of the lessons; b) to compare their answers with those of the untreated participants. The purpose of FQ1/12 was also double-fold: Firstly, to ascertain EG participants' level of agreement about the lesson organisation being entertaining; secondly, to contrast their opinions with those of the CG. A Mann-Whitney test was computed to fulfil the first purposes in both items and to uncover whether significant differences existed between the subjects' answers from both groups in the two questions.

As this research is framed within the scope of *FCE* materials development, I thought it useful to incorporate item FQ1/13.1. Its answers would reveal whether the subjects had liked the textbook and its content. This issue was linked to FQ1/4 and therefore it was very important in this study. With regard to item FQ1/13.2, it touched upon a fundamental subject matter of this dissertation: The degree to which the participants liked the *sequencing* of exercises. Obviously, the comparison of both groups' responses would be extremely telling. Similar to the preceding FQ1/11 and FQ1/12 items, an inferential analysis was required of these two questions to learn whether significant differences appeared between groups. Finally, the open-ended question in FQ1/13.3 was added for illustrative purposes to complement the two previous items.

As to the FQ2, it included 7 items distributed in a single section. Its objective was to ascertain the subjects' opinion on certain elements of the EFL classroom that were believed to be pertinent to this research. No open-ended questions were included in this FQ2. In the same way as in the second and third sections of the FQ1, the instructions supplied at the beginning of this questionnaire required participants to put a cross (X) in the selected option. All the responses presented a close-ended format, specifically a Likert scale which offered the following kinds of content: 1) Always – very often – often – sometimes – never (items FQ2/1, FQ2/2, FQ2/3, FQ2/ 4); 2) very much – quite a lot – so-so – not really important – not at all (item FQ2/5); 3) very important – quite important – important – not really important – not important at all (items FQ2/6.1 to

FQ2/6.7 and FQ2/7.1 to FQ2/7.8). Thus the scale measure of these items was also ordinal.

Question FQ2/1 was closely related to a key characteristic of the CPM: Its drawing on real-life situations. Participants were asked whether they believed that English lessons were more interesting when they reflect such situations. The answers obtained from this first question would permit the unveiling of the degree of agreement of the EG as well as to compare their answers with those of the CG. It is necessary to highlight that in this and other cases, the latter's P-P-P intervention allowed me to consider this group as a safe baseline of comparison. Certainly, I cannot be 100% sure that the subjects from both groups had ever done activities that resembled real-life tasks. However, as the EG teacher informed me at the beginning and the CG teacher when the intervention had finished, I can guarantee the two following points: a) None of the participants had ever followed a systematic instruction based on an activity *sequence* underpinned by a *sequence* of real-life events at the *OSL*; and b) it can be assumed that both groups were used to the traditional method at the very least since their third year.[50] By drawing on the CG I hoped to eradicate the interference of the questionnaire results if the EG opinion was the same both at the beginning and after the quasi-experiment. This same remark applies to each of the following items: FQ2/2, FQ2/3, FQ2/6.1, FQ2/6.2, FQ2/6.3, FQ2/6.4, FQ2/7.1, FQ2/7.2.

Item FQ2/2 dealt with an essential and desirable consequence of the CPM intervention: The novelty in lessons. This item is directly related to the FQ1/12 question ("The organisation of the lessons has been varied and entertaining"), but instead of enquiring about the lessons they had received, subjects were asked about their general opinion on this issue. By means of the information gathered in these two items I would discover if the participants liked the novelty and if their related perception of the actual classes coincided in both groups. Item FQ2/3 touched on a very important aspect to take into account when adding novelty and variety in the Foreign Language classroom: The degree of students' comfort and relief when being aware of the development of the lessons before hand. This point is especially pertinent in relation to activity *sequencing*

[50] The third course textbook belonged to the same series as that of the fourth year. The former material was Oxenden & Latham-Koenig's *English File Intermediate* (1999), by O.U.P. It offers a very similar layout in the arrangement of lessons as well as in the actual type of sections utilised in each unit; moreover, the predominant activity *sequencing* pattern is the contemporary ELT materials version of the P-P-P (section 3.4.). See section 6.2.6.3. for the description of the coursebook that was adopted as the instructional material in the *OSL* fourth level during the 2002-2003 academic year: Oxenden & Latham-Koenig's *English File Upper Intermediate. Student's Book* (2001a), by O.U.P.

as it supports the organisational procedures in the classroom. Once again, I was particularly interested in the answers from the EG. Together with the information from FQ2/2, the data obtained in FQ2/3 would help to outline (in a general manner) how these students perceived variety and permanent regularity in the patterns of work. Besides, I thought it would be revealing to compare the EG subjects' responses with those of the CG, whose instruction had followed a comparatively high degree of uniformity in the exercise ordering. As to item FQ2/4, it affected an important characteristic of the CPM. This consists in all the activities from the different skills and sub-skills being related to the topic of the lesson, as the events are linked by a common subject matter. The objective of this question was to discover the students' liking of such a feature. In relation to the statistical analyses of these previous four items, their essential nature for the purposes of this research demanded the running of Mann-Whitney tests to reveal any significant differences between groups.

The aim of item FQ2/5 was illustrative as it intended to gain information about whether a positive correlation existed between the learners' enjoyment of English lessons and their number of hours devoted to its study.

In the set of sub-items within question 6, the participants were asked about their degree of preference of certain elements in the EFL classroom: The teacher's way of teaching (FQ2/6.1); the teacher's personality (FQ2/6.2); the textbook (FQ2/6.3); the teacher's use of the textbook (FQ2/6.4); the organisation of the lessons (FQ2/6.5); the extra activities (books, films, workshops…) (FQ2/6.6) and the cordiality with classmates (FQ2/6.7). I consider the above features to be the most characteristic and familiar to the students if asked to assess their FLT class. The first two have been empirically shown to be the most important elements for students in the FL classroom (Chambers, 1999: 129-130). The items that were noticeably relevant to this research were questions FQ2/6.3 to FQ2/6.5, whose objectives were to learn about the EG subjects' opinions after the intervention and to contrast them against those of the CG. Accordingly, a Mann-Whitney test was run to reveal if significant differences existed between groups and to find out whether there a correlation existed between the intervention and the EG subjects' perceptions of preference of these variables.

Lastly, in questions FQ2/7.1 to FQ2/7.8, participants were asked about the degree of importance that they attributed to certain elements in a textbook: The activity types (FQ2/7.1); the *sequencing* of activities (FQ2/7.2); balanced presence of grammar, vocabulary, reading, listening, writing and speaking activities (FQ2/7.3); existence of

abundant pair and group activities (FQ2/7.4), interest of the proposed topics (FQ2/7.5); employment of real/authentic oral and written texts (FQ2/7.6), presence of cultural references of the language studied (FQ2/7.7); and edition and format in FQ2/7.8 (colour drawings and photographs, large enough font size, clarity in the delimitation of the different sections, wide margins…). I believe that these elements are the most distinctive and easy-to-recognise for foreign language students. This accounts for my interest in getting the participants related views, especially for FQ2/7.2, which dealt with the key issue of the present study. Therefore the answers to this question were subjected to a Mann-Whitney test on the same grounds as FQ2/6.3, FQ2/6.4 and FQ2/6.5.

6.2.4.4. Classroom controls

It should be recalled from section 6.2.4.1. that besides the pertinent questions in the FQ1, four instruments or classroom controls (the teachers' daily worksheets, the observer's files, the video and audio recorded sessions) were used to verify the correct implementation of the quasi-experiment on behalf of the teachers. In this way, it was possible for me to obtain related information from different sources without actually being present in the research context, which could have affected the external validity of this study. The following four sections will offer a description of all these instruments.

6.2.4.4.1. Teachers' daily worksheets

The teachers' daily worksheets, whose content was the same for both teachers, had a key function in my supervision of the development of the study. As will be shown, the information provided in them allowed me to know whether there were any deviations from the activity *sequencing* assigned to each of them; if the timetabling established for each group (see section 6.2.6.4.)[51] was respected or distorted to any degree and, as result, whether the two groups were running parallel in terms of lesson end days, etc. Likewise, with the teachers' daily worksheets it was possible to control if any extra materials employed were the same in both groups, either related to the teachers' or the Assistant's classes. Even if a teacher was not aware that her colleague had used any given materials, she could introduce them once I had told her in the corresponding weekly meeting. The same applied to the Assistant's lessons.

[51] As will be explained in that section, both teachers received a timetabling file with the lesson content to be employed in every single session of the quasi-experiment.

There follows a description of the design of this daily worksheet as well as the items and rationale for their inclusion. A copy of the daily worksheets as they were given to the teachers can be found in Appendix E.1. (Spanish original) and Appendix E.2. (English translation, which presents an identical format).

The overriding design principle of this specific file was to facilitate its completion by the teachers. Accordingly, it occupied one side of a single page. The items required placing a cross (X) or writing a very short and precise answer. Besides, it was intended that the items and questions were clearly worded.

The daily worksheet was divided into three sections: "General information", "Students' level of participation in the whole class" and "Planning and global textbook sequencing in this class". The first one comprised the following items numbered respectively from 1.1. to 1.5: "Date", "Students no."; "Approximate duration of the class in minutes", "Materials and means employed in the lesson" and "Last textbook activity from previous day". The teachers had to fill in the first three items as appropriate, whereas the fourth and the fifth ones included several cues to guide the teachers' answer. Regarding item 1.4., seven cues were incorporated, all of which required putting a cross as well as a short answer in the last sub-item (1.4.7.). The "textbook" was the first sub-item (1.4.1.) and it was accompanied by the prompts of "lesson", "pp.", "Activities: from no. … to no. …". As can be seen, this revealed the general *sequencing* followed in each lesson; and in turn, it also revealed whether the teachers complied with their own timetabling day by day. Item 1.5. added to this information as it required the inclusion of the last textbook activity from the previous class with the explicit indications of "Lesson", "Number" and "page". The remaining sub-items in 1.4. were "EFUI cassette"[52] (1.4.2.), "EFUI workbook"[53] (1.4.3.), "Blackboard" (1.4.4.), "Handouts" (1.4.5.), "Videotape" (1.4.6.) and "Others" (1.4.7.), which had to be specified in the space provided.

Section 2 consisted of a single item, which was the aforementioned "Students' level of participation in the whole class". In the explanation that I gave to both teachers, I told them that this attempted to cover their assessment as to the degrees of

[52] EFUI cassette = Oxenden, C. & Latham-Koenig, C. (2001b). *English File Upper Intermediate. Class cassettes (1 & 2)*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

[53] EFUI workbook = Oxenden, C. & Latham-Koenig, C. with Hudson, J. (2001b). *English File Upper Intermediate. Workbook.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

participation in the class, which could be reflected in students volunteering to read aloud their answers or to role-play their stories, asking their teachers about grammar or instruction explanation, the teachers' perception of the extent of involvement and interest in all the lesson stages, etc. Teachers had to put a cross in the prompt they considered most appropriate for that specific lesson: "High", "medium" and "low". Despite the wide-ranging nature of this impressionistic scale, it was thought to reveal sufficient interesting information about this issue.

The third and final section touched on matters directly related to the purpose of this research. The objective of question 3.1. was to discover whether teachers had followed that day's planning in terms of the activities set as homework (if applicable, since homework was not fixed for every day). The teachers had to put a cross in either option "Yes" or "No". If their answer was negative, they were required to explain why in item 3.2. This information was very useful for the weekly meetings held with both teachers separately and which were aimed at supervising the implementation of the quasi-experiment on a seven-day basis (see section 6.2.5.3.). In those meetings I could thus ask them whether such activities had actually been done in that very same class or in the following one; consequently, these exercises could account for any possible ensuing deviation from the originally planned *sequencing*.

Question 3.3. asked teachers whether they had changed the exact order of the activities in the textbook, with an identical answering procedure to question 3.1. When their answer was positive, they had to complete item 3.4., which had four sub-items. A note was added in the heading of item 3.4 warning about sub-items from 3.4.1 to 3.4.3. These referred to actual activities in the textbook, as the use of exercises pertaining to other materials was considered in 3.4.4. - which also included variations in the execution of the coursebook activities. Regarding the first three sub-items, their changes or adaptation strategies consisted of the following elements: The addition of an exercise in sub-item 3.4.1. (i.e., an activity not previously used in class and which could belong to either the current lesson or to an earlier or a later one); the deletion of an activity in the *sequencing* arranged for that day (sub-item 3.4.2.) and the alteration of the ordering of an exercise also planned for that specific class (sub-item 3.4.3.). Finally, as mentioned above, 3.4.4. dealt with both the introduction of variations in the textbook activities and the use of extra exercises from different sources. I decided to join these two aspects in the same sub-item so that the space limit of one page on a single side would not be exceeded.

In relation to the answering system issues, 3.4.1., 3.4.2., and 3.4.3. included the number and page of the activity as well as the reasons for the exercise addition, deletion or *sequencing* modification. Sub-item 3.4.3. also demanded that the teachers write the number and page of the immediately preceding and following activities; in this way the new *sequencing* was clearly indicated. In 3.4.4. the teachers had to fill in a table divided into two main category rows as supplied by the "source" (sub-item A). This source could be *English File Upper Intermediate Student's Book* or a different one, which had to be indicated. In the first case, the teachers were required to write the number and page of the specific changed activity; in the second, they had to specify the source of the material as well as the number and page of the immediately preceding activity in the textbook so as to locate the exact position of this other-material exercise in the overall *sequence*.

Both category rows entailed the same six descriptive parameters contained in sub-items B to G. The cells regarding other materials were lightly shaded to distinguish them from the *English File Upper Intermediate Student's Book* ones. Together with the information from sub-items 1.4.3. to 1.4.7., the data of this latter row were very helpful so as to ensure that both classes received the same supplementary theory and exercises. The six aforementioned parameters were:

- Time in minutes (B), i.e., the time spent on that activity. This had to be written by the teachers.
- Type of interaction (C). Five types were included: Teacher talking to the whole class; students working individually; students working in pairs, in groups and whole class. This latter type was encompassed in the first; if teachers wanted to choose it, they were told to circle the phrase "whole class". In the other cases, the teachers had to put a cross in the suitable option, as well as in D below. "Teacher" was abbreviated to T in English and as P in Spanish (for *Profesora*); in both languages, "Student" was labelled as S and with Ss when denoting plural.
- Main objective (D) was divided into "Skills" and "Subskills" (abbreviated as "subdest" (for *subdestrezas*) in Spanish. The former encompassed Reading, Listening, Speaking and Writing (referred to as R, L, S and W in both versions). The latter entailed Grammar, Vocabulary and Pronunciation (shortened as G, V and P in the two languages). By "main objective" I refer to the superseding aim of the activity(ies), which can obviously encompass other secondary objectives. However, these were not

the target of this parameter as I only included the "main objective" following the principle of ease and brevity of completion for teachers. The distinction between main and secondary objectives may be illustrated with the following example: A reading text might be exploited in several activities. If most of them are aimed at correctly practising the reading skill (searching for information by means of skimming, scanning; reacting to the text by giving opinion of the topic, etc.), and only one activity focuses on the vocabulary from that text (finding synonyms, inferring unknown meaning, etc.), the main objective of this reading cycle is reading but not vocabulary. Conversely, when a written extract is solely used as an inductive *presentation* for later grammar explanation and exercises, the objective of these activities would be grammar but not reading.

- Procedure (E). This parameter was split into two, depending on whether the activity(ies) belonged to *English File Upper Intermediate Student's Book* (E.1.) or to other sources (E.2.). In E.1. teachers had to succinctly describe the variations introduced in the procedure of the activity. As an illustration, the original exercise in the textbook might have comprised a follow-up discussion after a listening cycle which the teacher could have adapted as a brief composition task to be performed in class by the students, etc. In E.2. the teachers were required to briefly describe the actual procedure of the exercise from the other material.

The E.1. sub-parameter is intrinsically related to C and D, whose inclusion is influenced by the aforementioned key design rule of simplicity and brevity for the teachers. Indeed, I consider C a main type of procedure, and D an essential element in the design of the activity, which strongly affects its procedure in turn. Consequently, if both C and D or either of the two were pertinent, the teachers had to put a cross in the appropriate options and add a "see C" or "see D" note in the space provided under E. This space could also be used to briefly describe a divergent kind of procedure from C and D.

- Materials and means (others) (F). This parameter was completely shaded as it only affected exercises taken from sources other than the *English File Upper Intermediate Student's Book*. It included several kinds of materials used to present such activities: "Workbook" and "cassettes" different from those of this textbook; "blackboard"; "handouts"; "video" and "others", which had to be specified. The teachers had to put a cross in the appropriate option.

- Reasons for changes in EFUI *(English File Upper Intermediate Student's Book)* and/or for the addition of new activities (G). Naturally, this was the most important parameter of the six. The teachers were required to explain the decisions that made them alter the procedure of the textbook activities and/or use activities from other sources.

With regard to the information provided by the teachers in their daily worksheets, it was revealed that 1) both of them largely complied with their activity *sequences* respectively established in their programs, i.e., the P-P-P for the CG and the CPM for the EG; 2) that they followed the original procedures of the textbook activities to a great extent; 3) that in the main they abided by their times allocated for the lessons (homework activities included) and that 4) they did not implement any activities taken from other materials in class. In relation to the first two features, there were very scarce deviations, which consisted of deletion and modification of interaction mode. As to the former, there existed two cases in which both teachers deleted an activity. These were pronunciation exercises (owing to shortage of time). Concerning the latter variation, on three occasions the type of interaction of pair or group activities was changed to the whole class also because of time constraints.

With respect to timetabling, the sparse digressions were due to both teaching and non-teaching reasons. The former were rooted in the extra time spent on the following aspects (see section 6.2.6.4.): a) Assistant's hourly classes every two weeks (which demonstrated no effect on the originally established rhythm of either group thanks to the ample content timing allotted for each session); b) resolving of doubts from the two units that were removed from ordinary class teaching and those concerning the *Check your progress* revision tests (see also section 6.2.5.3.); c) the explanation of supplementary grammar handouts and d) the correction of exercises.

The second type of factors was related to the teachers' absence because of personal reasons (see section 6.2.5.1.). This latter aspect was responsible for the alteration of the original planning as found in both EG and CG transcribed lessons (Appendix G). In the EG case, the recorded session included an initial activity from lesson 6C that belonged to the previous day's lesson; also, the EG teacher was a little further ahead than the original planning for that day. As for the CG transcribed session, the last exercises from unit 4C were performed before the actual assigned activities for that class, which pertained to unit 5A. All the deviations arising from the two previously

explained reasons were compensated in the subsequent lessons in such a way that the timetabling was respected to a great extent by both teachers.

There were hardly any modifications of homework activities from the planning. Some grammar exercises scheduled to do in class were sporadically set as homework. Two handouts with exam practice on modified cloze and rephrasing were also given as homework and corrected by the students alone with the keys supplied by their teachers.

Lastly, as stated before, both groups received the same amount of supplementary material. This consisted of eight handouts with additional vocabulary, grammar theory and exercises. Both transcribed sessions included an instance of such extra materials: A grammar OHP with six purpose clause sentences in the EG and a vocabulary copy about people description in the CG. Another handout with some guidelines about writing argumentative compositions was given to the CG subjects. The EG teacher had already distributed these guidelines to their group in the first semester.

6.2.4.4.2. Observer's file

As indicated in sections 6.2.4.1. and 6.2.4.4., together with the teachers' daily worksheets, the video and audio recorded sessions, the observer's files were one of the tools used to monitor the teachers' implementation of the quasi-experiment. The information provided from these sources would add to that of the weekly meetings (see section 6.2.5.3.).

Three observer's visits were scheduled in the design of this research study: At the beginning, middle and end of the quasi-experiment. Such lessons would also be video recorded so that the teachers' implementation of the lesson planning scheduled for those classes could be analysed from as many angles as possible. In the end, the observer attended three EG lessons and two CG classes. The former were video recorded and the latter were audio recorded (see section 6.2.5.6.2. for related dates and details of procedure).

The reason for the difference in the number of observed sessions and recording modes of the groups was due to the CG teacher's strong reluctance to have three of her lessons observed and video recorded. Thus I judged it appropriate to modify the original research specifications of these two elements in relation to the untreated group. These modifications consisted of the following: The observer would only attend two CG classes, which would be audio recorded instead of being videotaped. The CG teacher accepted these new requirements.

Appendix F contains a sample observer's file, whose content (written in English) and format were identical for both groups. The answering procedure in the observer's file was very similar to the teachers' daily worksheets as its design was driven by the same principles of simplicity and brevity. Accordingly, most items only required a cross (X) or a succinct and clear open response. Each observed activity required the completion of one card, which was the same for every activity and which occupied the single side of a page. Accordingly, I supplied the observer with stapled collection of cards before each session.

This observer's file was structured in five main sections labelled with capital letters (from A to E). Many of them were very similar to some parts of the teachers' daily worksheets so that the former could be used to complement the data written by the teachers. The first four parts, which appeared lightly shaded, dealt with general information about the whole lesson. This information had to be filled in only on the first card of the stapled collection. It covered the following aspects: A) Date; B) Total amount of activities carried out in the class; C) Level of participation in the class; D) General comments (optional). Items A and B had to be written down. The second one was included so as to obtain a further means of comparison between the original planning and what was actually done in the class. Further, the insertion of this item allowed me to contrast its information against that found in item 1.4.1. from the teacher's daily worksheet of that same day ("Activities from no. to no."). Item C was very similar in format and content to item 2 in the teachers' daily worksheet ("Students' level of participation in the whole class"). Instead of the latter's three sub-items, it was divided into five possible answers: C.1. Very high; C.2. High; C.3. Medium; C.4. Low and C.5. Nil/very low. The observer had to put a cross in their selected option, which could be matched against the teachers' selection on their worksheets. I gave the observer the same explanations that I had offered to the teachers as to what could be indices of students' participation. See the previous 6.2.4.4.1. section.

Part E ("Activity information") concerned the data related to each individual activity. It consisted of the following seven items: 1. Activity no.; 2. Timing; 3. Materials; 4. Objectives; 5. Procedure; 6. Type of interaction; 7. Teacher's emphasis. In the first item, the observer had to write the number of the activity out of the overall series of activities performed in the lesson. This would help them to complete item B. In relation to "Timing", the observer had to circle the appropriate option out of those offered. These were expressed in minutes and ranged from 5 to 35-40. The third item or

"Materials" was very similar to item 1.4. from the teachers' daily worksheet in filling-in method (marking with a cross) and content. It consisted of seven sub-items: 3.1. Textbook (which embraced two elements: "Unit" and "No., page", which had to be written by the observer); 3.2. Cassette (from EFUI or from different source?); 3.3. EFUI workbook; 3.4. Blackboard; 3.5. Handouts; 3.6. Videotape; 3.7. Others (which required specification). In conjunction with item 1, the information from this 3.1. question would contribute to discover whether the teachers had respected the original planning for that day in terms of activity ordering. A cross in any of the remaining sub-items could highlight one of the possible reasons for any related deviations, i.e., the use of any extra materials.

"Objectives" were similar to sub-item D) in 3.4.4. from the teachers' daily worksheet. However, there existed two differences that contributed in making the information from the observer's file more complete. Firstly, this file explicitly differentiated between main and secondary objectives. The same associated piece of explanation given to the teachers was supplied to the observer. Accordingly, they had to put a cross in the appropriate sub-items and to circle either the "main" or "secondary" option under each of these three kinds of objectives. In the second place, three types of objectives instead of two were encompassed: 4.1. Linguistic; 4.2. Skills; 4.3. Extra-linguistic. The content of the first two coincided in both instruments. The third sub-item was absent in the teacher' file and included the "Communicative" and "Cultural" labels. I thought it pertinent to include the latter two to obtain as much information as possible concerning the principal or secondary nature of the objectives themselves, which accounts for the second related divergence between the observer's files and the teachers' daily worksheet. This would reveal important activity information in the case of any divergence from the *sequencing* caused either by a) an activity from the textbook itself or by b) an activity from materials other than the textbook.

The preceding question 4 had three aims. The first one attempted to uncover whether the teachers had changed the original objective of the activities, which appeared to be a key element in verifying the teachers' compliance with their respective assigned *sequences*. Indeed, a change in the initial objectives of a given activity could possibly affect its intended purpose and role -and perhaps even timing- in the overall distribution of exercises. For instance, when an activity related to a listening text is used to explicitly highlight certain terms and expressions instead of the original listening strategy task (scanning or skimming, for instance), this obviously distorts the initial

intended P phase: From a P2 (listening *practice*) it becomes a P1 (explicit contextualised *presentation* of vocabulary). Secondly, through item 4 important data would be uncovered about the exercises that belonged to different materials from the textbook. Thirdly, it also supplemented the related details that the teachers would give me in our weekly meetings. These three aims accounted for the inclusion of the 4.3. sub-item, in an attempt to gather as much information as possible that could illustrate the conformity with the established *sequences* and the reason behind any associated deviation.

Similar aims to those of question 4 were involved in item 5, which demanded the observer to write a brief schedule of the procedure underlying each activity. This was an additional way of confirming whether the exercises had been used in the same or, at least, approximate manner as established in the teacher's materials for both groups (the original *English File Upper Intermediate Teacher's Book* for the CG teacher and the CPM Teacher's Booklet for the EG teacher. See sections 6.2.6.3 and 6.2.6.4. respectively). Further, it also provided additional information of the exercises pertaining to different materials from *English File Upper Intermediate Student's Book.*

Question 6 comprised the type of interaction present in the activities. As in the teachers' daily worksheets, it was composed of the following: 6.1. T-whole class; 6.2. Whole class; 6.3. Ss individually; 6.4. Ss in pairs; 6.5. Ss in groups. The observer had to put a cross in the appropriate option. Similar to the teachers' daily worksheets, I judged it pertinent to explicitly separate both questions from "Procedure" (5) in spite of the two following facts: a) Item 6 being regarded as an element that belongs to the procedure of an activity; and b) item 4 being considered an element that influences the latter. This decision was taken due to the importance of the items in the definition of an activity, especially item 4.

"Teacher's emphasis on the activity" was the last item (no. 7) and consisted of three sub-items: 7.1. High; 7.2. Medium; 7.3. Low. The observer had to put a cross accordingly. This question supplemented item 2 ("Timing") and the information revealed could disclose the reason or reasons for any deviation from the planned *sequences*. For example, if too much emphasis was placed on an activity, this could delay the overall sequence for that day, which could result in its incompletion.

With regard to the actual results from the five observer's files, my comparison with both the EG and the CG timetabling files (see section 6.2.6.4.) indicated that both teachers had respected the activity *sequencing* devised for those specific days to a

considerable extent. The reader is referred to section 6.2.4.4.1. for an account of the actual related divergences between the timetabling documents and the lesson content of the two transcribed sessions from Appendix G.

Other infrequent cases of deviations were related to the procedure of activities, such as a change in the type of interaction (Ss in pairs instead of in groups; Ss individually in the place of pair-work, etc.); a greater emphasis on certain objectives, etc. The level of participation ranged from medium to very high for both groups, with "high" being the most chosen option (three of the sessions). As to the optional general comments supplied by the observer, these reflected a very positive impression of the lessons of both groups and also the need for pronunciation reinforcement. Some of the observer's comments for the EG included: "A lively lesson with a high level of student participation"; "nice and credible story; very clever on the teacher's part to use it; students seemed to enjoy it"; "some remedial work on pronunciation would be helpful". The second comment refers to the communicative processes of the CPM, of which the observer was completely unaware. For the CG, he wrote: "Very helpful teacher, it's quite noticeable that she gets involved with her students"; "very lively debate"; "it would be a good idea to spend more time on pronunciation".

6.2.4.4.3. Videotaped and audio recorded sessions

Two CG lessons were audio recorded and three EG classes were videotaped. These lessons were the same as those attended by the observer so that the teachers' implementation of lesson planning scheduled for those classes could be analysed from as many angles as possible. The reader is referred to a) section 6.2.4.4.2. for an account of the differences of recording modes and number of observed sessions; b) section 6.2.5.6.2. for related implementation details (dates, administration, etc.); c) Appendix G for the whole transcription of two recorded classes, one from the CG (Appendix G.1.) and the another one from the EG (Appendix G.2.).

With regard to c), the selection of the sessions to be transcribed was only driven by listening-quality parameters. The content of the class transcribed for the CG belonged to files 4C and 5A and to file 6C for the EG. The transcriptions of both lessons were assigned to the same observer that had attended them. As will be indicated in section 6.2.5.6.2., this observer was a qualified English-native speaker who was completely unaware of the purposes of this quasi-experimental study. After carefully reading the first version of the transcriptions, I had a meeting with them where we

revised the texts and solved the discrepancies in order to reach the final version of the two transcriptions.

6.2.4.5. Teachers' technical specification card

As explained in section 6.2.3., the teachers were given a "technical specification card" that was to be completed and e-mailed to me so that I could acquire key background information of their personal and professional background. See section 6.2.3. again for the items on this card and a summary of the data obtained.

6.2.5. Procedure

6.2.5.1. Date of the quasi-experiment. Teaching sessions

The dates of the quasi-experiment were decided on the basis of the teachers' advice in the first meeting that I had with them (see below). Both teachers warned me about the peculiarities of the first semester. On the one hand, the initial two weeks were devoted to introductory issues rather than actual standard teaching. On the other hand, the last two review and exam weeks of the first term (as established in the *Didactic Programme* (see section 6.2.6.2.)) meant that it would not be possible to implement the quasi-experiment during those days. Accordingly, the teachers suggested that the best period to implement my research was the second semester: From mid February until the end of May 2003, i.e., right after the first-semester *OSL* exams and before the second semester exams. I followed their advice, and this quasi-experimental study took place from 17th February to 26th May 2003 for the CG and from 18th February to 27th May 2003 for the EG.

The total number of sessions within each group was 35.[54] As stated in section 6.2.3., there were three weekly hour-and-a-half sessions per group, which corresponds to 52.5 teaching hours (both timetables are found in the same section). Without counting the two Easter weeks, the overall sessions were distributed over 12 complete weeks and the first day of the thirteenth one, which was the last week in May. The two remaining

[54] The potential 37 sessions quantified during the period of the quasi-experiment were lowered to 35 owing to a pair of mixed factors: Firstly, teachers' absence because of personal reasons (24th March for the CG teacher and 10th April for the EG teacher); secondly, two fixed Spanish public holidays (19th March - St. Joseph's, a non-labour day in Spain - and 1st May). In 2003 they fell on a Wednesday and a Thursday respectively; thus the former affected the EG and the latter both groups. The EG recovered the 1st May class in a session originally allocated to the "lector" (see below). Despite these incidents, the overall number of classes was the same in both groups.

classes of that week were assigned by the two teachers to exam revision purposes following the instructions from the *Didactic Programme* (see section 6.2.6.2.). More precisely, this document established the 12th, 13th and 14th of the second semester (prior to the June test) as review weeks. In our first meeting the teachers informed me that they believed it would be very difficult to strictly abide by this timetabling for revision purposes. From their own experience, the latter were usually fulfilled during the last week of May every year, which accounted for the ending date of this quasi-experiment (see section 6.2.6.2.).

Out of the overall 35 quasi-experimental sessions, two of them were devoted to the administration of the questionnaires and of the *FCE* and *OSL* exams in the Pre-test and the Post-test, whilst the other 33 were devoted to actual teaching. The reason why the beginning and ending dates of both groups do not coincide is due to their different timetables (see Table 19 in section 6.2.3.). These were scheduled by the *OSL* administration. It should also be noted that I did not have anything to do with the selection of these two specific groups, as they were appointed by the *OSL* Head. In the specific Pre-test case, both groups could have started the quasi-experiment on the day of their timetable that coincided (Thursday 20th February). However, it was decided that it was better to begin on the very first session of the second semester to make the most of the days available; in this way the research instruction would coincide with the same new unit in both groups. I also considered that there was no risk of subjects from the CG telling others from the EG about the exams in both Pre-test and Post-test situations, since the EG first weekday (Tuesday) did not match that of the untreated group (Thursday). Besides, I strongly believe that if I had tried to gather the subjects of both groups on the same Pre- and Post-tests days this would have resulted in a considerable absence of students from the group whose timetable had been changed (see Table 34 below for the dates of administration of both exams for the EG and the CG).

It should also be mentioned that the *OSL Didactic Programme* established the attendance of a *lector* for fourth and fifth year classes. This was a native English speaker or Oral Expression Assistant, i.e., a support teacher (*lector*) in charge of developing oral expression skills. These were exploited in related activities devised by the *lector* which were connected to the topic of the targeted lesson. Both groups of this quasi-experiment had the same Assistant, who was present for an hour every two Thursdays for the EG and every two Fridays for the CG. In both groups, the number of hours attended by the *lector* during the quasi-experiment amounts to 5. The Assistant's

total percentage of class time during the whole quasi-experiment constituted 10.1% (5 hours) out of the global 100% of the actual teaching classes (i.e., 49.5 hours represented by the 33 teaching sessions). As this was such a small percentage, I did not consider that the Assistant's classes dramatically affected the established ordinary teaching organisation and thus the purpose of the quasi-experiment. This initial impression was fully confirmed in my weekly meetings with the two teachers and the comments on their daily worksheets (see section 6.2.4.4.1.).

Table 34. Dates of administration of the Pre-test and Post-test time measures of the *FCE* and *OSL* exams

	FCE		*OSL*			
	Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test		Post-test	
EG	18th February 2003	27th May 2003	Use of English: Multiple Choice and Rephrasing (1 hour)	5th February 2003	Use of English: Multiple Choice and Rephrasing (1 hour)	2nd June 2003
			Listening (30 minutes)	5th February 2003	Listening (30 minutes)	2nd June 2003
			Writing (1 hour & 15 minutes)	6th February 2003	Writing (1 hour & 15 minutes)	3rd June 2003
			Speaking (10 minutes)	Second week of February 2003	Speaking (10 minutes)	Third week of June 2003
CG	17th February 2003	26th May 2003	Use of English: Multiple Choice and Rephrasing (1 hour)	6th February 2003	Use of English: Multiple Choice and Rephrasing (1 hour)	2nd June 2003
			Listening (30 minutes)	6th February 2003	Listening (30 minutes)	2nd June 2003
			Writing (1 hour & 15 minutes)	7th February 2003	Writing (1 hour & 15 minutes)	3rd June 2003
			Speaking (10 minutes)	Second week of February 2003	Speaking (10 minutes)	Third week of June 2003

6.2.5.2. Selection of the research context. Assignment of the two groups

Two reasons justify the selection of the *OSL* as the research context for this study. The first is its fulfilment of the pertinent required conditions. This accounts for the rejection of the University of Murcia as the initial option of the centre to implement this quasi-experiment. The second reason refers to the nature of the *OSL* learners. These are young or mature adults who freely choose to attend lessons and who are theoretically highly motivated. Their motivation can be either of an integrative or an instrumental nature - as rooted in the substantial recognition of the *OSL* certificates at a national level (see section 6.2.3.). I wanted to avoid the discipline problems that would have possibly arisen at high-schools as well as to ensure that, at least from a theoretical point of view, all the students would be reasonably motivated. The latter would have been difficult to assume in a secondary-school environment.

The *OSL* Head granted me the permission to use the centre as the research setting for my quasi-experiment following their acceptance of a report written by myself and signed by both my PhD supervisor and myself.[55] This report comprised a description of the objectives and methodology of the quasi-experiment.

With regard to the process of group assignment, some prior considerations related to the students' language level are necessary for an appropriate report of this specific part. I wanted to use an internationally recognised exam that was easily accessible and which offered guarantees of validity and reliability. The exams which satisfied both conditions were those from Cambridge ESOL. Out of these, *Cambridge PET* (*Preliminary English Test*) was dismissed since its level surpassed the second year course but did not cover the whole of the third year. The latter matched B1 in CEF (or "intermediate" in the old terminology). More precisely, the language of *PET* is regarded to be approximately two-thirds of the way towards that of the *First Certificate in English* (Hashemi & Thomas, 1996). The missing third is covered by the *OSL* third year to a large extent, which accounts for the rejection of *Cambridge PET*. The *Cambridge Proficiency* exam was also disregarded as the final fifth year led students to a complete Advanced level from which they could start a Proficiency course on their own. Consequently, the years that were apt for this research were the fourth and the fifth, whose levels were the most similar ones to *FCE* and *Cambridge Advanced* respectively. The *OSL* Head finally allotted two fourth-year groups to my quasi-experiment. As

[55] I would like to explicitly acknowledge my most sincere gratitude to the University of Murcia colleague and *OSL* teacher at the time who put me in contact with the *OSL* Head.

stated in section 6.2.3., *OSL* administrative constraints answered for the assignment of only a couple of groups, these two particular classes and their teachers as well as for the impracticality of randomly distributing the subjects' to the groups (see section 6.2.5.3. below for the actual distribution of these two groups into CG and EG).

6.2.5.3. Meetings with teachers

Several joint and individual meetings were held both prior to and during the quasi-experiment. The objective of the joint meetings preceding the study were various: To inform the teachers about the basic requirements of the experiment; to arrange preliminary issues (the distribution of the groups into CG and EG, the official exam taken at the Pre and Post-test time measures, dates of administration of these exams and of the questionnaires); explanation of the teaching intervention, etc. An individual meeting took place before the intervention so as to provide each teacher with their own research material and related guidelines.

With reference to the period during the actual the quasi-experiment, joint meetings were organised to schedule the observer's visits. Also individual meetings were conducted on a weekly basis. They were aimed at commenting on the development of the program in both groups and any other incidents including foreseen teachers' absence. In this way I was able to control the correct implementation of the quasi-experiment on a weekly basis, a task that was complemented with the observer's files and lesson recordings.

There follows a thorough description all these meetings including dates and a more detailed account of their purposes.

- Meetings prior to the quasi-experiment

The first of these meetings took place on 9th September 2002, following the *OSL* head's permission to use this institution as the research context for this study (see the preceding section 6.2.5.2.). This meeting took forty-five minutes. The ensuing key points were dealt with:

1) Informing the teachers about the purpose and general characteristics of this study

Firstly I explained the purpose of this quasi-experiment, which I described as follows: The linguistic proficiency comparison of two groups of students after a quasi-experiment in which the CG would follow the textbook with the same *sequencing* of

activities provided therein and the EG would follow a different *sequencing*. I did not explain the alternative *sequencing* at that moment so as to guarantee impartiality of teaching on the part of the still non-appointed CG teacher. I assured them that the learning content would not be altered in any way or the activity types, solely their *sequencing*. They were informed that the teacher who took charge of the EG would receive a booklet with all the new material in both teacher's and students' versions.

Secondly, after this introduction, I informed them about further requisites necessary for this study: a) The administration of one pre-test, one post-test and three questionnaires to the students; b) the completion of a teacher's daily worksheet; c) the attendance of an observer; d) the video-recording of a number of sessions and e) several joint and individual meetings both prior to and during the quasi-experimental period.

2) Arrangement of the beginning and end dates of the quasi-experiment (see section 6.2.5.1.)

3) Distribution of the two groups into CG and EG

Once they were informed about the general features of this study and after its dates had been fixed, we proceeded to select the CG and the EG. One of the teachers told me that since they were in charge of another fourth year class, they thought they would be more suitable as the CG teacher. In this way, they could teach neutrally, without any interference from the other class. Both the second teacher (who only taught one fourth year group) and I agreed.

4) Arrangement of weekly meeting dates

Following this I was informed of the class timetables and the dates and times of the weekly meetings were arranged. These were to be held every Monday from 12:30 pm to 1:30 pm with the CG teacher and from 1:30 pm to 2:30 pm with the EG teacher. As can be seen, the fact that the meetings with the two teachers were on the same first day of the week was very convenient. In this way all the observations from the preceding week could be reviewed and the lessons from the same week as the meeting could be discussed prior to implementation.

5) The use of *FCE* as the official test in this study

I informed the teachers about my intention to use the *FCE* as the official exam for this study. I asked them whether it was feasible to implement all its parts, i.e. to devote

three and a half sessions to Papers 1, 2, 3 and 4 plus allotting fourteen minutes for each student regarding Paper 5 (*Speaking*). They very kindly answered me that the administration of the whole of *FCE* required the removal of too many sessions from the ordinary teaching period. This deviation would signify the groups involved in this study would not run parallel to the other fourth year classes in learning content and time spent on this content. They agreed to use two sessions (Pre-test and Post-test) for the administration of the questionnaires and the *FCE* exam section(s) that I chose. Both Pre and Post-test sessions were to fit into a ninety-minute session each.

6) Permission to access the students' scores for the February and June *OSL* exams

I asked the teachers for their permission to access the students' scores for the official February and June *OSL* exams so that I could compare them with those of the *FCE* tests. Their answer was positive. As stated in 6.2.4.2.2.2., at the end of the quasi-experiment they gave me a printed copy of the same Excel files created by themselves and which contained such scores.

7) Permission to access the students' attendance lists corresponding to the quasi-experimental period

I enquired whether it was possible for me to access the attendance lists of both groups. Once again, they agreed to supply them after the end of the quasi-experiment.

8) Information about the *OSL* syllabus and the textbook

The next point was the *OSL* syllabus and the fourth year textbook. I asked both teachers for their permission to consult the *OSL Didactic Programme*, to which I was given access. They also told me which textbook they were going to be using in the academic year 2002-2003: *English File Upper Intermediate Student's Book* (2001), Oxford University Press (for an account of this *Didactic Programme* and coursebook plus related components, see sections 6.2.6.2. and 6.2.6.3. respectively). Both agreed that they would not use the *Workbook* in class. I informed them that it was desirable and necessary that the quasi-experimental teaching began with the same textbook lesson for both groups. They assured me that they would be in contact with each other before the beginning of the research study so that they could maintain an identical (or as similar as possible) rhythm. As explained in section 6.2.6.2., the *Didactic Programme* included a timetabling of textbook units corresponding to each class week. However, the teachers were not sure about being able to follow this planning completely due to the

normal adjustments to students' needs among other reasons. Therefore, although it was too soon to know exactly which textbook unit would be the first of the second semester, they indicated those which they thought for sure would be exploited in class: Between units 4B and 6C. This information was crucial for the preparation of the new material. They agreed to inform me of the precise initial lesson before the beginning of the first term review weeks, i.e., mid January 2003.

I was also warned of several previously decided modifications to the units: Firstly, the elimination of activity 7 (a song) from lesson 4B; secondly, two specific units would not be worked upon in class because the teachers did not think that their topics were relevant to the students (memory skills for 5B and telepathy for 5C). The only content that would be used from these units would be the vocabulary, grammar and writing exercises, which would be set as homework and their keys supplied to the students. Lastly, they told me that they had two systems regarding the writing tasks: To do them in class and to set them as homework to be collected a week later. They would also tell me which tasks they had decided to do in either form.

9) Teachers' technical specification card

I also gave both teachers a "technical specification card" with personal and professional items that they should complete and forward to me (see section 6.2.3. for a description of its content and for a report of the data obtained).

Finally, the teachers and I agreed to keep in contact by email until our next meeting (early in February 2003) for questions or issues that could arise, as well as to inform me about the initial textbook lesson of the second semester. During this period prior to the quasi-experiment, they informed me of several very important matters by email which directly affected the preparation of the adapted material: a) Their joint decision regarding the removal of certain activities from the original textbook (the *Listen Better* section from unit 5A; the third exercise in *Write Better* from unit 6A and the two Song exercises in 6B); b) the addition of a game ("Penny Lane") in unit 4C which was present in the *English File Upper Intermediate Teacher's Book* (2001) but not in the Student's; c) the setting as homework of the writing tasks in units 4A, 5A and 6C as well as two Practice activities in lessons 4A and 6B.

The second joint meeting prior to the beginning of the quasi-experiment took place on 3rd February 2003 and lasted for an hour. It concerned three crucial aspects:

1) How to tell students about the research on the first day of the quasi-experiment (17th February for the CG and 18th February for the EG)

As mentioned in section 6.2.2.2.2.2.1. (specifically, within *Hawthorne effect*), I thought it ethical to tell students about them being the subjects of a research study. Both teachers and I discussed the most suitable way to deal with this issue so as to lessen the associated threats to external validity as much as possible (i.e. not only the *Hawthorne effect*, but also other extraneous variables related to the *characteristics of the research question or task required of the participants* and *evaluative apprehension*). The final approach undertaken by the teachers was as follows: Before providing the students with the *FCE* exam in the Pre-test, teachers informed them that during the second semester a research study was going to be implemented in their classes, but they did not specify its purpose. Teachers told their learners that, in accordance with the requirements of this research, they would have to do some additional tasks on an occasional basis such as those of that day, i.e., the *FCE* exam and the IQ. The fact that the test belonged to *FCE* was not revealed (although it is acknowledged that some students may have known). Teachers also informed their students that the contents of the syllabus would not be altered in any way during the research. Likewise, they guaranteed the confidentiality of the data obtained and assured them that the results of the supplementary tasks would not affect their fourth year grades in any way. Finally, the teachers told them that they were free not to take part in the research study; however, due to the above-mentioned conditions concerning confidentiality the students were encouraged to stay.

2) Teachers' daily worksheets

I gave both teachers all the necessary related copies for the whole of the quasi-experiment and explained how they should be completed (see section 6.2.4.4.1. for a description of the daily worksheets and general comments on the data obtained).

3) Administration of the *FCE* exam (Pre-test) and of the IQ

I informed the teachers about the administration procedures of both the *FCE* exam and the IQ (see sections 6.2.5.4.1. and 6.2.5.5.1).

Before starting the quasi-experiment I also met each teacher individually. The first two of these meetings was held on 3rd February (after the aforementioned joint meeting on that same day) and each lasted for half an hour. I gave both teachers the documents

indicated in section 6.2.6.4. For instructions as to how each teacher was to proceed with the textbook plus other related guidelines, see section 6.2.6.5.

- Meetings during the quasi-experiment

During the quasi-experiment three joint meetings were conducted. The first one took place on 17th February 2003. It was aimed at arranging the date of the first observer's visit. Since such a visit had to take place at the beginning of the quasi-experiment for both groups, the teachers and I fixed the dates as 3rd March and 5th March for the CG and the EG respectively. The second joint meeting was organised on 21st March 2003. Its purpose was to determine the date of the second class attended by the observer, which was scheduled for 27th March for the CG and 1st April for the EG.[56]

The last joint meeting was held on 19th May 2003. The teachers were briefly reminded about the administration procedures for the *FCE* Post-test and the two final questionnaires (see sections 6.2.5.4.1. and 6.2.5.5.1. respectively).

Throughout the research study period I also met each teacher individually each Monday. The overriding objective of such meetings was to supervise the quasi-experiment and to ensure that it was being correctly implemented. For this purpose, the teachers gave me their completed daily worksheets from the preceding week and we commented on any issue or incident related to them and to the planning of that same week. Thanks to these meetings and specifically to the teachers' daily worksheets, I was able to control the compliance with their respective activity *sequencing*, timetabling and homework activities. I also ensured that the extra materials from the Assistant's class and those which the teachers wanted to use either in class or as homework were identical for both groups. At the weekly meeting of 28th April with the EG teacher, 14th May was agreed upon as the date of the third observer's visit.

6.2.5.4. Procedures regarding the tests

6.2.5.4.1. FCE *administration and scoring procedures*

I did not take part in the administrations of either of the two *FCE* Paper 3 tests, which were performed by the teachers in their own group classrooms (see Table 34 in

[56] The observer was present at a third (or "end-of-the-quasi-experiment") EG lesson, whose date was separately scheduled with the teacher of this group. See section 6.2.4.4.2. for an explanation of the different number of observed sessions in both groups.

section 6.2.5.1. for the dates of administration of the *FCE* exam in both Pre and Post-test time measures for both groups and for an explanation of the difference in dates of administration).

As mentioned in section 6.2.5.3., specifically within *Meetings prior to the quasi-experiment,* the guidelines of the administration process for both the Pre-test and the IQ had been explained to both teachers in a joint meeting held on 3rd February 2003. In a second meeting held on 19th May 2003, teachers were reminded about these guidelines for the Post-test *FCE* exam; and they were also informed of the administration instructions for the FQ1 and FQ2.

As to the *FCE*, the administration procedures used were the same as those outlined in *FCEH* (2001) and FCEP (2001). These included three fundamental aspects. Firstly, the timing of the exam, which was respected (1 hour and 15 minutes). Teachers informed their students about this before administering the exam. Secondly, the task instructions for each part of Paper 3 which, as stated above, were clearly explained in the *FCE* exam handouts. Both teachers also reviewed them with the students after handing them out. In relation to the third aspect, the answering procedures, I did not have access to the related original *FCE* sheets. For Parts 2-5 I had to devise answer sheets in line with the model supplied in FCEH (2001: 35) and in *Cambridge First Certificate Examination Past Papers 5* (2001: 105-108). University of Murcia computerised multiple choice answer sheets were supplied for Part 1 (multiple-choice cloze). Both types of answer sheets followed exactly the same system as the original *FCE* system (see Appendices C.3 and C.4. for a sample copy of these two types of answer materials).

Teachers also informed the students of the following guidelines for completion of the answer sheets. In Part 1, they were to write their responses in pencil (as explained on the same sheets); to write their national identity card number in the space provided; specify whose teacher's class they belonged to and leave the "type of test" (*tipo de test*), "number of sheet" (*número de hoja*) and "subject" (*asignatura*) sections blank. They were informed that there was no correction coefficient; accordingly, teachers advised them to respond to all the items. As noted in my own devised answer sheets, the remaining parts were to be written in pen, without touching the cells assigned to the examiner. They should not forget to write their names on both the exam booklet and the answer sheets.

The already fixed *OSL* timetable prevented the performance of the *FCE* tests on the same days. Therefore both the EG and the CG sat the Pre-test and Post-test sessions in their ordinary lesson times on the first and last days of the quasi-experiment. As indicated in Table 34 in section 6.2.5.1., these were 17th February and 26th May 2003 for the CG and 18th February and 27th May 2003 for the EG. See section 6.2.5.1. for a) justification of why the dates did not coincide; b) more details about the Pre-test and Post-test dates and c) the convenience of not altering the subjects' class timetable days for this purpose.

The scoring of the two tests was performed by myself respecting the same guidelines outlined by Cambridge in the Description of Paper 3 (Use of English) (see 6.2.4.2.1.5.). There were two related exceptions: The computer scanning of Paper 1, which was manually corrected by myself, and the double-marking of the rest of the papers, which was not put into practice.

The points were not finally weighted to 40 as established by Cambridge since I believed this was redundant in the present research. Therefore, the highest global number of points that students could attain was 75.

6.2.5.4.2. OSL *administration and scoring procedures*

As in the preceding section, the reader is referred to Table 34 in 6.2.5.1. for the dates of administration of the *OSL* Pre-test and Post-test for both groups. Also, see section 6.2.5.1. for justification of the related difference in dates of administration.

I did not participate in any stage of the administrations and scoring of either of the two exams. Each teacher was in charge of the administration of the exams to their corresponding groups, both of whom were in separate classrooms. Both tests took place during the exam period assigned in the *Didactic Programme*, during which lessons were cancelled. In February the exam timetables coincided with the ordinary lesson times but in June the students of all the fourth year classes had to sit the exams on the same days and times.

The instructions of each part had previously been explained during the lesson period. These instructions were also included on the exam sheets in a very clear style and the teachers briefly reviewed them in Spanish in both time measures. See Appendices C.5. and C.6. for the complete text of these exams (except for the Speaking part as explained in section 6.2.4.2.2.1.). Each teacher was responsible for correcting the

exams of their corresponding groups in accordance with the guidelines outlined in section 6.2.4.2.2.1. as well.

6.2.5.5. Procedures regarding the questionnaires

6.2.5.5.1. Administration

Table 35 below summarises the dates of administration and timing of the two exams and the questionnaires at both Pre-test and Post-test time measures. The reader is referred to section 6.2.5.1. for the explanation as to the differing dates of administration of these five instruments between both groups.

Table 35. Dates of administration and timing of the three questionnaires for the EG and the CG

	IQ	FQ1	FQ2
EG	18th February 2003 (= *FCE* Pre-test date) 20 minutes	27th May 2003 (= *FCE* Post-test date) 20 minutes	27th May 2003 (= *FCE* Post-test date) 20 minutes
CG	17th February 2003 (= *FCE* Pre-test date) 20 minutes	26th May 2003 (= *FCE* Post-test date) 20 minutes	26th May 2003 (= *FCE* Post-test date) 20 minutes

The instructions for the administration of the questionnaires were given to both teachers together in the same meetings as the guidelines of the *FCE* exam (Pre-test and Post-test), i.e. 3rd February 2003 for the IQ and 19th May 2003 for both FQ1 and FQ2. The participants had 15 minutes to complete this questionnaire after the hour and fifteen minutes devoted to the *FCE* exam. I told the teachers to ask their students to stay 5 minutes longer than usual so that they could complete the IQ. The reason for this is that I foresaw that the ordinary class time would be insufficient due to the teachers' initial ten minutes spent handing out the *FCE* material and their explanation to the students about their second semester being framed within a research study (which would not have any influence on their *OSL* scores).

Teachers were also in charge of administrating the two separate final Spanish questionnaires to their own groups. 20 minutes were allotted to their completion after the 75 minutes assigned to the exam preparation. Following my instructions and similar to the administration of the IQ, both teachers asked their students to remain 5 minutes longer than the finishing time.

As agreed in the previous meetings to the administration of these three questionnaires, the teachers kept them in three different envelopes which they respectively handed to me the day after students had completed them. Only those questionnaires from the participants who had performed both the Pre and Post *FCE* tests were coded.

6.2.5.5.2. Codification

I carried out a preliminary codification of the open answers in the IQ and FQ1 by hand. Since these demanded very straightforward answers, their categorisation did not pose any complications. The same applies to the close-response questions of these two questionnaires and of FQ2. After this initial manual codification, all the answers from the IQ, the FQ1 and the FQ2 were fed into the same SPSS database (*Statistical Package for Social Sciences*) as the test performance scores.

The introduction of the data from the two last sections of the FQ1 and the FQ2 was direct due to the Likert scale format of the items. As explained in section 6.2.4.3.5., items 4, 6-8, 11-13.2 from the FQ1 and items 1, 2, 3, 6.3, 6.4, 6.5, 7.2 from the FQ2 were submitted to a Mann-Whitney test so as to reveal any significant differences between the two groups. The reader is referred to a) the same section for the rationale of these analyses and b) section 6.3.2. for the results of the first part of the FQ1 and of the FQ2.

As to the original variables underlying the items of the IQ and of the initial section of the FQ1 (see Table 33 in section 6.2.4.3.4.), the preliminary analysis revealed the need to introduce several additions and modifications in order to feed them into the SPSS database:

a) A new variable *(presence of L2 English study gap year)* was incorporated as a result of some subjects' responses to the original IQ item 6 (*subjects' overall years of English study*). The scale measure of this added variable was categorical and dichotomous (i.e., it required a "yes" or "no" answer depending on whether the subjects had reported any gap or not). The term "gap" was included in the singular as those subjects who answered "yes" only specified one gap in their overall L2 English learning period.
b) A new quantitative (ratio) variable which measured the total number of stays (irrespective of the weeks and purpose) was incorporated as *number of stays in*

English-speaking countries. The data of this variable were acquired through the sub-item IQ/9.1.b (*number of weeks of each stay*). Consequently, a 0 (zero) was codified in those subjects' original "no" responses in IQ/9 (*presence of stays in English-speaking countries*).

c) The quantitative ratio variable *number of weeks of each stay* (in question IQ/9.1.b.) was merged with the categorical, politomous variable *purpose(s) of such stays* (item IQ/9.2.). Four quantitative ratio variables resulted from this merging: Number of L2 English study weeks; number of weeks holiday; number of work weeks; number of exchange ("other" reasons) weeks.

d) The original variable *time during which subjects had been attending extra English instruction classes before the quasi-experiment* (item IQ/10.3.) was replaced with the more specific variable *number of months of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment.* This change is accounted for by the subjects' answers to the initial item (both complete years and month quantities which did not reach a full year. The yearly periods were submitted to the SPSS database as number of months).

e) The following variables were omitted:

- Nationality (IQ1/3), since all the participants were Spanish.
- Identification of the co-official Spanish language(s) known (IQ/7.1), because there was just a single subject who was fluent in one of them.[57]
- Country and dates of each stay (IQ/9.1.a, IQ/9.1.b), due to the great variance observed across subjects. On the one hand, there was a relatively high number of different categories within these variables; on the other, not many subjects belonged to such categories either.
- Level of studies (IQ/4). 23 of the subjects were still students. This "student" class was regarded as a profession. It was revealed that in the remaining 11 cases, the level of studies coincided with the status of their jobs (for instance, a three-year-B.Sc. graduate in Health-Sciences worked as a nurse, etc). This is the reason why in section 6.2.3. the participants' professions were described in accordance with their level of studies. See the same section for a more detailed account with both descriptive and inferential statistics of this and of the remaining variables in the IQ and the first part of the FQ1.

[57] Despite there being only one participant who could speak a co-official Spanish language, I considered it appropriate to keep this variable in the SPSS file for descriptive purposes in section 6.2.3.

Table 36 below offers the final SPSS variables used for the descriptive and inferential analyses as well as their types and scale measure. These variables are the same as those listed in Table 15 (Individual variables) from section 6.2.2.2.1. (for an account of all the related analyses and results of the IQ and of the first three questions of the FQ1, see section 6.2.3.).

Table 36. Individual variables: Definitive SPSS variables, scale measures and categories

SPSS VARIABLE	SCALE MEASURE	CATEGORIES	CORRESPONDANCE WITH ORIGINAL VARIABLES IN TABLE 33 FROM SECTION 6.2.4.3.4. (IF APPLICABLE)
1. Gender	Categorical (dichotomous)	Man Woman	IQ/1: Subjects' gender
2. Age	Quantitative (interval)		IQ/2: Subjects' date of birth
3. Profession	Categorical (politomous)	High- school student University student Qualified worker (from Vocational training) (3-year-Arts degree) BA (3-year-Health- Science degree) BSc 3-year-Technical-Science degree) BSc (5-year-Arts degree) BA (5-year-Health Science degree) BSc	IQ/5: Subjects' profession
4. Years of L2 English study	Quantitative (ratio)		IQ/6: Subjects' overall years of English study
5. Presence of L2 English study gap year	Categorical (dichotomous)	Yes No	Obtained from certain answers to IQ/6: Subjects' overall years of English study
6. Knowledge of any of the co-official Spanish languages	Categorical (dichotomous)	Yes No	IQ/7: Subjects' knowledge of any of the co-official Spanish languages
7. Knowledge of other foreign language(s) besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment	Categorical (dichotomous)	Yes No	IQ/8: Subjects' knowledge of any other foreign language(s) besides English before the quasi-experiment
8. Identification of the foreign language(s) known besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment	Categorical (politomous)	None L2 French L3 French L3 French and L4 German together L3 Italian and L4 French together	IQ/8.1.: Identification of all the foreign language(s) known before the quasi-experiment ordered by level of mastery

SPSS VARIABLE	SCALE MEASURE	CATEGORIES	CORRESPONDANCE WITH ORIGINAL VARIABLES IN TABLE 33 FROM SECTION 6.2.4.3.4. (IF APPLICABLE)
9. Presence of stays in English speaking countries	Categorical (dichotomous)	Yes No	IQ/9: Presence of stays in English-speaking countries
10. Number of stays in English-speaking countries	Quantitative (ratio)		MERGING: IQ/9: Presence of stays in English-speaking countries IQ/9.1.b): Number of weeks of each stay
11. Stays: Number of L2 English study weeks	Quantitative (ratio)		MERGING: • IQ/9.1.b): Number of weeks of each stay • IQ/9.2.: Purpose(s) of such stays
12. Stays: Number of weeks holiday	Quantitative (ratio)		MERGING: • IQ/9.1.b): Number of weeks of each stay • IQ/9.2.: Purpose(s) of such stays
13. Stays: Number of work weeks	Quantitative (ratio)		MERGING: • IQ/9.1.b): Number of weeks of each stay • IQ/9.2.: Purpose(s) of such stays
14. Stays: Number of exchange ("other" reasons) weeks.	Quantitative (ratio)		MERGING: • IQ/9.1.b): Number of weeks of each stay • IQ/9.2.: Purpose(s) of such stays
15. Presence of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	Categorical (dichotomous)	Yes No	IQ/10: Presence of extra English instruction before the quasi-experiment
16. Type of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	Categorical (politomous)	None Private lessons High school University	IQ/10.1: Type of extra English instruction before the quasi-experiment
17. Weekly hours of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)		IQ/10.2.: Weekly hours of extra English instruction before the quasi-experiment

SPSS VARIABLE	SCALE MEASURE	CATEGORIES	CORRESPONDANCE WITH ORIGINAL VARIABLES IN TABLE 33 FROM SECTION 6.2.4.3.4. (IF APPLICABLE)
18. Number of months of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)		IQ/10.3.: Time during which subjects had been attending such extra instruction before the quasi-experiment
19. Weekly hours of individual L2 English study before the quasi-experiment.	Quantitative (ratio)		IQ/11: Weekly hours of individual English study before the quasi-experiment.
20. Studying other foreign language(s) besides L2 English during the quasi-experiment	Categorical (dichotomous)	Yes No	FQ1/1: Subjects' study of any other foreign language(s) besides English during the quasi-experiment
21. Identification of the foreign language(s) studied besides L2 English during the quasi-experiment.	Categorical (politomous)	None French Italian German Greek and Latin	FQ1/1.1.: Identification of the foreign language(s) studied besides English during the quasi-experiment
22. Presence of extra L2 English instruction during the quasi-experiment	Categorical (dichotomous)	Yes No	FQ1/2: Presence of extra English instruction of English during the quasi-experiment
23. Type of extra L2 English instruction during the quasi-experiment	Categorical (politomous)	None Private lessons High school University	FQ1/2.1.: Type of extra English instruction during the quasi-experiment
24. Weekly hours of extra L2 English instruction during the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)		FQ1/2.2.: Weekly hours of extra English instruction during the quasi-experiment
25. Weekly hours of individual L2 English study during the quasi-experiment	Quantitative (ratio)		FQ1/3: Weekly hours of individual English study during the quasi-experiment

Table 36. Individual variables: Definitive SPSS variables, scale measures and categories

6.2.5.6. Procedures regarding classroom controls

6.2.5.6.1. Teachers' daily worksheets

The teachers had to complete their daily worksheets after every session and give me those from the previous week at each individual weekly meeting (see section 6.2.4.4.1. for the procedures regarding the items and completion of the daily worksheets).

6.2.5.6.2. Observer's, video and audio recorded sessions

As mentioned in section 6.2.4.4.2., only two CG lessons were attended by the observer and audio recorded (instead of videotaped) due to their teacher's reluctance to the original related quasi-experimental specifications. Table 37 offers the dates of the observer's visits and class recordings of both groups. It also includes the number of the sessions out of the total 35 (as specified in the timetabling files. See section 6.2.6.4.).

Table 37. Dates of observer's visits and lesson recordings for the EG and the CG

	OBSERVER'S VISITS AND RECORDING DATES
EG	• 5/03/03 (8th session) • 1/04/03 (19th session) • 14/05/03 (originally 31st session but 30th actual session as the teacher was missing on 10th April) Video recording
CG	• 3/03/03 (7th session) • 27/03/03 (originally 17th session but 16th actual session as the teacher was missing on 24th March) Audio recording

On 25th February 2003 I had a meeting with the observer who attended the all the five lessons. This observer was a native speaker of English and an ELT professional. They were not informed of the purpose of the quasi-experiment. I explained the instructions to complete the files, which are described in section 6.2.4.4.2. as well as the actual content of these files. The observer had a copy of the textbook (either the original textbook or the adapted units as appropriate) so that they could follow the class without

problems. The observer gave me and explained the content of the completed files during a meeting after each observed session.

With reference to the recording procedures, it was not myself who video recorded the EG lessons but another person. They were situated at the back of the classroom next to the observer's desk so that students could not see either of the two unless they turned around. It was hoped that in this way their presence would disturb the learners as little as possible. The CG teacher was responsible for the audio recordings using a stereo that was placed beside her. I asked them to be discreet when starting the recording so that students would not notice. Since the cassette lasted for forty-five minutes each side, I also asked them to be attentive to timing in such a way that they told the students to have a break outside the classroom before the end of the first side. During these breaks the cassette was then changed to the other side without being seen by any student. In the weekly meetings following these sessions, the teacher told me that they thought that no learner had perceived her recording, an impression which was corroborated by the observer.

6.2.6. Teaching intervention

6.2.6.1. Teachers' tasks

As explained in section 6.2.5.3., one of the objectives of the first meeting before the quasi-experiment was to explain to the teachers the design and purpose of this study together with the tasks that they were required to do. This section discusses the complete list of such tasks. At the end of each description there appears a reference in brackets for further information:

1) Teaching their respective fourth year classes during the second semester of the academic year 2002-2003 with the chief didactic tool for both groups being the same textbook. The learning content of this textbook together with its activities and their types were not to be altered (section 6.2.6.5.).

2) Complying with the basic treatment conditions demanded by the research design: In the CG, strictly keeping to the lesson activity *sequencing* offered in the coursebook lessons (a modern ELT materials version of the P-P-P); in the EG, adhering to the new *sequencing* (CPM) supplied in the adapted material created by myself (section 6.2.6.4.).

3) Administering a series of tests and questionnaires to their students at the beginning and at the end of the quasi-experiment (sections 6.2.5.4. and 6.2.5.5.).

4) Adherence to their respective weekly lesson content timetabling as well as to the objectives of each activity (section 6.2.6.5.).

5) Completion of the "technical specification card" so that I could obtain their personal and professional profiles (sections 6.2.3. and 6.2.4.5.).

6) Completion of a "teacher's daily worksheet" after each session (section 6.2.4.4.1.).

7) Meeting with me on certain occasions before the quasi-experiment and every week during the intervention (section 6.2.5.3.).

8) Allowing the attendance of an observer at three sessions (i.e., at the beginning, middle and end of the quasi-experiment) and the video recording of such classes. As explained in section 6.2.4.4.2., the CG teacher's wariness towards these measures resulted in a modification of the related procedure for the CG: Two observed sessions instead of three which were not video but audio recorded (see the aforementioned section).

9) Providing a copy of the attendance files during the whole of the second semester (section 6.2.2.2.2.1.2.).

10) Providing a copy of the *OSL* Didactic Programme during the 2002-2003 academic year for the 4th year (section 6.2.6.2.).

11) Supplying a printed copy of the students' scores at the *OSL*'s February and June exams (section 6.3.).

12) Providing a blank copy of both the *OSL* February and June exams so that I could include them in Appendices C.5. and C.6. (see these Appendices).

13) To maintain e-mail contact during the first semester of the academic year 2002-2003 so as to answer any questions on my part and to inform me about any relevant issues (see *Meetings prior to the quasi-experiment* in section 6.2.5.3.).

14) To e-mail me at the end of January 2003 to tell me which lesson of the textbook would be the first one to be put into practice in the second semester so that I could have enough time to prepare its adapted CPM version for the EG (see *Meetings prior to the quasi-experiment* in section 6.2.5.3.).

6.2.6.2. OSL *Didactic Programme. Description*

As indicated in section 6.2.3., the teachers provided me with a printed copy of the official English Didactic Programme *(Programación Didáctica)* at the *OSL* during the academic 2002-2003 year.[58] This document was divided into four main parts: "Introduction", "Methodology", "Syllabus of each academic year", and "Evaluation". The first two parts include common information to all the years. The third one is exclusively devoted to the 4th year course, whereas the last one encompasses specific content related to this and to the other years. In all, there are a total of 17 pages that concern the fourth year level (either from a general or a specific perspective). This section provides a succinct account of this *OSL* document, with particular mention to the fourth year. I regard its inclusion as necessary not only for descriptive purposes of this research context, but also because the main pedagogic principles behind the teaching in this institution evidently affected basic design aspects of this quasi-experiment.

The "Introduction" establishes the following aspects as the foundation stones of this *Didactic Programme*:

1. Flexibility in the approach so that it can be adapted to the students' characteristics and motivations;
2. flexibility in the design so that teachers are encouraged to reflect on their practices;
3. cyclic progression of content according to the students' evolutionary communicative needs;

[58] This *OSL* document was written in Spanish. All the associated references in this section are the authoress' translation.

4. a basis on the functional and interactive nature of language and on a cognitive approach to the teaching and learning of a foreign language;
5. development of students' learning autonomy.

As can be seen, the first, third and fifth principles highlight features that are characteristic of CLT (Brumfit, 1979; Johnson, 1982; Nunan, 1988a; Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Savignon, 1997): Catering for learners' needs, whether communicative, motivational or autonomy development-based. The fourth principle is directly relevant to this research, as it follows the psychological framework that supports the CPM proposal.

The "Methodology" section contains two sub-sections: "Methodological Considerations" and "Textbooks Selected". The former encapsulates references to contemporary foreign language learning and teaching theories, particularly CLT (consonant with the pertinent principles in the "Introduction"). More specifically, the instructions of this *Didactic Programme* correlate with the "weak" version of this approach as defined by Howatt (1984). Accordingly, learners are required to use the language for communicative purposes in activities which relate to the aims of the course. These are indicated in the semantic and structural elements of the syllabus (in this case provided by the textbook).

Certain principles are explained following the premise that not only the learning but also the teaching process has to be *meaningful*, in a clear evocation to Ausubel (1968). Here I will make reference to the most important of these principles in relation to the purposes of this quasi-experiment and to the actual teaching theory behind the *OSL* pedagogic practices. In accordance with meaningful learning, the students have to augment their own learning with the help of the teacher. This constructive process is said to become more productive when inserted within a social interaction involving other classmates in the classroom. For this reason, the learners' physical distribution in the classroom must permit pair and group work in both oral and written activities so that this interaction is fostered together with motivation. These activities must comply with four basic communicative characteristics that conform to the principle of language as a means of social communication. Such characteristics also breathe CLT principles: The existence of interlocutors and a reason or purpose for the written and oral activities and the presence of a message being transmitted in an attempt to avoid mechanical statements. As a result of the above, the *Didactic Programme* includes a typology of

activities in the four skills adapted to each level (see Table 38 on page 279). This typology faithfully corresponds to the CLT abovementioned guidelines.

Other principles stress the importance of learners' motivation, creativity and autonomy, all of which have to be promoted by the teacher. Errors are seen as pedagogic tools, and the teachers are warned to keep a balance between fluency and accuracy objectives in such a way that corrections are not frustrating for the learners. The "Methodological considerations" sub-section also emphasises the active nature of the learner and the teacher's varied roles (from an instructor and an organiser to an observer and a member of the group itself). A moderate use of translation in higher levels is also recognised as a useful learning strategy for the purposes of language comparison in terms of grammatical structures, lexis, idioms and stylistic aspects. With regard to receptive skill activities, the students should formulate hypotheses about the linguistic, semantic, discourse content by means of their general and background knowledge and experience as well as through their command of their L1 and of the L2. Acknowledgement of the non-linguistic facet of language learning is also present. Finally, the *Didactic Programme* establishes the presence of a *lector* or native English speaker Assistant for oral expression skills for the fourth and fifth years (see section 6.2.5.1.).

In relation to *sequencing* issues some activities will necessarily lead to others and some contents will form the basis of other exercises. Thus, the organisation and *sequencing* of contents and activities is as follows:

a) Defining the communicative situations, objectives and essential background knowledge;
b) *presentation* of language models and reflection on language and communication;
c) *practice* or accommodation of what has been presented;
d) *production*, transference or creative reformulation of what has been practised in c).

Evidently, the *sequencing* model underlying this second principle is the P-P-P, which, at least for this institution, conforms in my view to that which was established in section 1.1. regarding the predominance of this structure in FLT classrooms.

The second sub-section in the "Methodology" refers to textbook selection, which is also driven by the communicative approach adopted in the former sub-section. Hence the textbooks selected for each level are believed to endorse an active teaching for

which learners' participation and their need to communicate in English are paramount. According to the *Didactic Programme*, the coursebooks fall within a functional methodology but are flexible at the same time. The selected material for the fourth year, as indicated in section 6.2.4.3.5., is *English File Upper Intermediate* (2001, Oxford University Press) (for its description, see section 6.2.6.3.). The interesting aspect of this for the purposes of this research is the reason argued for the use of textbooks. This is for practical reasons, as textbooks are considered to serve as a guide and a working tool for both the teacher and the student. Likewise, they facilitate the monitoring and accomplishment of the objectives indicated in the third part of this document. This affirmation adds to another one of my perceptions expressed in section 1.1: The great weight of coursebooks in FLT classrooms, an impression that is supported in sections 6.3.2. and 6.4. Another important aspect is the statement of the fact that an ideal textbook does not exist, which pushes the *OSL* professionals to experiment with new materials.

The third part of the *Didactic Programme* deals with the fourth year curriculum. It is sub-divided into four parts: 1) "General objectives"; 2) "Specific objectives"; 3) "Minimum contents demanded"; 4) "Content timetabling". Three are the "general objectives". The first one consists of the expansion of learners' grammar and vocabulary and their contact intensification with the most frequently occurring varieties, styles and accents; in this way, they are expected to be able to express themselves creatively, with autocorrection and fluency. Secondly, cultural aspects are catered for by means of authentic materials and literary texts. Thirdly, students should be aware of their own responsibility for learning and for the development of study techniques.

The "specific objectives" are aimed at developing the learners' communicative and grammatical competencies. Students must demonstrate their related mastery in a series of activities that they should be able to perform by the end of the fourth year. These can be seen in Table 39 following Table 38 (page 279). As can be seen, these activities correspond with the task types and objectives for each of the *FCE* Papers (Listening, Reading, Speaking, Writing) that were briefly overviewed in section 6.2.4.2.1.2. They also match the B2 self-assessment parameters outlined in the CEF (2001) (see Table 40). In my opinion, this resemblance confirms the adequacy in the selection of the *FCE* exam as the official test in this research. At the very least, the communicative objectives in Table 39 are noticeably closer to a B2 level than to a B1 level. This can be appreciated in the aforementioned Table 40, which offers the self-

assessment parameters of the two levels. Some of the parallels between Table 39 and Table 40 are the following:

a) The *OSL* Spoken Language part and the CEF Spoken Interaction cell markedly coincide, especially with regard to the expression of learners' opinions and stances "with a personal and fluent style" in the *OSL* and the CEF 'can-do' statement, "I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views". Also, the CEF specification of interaction with "a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible" correlates with the *OSL* indication to, "following a conversation with native speakers at a normal speed which does not imply a high degree of technical or scientific specialisation".
b) The writing text types are similar in both documents too. The *OSL* "descriptive, narrative and argumentative topics" and "personal and formal correspondence (complaint letters, job application forms…)" can be argued to encompass the CEF 'can-do' statement within Writing. This includes the writing of personal letters; clear and detailed texts of a wide range of subjects related to the learner's interests; essays and reports dealing with the passing of information, stance supporting or opposition. It is acknowledged, though, that formal letters are not explicitly mentioned in the CEF.
c) Both *OSL* and CEF highlight the ability to understand contemporary prose literary texts. The *OSL*'s, "understanding newspaper and magazines general knowledge articles" perceptibly links with the CEF 'can-do' assertion, "I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints".

Nevertheless, there also exist some isolated differences between the *OSL Didactic Programme* and the CEF (and thus the *FCE*, since it corresponds to the CEF's specifications). The most outstanding differences are the references to the standard language variety in the CEF against any other varieties; the previously mentioned absence of formal letters in the CEF and the non-presence of films, TV news and programmes as oral speech channels in the *OSL Didactic Programme*.

The areas of communication, pronunciation and grammar underlie the minimum content required of a student who finishes the fourth year as included within the "Syllabus of each academic year". These students have to show their command in the

different communicative functions indicated in Table 40 with abundant and specific vocabulary. Their pronunciation needs perfecting but it should approach that of the L2. Learners also need to master numerous grammatical structures: Countable and uncountable nouns, verbal agreement with collective nouns, use and omission of articles, adjective and adverb, word formation, correct use of all the verbal tenses, verbs plus infinitive, gerund or both, phrasal verbs, adverbial subordinated clauses, modal verbs, linkers, indirect speech, passive voice and "I-wish" uses.

Lastly, the "content timetabling" sub-section indicates the number of hours in each semester (71.5 in the first and 69 in the second) and two types of timetabling. These consist of the textbook units to be implemented each week in class and the actual grammatical content of the textbook from the first and second semesters (see Appendix B.3. on the CD-ROM for a copy of the coursebook contents). The most relevant kind of timetabling for the design purposes of the present research is the first one. This part specifies the final weeks of each semester as review weeks (i.e. the 15th and 16th of the first semester (before the February test) and the 12th, 13th and 14th of the second (prior to the June exam)). This evidently affected the length of the present quasi-experiment (see section 6.2.5.1. for a detailed account).

The fourth and final part of the *Didactic Programme* is "Evaluation". It comprises the following aspects: 1) Evaluation Objectives; 2) General Evaluation Criteria for official students; 3) Mark scale and 4) February and June Exams calendars. In terms of objectives, these are framed within the formative nature of the evaluation and are targeted at gaining evidence about the students' learning and the teachers' pedagogic processes. Section 6.2.2.2.1. includes a brief account of the "General Evaluation Criteria" for official students during the academic year 2001-2002, which coincided with that of the 2002-2003 period as I learned from the teachers involved in this study. For scale and scoring details, the reader is referred to section 6.2.4.2.2.1.; for the exam calendars, see Table 34 in section 6.2.5.1.

Table 38. Activity typology for the four skills in the *OSL* Didactic Programme (2002-2003) [Authoress' translation]

LISTENING	READING	SPEAKING	WRITING
• Language exposure to identify sounds, stress, rhythm and intonation (depending on the students' level). • Cloze listening and completion. • Global exposure to oral language and identification of ideas or content. • Acting something out or doing something according to oral instructions. • Summarising aural texts.	• Letter identification. • Finding out word meanings. • Grouping words according to the proximity of their meanings. • Filling in gaps in texts. • Reading a text for understanding purposes. • Summarising texts. • Written story reconstruction, etc.	• Pre-communicative activities: practising sounds, questions and answers conditioned by a certain functional context. • Communicative activities: dialogue construction; questionnaire formulation to obtain information; descriptions triggered by drawings, texts, etc.; group debates; relating, contrasting or extracting conclusions from facts, events, texts and words; expressing opinions, complaints, regrets; story telling; role-playing.	• Reproduction of words with special attention to spelling. • Text completion: forms, questionnaires, incomplete texts, etc. • Word, sentence and complete text dictation. • Letter and report guided writing. • Essay writing. • Story telling.

Table 39. Communicative competence objectives of the *OSL* 2002-2003 Didactic Programme [Authoress' translation]

Spoken language	Written language	Social Interaction
• Following a conversation with native speakers at a normal speed and which does not imply a high degree of technical or scientific specialisation. • Developing and perfecting his/her [the student's] capacity to express him/herself with fluency and correction at an oral level. • Selection and retention of the maximum amount of information as possible. • Expressing his/her opinions and stances with a personal and fluent style.	• Understanding newspaper, magazines and general knowledge articles. • Narrating descriptive, narrative and argumentative topics in an ordered and clear way. • Keeping personal and formal correspondence (complaint letters, job application forms…). • Fostering reading skills by approaching original literary texts and by being able to appreciate them.	• Effectively using English in his/her social and professional relations [the student's]. • Understanding the most extended diatopic varieties in the country [no specification is made about which country]. • Being able to adjust the language to different situations and to his/her emotional state [the student's].

Table 40. Common Reference Levels: Self-assessment grid (B1 and B2 levels). Taken from CEF (2001: 26-27)

		B1	B2
Understanding	Listening	I can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. I can understand the main point of many radio or TV programmes on current affairs or topics of personal or professional interest when the delivery is relatively slow and clear.	I can understand extended speech and lectures and follow even complex lines of argument provided the topic is reasonably familiar. I can understand most TV news and current affairs programmes. I can understand the majority of films in standard dialect.
	Reading	I can understand texts that consist mainly of high frequency everyday or job-related language. I can understand the description of events, feelings and wishes in personal letters.	I can read articles and reports concerned with contemporary problems in which the writers adopt particular attitudes or viewpoints. I can understand contemporary literary prose.
Speaking	Spoken Interaction	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel and current events).	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.
	Spoken Production	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
Writing	Writing	I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions.	I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences.

6.2.6.3. OSL *textbook. Description*

The official textbook for the *OSL*'s 4th year course in the 2002-2003 academic year was Oxenden, C. & Latham-Koenig, C. (2001a) *English File Upper Intermediate*, published by Oxford University Press. This is a topic-based course designed for adults and young adults. Its layout and ordering of activities allow for its identification with the contemporary ELT materials version of the P-P-P as described in section 3.4. For an illustrative example, see section 6.2.6.6.1.1., which describes a whole unit of this material.

The *Student's Book* is accompanied by the following supplementary materials (see the *References* section): A *Workbook* with an optional *Student's cassette/CD; Class cassettes/CDs* and a *Teacher's Book*[59] - most of the present account is based on information from pages 4-6. The EFUI TB includes an introduction to the coursebook, the keys of the activities in each file and extra material (activities and tests).

The course length varies from 60-90 hours for shorter courses and over 120 hours for longer ones (if all the extra photocopiable activities from the EFUI TB are used). The blurb from the back cover of the EFUI SB indicates that, "this level takes students to the point where they can start an *FCE* course with real confidence". Although this means that this material represents a somewhat lower level than the *FCE*, I strongly believe that the selection of the *FCE* as the official test in this study was appropriate for the reasons explained in sections 6.2.4.2.1.1., 6.2.5.2. and 6.2.6.2. Such reasons comprised, in the first place, the lower level of the *PET* (the Cambridge exam which preceeds the *FCE* test) in comparison with the *OSL* third year and, consequently, the fourth year; and secondly, the similarity of types and communicative competence objectives *of* skill-based tasks between those specified in the *OSL Didactic Programme*, the *FCE* and the CEF B2 level.

The EFUI SB is divided into seven units called "files", each of which includes three five-page lessons (A, B, C). All of these are devoted to the sub-skills (grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation) and the four skills (reading, listening, writing and speaking). At the end of each file there is a one-page *Check Your Progress* section, which consists of a revision test that checks the students' assimilation of the grammar and vocabulary introduced in the three preceding lessons. These tests were always set as homework. The teachers gave their students the keys on the first day of file A so that

[59] From now onwards the original *English File Upper Intermediate Student's Book* (2001a) and *English File Upper Intermediate Teacher's Book* (2001) will be respectively indicated as EFUI SB and EFUI TB.

they could correct them themselves, and doubts were resolved in the last session of file C. The EFUI TB states that each file entails a 3 to 4 hour-workload, depending on the time spent on oral activities.

There are several sections separated from the content of the actual files which appear at the back of the EFUI SB. They are described in the EFUI TB as follows:

> **Communication activities** Information-gap activities and roleplays.
> **Vocabulary Builder** 14 pages of topic-based vocabulary reference and exercises. These pages provide the 'core' vocabulary of the course. The **English sounds** chart is on p. 126.
> **Writing Bank** A six-page reference section which includes a check list of writing skills and model texts with exercises.
> **Grammar Summary** At-a-glance overview of the new grammar of each File. The revision grammar summaries are in the relevant lessons of the Workbook.
> **Listening** Tapescripts for all the LISTEN BETTER exercises.
>
> (EFUI TB, 2001: 4. Emphasis in the original)

Grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and the four skills are worked upon in each file under the following general sections, which contain all the related activities:

1) *Check What You Know, Focus on New Language, Practice* (grammar). The methodology used in the *presentation* of grammar is inductive. The *Check What You Know* section acts as a diagnostic test to be usually performed in pairs. In certain files this part is absent and the rules are presented in the *Focus on New Language* section, first in a discovery-learning mode and second as statements against which the students can verify their discoveries. This is followed by *Practice* exercises, both at an oral and written levels. Such *practice* mostly corresponds to the controlled and semi-controlled types outlined in section 3.2.2.1., i.e., mechanical, meaningful and communicative drills.

2) *Vocabulary Builder, Build Your Vocabulary* and *Remember Phrasal Verbs* (vocabulary). As previously explained, the first embraces the 'core' vocabulary of the course with over 600 words and phrases organised in topic sections (The Media, Health and Medicine, etc.). The types of activities are various: Multiple-choice, gapped texts, picture/terms and definition matching, synonym matching, item categorisation, picture ordering by means of texts, etc. *Build Your Vocabulary* recycles that lexicon by means of a quiz or memory test, "or focuses on non-thematic vocabulary groups which arise naturally out of the lesson, e.g. word formation, expressions of time, common adjective

+ preposition phrases, etc." (EFUI TB, p. 5). In spite of the inclusion of phrasal verbs as a grammar point in file 1A, I regard the *Remember Phrasal Verbs* part as vocabulary-targeted due to the format of its activities. These consist of finding phrasal verb synonyms to ordinary verbs, matching the main verb to its particle, etc.

3) *Better Pronunciation* (pronunciation). The objective of this section is to assist students in their assimilation and development of the rhythm of English and to improve their pronunciation of individual sounds. Sound-spelling irregularities are also emphasised. The English sounds chart in the EFUI SB (p. 126), contains all the sounds and symbols represented by sound-picture words. These are the same as those used in the pronunciation exercises of the *Better Pronunciation* section in all the files. The role of these sound-picture words is twofold: On the one hand, they help the students to become familiar with the phonetic symbols so that they can start reading and recognising them. On the other, since the students link the picture with the example word, the sound and the symbol, "this word is then used as a permanent reference point for learning the pronunciation of new words, contrasting two sounds, and for the correction of mispronounced words" (EFUI SB, p. 5).

4) *Listen Better* and *Songs* (listening). The approach followed consists of a two-stage process: Listening extensively for global meaning and then intensively for detailed comprehension. The types of texts tend to be longer and more authentic than in the preceding *English File Intermediate* textbook (1999), which was the *OSL* third year coursebook during the academic year 2001-2002 (see section 6.2.4.3.5.). The strategies covered are, "listening for gist and detail, tuning in to unusual accents, coping with colloquial language, and understanding people speaking quickly" (EFUI TB, p. 6). Songs are sparingly distributed in the files, and their corresponding activities are normally included in the EFUI TB. These mostly consist of gap fills.

5) *Reading Better* (reading). The related types of activities are, "reading a scientific text, predicting content from headings, using topic sentences to understand a text, comparing newspaper styles, etc." (EFUI TB, p. 6). Reading time limits are set so as to develop reading speed. The emphasis is placed on meaning inference or guessing, dictionary use, and learning new words and expressions found in the texts. The latter are chosen on the basis of their intrinsic interest.

6) *Write Better* and *Writing Bank* (writing). According to the EFUI TB (p. 6), the "three key words for effective writing at this level are PLAN, WRITE, CHECK". The *Writing Bank* is devoted to these three skills, and includes theory about writing skills plus occasional controlled *practice* exercises on model texts. This section acts a preliminary stage to the actual composition from the "Write Better" sections in the files. The type of texts included are dialogues, argumentative compositions, narratives, formal and informal letters, etc.

7) *Get It Right* and *Making Conversation* (speaking). *Get It Right* always precedes *Making Conversation*, and focuses on two aspects: Typical errors probably committed by students and key expressions needed for the particular activity to be developed afterwards. Its format of presentation varies from simple information to discrete-item based exercises. The *Making Conversation* activities combine fluency *practice* with a strong emphasis on accuracy. The students continue developing the kind of speaking strategies used in the intermediate level: Discussion, arguing and giving opinion, etc. Sometimes the textbook directly refers students to the *Communication Activities* under the *Making Conversation* section.

Finally, there is a *Study Skills* section in all the files. Presented in red squares, these *Study Tip Boxes* deal with study tips regarding the four skills and the sub-skills of vocabulary and pronunciation. Their function is to make the students aware of the specific strategy and to offer practical tips for performing the following exercise(s).

Seven files from the EFUI SB were used for this study as the instructional material for both the CG and the EG: 4A, 4B, 4C, 5A, 6A, 6B and 6C. See section 6.2.5.3. (page 255) for a) the teachers' reasons regarding the exclusion of units 5B and 5C to be studied in class and b) their decisions prior to the quasi-experiment in relation to certain aspects of content of the units which they taught.

6.2.6.4. Support teaching materials for the EG and the CG teachers

At the individual meetings dated on 3rd February 2003, several support teaching materials were handed to each teacher. These materials were created to help them in their preparation and implementation of this quasi-experimental study. Firstly, I devised

a timetabling file for the two of them. This consisted of a daily plan of the contents to be covered and also included the Pre-test and Post-test sessions (see Appendices H1 and H2 for the timetabling files for the CG and the EG respectively). As can be seen in these appendices, both files specify 36 sessions instead of the 35 identified in section 6.2.5.1. The reason for this is that although the loss of 1 class in each group (19th March for the EG and 1st May for the CG) had been foreseen (see footnote 55 on page 250), the other missing session due to teachers' personal reasons had not been taken into account. Through these timetabling files it was hoped that the teachers would run parallel in both rhythm and in the activities set as homework, which corresponded to the *Check Your Progress* pages as well as to selected exercises from *Vocabulary Builder* and *Practice* plus certain *Write Better* compositions (see section 6.2.6.3. for a description of all the parts that a unit is composed of in the *OSL* fourth year textbook).

As explained in section 6.2.6.3., the quasi-experimental instructional material embraced seven units. Four of them were assigned a timing of five sessions, whereas that of the other three ranged between four (2 units) and six sessions (1 unit). The assignment of the number of sessions for each unit attempted to be sufficiently long to anticipate the additional time devoted to: a) Assistant's hourly classes every two weeks; b) exercise correction; c) resolving students' doubts from the *Check Your Progress* sections and the two units that were disregarded by the teachers, as well as any extra materials, etc. In this way, it was endeavoured that such extra time would not affect the overall timing of each lesson contents.

The EG teacher received both her own teacher booklet with the adapted units and all the necessary copies of the new version of students' material for her learners.[60] The page numbering coincided in the two materials. The CPM TB was the same as the CPM SB but with several added elements: The communicative stage, the original and adapted instructions and the correspondence of each activity with the EFUI SB numbering assigned by myself (see section 6.2.6.6.1.3). For a description of a sample original unit, its adapted CPM version and an analytical comparison between the two, see sections 6.2.6.6.1.1., 6.2.6.6.1.3. and 6.2.6.6.1.4. respectively. The reader is also referred to

[60] From now onwards the CPM adapted Student's Booklet and Teacher's Booklet will be referred to with the abbreviations CPM SB and CPM TB. Also, the page numbers of the activities included in the transcription of the EG session (Appendix G2) and in the EG timetabling file (Appendix H2) correspond to the original numbering in the CPM TB.

Appendix B.2. for the text of this sample CPM unit as found in the CPM TB and to Appendix B.4. for the text of the six remaining adapted units from the CPM TB.

6.2.6.5. Textbook using procedures in the EG and the CG

As indicated in section 6.2.5.3. (*Meetings prior to the quasi-experiment)*, at the first individual meeting held on 3rd February 2003, I explained to each individual teacher how they should use the textbook. Accordingly, I gave both of them the documents indicated in section 6.2.6.4. These consisted of a timetabling file for each of them and a copy of the students' and teacher's instructional adapted material for the EG teacher.

There existed two common procedures for both teachers in the use of the textbook. Firstly, they should abide by its exact order regarding the original material for the CG teacher and the CPM adapted lessons for the EG teacher. Secondly, the objectives and implementation procedures of each activity should be adhered to, since as explained in section 6.2.4.4.2., any deviation in these two could account for a digression in the original *sequencing* assigned for each group.

The two preceding common procedures were illustrated with the timetabling files. In the case of the EG teacher, we went through the planning along with the CPM TB. I explained the general system for the numbering of the new adapted units as included in the activity sections and instructions. The two first files were employed for this purpose (see the beginning of section 6.2.6.6.1.3. for a detailed example of this numbering in file 6C). In the remaining individual meetings with this teacher, we went through this labelling aspect for the rest of the lessons as the course advanced. In the second session of the quasi-experiment (first teaching lesson after the Pre-test), the EG teacher explained to the participants the new numbering of the files. As explained in section 6.2.6.6.1.2., the CPM SB did not include the wording of the communicative stages. These were read aloud by the EG teacher.

6.2.6.6. The textbook in the EG

6.2.6.6.1. A comparison of an original and of a CPM adapted lesson

In order to illustrate the whole adaptation process and its final product, I will draw on file 6C out of those that comprised the learning materials during the period of this quasi-experiment so as to illustrate the complete adaptation process and the final product. The selection of this unit was solely due to the fact that the EG transcribed

class belongs to this file. In order to facilitate the reading of the present report, the reader is advised to consult Appendices B.1. and B.2. These respectively include the full text of the original file 6C and its adapted CPM version as found in the CPM TB.

6.2.6.6.1.1. Description of the original lesson

File 6C is spread over pages 96-100 in the EFUI SB and contains thirteen separate sections. Nine of them are numbered as follows: 1. *Read* Better (pp. 96-97); 2. *Listen Better* (p. 97); 3. *Focus on New Language* (pp. 97-98); 4. *Making Conversation* (p. 98); 5. *Listen Better* (p. 98); 6. *Song* (p. 98); 7. *Focus on New Language* (p. 99); 8. *Build Your Vocabulary* (p. 100); 9. *Write Better* (p. 100). The remaining five are unnumbered: *Vocabulary Builder* (embedded in the *Read Better* section on page 139 from the EFUI SB); *Practice* (two separate parts which come after 3. *Focus on New Language* on p. 98 and after 7. *Focus On New Language* on p. 99); *Get It Right,* which appears before *Making Conversation* (p. 98); *Better Pronunciation*, which is placed after 8. *Build Your Vocabulary* on p. 100; and *Remember Phrasal Verbs*, which are located at the end (p. 100).

For the purposes of a better understanding of my adaptation, I feel it necessary to provide a detailed analytical description of this lesson in terms of the following elements: Topic and learning content (section 6.2.6.6.1.1.1.), typology and original *sequencing* (pedagogic and cognitive) of the activities (section 6.2.6.6.1.1.2.).

6.2.6.6.1.1.1. Topic and learning content

The title of the unit represents its topic: “Secret stories”. According to p. 87 in the EFUI TB, “The first is the story of Barbie and her inventor, who feels cheated and embittered. The second is the story of a famous musician who deceived his best friend, and the woman who had not one but three pop songs written about her”. The first story is introduced by a reading text (followed by a listening extract) and the second one by an aural text. “Business” could be regarded as a subsidiary topic since some related vocabulary and pronunciation are present; their inclusion derives somewhat topically from the first story.

According to the EFUI TB (p. 87), the grammatical aims include the introduction of contrast and purpose clauses as new language. As for vocabulary, the target is business verbs, expressions and compounds. Some verbal phrases are also included.

Pronunciation is given attention firstly using international brand names and secondly with compound nouns.

The skills utilised are reading, listening, speaking and writing. For reading, several strategies are put into practice: Reading for gist; detailed reading; and meaning inference. Listening for gist and for detail, as well as scanning and item-recognition-based listening is also encompassed. Brief oral discussions practise speaking skills and are triggered by answering some questions and by indicating opinion about several statements. Finally, students practise the writing of informal e-mails.

Table A2 in Appendix A.2. offers the layout of sections and activities in the original EFUI SB file 6C. This table includes the following four columns: *Section*; *Activity no. in each section; Activity no. in the overall sequence* and *Total no. of activities*. Several terminological specifications included in Table A2 apply in the account of the original unit that follows this section. The aforementioned specifications are absent in the original EFUI SB and are added for the purposes of a better identification and localisation of each section and activity:

1. In the cases where there is more than one instance of the same section, capital letters will be used in brackets after each name to refer to the whole of that section (e.g., *Focus on New Language (A)*, *Focus on New Language (B))*.
2. The activities from the numbered sections will be identified by the number of their corresponding section followed by small letters. For example, activity 1.a. refers to the first activity in *Read Better*.
3. Activities from unnumbered sections excluding *Practice* (*Vocabulary Builder, Better Pronunciation, Get It Right, Remember Phrasal Verbs*) will be indicated by the following abbreviations: *VB., BP., GIR., PV*. plus the corresponding small letters.
4. The *Practice* exercises corresponding to each *Focus on New Language* parts will be referred to by the same capital letter as the latter. For example, *Practice A.a.* is the first activity within the first *Practice* section of the unit, which is linked to *Focus on New Language (A).*
5. The main parameter for the identification of the activities will be the number provided in the *Activity no. in the overall sequence* column. This is owing to the fact that the unnumbered sections cannot be identified by any number and thus do not correspond with the preceding and later numbered activities. For example, *VB* activities come between activities 1.d. (from *Read Better*, which is the first

numbered section) and 2.a. (which is the first exercise of the second numbered section: *Listen Better (A))*. When referring to the activities in the actual description of the unit in section 6.2.6.6.1.1.2., their corresponding position out of the complete number of exercises will be included in brackets.

6.2.6.6.1.1.2. Typology and sequencing (pedagogic and cognitive) of the activities

This section provides a description of the activity sequencing in the original file 6C from both didactic and cognitive perspectives.[61] Although I acknowledge the protracted nature of this report, I nevertheless strongly believe that such an extension is necessary for a full understanding of both the pedagogic and cognitive *sequencing* of file 6C. In relation to the former, it draws on the P-P-P as the parameter of stage categorisation. An explanation of the types of activities is also supplied to aid understanding of such a categorisation.

With regard to the cognitive level of analysis, the same procedure as that outlined in section 5.1. is followed here. It consists of the application of a) the cognitive phases uncovered by Johnson's (1996) implementation of Anderson's ACT model as well as the intermediate phases isolated by the authoress herself due to the vicissitudes of the activity types and their underlying *sequencing* revealed in the quasi-experimental textbook units (see section 4.3.1.); and b) DeKeyser's (1998) implications of this cognitive theory for activity *sequencing* (section 4.4.1.). The reader is also referred to Table 9 (page 115) for the legend of the cognitive phases used in this section, in 6.2.6.6.1.3. and in 6.2.6.6.1.4.

Three basic observations must be made concerning the description of the psychological stages in this unit and in the others (see Tables A3 and A4 in Appendix A.2. and Tables A18-A29 in Appendix A.5. - the latter is included on the CD-ROM). Firstly, and similar to section 5.1., I propose an explicit separation between the cognitive phases for the sake of clarity in the exposition. As specified in section 4.3.2., such clear-cut divisions do not exist 100%. It could be argued that those activities or group of interrelated activities where different types of language content are simultaneously presented may account for different cognitive phases taking place. This can occur with the two following variations: 1) Concurrently with differing degrees of

[61] Where appropriate, italics are employed in this section to highlight the text from the actual unit included (either the content from the exercises or their instructions).

consciousness (such as in the *Listen Better (B)* section, which consists of both listening skill *practice* and an indirect or non-explicit *presentation* of structures at the same time; 2) one cognitive phase after the other (for example, in *Read Better*, where the text is firstly used for the purposes of reading *practice* and later as an explicit *presentation* of vocabulary items).

Secondly, the same preceding purposes of clarity in this description account for the specification of a full cognitive *sequence* not only in this lesson but also in the remaining lessons. In other words, it is acknowledged that these cognitive stages should not be regarded as separate blocks where their completion is definitively achieved in the framework of an individual lesson. For instance, when *Practice A.a.* (17) and *Practice A.b.* (18) are said to encompass establishment of declarative knowledge and its initial proceduralisation (*DECpro* - see page 296), it is admitted that such processes are not completed as isolated chunks and that additional similar practical exercises are necessary to achieve complete implantation of declarative knowledge and to start its proceduralisation. This is evidently difficult to fully attain in just one lesson, as implied by DeKeyser (1998) (see section 4.4.1.). He supports enough time to grasp declarative knowledge and extensive *practice* to attain its proceduralisation and automatisation. As also indicated in section 4.4.1., it is essential to guarantee that items which have been previously *presented* and *practised* (*DECPRO*) or explicitly introduced after *practice/production* (*PRODEC*) are recycled in later textbook units/teacher-based materials.

Thirdly, it is extremely important to highlight that the cognitive observations present here are tentative and should be properly tested in future works. As explained in section 4.4.2., to my knowledge there is no empirical study - either a several-week quasi-experiment or a longitudinal work - which has examined the cognitive development of formal FL learning as framed within ACT. The only exceptions are DeKeyser (1997) and DeKeyser & Sokalski (1996), which focus on the learning of discrete items (specific structures and vocabulary).

The reader is referred Table A3 in Appendix A.2. for an overview of both the exercises and their underlying *sequencing*. This table displays the same data as Table A2 but with the incorporation of three new columns: “P phase of each activity within each section”; “Overall P phase within each section” and “Cognitive Phase within each section”. Identical remarks from Table A2 apply to Table A3. In addition, regarding the first added column (“P phase of each activity within each section”), in the cases where a

different skill or sub-skill from that referred to in each section title is being exploited in a given activity, such a divergence is indicated in brackets next to the corresponding P phase. For instance, in file 6C, activity 1.a. belongs to *Read Better* but is targeted at speaking; hence "P3 (speaking)".

As the two previously described stories in section 6.2.6.6.1.1.1. are not connected with each other (the only link being their "secrecy" feature), it could be assumed that file 6C is divided into two separate thematic blocks. In fact, a couple of neat P-P-P *sequences* of activities can be appreciated in relation to this topical division. Table 41 below presents a summary of each P-P-P *sequence* by focusing on the "Overall P phase of each section" column. There exist certain associated nuances which account for the consideration of these two classical patterns as pertaining to the contemporary versions of current materials. The aforementioned division will evidently complicate the establishment of a unifying communicative situation for this adaptation.

Table 41. P-P-P *sequences* of the original EFUI SB file 6C[62]

FIRST P-P-P SEQUENCE		SECOND P-P-P SEQUENCE	
Activities	Global P Phase	Activities	Global P Phase
Activities 1-5	P1-P2 (1st) Explicit inductive contextualised presentation of vocabulary in the reading section, which develops reading skill practice at the same time as hinting towards active production in the initial warm-up	Activities 22-23	P1-P2 (1st) Implicit inductive contextualised presentation of structures in the listening section which are explicitly addressed in activities 26-28. Similar to the reading section, this presentation develops listening practice and fosters speaking skills to a lesser extent
		Activities 24-25	P2 Practice of different listening strategies from 22-23
Activities 6-9	P1 • (2nd) Explicit or direct inductive non-contextualised presentation and manipulation of the vocabulary from activities 1-5 P2 • Pronunciation practice of such lexicon items	Activities 26-28	P1 (2nd) Explicit inductive contextualised presentation of the structures from activities 22-23, followed by an explicit deductive non-contextualised rule presentation
Activities 10-12	P1 • (3rd) Implicit inductive contextualised presentation of the vocabulary from activities 6-9 P2 • Practice of listening strategies and to a lesser extent, speaking skills • Story acting as the contextualisation for later presentation of grammar structures	Activities 29-31	P2-P3 Controlled, semi-controlled and free (oral) practice of the structures from activities 26-28
Activities 13-16	P1 Explicit inductive contextualised presentation of structures followed by explicit deductive non-contextualised rule presentation	Activities 32-33	P1 Explicit inductive non-contextualised presentation and manipulation of vocabulary
Activities 17-18	P2 Controlled and semi-controlled practice of the structures from activities 13-16	Activities 34-35	P2 Pronunciation practice of the vocabulary from activities 32-33
Activities 19-21	P3 Final oral production preceded by short pronunciation exercises	Activities 36-38	P3 Written production
		Activities 39-40	P1 Explicit inductive non-contextualised presentation of phrasal verbs

[62] The activity numbers correspond to the third column in Tables A2 and A3: "Activity no. in the overall sequence". The ordinal numbers in brackets before certain P1 occurrences refer to the actual number of presentations of the targeted items in question. For instance, in the first P-P-P *sequence*, the vocabulary points are presented three times. The same system will be used in the "Overall P phase within each section" column in Table A4 in Appendix A.2. and in Tables A18-A29 in Appendix A.5 (on the CD-ROM). Where no numbers appear, this means that a single presentation for the items in question is offered.

1. READ BETTER. *Remember who is who*

Activity 1. a.) (1) consists of a lead-in through which the students must talk among themselves to answer the three questions provided. Clearly, this acts as a warm-up activity which triggers some brief oral work without a predominant accuracy focus but a fluency one. Consequently, this exercise corresponds to a succinct P3 phase.

Activity 1.b. (2) compels students to answer a fundamental question on the plot of the text, which practises reading for gist. Activity 1.c. (3) is preceded by a "Study Tip Box" which advises students how to proceed when faced with a text that contains many names. Then learners have to read further to see if they can remember a list of names and their role in the text. This reading for detail activity is followed by an activity of the same nature in the shape of a true-or-false exercise (1.d.) (4) which encourages students to guess the meaning of unknown words. Since the last three activities contribute to the development of this skill, they can be considered as P2 from a pedagogic point of view, which in fact constitutes the main skill objective of this part (regardless of 1.a. (1)).

This reading section is finished with a form-focused activity (1.e.) (5), which requires learners to highlight words or phrases in the text related to business. It also utilises the inferring skills previously mentioned in 1.d. (4). This is an introduction to the *Vocabulary Builder* section to which learners are immediately directed in the same instructions.

Although explicit references to pronunciation are made in this section, for practical purposes its main linguistic objective is considered to be lexis, which is exploited through discrete-item based exercises. The first one (*VB.a.)* (6) requires completing expressions with verbs from a list (P1). Some of them are very similar to those from the reading text: "Set up a company"; "manufacture a product"; "make a fortune"; "an overnight success" (which are respectively found in the story text as: *Set up (a very successful) toy company; manufacturer, make a profit, an overnight success).* Exercise *VB.b.)* (7) develops pronunciation skills of the items in *VB.a.)* (6) through an inductive *presentation* (students underlining the stress by themselves) and *practice* (P2). Activity *VB.c.* (8) expands *VB.a.* (6) and *VB.b.* (7) by means of learners testing themselves for the right collocations (P2). Students are trained in business expressions with "do" and "make" in activity *VB.d*.) (9) (P1), where they have to put the nouns under either verb to complete business expressions.

With reference to global pedagogic *sequencing* issues, the whole of the *Read Better* section has a dual purpose. On the one hand, reading *practice per se* is included,

which accounts for P2. On the other, as regards certain vocabulary items out of all those that are subsequently studied in *Vocabulary Builder*, this reading part is an example of what I named in section 3.2.2.2. as an *explicit (or direct) inductive contextualised presentation* (first P1 of this lexis). This is in stark contrast with: a) The *explicit or direct inductive non-contextualised presentation* of lexis in Vocabulary (second P1); and b) the bare explanation of grammar rules or *explicit non-contextualised deductive presentation* (as is later seen in exercise 3.d. (16)). The reading section offers a combination of a "Strategy" and a "Language" based approaches to reading (Masuhara, 2003). Accordingly, there exists a progression from a warm-up free speaking activity (1.a. (1)) to story gist comprehension and final detailed understanding of the role of characters and events (activities 1.b. (2), 1.c. (3), 1.d. (4)). This chain is completed with the first half of the last exercise, which requires working on the text itself before turning to the second half of the activity or definitive introduction and practise of lexis: *Vocabulary Builder*.

From an overall cognitive perspective, the reading section exercises have a twofold role in accordance with the double pedagogic stage. Firstly, a *pro* phase may be appreciated. This *pro* stage with small letters is related to the actual reading *practice*, i.e., it denotes an on-going process of reading skill development, whose complete proceduralisation will be attained in advanced stages of learning after much *practice* embodied in additional reading activities. Furthermore, the introduction of the target lesson vocabulary in *Read Better* accounts for a *dec* phase. It appears in small letters as it denotes that the process of declarativisation is starting to take place through the learners' conscious attention to lexis via the highlighting of text terms. The acquisition of declarative knowledge is meant to be completed in the ensuing explicit *Vocabulary Builder* section thanks to the actual (very) controlled manipulation of items on the students' part. This is expressed as *DEC* (the capital letters standing for full attainment of declarative knowledge). Additional deductive P1 or inductive/discovery learning P1 exercises of the same linguistic items is indispensable so that this declarative knowledge is firmly established in the students' long-term memory. As stated in footnote 28 (page 124), the explicit focus on vocabulary through P1 is enough to fully acquire it in long-term memory.

For cognitive issues regarding *VB.b* (7), see *Get It Right* on page 297.

2. LISTEN BETTER (A). *Following a story: time connectors*

The listening exercise continues the story of the reading text by focusing on Rolf Hausser (Barbie's inventor). A "Study Tip Box" precedes the two activities and advises about the benefit of being aware of time connectors. The first activity (2.a.) (10) requires the answers to three gist questions. After this general comprehension exercise follows a detailed listening activity (2.b. (11)) in which students listen again and number the events in the correct order with the help of time connectors. In the same way as in the reading section, the listening activities 2.a. (10) and 2.b. (11) denote a P2 phase each due to their practice of the listening skill. Finally, exercise 2.c. (12) is a follow-up activity with a learner-centred nature as it demands them to express their feelings towards Barbie's ruined inventor. The last activity encompasses a brief P3 as in 1.a. (1).

The role of the *Listen Better (A)* part as an *inductive contextualised presentation* for the grammar in *Focus on New Language (A)* is not as obvious as in the preceding reading part. This is due to the fact that the actual text of the aural story only includes a single clause expressing a contrast: "Because although it is true that they paid us quite a lot of money, it was nothing, nothing compared with what we would have earned if Mattel had paid us a percentage".

This *Listen Better (A)* section constitutes a *practice* stage (P2) of the listening skill and it thus involves the development of proceduralisation (*pro*) in this specific skill. Similar to the *Read Better* section, this process culminates in more advanced learning phases following a great amount of listening *practice*. The listening text may be regarded as an *implicit inductive contextualised presentation* of the lesson lexicon items (third P1 of lexis) since it also reintroduces several (though not all) business expressions for passive aural recognition which were studied in the previous *Vocabulary Builder* exercises: *Profits, multinational company, make losses, be made bankrupt*. Accordingly, this section abides by one fundamental pedagogic principle: Further recycling integrated in the four skills (listening in this case). Such recycling contributes to the augmentation of declarative knowledge. Therefore this section allows for additional *DEC* regarding the lexicon items.

3. FOCUS ON NEW LANGUAGE (A). *Clauses expressing a contrast*

Activity 3.a. (13) draws on the content of the aural text so that learners match the sentence halves to construct a summary of Barbie's story. The contrast connectors of these sentence halves are highlighted in bold. Exercise 3.b. (14) consists of students

testing themselves to see if they are able to complete the sentences from memory. Discovery learning underlies 3.c. (15) by means of two metalinguistic questions that explicitly draw learners' attention to the grammar rules encompassed in contrast clauses. Thus from exercise 3.a. (13) to exercise 3.c. (15) there exists an *explicit or direct inductive contextualised presentation*. The final activity (3.d. (16)) incorporates an *explicit or direct deductive non-contextualised presentation* in which students can verify their hypotheses with the statements of the rules that had previously been illustrated with the sentences from the story. Together with the ensuing *Focus on New Language (B),* this is an example of the combination of types of *presentation* indicated in section 3.2.2.2. Overall, the whole section could be considered to belong to the inductive mode of teaching and learning.

A *dec* cognitive stage underlies this overall explicit and inductive P1 phase. The small letters indicate that the contrast clauses start to be declarativised. The related process is completed in the ensuing *Practice (A)* section. Clearly, the latter does not preclude the need for the existence of more similar exercises to that discussed here to guarantee solid declarativisation.

PRACTICE (A)

This part focuses on the *practice* (P2) of the previously introduced grammar items. Spratt's (1985b) order of the activity types in the *practice* stage described in section 4.4.2. is reflected here: Drills to allow *practice* with the form (*Practice A.a.* (17)) and controlled communicative activities to establish form-meaning relationships (*Practice A.b.* (18)).

Practice A.a. (17) consists of a controlled mechanical drill or rephrasing of the given sentences so that they have the same meaning. As mentioned in section 4.4.2., although DeKeyser (1998) does not agree with mechanical drills following explanation, they may be considered a procedure to check the correct understanding of rules from a pure formal/structural point of view. Proceduralisation of this declarative knowledge can then start later, i.e., establishing form-meaning relationships in a firm way. This is achieved in *Practice A.b.* (18), which is a "freer" creative type of *practice* or "communicative drill" (DeKeyser, 1998) as the content of the second half of the sentences is supplied by the students themselves. It follows that the whole cognitive *sequence* is depicted as *DECpro*. As remarked in the lexicon items from the *Read Better*

part, additional form-focused *practice* of the same linguistic items is essential so that this declarative knowledge is definitively fixed in the students' long-term memory.

4. MAKING CONVERSATION

The prior P1 and P2 stages are completed with this speaking-focused section. Overall it acts as the final P3 in this first P-P-P *sequencing* of activities thematically linked by Barbie's story (which also introduced business lexis). The main speaking activity is preceded by a "Get It Right" box with two activities: *GIR.a.* (19) and *GIR.b.* (20). These are devoted to the pronunciation of the international brand names that will be used in the ensuing conversation. Exercise 4 (21) involves a conversation prompted by the answers to certain questions in small groups. This discussion could be said to revise some of the vocabulary elements practised earlier.

Activity *GIR.a.* (19) is a mechanical drill that represents very controlled P2. Proceduralisation of the phonological features is reached with simple repetition owing to their discrete and non-meaningful nature (DeKeyser, 1998). Thus the cognitive stage described by the *GIR* exercises is *DECPRO,* which also applies to *VB.b.* (7). The very brief P1 stage constituted by *GIR.b*. (20) reinforces the previous declarativisation. In all, this full cognitive *sequence* is not regarded as a deviation from the overall *sequence*, precisely due to the discrete character of the pronunciation items. Identical cautions to those indicated on page 290 are pertinent here regarding the need for further related *practice* to fully achieve such automatisation - given the limited context of an individual unit. Finally, activity 4 (21) includes P3 as it activates the oral *production* of the previously *presented* and *practised* linguistic points (at least phonological and lexical). Consequently, the psychological phase underneath is *PRO* with capital letters, indicating the proceduralisation and final automatisation of the knowledge underlying such items have been fulfilled. Evidently, additional recycling and encountering of the same items in other productive activities and ROC contexts is basic to ensure solid fluency on the part of the learners or to ensure that their output does not depend on short-term memory and that it is free from inaccuracies that impair understanding in the communication.

After this productive exercise, a change in the topic that connects the activities changes into a new, separate P-P-P structure and related cognitive *sequencing*.

5. LISTEN BETTER (B). *Listening for gist and detail*

The *presentation* phase of this new ordering of exercises begins with a second listening cycle. Its title, "Listening for gist and detail", reveals the skills to be practised. Activity 5.a. (22) contains two sub-activities. Firstly, there is a brief warm-up activity in which students look at two photographs to identify the people in them (George Harrison of the Beatles, with Patti Boyd, his wife, and Eric Clapton). Then they listen to a programme telling a story related to these three characters and write the names of three songs; lastly, they are required to answer what the three tunes have in common. Thus very brief scanning and listening for gist activities are exploited. Listening for detail follows in exercise 5.b. (23), which invites students to listen for more details about the love triangle and the three songs and to compare their comprehension with their partners.

6. SONG

One of the songs mentioned before, "Wonderful Tonight", is included as an optional task. There are two related activities and appear in the EFUI TB, p. 175 and focus on detailed item-listening:

6.a. (24) *Read the lyrics of the song. In most lines there is one word missing. Listen once and mark where the missing words go.*

6.b. (25) *Listen again. What are the missing words?*

Wonderful tonight

It's late in the evening, she's wondering what to wear
She puts on her make up and brushes her long hair
And then she asks me, 'Do I look all right?'
And I say, 'You look wonderful tonight'.

We go to a party and everyone turns to
This beautiful lady that's walking with me.
And she asks me, 'Do you feel all right?'
And I say, 'Yes, I feel wonderful tonight'.

I feel wonderful tonight because I see the love in your eyes.
And the wonder of it all is that you don't realize
How I love you.

It's time to go home and I've got an aching head,
So I give her the keys, she helps me to bed.
And then I tell her as I turn out the light, I say,
'Darling, you were wonderful tonight'.

From a pedagogic point of view, all the listening activities in sections 5 and 6 comprise aural *practice* (P2). Similar to the previous reading and listening cycles, *Listen Better (B)* acts as an *implicit or indirect inductive contextualised presentation* (first P1 for structures) of the grammar explicitly developed in *Focus on New Language (B)*. Indeed, the listening text contains clauses of purpose and reason, which are those employed in 7.a. (26) as later described. Thus in cognitive terms, the same observations as in *Read Better* and *Listen Better (A)* apply here: The in-progress listening process underlies *pro* and *dec* corresponds to the *indirect contextualised presentation*. This incipient (and most probably unconscious at this stage) declarative knowledge will be completed later by means of the exercises from the *Practice (B)* section, which also lead to automatisation. In relation to these two processes, the same cautionary remarks as those on page 290 should be borne in mind. The song activities simply represent further listening *practice* (P2) and thus their underlying cognitive phase is *pro*.

7. FOCUS ON NEW LANGUAGE (B). *Clauses of purpose and reason:* to, so as to, so that, because (of), for

In exercise 7.a. (26), the students must complete the sentences taken from the listening text, listen and check. Then, in exercise 7.b. (27), learners have to answer explicit metalinguistic questions as to the formal configuration of this type of clause. Their responses are checked with the syntactic rules included in activity 7. c. (28): "Check with the rules". Thus similar to *Focus on New Language (A),* exercises 7.a. (26) and 7.b. (27) constitute an instance of an *explicit or direct inductive contextualised presentation* followed by the *explicit or direct deductive non-contextualised rule presentation* in 7.c. (28). As with *Focus on New Language (A),* this section could be globally regarded as an *inductive presentation* (second grammar P1). For its description in cognitive terms, see *Practice (B)* below.

PRACTICE (B)

Three exercises reinforce the initial double *presentation* of these structures. The first two embody *practice* (P2). *Practice B.a.* (29) consists of a discrete-item sentence completion, the items being purpose linkers. *Practice B.b.* (30) is somewhat freer as the second half of the sentences have to be guessed by the students in a very similar way to *Practice A.b.* (18). *Practice B.c.* (31) directs them to the "Communication" section at

the back of their books. Learners have to employ purpose connectors to respond to several questions such as *Why do people get married?, Why do people tell lies?*, etc.

This last activity represents a *production* stage (P3) according to the EFUI TB guidelines on page 90 ("The questions should serve as discussion prompts where they both say what they think, rather than just A answering B's questions and vice versa"). As can be seen, there is a progression from discrete-item based exercises to full creative utterance on the students' part; in other words, very controlled drills give way to communicative ones. Thus, the first two exercises embody *practice* or P2 and the latter allows for *production* (P3). I believe that the third activity does not seriously distort the overall second P-P-P *sequence*: The actual discussion is at an oral level and written *production* is included in the *Write Better* section. This is an upper-intermediate course and the unit being dealt with is a later one (the eighteenth file out of the overall twenty-one lessons); obviously, nuances and variations are logical.

From a cognitive viewpoint, the stage is represented by *DECPRO*, i.e., declarative knowledge whose initial development (*dec*) explicitly started in *Focus on New Language (B)* is installed in the students' long-term memory due to the blank-filling exercise in *Practice B.a.* (29) (*DEC*). Clearly, further recycling (similar *presentation* and *practice* to those here) of the same linguistic items is necessary to solidly maintain this declarative knowledge in the students' long-term memory. *Practice B.a.* (29) also permits the anchoring of the relevant declarative knowledge for the later start of proceduralisation in *Practice B.b.* (30) *(pro)* - establishing form-meaning relationships in long-term memory. Automatisation *(PRO)* is finally attained in *Practice B.c.* (31). Similar to the observation in *Making Conversation,* additional students' *production* in different activities is fundamental to guarantee solid and error-free fluency.

8. BUILD YOUR VOCABULARY. *Compound nouns*

First of all, a "Study Tip Box" draws students' attention to the syntactic function and morphological peculiarities of the first noun in the compound. The whole of this section uses the discovery learning mode or, more precisely, the *explicit or direct inductive non-contextualised presentation* of all the items (P1). In activity 8.a. (32), learners must make compound nouns using words from the given list, and in 8.b. (33) they compare their results in pairs to see whether there are differences. Lastly, they test themselves. Some of the nouns included in this section are related to the topic of the first P-P-P *sequencing* (*brand name, business deal, family business, music*

business/magazine, toy box/manufacturer) and also to the second P-P-P *sequencing* (*love song*). The EFUI TB (p. 90) indicates that the examples, "have all come up in previous lessons". Thus the EFUI SB incorporates the recycling of elements introduced in earlier lesson parts. In this case, such recycling contributes to strengthen the underlying declarative knowledge of these items in the students' long-term memory.

As in the prior *Vocabulary Builder* section, this *Build Your Vocabulary* part embodies *DEC.* Capital letters indicate the declarativisation of such items. In principle, this is achieved without additional parallel exercises thanks to the testing in 8.b. (33), although as it is done throughout the whole section, the psychological cautions on page 290 concerning the context limitations of a single unit should always be taken into account. As stated there, additional continuous recycling of the same lexicon in receptive and productive-skill-based activities with various degrees of ROCs is essential. In this way, maintenance of declarative knowledge in the learners' long-term memory plus proceduralisation and the perfecting of automatisation can be attained respectively.

BETTER PRONUNCIATION. *Stress on compound nouns*

This section develops the pronunciation of the previously introduced lexical items. Firstly, a mechanical repetition activity (*BP.a.*) (34)) very similar to *GIR.a.* (19) can be observed, which requires learners to practise saying the compound list above and check with the corresponding listening extract. Exercise *BP.b*. (35) reinforces the previous one and consists of answering real-life and familiar questions which require the use of a correctly stressed compound noun. Identical pedagogic and cognitive *sequencing* remarks as in *Get It Right* apply here. Therefore the whole of this section represents controlled *practice* (P2). This allows for a complete psychological *DECPRO* structure owing to the discrete nature of the phonological items. Parallel to *GIR.a* (19) and *GIR.b* (20), this cognitive digression from the uniformity of the second P-P-P *sequence* is not considered to be substantial.

9. WRITE BETTER. *An informal e-mail*

This section is sub-divided into three activities. Before undertaking the writing of the composition, learners are directed to *Writing Bank* (9.a.) (36)) on page 143 of the EFUI SB. There they find theoretical *tips for writing an informal letter*, which they have to contrast against those for *writing an informal e-mail*. Exercise 9.b. (37) sets the

background (topic, audience) of the actual writing task and advises students to plan their e-mails. Accordingly, this activity could be considered to conform to the "writing-process" approach. Activity 9.c. (38) finally compels students to produce the 100-150 word e-mail by answering the questions in exercise 9.b. (37).

In didactic terms, a neat individual P-P-P *sequence* can be appreciated in this writing cycle. Exercises 9.a. (36), 9.b. (37) and 9.c. (38) respectively correspond to P1, P2 and P3. However, since the first two activities are prior stages to the actual concluding composition, the pedagogic function of the entire *Write Better* section is P3. The final writing task relates to the two P-P-P *sequences* outlined in file 6C. On the one hand, its topic is linked to that of the first ordering as can be seen in question 1 in 9.b. (37), which arguably allows for the revision of the lexical elements introduced, developed and orally practised in the first thematic block. On the other hand, questions 2 and 3 in 9.b. (37) definitely require the use of clauses of purpose and reason, which have been presented and practised in the second P-P-P structure. Thus, it could be considered that not only does this composition act as the productive phase (P3) of this second *sequence*, but it somewhat also represents the final free written manipulation of all the elements studied throughout the unit.

From a cognitive perspective, the overall psychological stage corresponding to the general P3 phase is *PRO* with capital letters - which implies that the procedural knowledge initiated in *Practice (B)* is finally well established and automatised at a written level. It is acknowledged, though, that the length of the composition is a bit reduced to fully appreciate the students' ability to operate with these linguistic items. As stated on page 290, further extensive *practice* in both oral and written modes simulating (as closely as possible) real-life situations is necessary to warrant students' fluency as well as accuracy.

REMEMBER PHRASAL VERBS IN CONTEXT

Two exercises focus on the retention of phrasal verbs included in the file. *PV.a.* (39)) demands that learners complete the preposition gaps of a series of phrasal verbs inserted in sentences related to the three topics of file 6A, 6B and 6C (highly controlled P2). In *P.V.b.* (40), learners say the meaning of the phrasal verbs in pairs. Due to the high control of *practice* in *PV.a.* (39), the overall purpose of this section is P1, specifically an *explicit inductive non-contextualised presentation.* As above, I believe that the final linguistic exercise does not affect the overall second P-P-P arrangement of

activities due to is idiosyncratic appearance throughout the whole EFUI SB. Together with a *Check your progress* test, this part is presented every 3 units at the end of each file for revision of the most important phrasal verbs included in each corresponding file.

It could be argued that *dec* underlies this P1. Extensive additional *practice* is needed to completely acquire declarative knowledge of these items so as to later proceduralise them. This final activity somehow alters the linear nature of the second P-P-P *sequence*; however, since it is only present every three files it is not considered to seriously affect the main activity structure.

In conclusion, two clear P1-P2-P3 *sequences* have been identified in file 6C. They have coinciding and divergent qualities. As to the former, implicit inductive contextualised presentations of grammar in the aural texts on the one hand and direct inductive contextualised presentations of vocabulary in the reading text on the other preceded the direct inductive presentations. These required learners to discover expressions and rules by themselves. In the case of structures, overt deductive grammar rules and *practice* followed the prior *indirect contextualised* and *explicit inductive presentations.* This *practice* ranged from controlled to freer manipulation, which appeared in the oral mode for the first *sequence* and both oral and written modes in the second one. In fact, the written productive task of the second P-P-P structure activated the *production* of all the previously studied points in both *sequences*.

The relatively high language level of this textbook together with its contemporary nature accounted for certain infrequent deviations in the two P-P-P *sequences*, particularly the second one. This phenomenon was not considered to alter their global similarity. The digressions were present in *Get It Right* (initial *sequencing*), in *Practice B.c***.** and *Remember Phrasal Verbs in Context* (second *sequencing*). The oral *production* embraced in *Practice B.c.* was the most noticeable deviation, since it was inserted before the *Build Your Vocabulary* and *Better Pronunciation* sections (which preceded the final written *production* activity). However, the absence of other similar cases justified the treatment of *Practice B.c.* as a minor alteration in the second P-P-P *sequence*. The discrete feature of the pronunciation items in *Get It Right* and *Better Pronunciation* was not considered to be a sufficient condition to distort both overall *sequences*. The special feature of *Remember Phrasal Verbs* section (i.e. its appearance every three files) accounted for the same conclusion for the second activity arrangement.

As can be seen, the structure and format of these two P-P-P *sequences* clearly coincide with those of the contemporary version of this model that was explained in section 3.4. Both orderings show a) an insertion of both forms and lexis and not only the former; b) implicit and explicit inductive contextualised presentations mixing the introduction of linguistic features and receptive skill *practice* in the same exercises or group of exercises; c) the aforementioned minor deviation in the ordinary distribution of activities; d) recycling of elements within the very same unit and even of previous units (*Build Your Vocabulary*), which in the case of this file have an effect on the strengthening of declarative knowledge of such items.

In accordance with these P-P-P *sequences* and despite the previous deviations, two complete *DECPRO* cognitive *sequences* were distinguished as framed within the context of a single lesson for the purposes of clarity of the presentation. However, the latter aspect was a caution to be taken into account since it was certainly acknowledged that it limited the complete achievement of the described cognitive processes. Attention was also drawn to the fact that the psychological stages portrayed manifest in a continuum. In addition, later constant recycling of the same elements in multiple contexts and skill-based activities is essential for accurate and lasting declarative knowledge and, consequently, for correctly implanted procedural knowledge and its perfection. If the previous condition is fulfilled, students' long-term memory storage of both types of knowledge is ensured.

6.2.6.6.1.2. Basic methodological adaptation principles

The following principles apply to all the seven units that the instructional material consisted of for the EG in this quasi-experiment. Before explaining such principles, it is important to highlight that the material adaptation undertaken for this study does not allow the quantitative or qualitative change of the content or "what" of the units or the modification of the typology and procedure of the activities (which represent "how" the input and learners' output are presented and elicited respectively). Hence and as repeatedly indicated, this adaptation solely concerned the alteration of the activity *sequencing*. Having said this, for the purposes of a more logical and interesting thematic thread of the communicative events implied, I slightly modified the wording of some isolated sentences employed to practise linguistic items. This is conveniently indicated in the instructions of the CPM TB, an example of which can be found in file 6C.

Three main methodological procedures may be distinguished in the adaptation process. Firstly, I had to distinguish the communicative (not linguistic) nucleus of the unit. Following the EFUI TB (p. 87), the communicative core could be said to be: "Secret stories". Secondly, a communicative situation must be determined. Normally, this second phase should become easier when the textbook is topic-based as was the case. Nonetheless, as I have pointed out above in section 6.2.6.6.1.1.2., the existence of two different and clearly demarcated thematic blocks supplied by the two secret story plots together with business vocabulary did not facilitate this adaptation task. Considering the general subject and the texts offered, I selected the creation of articles based on secret stories as my general communicative situation. The third step was the design of a real-life coherent and logical *sequencing* of communicative stages that fulfil the depicted communicative situation. There existed multiple possibilities since, as Sánchez (2001: 119) states,

> the analysis of the same communicative situation as developed by single speakers reveals that we are far from being equal in the way we face reality, in the way we approach it and in the way we behave in carrying out the tasks connected with it.

This formulation of the phases, facts and experiences constituting the whole communicative process should be prior to the adjusting of the existing exercises in adaptation (and to the design of activities in materials creation). In this way, my attention was exclusively devoted to the production of a coherent and natural *sequencing* of events. At a later stage they were pedagogically transformed, for which purpose it was necessary to think of the correspondence between the existing activities and the depicted communicative phases.

In an attempt to keep the content of this material and of the original EFUI SB as homogeneous as possible in terms of content quantity, I deemed it inconvenient to supply the CPM SB with the descriptive fragments of the communicative events. These fragments illustrating each communicative event were to be read aloud by the EG teacher. Therefore, the wording of the described real-life situation had to match the students' current level and not exceed their language command. It should be highlighted that special care was taken in this latter aspect. Occasionally the original instructions preceding each exercise had to be altered slightly so that they conformed to the plot of the story. Since the wording of the events was also solely included in the CPM TB, the instances of the rewritten instructions were not incorporated in the CPM SB so as not to

confound the students. In the CPM TB, the original instructions were always included immediately afterwards so that the EG teacher had the same version of such instructions as her learners.

For the purposes of the present unit, out of the many possibilities available, I opted for the following pattern of events: Sarah, a journalist, is assigned the task of writing an article based on a music and love story. While preparing it, she overhears a conversation between her boss (Julian) and another colleague which makes her furious, since the former is offering the latter a post originally allocated for her. She is determined to show her boss her high level of professionalism by composing an extremely interesting article about the functioning of a large company. She searches the Internet in vain for related information. Exhausted, she returns home. While watching her daughter playing with her "barbies", a fantastic idea comes to mind: She will write about a very famous toy manufacturer, Mattel. Back on the Internet, she finds a curious article about Barbie's original creator, a man from Nuremberg. Intrigued by this story, unknown to most of the public, she decides to change the topic of her article and investigate the authorship of Mattel's star product: Barbie. She flies to Nuremberg and interviews this man in person. Back in London, she writes her article. Her boss really likes it, so he promotes her instead of her colleague. A few days later he receives a phone-call of a friend who asks him for advice regarding a market study for a toy manufacturing business in Spain. Julian asks Sarah to provide an answer using an informal e-mail.

6.2.6.6.1.3. The new CPM *adapted lesson*

In this section I will provide a detailed description of the new adapted unit in relation to the communicative events underlying each section and their didactic and psychological *sequences*. Since the learning content, activity typology and strategies have been previously explained, a full description of these aspects will be omitted. It is important to note that the same cautions with regard to cognitive aspects which appear on pages 289-290 are also pertinent here.

The reader is referred to the two following parts: a) Table A4 in Appendix A.2., which offers the layout of sections, activities and their *sequencing* as related to the CPM adapted file 6C); and b) Appendix B.2. for the complete text of this adapted file as present in the CPM TB, since this report will not include all the text of file 6C but a reference to each of its sections by means of their number, title and pages in both

materials[63] (the numbering of pages is identical to that described in section 6.2.6.4.). For the purposes of a neat layout in the new adapted units, I considered it pertinent to number not only the activities but also the whole of the sections in the CPM TB and CPM SB (including the unnumbered sections in the original EFUI TB and EFUI SB). Also, the terminological specifications for Table A2 and Table A3 respectively described in sections 6.2.6.6.1.1.1. and 6.2.6.6.1.1.2. apply to Table A4.[64]

Table A4 includes the same columns as Table A3: "Sections", "Activity no. in each section", "Activity no. in the overall sequence"; "P phase of each activity within each section"; "Overall P phase of each section" and "Cognitive phase within each section". The first, second and third columns have the ensuing peculiarities:

1) The first column offers in brackets the corresponding section with the original file 6C after each new heading. In this table and in the CPM SB and CPM TB, the headings of the new units include a final correlative number in each repeated section in accordance with the number of instances. This concerns *Listen Better, Focus on New Language* and *Practice*. With regard to the first two, there accordingly appears a *Listen Better (1)* and (*2)* and a *Focus on New Language (1)* and *(2).* It should be taken into account that the numbers 1 and 2 do not imply that they correlate with the A and B labelling in the original file. For instance, *Listen Better (1)* corresponds to *Listen Better (B)*. As to the original *Practice (A)* and *(B),* these are split into *Practice (1.1.), Practice (1.2.), Practice (1.3.), Practice (2.1.)* and *Practice (2.2.).* Due to these five sub-divisions, which were absent in the original file, I thought that adding the first number would help to link the *practice* exercises to their specific *Focus on New Language* theory. The first number refers to the *Focus on New Language* section to which it belongs. The second number simply reflects the order of such *Practice* sections. These do not always immediately follow the ones to which they are connected. For example,

[63] In 6.2.6.6.1.3. the numbering of the pages in the title of the sections from file 6C corresponds to that included in the printed Appendix B.2. bound within this volume. The same observation applies to those cases where an internal reference to a page from the adapted file 6C is made in Appendix B.2. itself. It should be taken into account a) that the numbering of the pages from Appendix B.2. in the Appendices on the CD-ROM does not coincide with its printed version and b) that the numbering of the pages being referred to from this section (6.2.6.6.1.3.) will exclusively follow that of the printed Appendix B.2. The internal references of the electronic version will correspond to the numbering of the pages in that version.

[64] By extension, all the specifications related to Table A4 affect the other tables of the adapted units in Appendix A.5. on the CD-ROM: Tables A19, A21, A23, A25, A27 and A29 (files 4A, 4B, 4C, 5A, 6A, 6B, respectively).

Practice (2.2.) is related to *Focus on New Language (2)* and comes after *Practice (2.1.),* which appears two sections before *Practice (2.2.).*

As can be seen in this first column the original individual *Better Pronunciation* section is also split into two sub-sections: *Better Pronunciation (1)* and *Better Pronunciation (2),* each corresponding to one of the two pertinent activities. *Get It Right* is separated from *Making Conversation* and appears as a section on its own.

2) In the second column ("Activity no. in each section"), the corresponding section of the activity number with the original numbering is also indicated in brackets.

3) Likewise, the third column ("Activity no. in the overall sequence") uses brackets to specify the correspondence of the activity position in the new unit with its respective placement in file 6C.

With regard to the presentation format of the adapted files in the CPM TB, the following aspects need to be mentioned:

1) The narration of the communicative stage corresponding to each section appears immediately before the instructions of the activities.

2) Two types of instructions are supplied: Those which include content related to the communicative stage (when applicable) and those with the original EFUI SB wording. The text pertaining to the communicative phase and to the rephrased instructions appears in *Times New Roman italics.* Normal Times New Roman will be used for the original EFUI SB guidelines, for the section headings and for most of the actual content from the exercises themselves except for the "Study Tip Boxes", which are shown in a Book Antiqua type-font. This last observation also applies to the CPM SB.

3) After the EFUI SB instructions, Arial type font observations comprise information addressed to the EG teacher so as to facilitate their teaching of all the adapted lessons. Such observations concerned the following aspects:

a) The location of the original activity in the EFUI TB expressed with such initials plus "page/number of the section and number of the activity within that section".

This item of information was included as the EFUI TB offered explanations about each exercise and section regarding procedure, aims, etc.;

b) the original number of the activity in the EFUI SB, indicated by such initials plus "page/number of the section and number of the activity within that section"; [65]

c) any relevant methodological issue related to the adaptation; when this is so, the content from the exercises is included.

After the adaptation process the adapted unit contains 41 activities compared with 40 in the original version. This is due to the fact that activity 5.a.) from the *Listen Better (B)* section in the initial arrangement was separated into two independent activities: 1.a. and 1.b. The new unit reads as follows.

1. LISTEN BETTER (1). *Listening for gist and detail* (p. 433) and
2. SONG. *Wonderful tonight* (p. 434)

The same pedagogic and psychological *sequencing* considerations indicated in the corresponding original activities of these two sections on pages 298-299 apply here. Thus *Listen Better (1)* simultaneously includes listening skill *practice* (P2) and an *implicit (or indirect) inductive contextualised presentation* of the structures to be studied in the ensuing *Focus on New Language (1)* (second P1 for grammar). Therefore, the cognitive stages are respectively *pro* and *dec* (the latter in accordance with the - most likely unconscious - beginning of the development of the grammar declarative knowledge).

3. FOCUS ON NEW LANGUAGE (1). *Clauses of purpose and reason: to, so as to, so that, because (of), for* (p. 435) and
4. PRACTICE (1.1.). *Clauses of purpose and reason: to, so as to, so that, because (of), for* (p. 436)

Similar to the initial unit, the *explicit or direct inductive contextualised presentation* of *Focus on New Language (1)* (second grammar P1) is followed by a practical exercise (P2). The former allows for starting the development of declarative knowledge (*dec*), which is fully acquired in the latter (*DEC*).

[65] Since the original numbering offered by the EFUI SB and EFUI TB was used in a) and b), the terminological specifications from points 1, 2, 3 and 4 indicated for Table A2 (section 6.2.6.6.1.1.1.) are not relevant here. For example, *Practice B.b.* will be referred to as *Practice b* in the CPM TB.

5. BUILD YOUR VOCABULARY. *Compound nouns* (p. 437)

In this case, pedagogic and cognitive *sequencing* remarks are identical to those of the same section in the original unit. Thus from a global point of view both activities represent an *explicit or direct inductive non-contextualised presentation* of all the items (P1) which is strengthened by students' testing themselves. In this way, a full *DEC* cognitive phase is appreciated. The same psychological cautions from the equivalent section in the original unit are relevant here.

6. BETTER PRONUNCIATION (1). *Stress on compound nouns* (p. 438)

Although the original *Better Pronunciation* section had another ensuing activity, the same didactic and cognitive remarks included in the previous part are considered to be relevant here due to the discrete nature of the phonetic items. This exercise encompasses controlled *practice* (P2), by which thorough declarativisation and proceduralisation of such items is presumably attained (*DECPRO*). Additional related practice, as indicated in the original *GIR.a*. (19) and *GIR.b.* (20) is necessary to ensure full automatisation and perfecting.

7. VOCABULARY BUILDER. *BUSINESS. Verbs and expressions* (pp. 438-439)

In spite of the absence of the reading text in *Read Better* (which indirectly introduced all this vocabulary in the case of the original EFUI SB unit), the didactic and cognitive *sequencing* observations from the original *Vocabulary Builder* are appropriate here. Thus, from a global viewpoint, this part acts as an *explicit or direct inductive non-contextualised presentation* (first lexis P1) whereby declarativisation (*DEC*) of the lexical elements is attained. As in the original unit, further recycling so as to ensure strengthening of this declarative knowledge in the students' long-term memory is needed.

As a subsidiary aim and similar to the initial *Vocabulary Builder* section, the P2 in the pronunciation of the items in 7.b. allows for the declarativisation and proceduralisation of those phonemes.

8. GET IT RIGHT. *Pronouncing international brand names* (p. 439)

With regard to pedagogic and cognitive *sequencing* issues, identical considerations to those in the original section and in *Better Pronunciation (1)* apply here: Tight manipulation (P2) and full *DECPRO*.

9. PRACTICE (1.2.). *Clauses of purpose and reason: to, so as to, so that, because (of), for* (p. 440)

As in the first unit, this activity represents a communicative drill aimed at practising purpose linkers (P2). However, given that it is not followed by the free speaking activity included in *Practice B.c.* (31), the cognitive *sequence* necessarily differs from that described for the whole original *Practice (B)* section. The declarative knowledge initially expanded in *Practice (1.1.)* (9) is established and hence its proceduralisation starts developing, which will culminate in the later *Practice (1.3.)*. Hence *DECpro* in *Practice (1.2.).* Evidently, the restricted context of this lesson calls for more similar *practice* to attain such processes (full declarativisation and initial proceduralisation).

10. MAKING CONVERSATION (p. 440)

Similar pedagogic and cognitive observations to the original activity no. 21 apply here. This activity triggers oral *production* (P3) of the earlier pronunciation features and may also do so with all the business and compound items previously introduced and practised. In this way the proceduralisation and later automatisation of all such features appears (*PRO*) - never forgetting the cautionary notes on page 290. Due to its placement after purpose clauses in this adapted unit, this activity may even lead to related oral production. Indeed, the EFUI TB (p. 89) states that the teacher should get "some general feedback to find out what products Ss have been a) very satisfied with, b) not very satisfied with". This calls for some use of purpose clauses, for which reason such oral output may then continue the development of the procedural knowledge initiated in *Practice (1.2.)* (*pro*). Automatisation will be attained in *Practice (1.3.)* (explicitly targeted for this purpose). In this way, the new position of *Making Conversation* allows for an occurrence of additional *practice* and recycling at an oral level of purpose clauses that was missing in the original unit.

11. BETTER PRONUNCIATION (2). *Stress on compound nouns* (p. 441)

The same pedagogic and cognitive *sequencing* considerations as in *Better Pronunciation (1)* apply to *Better Pronunciation (2)*: Controlled *practice* (P2) and full *DECPRO*. Identical recycling observations to sections 6 and 8 *(Better Pronunciation (1)* and *GIR)* are also relevant here.

12. READ BETTER. *Remembering who's who* (pp. 441-443)

Pedagogic and cognitive *sequencing* divergences can be appreciated in this section when compared to the original. Both sections coincide in the existence of two didactic and psychological stages, but differ in the objectives and nature of one of these phases. Reading *practice* (P2) and related proceduralisation development (*pro*) are present here in the same way as in the first unit. The introduction of the *Vocabulary Builder* in the new lesson evidently neutralises the other initial role of *Read Better*. Such a role involved an *explicit or direct inductive contextualised presentation* (P1) of the originally studied lexical items in the *Vocabulary Builder* part that followed *Read Better*. A direct *presentation* (P1) is still there in the CPM unit, but its function becomes recycling and reinforcing of the declarative knowledge attained in the aforementioned vocabulary section. This is related to the remark on page 290 as to the need for skill-based activities where items are revisited in order to strengthen their corresponding declarative or procedural knowledge as appropriate. Therefore, contrary to the first unit, it is *DEC* and not *dec* which underlies this second *direct contextualised P1*.

13. PRACTICE (1.3.). *Clauses of purpose and reason: to, so as to, so that, because (of), for* (p. 443)

Similar to the corresponding activity in the original unit, P3 underlies this free-speaking activity. Given that the related *Practice (1.1.)* and *Practice (1.2.)* exercises had appeared separately before the cognitive stage of this activity is only *PRO* (and not *DECPRO* as in the overall initial *Practice (B))*. Further parallel *practice* in similar and diverging contexts, with different ROCs conditions is essential to achieve complete automatisation and its perfection.

14. LISTEN BETTER (2). *Following a story: time connectors* (pp. 444-445)

Identical didactic and cognitive *sequencing* remarks to those in the same section in the original unit are pertinent here. Accordingly, this listening section also has a double function in the same way as *Read Better*. Overall it acts as P2 of this receptive skill and it thus allows for the development of related proceduralisation (*pro*). Moreover, the fact that the aural text contained certain instances of the business vocabulary previously introduced in both *Read Better* and *Vocabulary Builder* means that this section constitutes an *implicit inductive contextualised presentation* (third vocabulary P1). In other words, recycling is taking place in a different setting from those of the two other

sections. In this way, declarative knowledge of such items is maintained and strengthened, which is expressed as *DEC*.

15. FOCUS ON NEW LANGUAGE (2). *Clauses expressing a contrast* (pp. 445-447)
16. PRACTICE (2.1.). *Clauses expressing a contrast* (p. 447)

These two sections have the same didactic and cognitive functions in *sequencing* terms as their corresponding sections in the original lesson on pages 295-296. Therefore, *Focus on New Language (2)* represents an *explicit inductive contextualised presentation* of clauses (P1) which triggers the development of the related declarative knowledge (*dec*). This psychological process will be completed (*DEC*) in *Practice (2.1.)*.

17. REMEMBER PHRASAL VERBS IN CONTEXT (p. 448)

The pedagogic and cognitive *sequencing* peculiarities of this section coincide with those of the original in the first lesson. Thus an *explicit inductive non-contextualised presentation* (P1) is offered in the sense that the students have to look for the phrasal verbs that were introduced in this file and in the two preceding ones. From a cognitive point of view, this *presentation* starts the declarativisation of these items (*dec*), whose full settlement and proceduralisation will require further practice in subsequent units or teacher-devised materials.

18. PRACTICE (2.2.). *Clauses expressing a contrast* (p. 448)

In *sequencing* terms, the beginning of the proceduralisation of contrast clauses (*pro*) forms the basis of this communicative drill (P2). Naturally, further related *practice* must be incorporated to guarantee a solid development of such a process.

19. WRITE BETTER. *An informal e-mail* (p. 449)

This final writing task presents the same didactic and cognitive *sequencing* remarks as the first unit. P1, P2 and P3 respectively correspond with activities nos. 39, 40 and 41. As in the initial lesson, the main objective of this part is to activate the written *production* of all the items studied in the unit. Hence, P3 is the global didactic stage and *PRO* is the cognitive phase, which reflects the automatisation of these linguistic elements at a written level. As in the original file, it is compulsory to

implement additional tasks resembling as much as possible real-life ones - in both oral and written modes - so as to ensure learners' fluency and accuracy.

6.2.6.6.1.4. Contrastive analysis of the original and the adapted lesson

A simple comparison of Tables 41 and A3 with Table A4 confirms two facts: a) The considerable linearity of the two P-P-P *sequences* in the original unit, especially the first one; and b) the significant reduction of this linearity in the new activity distribution, which cannot be attributed to a plain P1-P2-P3 structure. Also, a linear *DECPRO* structure is not apparent in the new lesson. This is discussed later.

Obviously, there exist necessary coincidences between the original and the adapted unit. In the first place, there is an overwhelming presence of *practice* (P2) in both lessons, which is mostly targeted at receptive skills, structures and pronunciation. This similarity is completely natural given that this adaptation did not permit the change of the activity typology; consequently, the new arrangement reflects the same degree of existence of the three Ps as in the first unit. Secondly, the two lessons conform to the pedagogic principle of receptive skills before productive skills (Sánchez, 2001). In this sense the new unit abides by real-life naturalistic learning criteria, since it opens with a listening activity (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Sánchez, 2001). Besides, the final exercises in both lessons represent a productive phase (excluding the phrasal verbs activity in the initial unit). Thirdly, the didactic parameter of progressive complexity in the manipulation of linguistic features is equally catered for in both lessons (controlled discrete-item *practice* precedes semi-controlled sentence-based *practice*, etc.) (Sánchez 2001; Spratt, 1985c).

Nevertheless, the new ordering shows palpable departures from the original one. Indeed, the adapted *sequencing* is not as strictly consecutive as a successive P1-P2-P3 pattern. Firstly, there exists an alternation between P1 and P2 from activity 1 until activity 19, as opposed to the initial distribution, where a clear P-P-P structure is reflected from exercises 1-21. Secondly, it is possible to observe an evident deviation from a rigid P1-P2-P3 distribution in activities 20-41. At the beginning of this second half there exists a P3 stage provided by *Making Conversation* and by *Practice (1.3.)*. This distorts the oscillation between P1 and P2 until activity 41 and contrasts with the more homogeneous second P-P-P pattern from the original unit (activities 22-38, since activities 39-40 belong to the every-three-units *Remember Phrasal Verbs* section).

Thus variety is provided by these deviations from the initial lesson. This diversity is not gratuitous but demanded by the logic inherent to communicative processes. Such logic is responsible for the following substantial changes in the activity *sequencing*:

1. The *Better Pronunciation* exercises (sections 6 and 11) are not inserted together. In between come *Vocabulary Builder* (section 7); *Get It Right* (section 8); *Practice (1.2.)* (section 9) and *Making Conversation* (section 10).
2. *Focus on New Language (1)* (section 3) immediately precedes its *Practice (1.1.)* (section 4), which is not followed by the other related practical exercises. *Practice (1.2.)* (section 9) follows *Build Your Vocabulary*; *Better Pronunciation (1)*; *Vocabulary Builder* and *Get It Right* (sections 5-8 respectively). The final *Practice (1.3.)* (section 13) emerges after sections 10-12: *Making Conversation*, *Better Pronunciation (2)* and *Read Better*.
3. Similarly, *Focus on New Language (2)* (section 15) is followed by its *Practice (2.1.)* (section 16), which does not immediately head the original *Practice (A.b.)* but *Remember Phrasal Verbs in Context* (section 17). After this last exercise is *Practice (2.2.)* (section 18).

Many of the preceding changes favour the constant recycling of the linguistic elements in the unit - an aspect acknowledged to be catered for in the original lesson. In effect, despite the existence of P-P-P *sequences* in the EFUI SB, it is fair to say that the attack on this traditional structure as focused on its "teaching-equals-learning" view of language learning (see section 3.3.2.3.) is not entirely pertinent in this material. For example, *Build Your Vocabulary* (section 8) includes compound nouns already studied in previous lessons and in earlier parts of file 6C; exercises 2.a) (no. 10) and 2.b) (no. 11) from *Listen Better (A)* (section 2) allow for aural recognition of some business expressions previously offered in *Read Better* and in *Vocabulary Builder* (which come before the aural part). Nonetheless, the adapted *sequencing* definitely optimises and allows for a greater degree of the recycling of linguistic features. Firstly, the business vocabulary presented in *Vocabulary Builder* (section 7) is introduced later on in two different contexts: Reading (in *Read Better*, section 12) and listening (in *Listen Better (2),* section 14). Secondly, the separation of the three *practice* activities related to *Focus on New Language (1)* (section 3) and the inclusion of *Making Conversation* (section 10) before *Practice (1.3.)* (section 13) permitted the achievement of extra *practice* at an oral level and a further opportunity for the proceduralisation of purpose clauses.

The combination of these ordering alterations and derived revisiting phenomena also affects the cognitive *sequencing* of the adapted unit. Indeed, a general full *DECPRO* structure is revealed - with the acknowledged cautions concerning a) the simultaneous and non-self-enclosed nature of these processes; b) further P1 or P2 exercises similar to those of the unit so as to guarantee definitive declarativisation and initial proceduralisation; c) the need for constant recycling in following coursebook units to cater for the strengthening of the automatisation and the perfecting of the latter.

As opposed to the equivalent psychological patterns in the two initial P-P-P *sequences*, this *DECPRO* chain emerges in a more discontinuous way. As can be seen in Table A4, this discontinuous nature is due to the separation of the grammar *practice* and the pronunciation activities, which were originally included as a single section. By way of the aforementioned recycling in the adapted lesson, this adapted unit also includes additional cognitive functions which were absent in certain stages absent of the original. Such recycling reinforces two cognitive aspects. On the one hand, it allows for the maintenance of declarative knowledge related to business vocabulary after it has been proceduralised. In the original unit, the double role of *Read Better* in section 1 contemplated the initial (and probably subconscious) declarativisation (*dec*) of the lexical items to be explicitly studied in *Vocabulary Builder* and indirectly revisited in the subsequent *Listen Better (A)* (section (2) - hence *DEC* for the last two sections. In the new unit, after the *explicit inductive non-contextualised presentation* of the lexicon in *Vocabulary Builder* (section 7) and its proceduralisation in *Making Conversation* (section 10), there later appear two further inductive presentations *(explicit* in *Read Better* (section 12) and *implicit* in *Listen Better* (section 14)). These strengthen the establishment of the related lexical declarative knowledge in the students' long-term memory. On the other hand, the recycling of the new unit also permits the enhancement of the proceduralisation concerning purpose and reason clauses. In the new lesson, declarative knowledge of purpose clauses starts its transformation into procedural knowledge in *Practice (1.2.)* (section 9), a process which continues developing at an oral level in *Making Conversation* (section 10). This phenomenon is possible due to the reordering of this speaking activity, which was allocated after *Practice (1.2.).* Automatisation is finally attained in *Practice (1.3.)* (section 13).

It has been demonstrated that all the sections of file 6C have been integrated into a nicely shaped and coherent whole, including the purely linguistic sections. Without any recourse to a written or aural text, the activities from *Better Pronunciation (2)*,

Vocabulary Builder and *Remember Phrasal Verbs in Context* have been contextualised. This was a feasible outcome on account of the framework provided by the respective communicative stages described by each of those sections. However, it is equally acknowledged that working with a previously created unit somehow "forces" the insertion of certain linguistically-focused exercises within a communicative phase with which they do not completely have a thematic connection. This affects the following adapted-lesson activities: 3.b. and 3.c. (inductive and deductive rule *presentation*); the comparison and testing of business terms and expressions in 5.b.; their pronunciation in 6; 7.b. and 7.c. (controlled business vocabulary manipulation); 8.b. (listening to and checking the pronunciation of brand names); 15.c., 15.d. (inductive and deductive *presentation* of rules); and 17.b. (explanation of meaning of phrasal verbs). In effect, sometimes it is very complicated to relate these types of exercises (either metalinguistic, discrete-item or tight-manipulation-based) to an independent communicative phase on their own. The very essence of communicative steps logically point towards more open or "freer language" as included in texts - whether aural or written - and more interactive activities. In the particular case of adaptation I consider that the device of multiple stages, each of which corresponding to every single activity, could perhaps result in an unnatural event *sequence* and thus bewilder students. Besides, I firmly believe that the aforementioned linguistic exercises become contextualised as a result of the overall thematic framework provided by the communicative stage in question.

A very important consequence derives from this adaptation process. Due to all the activities being embedded in a realistic and autonomous sequencing of situations leading to the fulfilment of a communicative process, a topic-based unit such as the one included here is likely to be more relevant to the students and, consequently, to optimise their learning. They would be able to establish connections between the ordering of the events depicted and their own lives, because they would recognise this *sequence* as one they could have in fact followed or thought of; or, on the contrary, because they could compare it to a divergent pattern that they would have invented or performed. This highly desirable relevance-to-the-students consequence is intrinsically related to the suitability of the variety found in a CPM lesson, as was stated in section 5.2.8. As also indicated in the same section, the degree of diversity introduced in textbooks and classrooms in general needs to be cautiously measured so that the students do not feel overwhelmed by an anarchic or excessive mixture of varied procedures. It is precisely the distinctive familiar nature of the CPM core feature of authentic events which

encourages me to propose that the CPM has a levelled proportion of diversity. This hypothesis should naturally be empirically tested, as is suggested in the final chapter of this thesis: *General conclusions of the thesis. Pedagogical recommendations and implications.*

6.2.6.6.1.5. Adaptation concluding remarks

I believe that in the preceding analytical comparison of the ordering of the lessons it has been demonstrated that the CPM constitutes a potential, significant variety trigger in lesson *sequencing*. This diversity automatically acts on the fundamental feature of classroom organisation, since it directly concerns the patterns of action to be followed. Importantly, as seen in sections 6.3.2 and 6.4., the CPM has been proven to be both pedagogically and cognitively sound and to contain an adequate degree of variety.

Materials adaptation is somehow more difficult than creation from anew in two aspects. The first one regards the obligatory need to conceive and write the contextualization of each communicative stage that precedes the activity instructions. This evidently forces the paraphrasing of such instructions so that they are best integrated in the communicative phase. The language of both the contextualisation and the guidelines has to match the textbook's level in a reasonable way, a feature which was carefully attended to in the adaptation of the seven units of this quasi-experiment. Secondly, a considerable barrier to adaptation is represented by textbooks specifying not only the learning input (skills, language, cultural elements, etc.) but, most crucially, the vehicle of that input (texts, types of activities). However, as in the present case the textbook offers interesting topics and texts, these existing activities naturally follow one another and as a result adaptation becomes an extremely enjoyable process.

6.2.6.6.2. A general overview of the sequences *in the remaining original and* CPM *adapted lessons*

Appendix B.3. comprises the original text of the remaining six files, whose corresponding CPM adapted versions can be found in Appendix B.4 (both on the CD-ROM). The reader is also referred to Appendix A.5. on the CD-ROM as well, which contains the tables pertaining to the remaining six quasi-experimental files. The original units are included in Table A18 (file 4A); Table A20 (file 4B); Table A22 (file 4C); Table A24 (file 5A); Table A26 (file 6A) and Table A28 (file 6B). The adapted lessons are depicted in Table A19 (file 4A); Table A21 (file 4B); Table A23 (file 4C); Table

A25 (file 5A); Table A27 (file 6A) and Table A29 (file 6B). The same terminological specifications for Tables A2 and A3 respectively described in sections 6.2.6.6.1.1.1. and 6.2.6.6.1.1.2. apply to Tables A18, A20, A22, A24, A26 and A28. Likewise, identical terminological aspects to those indicated for Table A4 in section 6.2.6.6.1.3. are relevant in Tables A19, A21, A23, A25, A27 and A29.

A summary of the communicative situation displayed in each of these remaining adapted files is included below in Table 42 (see section 6.2.6.6.1.2. for file 6C).

Table 42. Summary of the communicative situations from the adapted files 4A, 4B, 4C, 5A, 6A and 6B

File 4A. George is a radio journalist whose boss (Christine) assigns him to organise a fashion debate with very important figures from this world. Christine also asks him to devise a brief introduction to the debate that he will read before the participants actually talk. In order to be well documented, George firstly consults a representative from a very famous clothes fashion firm to find out about shopping habits and sale tendencies. He then gets an article from the *Sunday Times* on fashion trends dating back to the 17th century, some of which being taken to the extremes. After reading this article he decides to interview two foreign people living in Britain to understand their related opinions. Later on he obtains the impressions of British people (his friends, etc.) by means of a questionnaire specially devised by him for this purpose. With all the information from these four different sources he writes his introduction, which he reads the day of the debate as requested by his boss.
File 4B. Natalie and Kevin are a couple married for ten-years. She is very disappointed with her husband's attitude, as he seems to be becoming a bit "macho" and careless about his relationship. She wants to do something about it but does not know what she should do. A friend of Natalie's advises her to go to a marriage guidance counsellor. She finds one in The Yellow Pages (John Burke) and persuades Kevin to attend one of his workshops. In the short course that Kevin and Natalie go to, John proposes several exercises which are aimed at raising the participants' awareness about the dissimilarities between men and women. John later arranges a meeting between his students and two renowned experts in human relations so that they can ask the specialists all their doubts about the differences between men and women. This meeting is the end of the workshop, which is very useful for Natalie and Kevin. When they are back at home they listen to radio programme with the following topic: *Men should do 50% of the housework.* The presenter is encouraging the audience to send their opinions by e-mail. Kevin decides to write a message, which will show Natalie whether John's workshop really worked for him or not.
File 4C. Lucy and Charles are a couple who are thinking about buying a new house and decorating it. They consult a specialist magazine on houses and decoration to learn about the new trends. At the back of this magazine there are several house-selling advertisements. They phone one of them, see the advertised house and buy it. They start thinking about decoration budgets. By chance, Charles gets an ad from a British newspaper which is doing research into men's and women's differences in decoration tastes. This newspaper is looking for a real couple as the subjects of their research. The selected couple will have the opportunity to be assessed by an expert for decorating their house free of charge. Lucy and Charles are the lucky couple. They meet this professional, who, after learning about their actual tastes, introduces them to feng shui. Lucy and Charles really like it and accept the use of feng shui philosophy in their new house.
File 5A. A girl (Julie) loves animals very much. She wants to send a letter to the editor expressing her concern for the treatment that some inhabitants of her city give to animals. She decides to go to the zoo with her boyfriend and both attend a workshop about a very intelligent chimpanzee. She enters into a draw to attend a speech by an expert who has worked with this chimpanzee and who is one of the most famous related scientists in the world. Those people selected will be able to participate in a later debate with this

specialist on the topic of the protection of animals. She and her boyfriend are two of the selected attendants. Thanks to her fruitful learning from the debate with the scientist, she writes her letter to the editor with great self-confidence.
File 6A. A group of Spanish police officers who are studying a Masters in Criminology have gone to the UK to learn about the day-to-day practices of their British colleagues within a European Union funded programme. This programme is aimed at improving the collaboration among the different police systems of the Union. During their stay in the UK the Spanish police officers attend both theoretical and practical sessions. The latter even include patrolling with their British counterparts. The final day consists of an exchange of impressions between the British and the Spanish professionals about certain topics related to crime and courts in both countries.
File 6B. Daniel, one of the Spanish police officers who attended the file 6A programme, has a daughter called Irene. She wants to become a private detective and a secret agent. Her father asks for advice from Michael, the British superintendent in charge of the Spanish group. He tells Daniel that he is the co-director of high-quality related courses. The other co-director is a very reputable private detective: Tom Slaughter. These courses demand a very complex entrance exam. It consists of an oral test which simulates a real-life situation. The candidates have to meet two objectives: a) Lying in a credible manner so as to gain confidence from their interlocutor and in this way obtain specific items of information from him/her; and b) discovering their interlocutor's lies. Michael and Tom also run short intensive courses targeted at training candidates to pass this entrance exam. Daniel's daughter attends one of these intensive courses. Following the preparation she receives, Irene sits the entrance exam and is successful.

Table 42. Summary of the communicative situations from the adapted files 4A, 4B, 4C, 5A, 6A and 6B

Due to limits of space, a full description of both the original and adapted files as performed above will not be undertaken here. The reader is referred to a) the related file 6C accounts in sections 6.2.6.6.1.1. and 6.2.6.6.1.3.; and b) Appendices B.3. and B.4. on the CD-ROM for the original EFUI SB files and their adapted versions as found in the CPM TB respectively.

In spite of the aforementioned limitations, the inclusion of several brief remarks is thought to be relevant for a better comprehension of the content of the tables. Firstly, in files 5A, 6A and 6B the *GIR* part is not included as an activity as its role there is the same as the "Study Tip Boxes" (offering some guidance for later speaking). Other occasional but concrete didactic remarks are included in the footnotes of the tables for files 4B, 4C, 5A, and 6A. They concern similarities and differences between original and adapted files plus the explanation of certain features of some grammar and vocabulary *presentations*.

In addition, the following differences in cognitive *sequences* between certain original and adapted files can be observed. Starting with file 4C:

1) There only exists a *DEC* phase regarding the vocabulary from section 2 in the new unit as the related oral *practice* encompassed in the original activity 1.c. (no. 12) is included in section 5.

2) The automatisation of the vocabulary from *GIR* is undertaken in *Making Conversation (2)* in the adapted lesson. This process was originally allowed for in *Making Conversation*, which was not sub-divided.
3) *Listen Better (2)* in the new file only involves *pro* as opposed to *Listen Better (1)* and the complete *Listen Better* section in the first unit, both of which allow for strengthening the declarativisation of certain vocabulary items previously studied (*DEC*). The reason for this difference is that the second part of the transcription (i.e., the one from *Listen Better (2))* offers a much more limited number of instances of the related vocabulary.

In the adapted file 5A, contrary to the original unit, the *Vocabulary Builder (1)* section does not contemplate the start of proceduralisation of the lexical items (*DECpro*). This is due to the fact that the activities aimed at proceduralisation (originally no. 15 and 16) are separated from the initial *Vocabulary Builder* section and placed later on in sections 3 and 6.

Regarding the new file 6A, the proceduralisation of the vocabulary in section 4 starts in section 7 (*DECpro*) because this fourth part does not include the activity which boosts the beginning of such a cognitive process (no. 5 in the original lesson). This activity is sub-divided into two different parts in the new unit: Section 5 (which strengthens the previously attained declarative knowledge (*DEC*)) and section 7.

Finally, in the adapted file 6B the lexicon from *Build Your Vocabulary* (part 1) does not start to be proceduralised in that very same section as in the original file (*DECpro*). The reason for this is that the new *Build Your Vocabulary* lacks the original activity which allows for this process (originally no. 4 and included in section 4 in the new unit).

6.3. DATA ANALYSIS

In this quasi-experimental study, the effects of two teaching methods on L2 English learning were quantitatively determined and compared. For these purposes, all data were entered into an *SPSS* database. A repeated-measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run so as to investigate such effects contrasting the EG and the CG.

Certain assumptions are necessary to correctly apply the repeated-measure ANOVA test. It is assumed that independent samples from normally distributed populations with homogenous variance are selected. That is, the observations are normally distributed within each cell, the population variances for the groups are equal, and there is independence of observation. Likewise, if the sample sizes in all the groups are similar, then the ANOVA test is not particularly sensitive to violations of equality of variance (Bryman & Cramer, 2001; Myers & Well, 2003). A special assumption in the repeated-measure ANOVA is that of sphericity. The sphericity assumption requires the variance for all pairs of repeated-measure to be equal. When sphericity is not met, the F-test must be adjusted; however, this was not necessary in the present study.

The Pearson correlations were computed between the time measures for the EG and the CG in each test measure. To indicate effect sizes (ES), the standardised mean difference in change-score metric was calculated, as is recommended in the case of repeated-measure two-group designs (Becker, 1988; Gibbons et al., 1993). In order to test whether any moderator could have affected the effects, the relation between the test measures and the covariates were also analysed through correlations.

6.3.1. Main results

The purpose of this quasi-experimental study was to compare the influence of two different activity *sequencing* patterns on L2 English proficiency: The CPM and the P-P-P. The impact of both models on L2 English linguistic learning was quantified through Paper 3 ("Use of English") of the *FCE* exam.[66] For complementary purposes, the results of the effects of the two patterns as measured through the *OSL* official mid and end of term tests are offered too.

[66] The reader is reminded that, as indicated in Table 32 in section 6.2.4.2.2.2, the label *FCE exam/test* will refer to Paper 3 in the whole account of sections 6.3. and 6.4.

As stated above, all data were entered into an *SPSS* database. In order to ascertain the specific effects of both teaching methods contrasting the EG and the CG, the scores in the seven measures from the two tests altogether were introduced into seven separate repeated-measure analyses of variance (ANOVAs). Repeated-measure ANOVA is the most frequent SLA analysis applied "in situations where two or more groups are compared, with each group assessed several times" (Chen, 2005: 42). In the repeated-measure ANOVAs of the present study, the Group (EG vs. CG) was the between-subjects factor, whilst the Time Measure (Pre-test vs. Post-test) was the within-subjects factor.

6.3.1.1. Main effects

The effect of the CPM intervention varied through the six different parts measured by the *FCE* exam. As described in section 6.2.4.2.1.5., such parts are the following: Sections 1 ("multiple choice cloze"); 2 ("open cloze"); 3 ("key word transformations"); 4 ("error correction"); 5 ("word formation") and the "total" of those. The correspondence of these measures with the outcomes of *grammar* and *vocabulary* is as follows: *Vocabulary* with sections 1 and 5; *grammar* with section 4; and both *grammar* and *vocabulary* with sections 2, 3 and the total. Gr*ammar* was measured by the *OSL_rep* part. This is the only section whose format virtually matches another section of the *FCE* exam, specifically part 3; also, *OSL_rep* was the only part of the *OSL* exam that tested one of the two outcomes measured by the *FCE* exam (see section 6.2.4.2.2.2.).

Table 43 below shows the group means and standard deviations (SD) of the seven parts from both tests. In general, the effect of the CPM intervention is significant when it is measured with the *FCE* test. Thus, different results are obtained depending on which test is used. The effect of the EG program is higher for some test parts than others.

Table 43. Means and standard deviations from every measure using the *FCE* and the *OSL* tests

	PRE-TEST				POST-TEST			
	EG		CG		EG		CG	
Test parts	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
FCE_1	10.05	1.96	10.13	3.20	10.05	2.01	8.87	2.61
FCE_2	9.37	2.01	9.00	3.63	11.74	2.21	9.4	2.56
FCE_3	9.95	3.60	10.00	3.38	13.21	2.80	10.60	3.58
FCE_4	8.21	2.72	8.67	3.44	8.58	2.39	8.40	3.33
FCE_5	6.42	1.84	7.40	1.84	7.16	1.61	6.40	2.16
FCE_total	44.00	9.00	45.2	13.26	50.74	8.43	42.67	11.91
OSL_rep	4.89	2.36	5.4	1.71	5.91	2.23	5.35	2.36

The summary of the *FCE* and *OSL* analyses of repeated-measure for a two-group within-subject design are presented in Table 46 on page 326 (for all analyses see Tables A5-A10 for the *FCE* test and Table A11 for the *OSL* test in Appendices A.3.1.1. and A.3.1.2. respectively).

Prior to the computing of such analyses, a t-test was calculated to verify whether both groups were linguistically homogeneous in the two exams before the beginning of the quasi-experiment. As can be seen in Table 44, no significant differences were found indicating that both groups were linguistically homogeneous prior to the implementation of the quasi-experiment.

Table 44. *FCE* and *OSL* scores (Pre-test) comparing the EG and the CG, assuming equal variances

	Levene (F)	*p*	t	*p*
preFCE_1	2.14	.15	0.09	.92
preFCE_2	3.91	.05	-0.37	.70
preFCE_3	0.00	.94	0.04	.96
preFCE_4	2.14	.15	0.43	.66
preFCE_5	0.26	.61	1.54	.13
preFCE_total	2.32	.13	0.31	.75
preOSL_rep	0.95	.33	0.70	.48

From Table 45 it is also possible to assume that the groups are homogeneous and similarly covariate, since neither of the results from the Levene and Box tests computed were significant: As is known, the first tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variables is equal across groups, and the second tests the null hypothesis that the observed covariance matrices of the dependent variables are equal across the groups.

Table 45. Box and Levene test of covariance matrices and of equality of error variances, respectively, for the *FCE* and *OSL* exam parts

	Box test		Levene Pre-test		Levene Post-test	
Test parts	F	*p*	F	*p*	F	*p*
FCE_1	1.37	.26	2.15	.15	0.73	.39
FCE_2	2.10	.09	3.91	.05	0.21	.64
FCE_3	0.45	.71	0.00	.94	1.47	.23
FCE_4	0.98	.39	2.14	.15	2.97	.09
FCE_5	0.69	.55	0.26	.61	2.10	.15
FCE_total	0.78	.50	2.32	.13	3.58	.06
OSL_rep	1.80	.14	0.95	.33	0.04	.83

The degrees of freedom for the Box test were *df*1 = 3 and *df*2 = 182410.16. For the Levene test they were *df*1 = 1 and *df*2 = 32

A repeated-measure ANOVA of the *FCE* test was used to analyse the six individual parts of the exam to uncover any significant differences and interactions among the means of the subjects' scores in the five parts and the total of this exam. Table 46 offers the summary of the results of the F test regarding the interaction between the Group (between-subjects factor) and the Time Measure (within-subjects factor) for the six sections (as well as for the *OSL* rephrasing). As has been indicated on page 324, for all the results, see Tables A5-A10 for the *FCE* test in Appendix A.3.1.1.

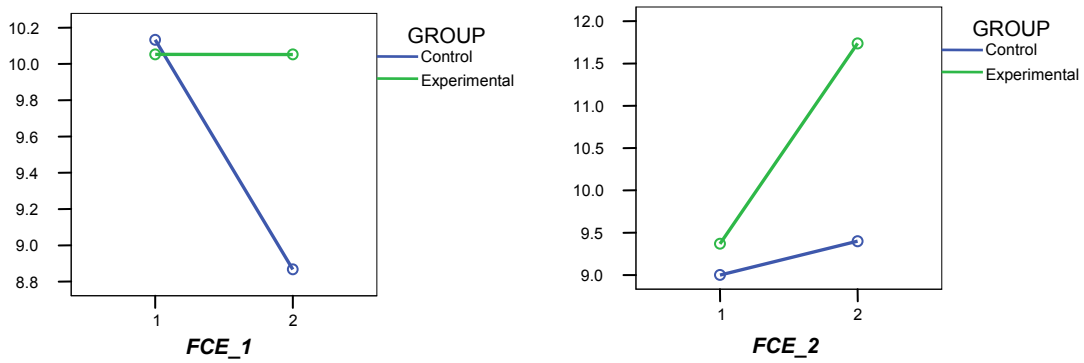
Table 46. F-ANOVA values for the interaction effect of *time measure* x *group* (*FCE* and *OSL* tests)

Test parts	F	*p*
FCE_1	3.23	.08
FCE_2	8.96	.00
FCE_3	6.53	.02
FCE_4	0.59	.45
FCE_5	8.83	.01
FCE_total	25.29	.00
OSL_rep	2.02	.16

As can be seen in this table, a significant two-way interaction effect was found between the teaching method and the following parts: *FCE_2* ($F(1, 32) = 8.96$), $p < .05$); *FCE_3* ($F(1, 32) = 6.53$), $p < .05$); *FCE_5* ($F(1, 32) = 8.83$), $p < .05$), and *FCE_total* ($F(1, 32) = 25.29$), $p < .05$). All these four interactions were in favour of the EG, which means that this group outperformed the CG in these specific measures and in the entirety of the *FCE* exam. This implies that the instruction based on the alternative activity *sequencing* model or CPM intervention was significantly more efficient than the teaching driven by the traditional pattern. Thus, the hypothesis of this study is confirmed in these cases.

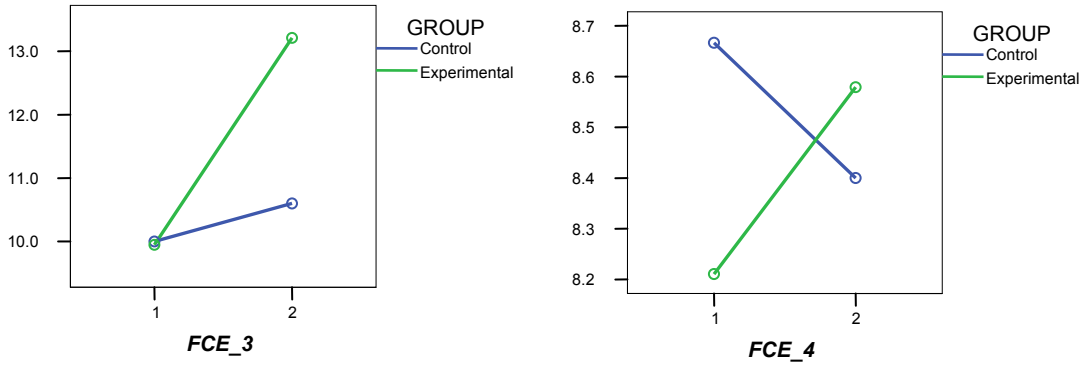
On the other hand, no significant differences in favour of the EG were found in the *FCE_1* and *FCE_4* sections, which indicates that the hypothesis was rejected. However, despite the effects not being significant, the respective means of these parts indicate a clear improvement of the EG in *FCE_4* and the maintenance of its level in *FCE_1*. This did not happen in the CG performance, which experienced a worsening in this pair of measures in the Post-test. The lack of significant effects of *FCE_1* and *FCE_4* on the enhancement of L2 English proficiency allows for the possibility of arguing that the CPM teaching presents - at the very least - a similar efficacy to that founded on the P-P-P.

Table 43 on page 324 and Figures 8, 9, 10 below show the clear difference between the related means of the two groups in all the *FCE* sections.



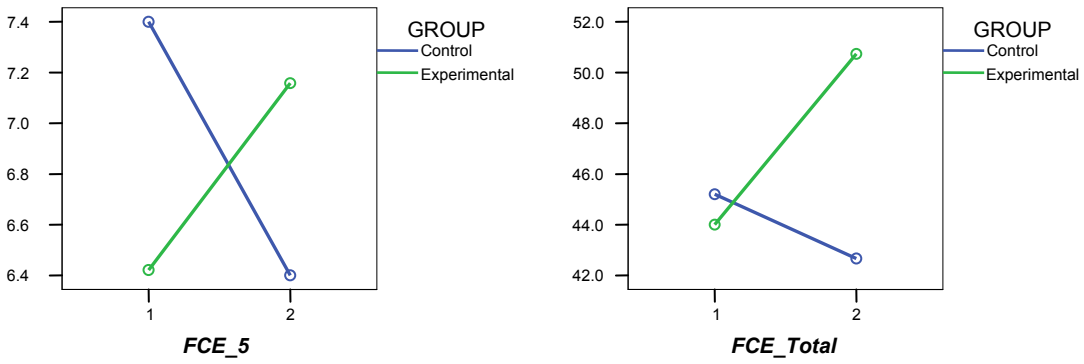
(a) (b)

Figure 8. Means of scores in (a) *FCE_1*, and (b) *FCE_ 2* for each group (EG and CG) in the two evaluated moments: The Pre-test (1) in February and the Post-test (2) in May



(a) (b)

Figure 9. Means of scores in (a) *FCE_3*, and (b) *FCE_4* for each group (EG and CG) in the two evaluated moments: The Pre-test (1) in February and the Post-test (2) in May



(a) (b)

Figure 10. Means of scores in (a) *FCE_5*, and (b) *FCE_Total* for each group (EG and CG) in the two evaluated moments: The Pre-test (1) in February and the Post-test (2) in May

A repeated-measure ANOVA was performed with regard to the *OSL* test to discover if significant differences and interactions ($p < .05$) existed between the means of the *OSL_rep* measure. Table 46 on page 326 offers the summary of the results (for the complete results see Table A11 in Appendix A.3.1.2.). As can be seen, the interaction between Group (EG vs. CG) and Time Measure (Pre-test vs. Post-test) was not significant. Despite this, the interaction effect on the *OSL_rep* measure is worth mentioning. In the Pre-test, the EG scores were poorer than the CG scores. In the Post-test, the EG performance underwent a certain degree of improvement and was better than that of the CG, whose results were slightly worse than the Pre-test ones. This result is especially interesting taking into account that the effect of the CPM intervention on *FCE_3* had been significant. See Figure 11 below, which offers both groups' Pre-test and Post-test mean scores in this *OSL* part.

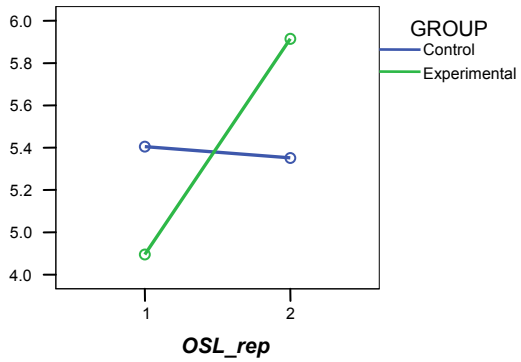


Figure 11. Means of scores in *OSL_rep* for each group (EG and CG) in the two evaluated moments: The Pre-test (1) in February and the Post-test (2) in June

In the same way as was argued in relation to the non-significant results of the *FCE_1* and *FCE_4* sections, for the *OSL* test it is possible to argue that the instruction based on the P-P-P is not superior to the CPM intervention in terms of L2 English linguistic learning progress.

The correlations between all the parts measured by the two different exams are found in Tables A12-A17 from Appendix A.3.2. As indicated in section 6.2.4.2.2.2., the correlations in these tables include the scores of the *OSL multiple choice*, *listening* and *writing* parts besides the *rephrasing*.

Tables A12-A17 are divided into Pre-test (Tables A12-A14) and Post-test correlations (Tables A15-A17). The general correlations for both groups between all the sections measured by the two tests are included in Tables A12 and A15, whereas Tables A13, A14, A16 and A17 separately present the correlations for the EG and the CG. As can be seen in these tables, the parts of the two tests are highly correlated. This means that both the *OSL* and the *FCE* exams possess construct validity. In other words they truly measured the content for which they were devised: Language knowledge (regarded as a general concept).

The correlation matrices between the two time measures (Pre-test vs. Post-test) for all the parts in the two exams can explain if there is consistency or not in the scores within subjects (i.e., reliability). The results of these correlation matrices constitute the justification of the kind of effect size (ES) estimations used in the present study. These correlations are presented in Tables 47-49 below:

Table 47. Correlations between the two time measures for each test part

	FCE_1	FCE_2	FCE_3	FCE_4	FCE_5	FCE_total	OSL_rep
$r_{pre, post}$	.63(**)	.69(**)	.54(**)	.668(**)	.49(**)	.45(**)	.48(**)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 48. Correlations between the two time measures for each test part (EG)

	FCE_1	FCE_2	FCE_3	FCE_4	FCE_5	FCE_total	OSL_rep
$r_{pre, post}$	.60(**)	.76(**)	. 54(*)	.48(*)	.46(*)	.81(**)	.38

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 49. Correlations between the two time measures for each test part (CG)

	FCE_1	FCE_2	FCE_3	FCE_4	FCE_5	FCE_total	OSL_rep
$r_{pre, post}$	.69(**)	.78(**)	.66(**)	.81(**)	.70(**)	.90(**)	.73(**)

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As can be appreciated in the three previous tables, most correlations are above or below .5. The correlations higher than .5 indicate a very similar tendency in the subjects' performance. That is to say, those who achieved a high score in February did so in June, and those who obtained poor scores in February attained similar results in June. However, the opposite directional pattern is observed when the correlations are below -.5.

Given that in this within-subject two-group design the correlations between the time measures in the measures are different from .5 (both above and below), the effect

size index used to ascertain the effectiveness of the treatment compared to the control intervention is calculated from the difference of the two change scores each one divided by the variance of this difference. Thus it is obtained as the mean of the differences between the Post-test and the Pre-test time measures divided by the standard deviation of such differences - one for the CG and the other for the EG. Finally, the effect size is defined as the difference between those two change means. The reason why this effect size index is selected in this work is because for within-subject studies participants are often selected so as to be similar at the baseline, but they respond to the intervention or treatment very differently. In light of this, post-treatment variability is often larger than pre-treatment variability (Gibbons et al., 1993; Morris, 2000; Morris & DeShon, 2002).

As was expected due to the CPM intervention program, the correlations between the Pre-test and Post-test time measures for each test part are higher for the CG. This is accounted for on the grounds that this group was receiving the same teaching method as that before the quasi-experiment (see Tables 48 and 49 above). Therefore, it is necessary to take into account the correlation between the Pre-test and Post-test in each group to calculate the effect size because the focus here is not only the change (Post-test score minus Pre-test score) but also the consistency of such a change. The effect size will be the difference of the two change measures, by way of using the standard deviation of the time measure differences for each group.

In the present study, the ES were corrected for small sample sizes. Table 50 presents the ES values for each of the measures of the two tests:

Table 50. Effect sizes (ES) for each part of the *FCE* and the *OSL* tests

	ES
FCE_1	0.51
FCE_2	1.27
FCE_3	0.80
FCE_4	0.25
FCE_5	0.99
FCE_total	1.68
OSL_rep	0.41

High and positive ES values - which indicate that the CPM instruction of the EG was more efficient than the P-P-P teaching of the CG - were obtained in most *FCE* measures. Such ES values range from 0.80 (*FCE_3*) and 0.99 (*FCE_5*) to 1.27 (*FCE_2*) and 1.68 for the *FCE_total*. A low ES value was revealed in *FCE_4* (d = 0.25). Although the EG score was higher than the CG score in this part, the range of values is much more variable for the treated participants than for the untreated (between -.4.00 and 7.00 and between -3.00 and 3.00 respectively), which accounts for this low ES value (see Table 51 below, which offers the descriptive statistics of the change (Post-test minus Pre-test) scores of the two time measures in both the *FCE* and *OSL* exams).

In Table 50 a medium ES value was found in the *FCE_1* and the *OSL_rep* parts (d = 0.51 and d = 0.41, respectively). This shows that despite the fact that these latter two specific between and within-subject test comparisons were not statistically significant, they nevertheless were significant at a practical level. It is evident indeed that to some extent the EG outperformed the CG in both the *FCE_1* and the *OSL_rep* measures, hence the medium size effects of such comparisons.

Table 51. Descriptive statistics of the change scores (Post-test minus Pre-test) in both the *FCE* and *OSL* exams for both groups

	EG				CG			
	Mean	SD	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Min	Max
dif_FCE_1	.00	1.83	-4.00	3.00	-1.36	2.34	-5.00	3.00
dif_FCE_2	2.48	1.6	.00	6.00	.40	2.31	-4.00	3.00
dif_FCE_3	3.33	3.12	-4.00	9.00	.60	2.93	-5.00	6.00
dif_FCE_4	.36	2.60	-4.00	7.00	-.26	2.16	-3.00	3.00
dif_FCE_5	.73	1.8	-2.00	4.00	-1.00	1.55	-3.00	2.00
dif_FCE_total	6.73	5.17	-3.00	21.00	-2.53	5.62	-19.00	4.00
dif_OSL_rep	1.01	2.54	-3.00	9.00	-.05	1.60	-2.50	3.00

dif_test part: Change score (Post-test score minus Pre-test score)

6.3.1.2. Moderator variables

Different correlation matrices have been obtained to uncover the relation of the covariates with the change score in every part for each test (see Tables 52-55 below). These covariates correspond to the individual variables indicated in Table 15 in section 6.2.2.2.1. As explained in Table 51, the change score is defined here as the Post-test score minus Pre-test score for each group, which is indicated as *dif_test part*. The higher

the correlation, the higher is the relation between the covariate and the effect of the teaching method involved in the measured part.

Most of the relations between the covariates and the improvement of the different measures for the two outcomes were not significant. This means that the effect of the teaching method for each group does not depend on these potential moderator variables. With respect to the quantitative variables, Table 52 on page 333 reveals a middle, positive and significant correlation in the EG between the *years of L2 English study* and *OSL_rep* (*rephrasing*) ($r = .49$, $p < .05$). Accordingly, there seems to exist a somewhat of a tendency towards a positive relation between the number of study years and this measure. This was the natural result to be expected at a practical level as the EG outperformed the CG in this *OSL* part, in spite of the absence of any interaction effects.

Table 52. Correlations between the change score (the difference between the Post-test and the Pre-test scores) and the quantitative covariates for the EG

	dif_ FCE_1	dif _FCE_2	dif_ FCE_3	dif_ FCE_4	dif_ FCE_5	dif_ FCE_total	dif_ OSL_rep
Age	-.136	-.434	-.029	-.084	.092	-.174	.112
Years of L2 English study	-.194	.282	.099	-.416	.364	.421	.486*
Number of stays in English-speaking countries	.313	-.007	-.192	-.216	.026	-.112	-.248
Stays: Number of L2 English study weeks	-.102	-.311	-.159	-.450	.321	-.346	-.081
Stays: Number of weeks holiday	.070	-.023	.122	.081	-.214	.059	-.003
Stays: Number of exchange ("other" reasons) weeks	.275	-.365	.135	-.034	-.235	-.035	-.324
Weekly hours of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment	.000	-.010	.227	-.290	-.349	-.413	-.091
Number of months of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	-.035	.213	.032	-.431	-.395	-.286	-.212
Weekly hours of individual L2 English study before the quasi-experiment	.219	-.176	.030	.143	.009	.079	-.259
Weekly hours of individual L2 English study during the quasi-experiment	-.143	.253	-.027	.210	.302	.225	.139

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen in Table 53 on page 335, in relation to the P-P-P instruction (CG) a high, positive and significant correlation was found between the *number of months of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment* and the *FCE_1* measure (r = .65, p < .01); between the *number of stays in English-speaking countries* and the *FCE_5* part (r = .54, p < .05); and between the *number of weeks of L2 English study* in the stays and the *FCE_5* part again (r = .60, p < .05). Thus it is possible to state that for the traditional method there appears to be a tendency towards a higher score in *FCE_1* and *FCE_5* in the two following cases: When the subjects experienced a higher number of months of extra L2 English instruction prior to the quasi-experiment (for *FCE_1*) and when the subjects performed a higher number of stays and with a study purpose in particular (for *FCE_5*). Since the interaction effects of these two *FCE* sections between the Group and the Time Measure were not in favour of the CG, this result implies that the impact of these three variables was not strong enough so that the CG could outperform the EG. However, no predictive model was calculated due to the scarce number of subjects with values other than 0 in each.

Table 53. Correlations between the change score (the difference between the Post-test and the Pre-test scores) and the quantitative covariates for the CG

	dif_ FCE_1	dif _ FCE_2	dif_ FCE_3	dif_ FCE_4	dif_ FCE_5	dif_ FCE_total	dif_ OSL_rep
Age	.265	.311	.021	-007	-.183	.291	.164
Years of L2 English study	-.045	.261	.056	.054	-.300	.191	.225
Number of stays in English-speaking countries	.176	-.022	.237	.117	.540(*)	.311	-.342
Stays: Number of L2 English study weeks	.277	.011	.232	-.002	.600(*)	.337	-.240
Stays: Number of weeks holiday	.206	.061	.132	.066	-.111	.080	.017
Stays: Number of exchange ("other" reasons) weeks	.(a)	.(a)	.(a)	.(a)	.(a)	.(a)	.(a)
Weekly hours of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment	.483	.234	-.433	-.142	-.318	.008	.165
Number of months of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment	.652(**)	.287	.297	-.240	-.130	.183	.330
Weekly hours of individual L2 English study before the quasi-experiment	.471	.058	-.365	-.288	-.295	-.055	.140
Weekly hours of individual L2 English study during the quasi-experiment	.251	.-060	-.042	-.385	-.125	-.049	.152

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
a Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

In relation to the categorical variables, it should be observed that the politomous variables were not considered due to the relatively high number of categories and the small sample size within each of them. As to the EG, Table 54 on page 337 shows a negative correlation (point biserial, correlation between a dichotomous and a continuous variable) was uncovered between *FCE_2* and *presence of L2 English study gap year* (r = .-46, p < .05) and between *FCE_total* and *studying other foreign language(s) besides L2 English during the quasi-experiment* (r = .-47, p < .05). The performance of EG participants whose L2 English overall learning period did not contain any gap years and who were not studying any other foreign languages during the quasi-experiment (codified as 1 = No; 2 = Yes) was considerably higher than those who did. In other words, not having any gaps in the global L2 English study period and not studying any other foreign languages during the intervention had a positive effect on the global result of *FCE_2* and *FCE_total* for the CPM instruction.

Table 54. Correlations between the change score (the difference between the Post-test and the Pre-test scores) and the categorical covariates for the EG

	dif_ FCE_1	dif_ FCE_2	dif_ FCE_3	dif_ FCE_4	dif_ FCE_5	dif_ FCE_ total	dif_ OSL_ rep
Gender	.100	.083	.030	.252	-.150	.155	.003
Presence of L2 English study gap year	-.132	-.460*	.239	-.411	-.092	-.283	-.297
Knowledge of any of the co-official Spanish languages	.(a)	.(a)	.(a)	.(a)	.(a)	.(a)	.(a)
Knowledge of other foreign language(s) besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment	.062	.143	-.284	-.124	-.129	-.127	-.157
Presence of stays in English-speaking countries	-.209	.247	-.052	.431	.296	.297	-.149
Presence of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment	.000	-.010	-.227	-.290	-.349	-.413	-.091
Studying other foreign language(s) besides L2 English during the quasi-experiment	-.451	-.124	.083	-.431	-.292	-.467*	-.291

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

a Cannot be computed because at least one of the variables is constant.

The correlations between the categorical covariates and the change score for the CG are presented in Table 55 on page 339. As can be seen, a high and significant correlation was unveiled between *FCE_1* and *knowledge of other foreign language(s) besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment* ($r = .51$, $p < .05$) together with *presence of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment* ($r = .65$, $p < .01$). Accordingly, those CG subjects who spoke other foreign languages prior to the study and who received supplementary classes both before and during the quasi-experiment tended to achieve a higher score in this *FCE* part. Nevertheless, the influence of these variables was not sufficiently strong as no significant effects were obtained for the untreated group between the teaching method and *FCE_1*. Similar to the aforementioned quantitative moderator variables, such an insufficient impact is accounted for by the low number of CG participants who actually spoke other foreign languages prior to the study and who received extra instruction both before and during the quasi-experiment. In turn, this justifies why a predicting model was not performed.

Table 55. Correlations between the change score (the difference between the Post-test and the Pre-test scores) and the categorical covariates for the CG

	dif_ FCE_1	dif _ FCE_2	dif_ FCE_3	dif_ FCE_4	dif_ FCE_5	dif_ FCE_ total	dif_ OSL_ rep
Gender	.309	.473	.288	.017	.111	.411	.035
Presence of L2 English study gap year	.004	-.248	-.185	-.444	-.100	-.273	-.075
Knowledge of any of the co-official Spanish languages	.504	.196	.039	-.230	.178	.321	.354
Knowledge of other foreign language(s) besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment	.517*	-.336	-.127	-.432	.362	.105	-.060
Presence of stays in English-speaking countries	-.096	-.037	-.510	.162	-.452	-.455	-.204
Presence of extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment	.652**	.287	-.297	-.240	-.130	.183	.330
Studying other foreign language(s) besides L2 English during the quasi-experiment	.500	.214	-.108	-.182	.221	.325	.017

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

6.3.2. Other characteristics analysed

This section reports the results of the FQ1 and of the FQ2.[67] It also includes the figures of the items that were submitted to inferential statistical analyses owing to their relevance for the purposes of the present research (i.e. content relevance and quasi-experimental study implementation). These figures show the plots of the distribution of the answers for each related item. See section 6.2.4.3.5., which offers a description of all the items from these two questionnaires together with the justification of their presence and of the inferential statistical analyses performed. For the figures concerning the items solely descriptively analysed, see Figures A1-A21 in Appendix A4.

Regarding FQ1/4, there are no qualitative differences between the EG and the CG, although the inference test concerning the usefulness they assigned to the textbook is significant (U = 0.02, $p < .05$). As can be seen in Figure 12, all the subjects in the EG agreed with the value of their coursebooks, as well as the vast majority of the CG subjects (93.34%). 6.67% of the latter stated "neither agree nor disagree". No "strongly disagree" answers were recorded.

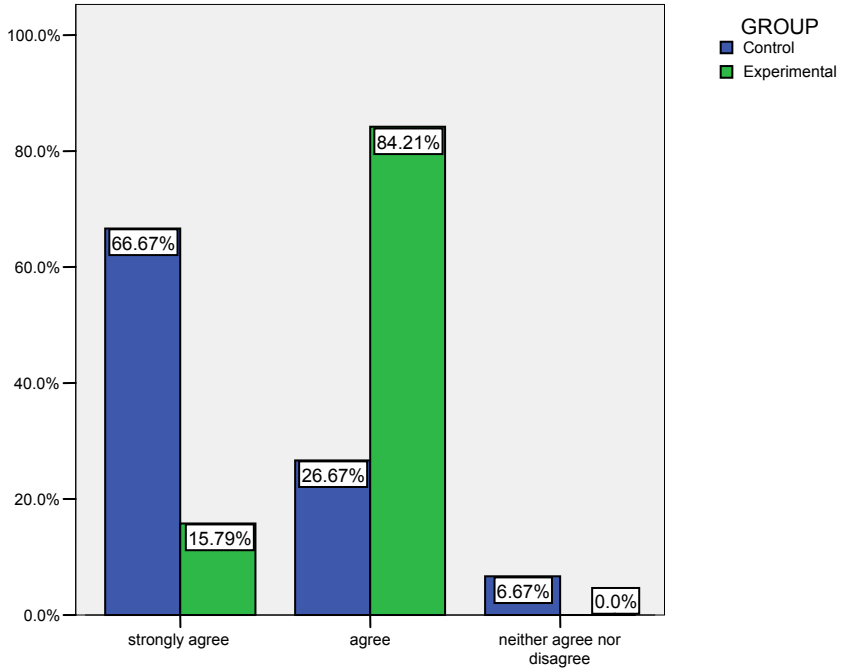


FIGURE 12
FQ1/4. THE TEXTBOOK HAS BEEN USEFUL IN MY LEARNING

[67] This report does not include the results of the first three questions of the FQ1, which, as explained in section 6.2.4.3.2., dealt with subjects' learning of English and other foreign languages during the quasi-experiment. Their results are found in section 6.2.3.

In relation to FQ1/5 only 13.33% of the CG and 10.53% of the EG disagreed about the textbook having a wide range of activities. These results correlate with those revealed in the analysis of FQ1/9, which also dealt with the variety of activities but as framed within the lesson in general. All the CG participants believed that different kinds of exercises had been carried out in class. The EG subjects' opinion largely coincided (89.47%).

Items FQ1/6, FQ1/7 and FQ1/8 were questions that attempted to verify the correct implementation of the quasi-experiment in both groups as shown from the students' perspective. No statistical differences were found between groups in the three items (U = 0.68, $p > .05$ for FQ1/6; U = 0.25, $p > .05$ for FQ1/7; U = 0.28, $p > .05$ for FQ1/8). A "never" answer did not appear in any of these items. In FQ1/6 it was revealed that both teachers maintained the original order of presentation of the activities at the beginning of lessons and at the end of the lessons (see Figure 13 below).

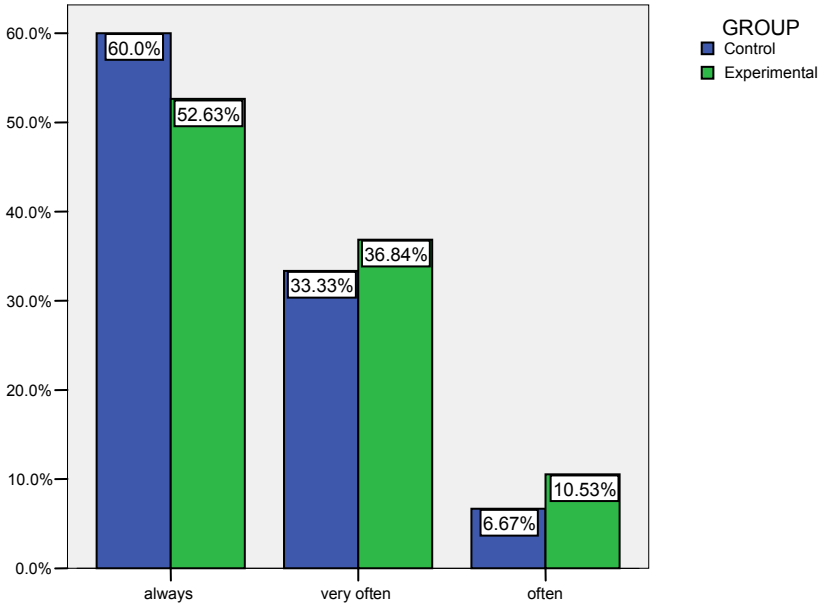


FIGURE 13
FQ1/6. OUR TEACHER BEGAN THE FILES WITH THE ACTIVITY IN THE SAME WAY AS IT WAS INCLUDED IN THE TEXTBOOK

Likewise, the two teachers used all the activities from the textbook in the same way as they were included there (FQ1/7), as can be seen in Figure 14.

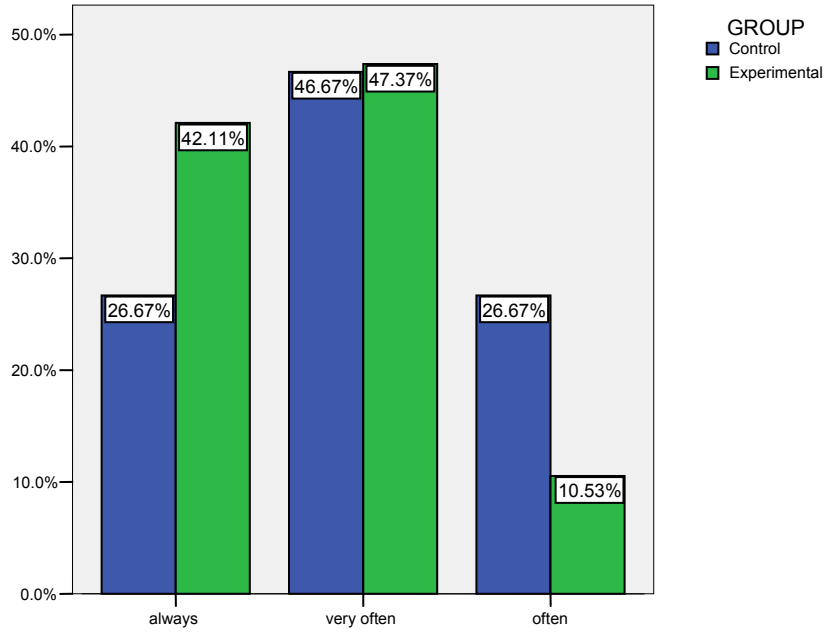


FIGURE 14
FQ1/7. OUR TEACHER USED ALL THE ACTIVITIES IN THE SAME WAY AS THEY WERE INCLUDED IN THE TEXTBOOK

As can be appreciated in Figure 15, which refers to FQ1/8, the CG subjects believed that Teacher A finished the units with the activity from the textbook in the same way as it appeared; the EG subjects (94.74%) reported the same for Teacher B.

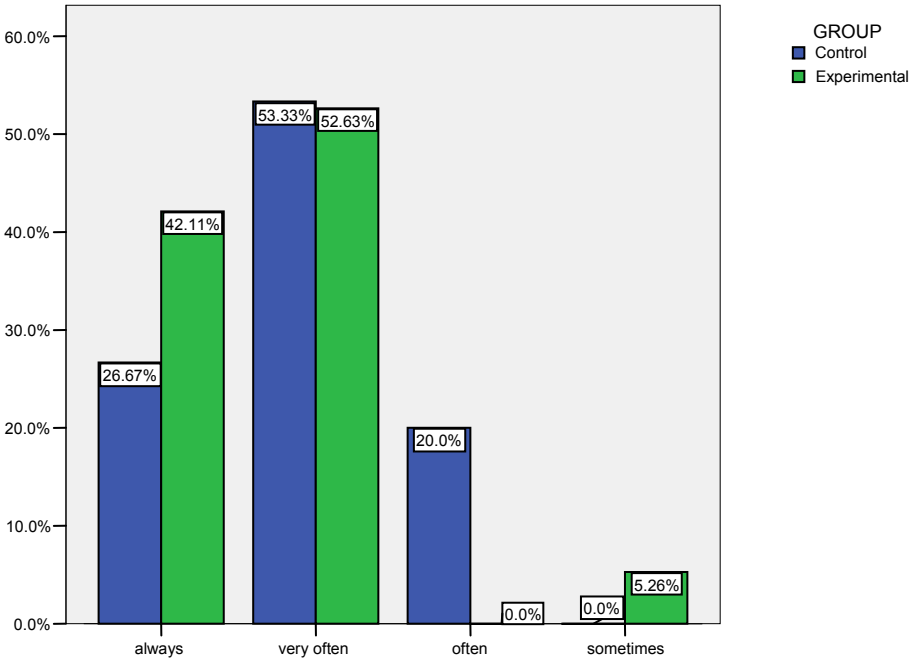


FIGURE 15
FQ1/8. OUR TEACHER FINISHED THE FILES WITH THE ACTIVITY IN THE SAME WAY AS IT WAS INCLUDED IN THE TEXTBOOK

Thus it can be assumed that, according to their students' answers, both teachers correctly implemented the quasi-experiment. It should be recalled that teachers' daily worksheets, the observer's files and the video and audio recorded lessons also confirmed the correct implementation of this study (see section 6.2.4.4.).

Items FQ1/10.1 to FQ1/10.7 asked the learners about their level of preference about certain classroom activities. 68.42% of the EG subjects and 86.67% of the CG participants liked listening activities very much or quite a lot, with no answers from the extreme negative points in a five-point Likert scale. A similar pattern of responses appeared for the speaking activities, as they were highly appreciated by the two groups (73.69% in the EG and 73.34% in the CG). 73.34% of participants within the CG found *reading activities* very appealing, whereas 47.37% of participants in the EG reported the same. 57.9% of the EG subjects and 53.33% of the CG subjects were keen on *writing*

activities. 78.95% of the EG and 66.67% *of* the CG liked *pronunciation* activities very much or quite a lot. 53.34% of them were highly positive about *grammar* exercises, similar to the EG (68.42%). Finally, *vocabulary* activities were enjoyed in both groups (78.95% and 73.33% in the EG and CG respectively), there being no negative extreme responses.

Items FQ1/11 and FQ1/12 dealt with important issues to be contemplated when changing the ordinary procedures of an FLT classroom, which is all the more relevant in this research. In FQ1/11, no significant differences were found between groups in the effort that the participants had to make to follow the development of the lessons ($U = 0.41$, $p > .05$). 47.37% of the EG subjects and 60% of the CG participants experienced difficulty sometimes. As can be seen in Figure 16, 31.58% of the EG participants and 13.33% of the CG subjects experienced no difficulty. Accordingly, it could be argued that the variety in the patterns of work introduced by the CPM did not seem to require a higher degree of effort for the EG subjects in contrast with the CG. The latter's percentages in the "sometimes" and in the "never" answers were even higher and less than those of the EG respectively (60% and 13.33% compared to 47.37% and 31.58%).

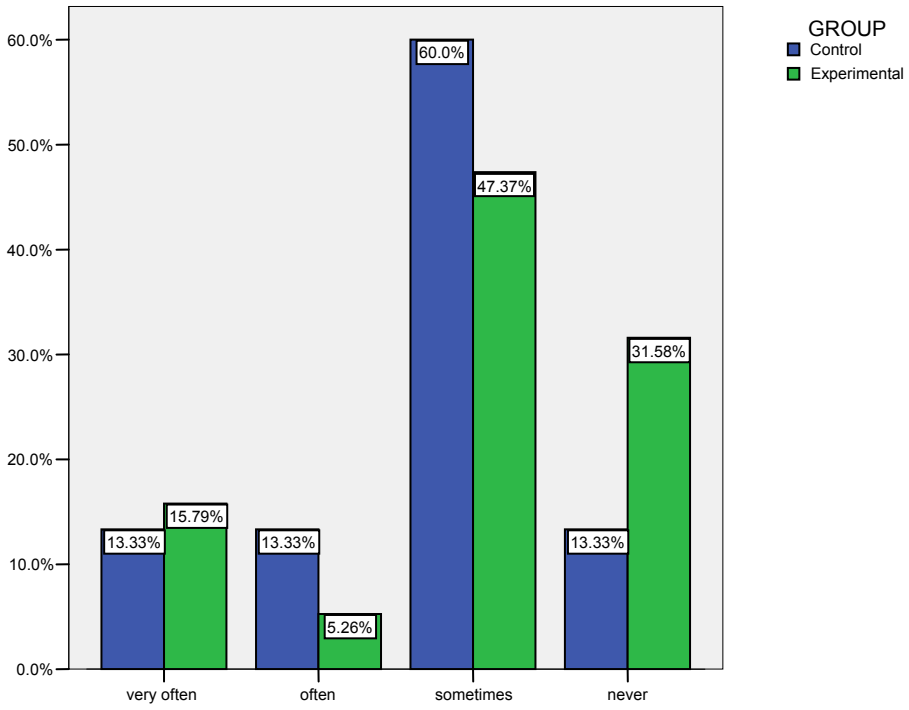


FIGURE 16
FQ1/11. I HAD TO MAKE AN EFFORT TO FOLLOW THE DEVELOPMENT OR PROCEDURE OF THE LESSONS

A significant difference was found in FQ1/12 with regard to whether the subjects agreed that the organisation of the lessons was varied and entertaining (U = 0.01, $p < .05$). 94.73% of the EG subjects either strongly agreed or agreed as opposed to 53.33% of the CG participants (see Figure 17). Therefore, it can be affirmed that the CPM teaching is accompanied by subjects' perceptions of lesson organisation as varied and entertaining.

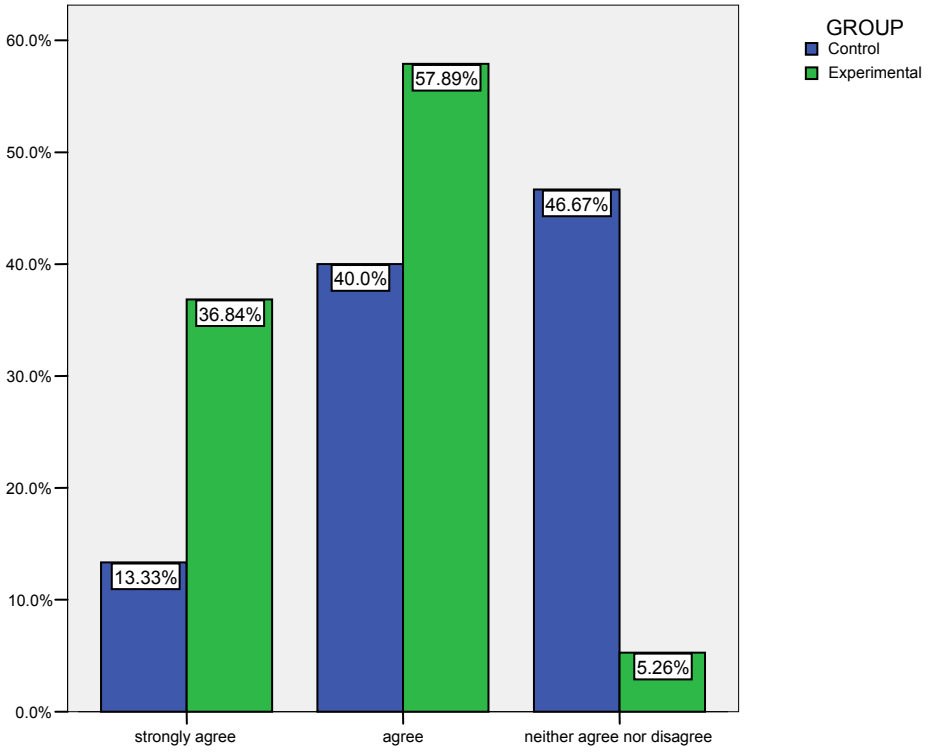


FIGURE 17
FQ1/12. THE ORGANISATION OF THE LESSONS HAS BEEN VARIED AND ENTERTAINING

Items FQ1/13.1, FQ1/13.2, and FQ1/13.3 asked students what they had liked the most about the lessons. There were no significant differences between groups regarding the textbook and its content (FQ1/13.1) (U = 0.25, $p > .05$). 73.68% of the CPM intervention subjects were pleased with it, 86.67% within the CG, with no disagreement responses being chosen. Significant differences were found across groups (U = 0.00, $p < .01$) regarding the participants' opinion about the *sequencing* of the textbook activities (FQ1/13.2). 78.95% of the EG subjects liked the new ordering very much or quite a lot, as opposed to 33.33% of the CG subjects who answered similarly. 13.33% of the latter

strongly disliked the traditional *sequencing*, whereas none of the EG participants selected this answer for the CPM. Figures 18 and 19 on page 347 offer the percentages of the answers within each group for items FQ1/13.1. and FQ1/13.2.

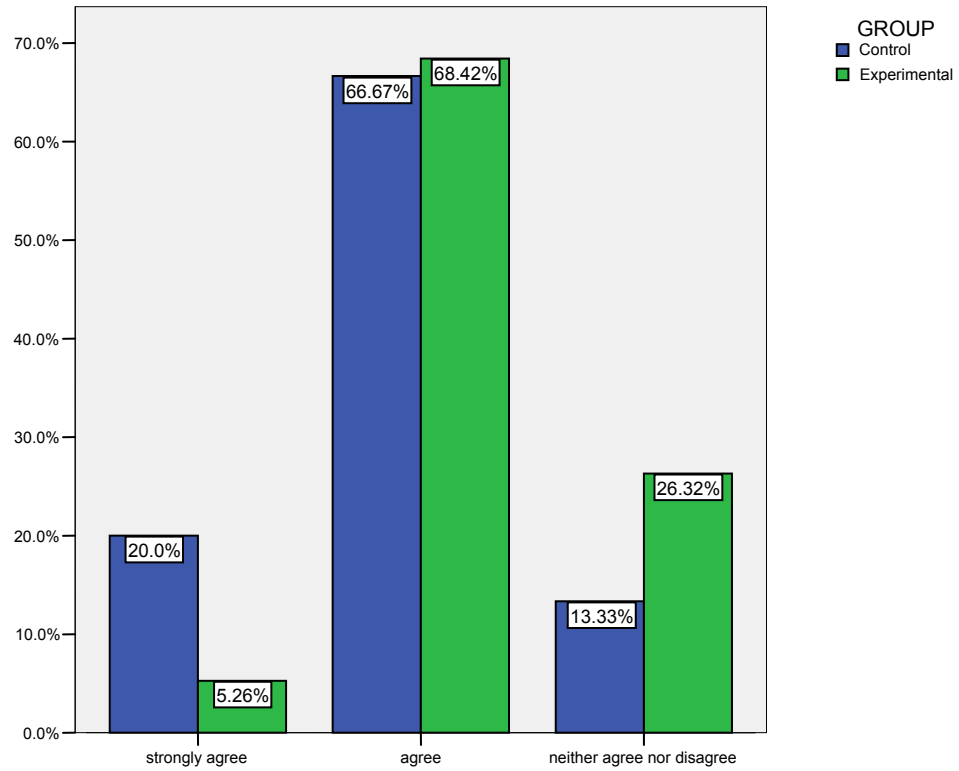


FIGURE 18
FQ1/13.1. WHAT I LIKED FROM THE LESSONS: THE TEXTBOOK AND ITS CONTENT

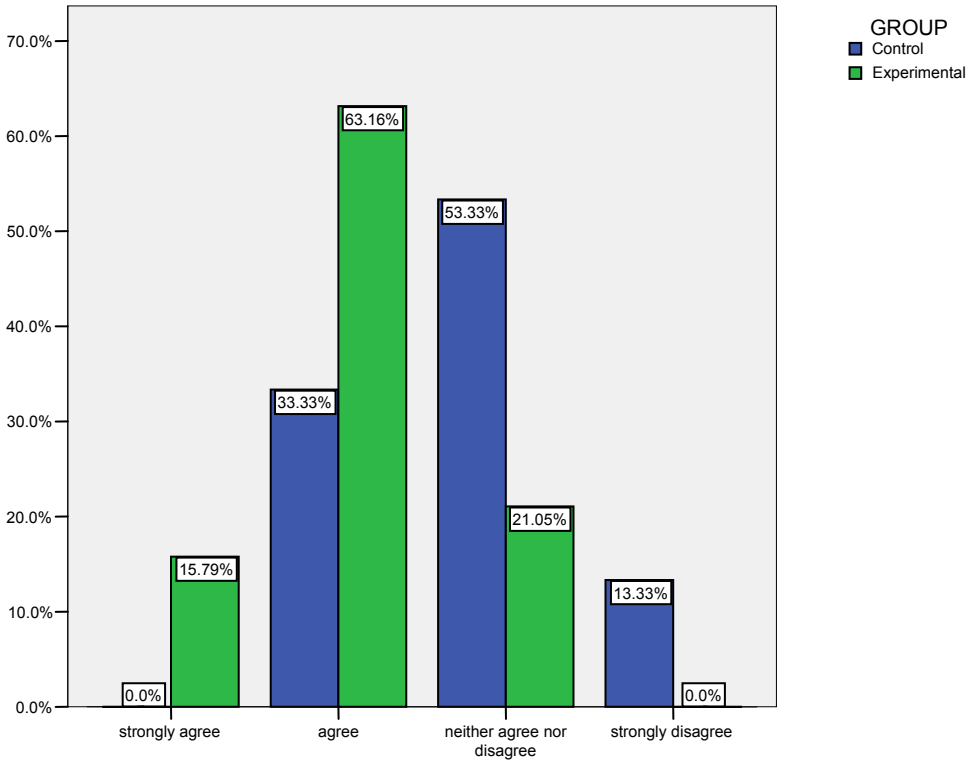


FIGURE 19
FQ1/13.2. WHAT I LIKED FROM THE LESSONS: THE SEQUENCING OF THE ACTIVITIES OFFERED BY THE TEXTBOOK

Three subjects answered the open-question FQ1/13.3., where students were asked to write other aspects if they wanted to. Their responses were: Within the EG, the cordiality with the classmates and group-work; within the CG, the grammatical summary at the end of the textbook and the extra activities supplied by Teacher A. These extra activities were also provided by Teacher B so that both groups had the same quantity of learning material during the quasi-experiment (see sections 6.2.4.4.1. and 6.2.5.3.).

In the second questionnaire the purpose of item FQ2/1 was to uncover whether the students believed that English lessons are more interesting if they reflect real-life situations, which constituted one of the distinctive characteristics of the CPM. No significant differences were found (U = 0.63, $p > .05$). Most participants from both groups agreed about the increase of interest of English classes when these are framed within real-life events (see Figure 20). This implies that this attribute of the CPM appears to be a bonus of such a pattern.

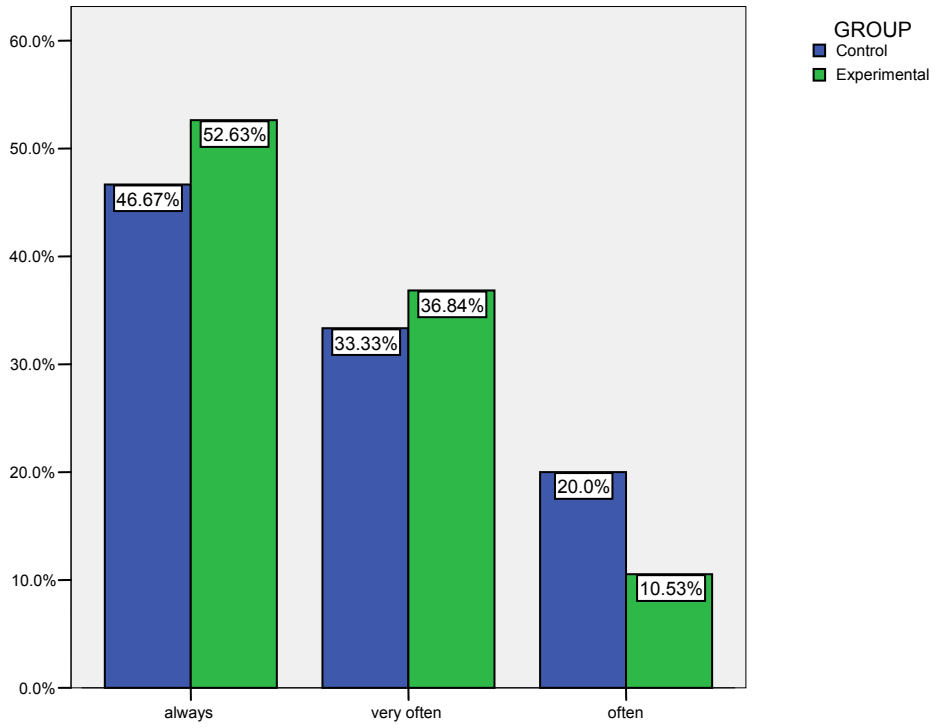


FIGURE 20
FQ2/1. ENGLISH LESSONS ARE MORE INTERESTING IF THEY REFLECT REAL-LIFE SITUATIONS AS MUCH AS POSSIBLE

Items FQ2/2 and FQ2/3 are interrelated and touch on key (and often neglected by both teachers and researchers) issues in the EFL classroom: The learners' attitude towards novelty and improvisation and the degree of fondness for predictable patterns of action respectively. The analysis of FQ2/2 revealed no significant differences between groups ($U = 0.49$, $p > .05$) concerning the former aspect. Only 10.53% of the EG and 20% of the CG stated that they liked novelty and improvisation in the organisation of the lessons at times, and none of them answered that they never liked such diversity. A very similar tendency could be appreciated in the results of FQ2/3. There was an absence of significant differences across groups ($U = 0.41$, $p > .05$) in the responses about whether the subjects felt comfortable if they knew how the lessons were going to develop beforehand. No negative answers were recorded. 15.79% of the EG group and 20% of the CG reported that they felt so on certain occasions, whereas the rest of participants in both groups decidedly felt more secure when aware of the lesson procedures beforehand. At first sight the joint results of FQ2/2 and FQ2/3 may appear to conflict, however, a closer inspections reveals that for these subjects novelty and variety are appreciated when carefully introduced in the right doses. Figures 21 and 22 on page 350 present the plot of the distribution of the answers within each of these two items for both groups.

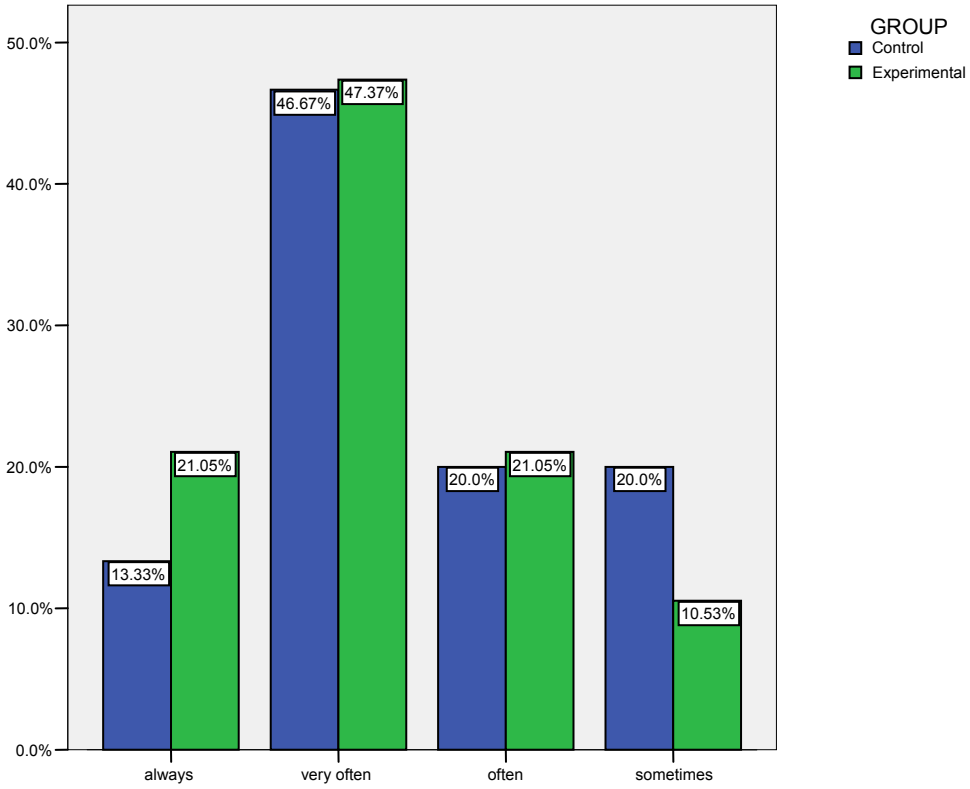


FIGURE 21
FQ2/2. I LIKE NOVELTY AND IMPROVISATION IN THE ORGANISATION OF LESSONS

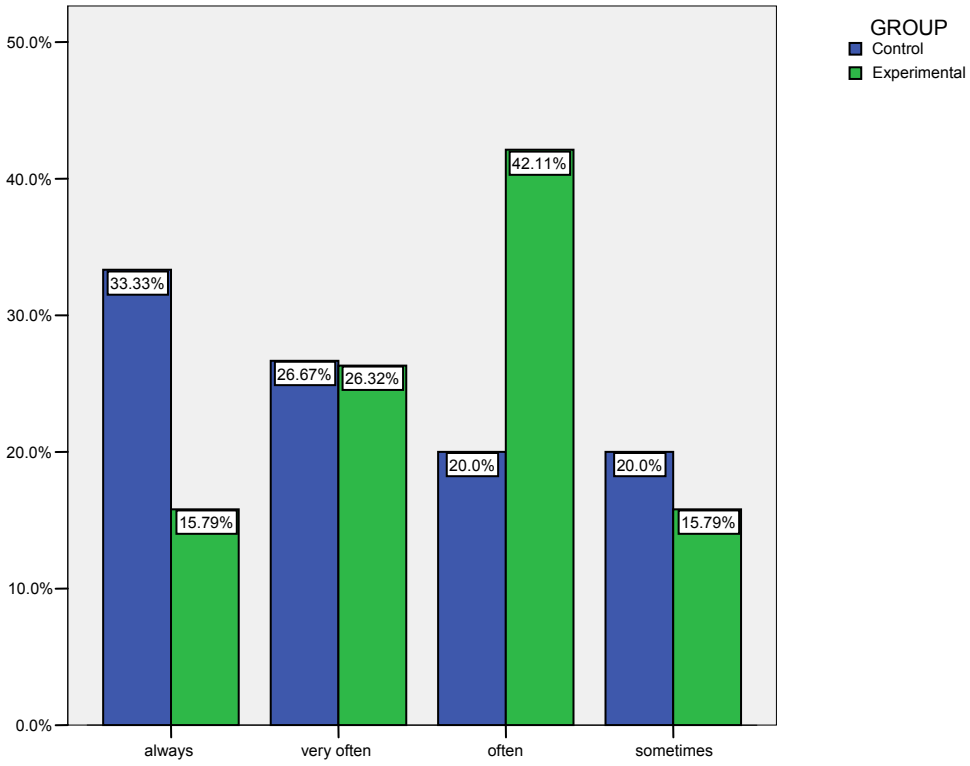


FIGURE 22
FQ2/3. I FEEL COMFORTABLE IN THE LESSONS IF I KNOW HOW THEY ARE GOING TO DEVELOP BEFOREHAND

With regard to FQ2/4, no significant differences existed between groups (U = 0.15, $p > .05$). As can be seen in Figure 23, none of the participants reported that they never preferred all the grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation activities from the textbook to be related to the topic of the corresponding unit or lesson. 15.79% of the EG subjects and 13.33% of the CG participants were inclined to this on an occasional basis, whereas all the others were keen on all the exercises being connected with the unit topic.

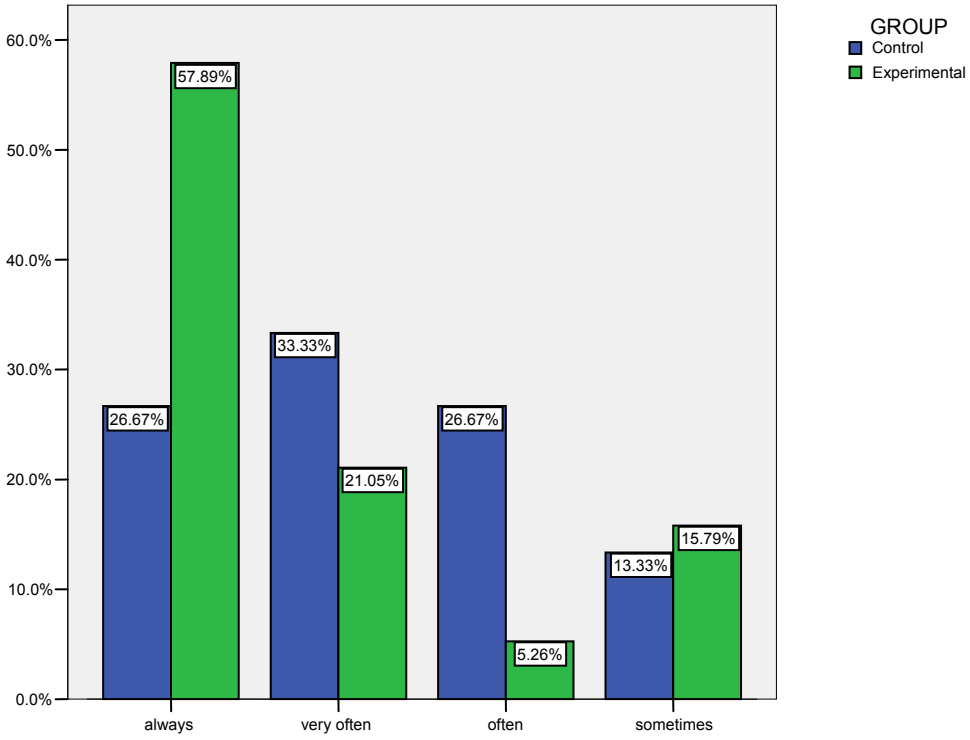


FIGURE 23
FQ2/4. I PREFER ALL THE GRAMMAR, VOCABULARY AND PRONUNCIATION ACTIVITIES FROM THE TEXTBOOK TO BE RELATED TO THE TOPIC OF THE CORRESPONDING LESSON

Thus topic-based syllabi, on which the EFUI SB relies, is favoured by these learners. On the basis of such information, an advantage of the CPM is also illustrated, as it abides by that principle in the organisation of the learning material in the units.

A direct proportional relation between the participants' enjoyment of English lessons in general and their study time was shown in FQ2/5 with 68.43% of subjects

within the EG and 53.34% within the CG. Only 5.26% of the EG participants and 6.67% of the CG participants revealed the opposite tendency.

With respect to the degree of value attached to several factors of the English class in their learning (items FQ2/6.1 to FQ2/6.7), all the participants from both groups considered that the teachers' way of teaching was important (FQ2/6.1). As to the teachers' personality (FQ2/6.2), only 5.26% of the EG subjects and 6.67% of the untreated ones did not believe that it was really important (there being no participants who thought that it was not important at all). The remaining subjects' answers indicated that teachers' personality was important. As can be seen in Figure 24 below, the same percentage of subjects in both groups as in FQ2/6.2 did not assign great importance to their textbooks in FQ2/6.3, whereas the rest did so with identical gradation of answers; there were no significant differences between groups (U = 0.78, $p > .05$). Together with the responses from FQ1/13.1, where subjects from both groups stated a high degree of liking of the textbook, it can be affirmed that the coursebook emerged as a very important element of the EFL classroom for these students.

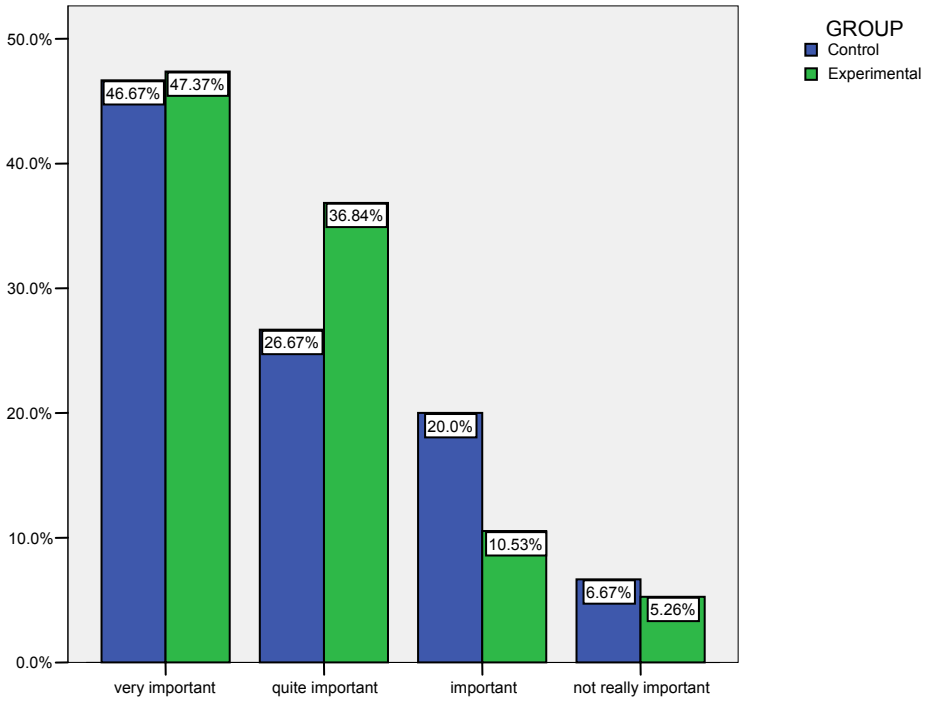


FIGURE 24
FQ2/6.3. WHAT IS THE DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE IN YOUR LEARNING OF EACH OF THE FOLLOWING FACTORS IN THE ENGLISH CLASS?: THE TEXTBOOK

In FQ2/6.4, there did not exist any significant differences across groups in their answers to whether they believed the way that the teacher uses the textbook is important or not (U = 0.37, $p > .05$). Similar descriptive results to the last two items were obtained. Regarding FQ2/6.5, no significant differences were found between groups as to the weight allotted to the organisation of the lessons (U = 0.56, p > .05). 5.26% of the EG participants and 13.34% of the CG participants did not believe that this aspect was really relevant or relevant at all, whilst the other participants did attach importance to it. Figures 25 and 26 contain the percentages of answers for each group in relation to these two last questions.

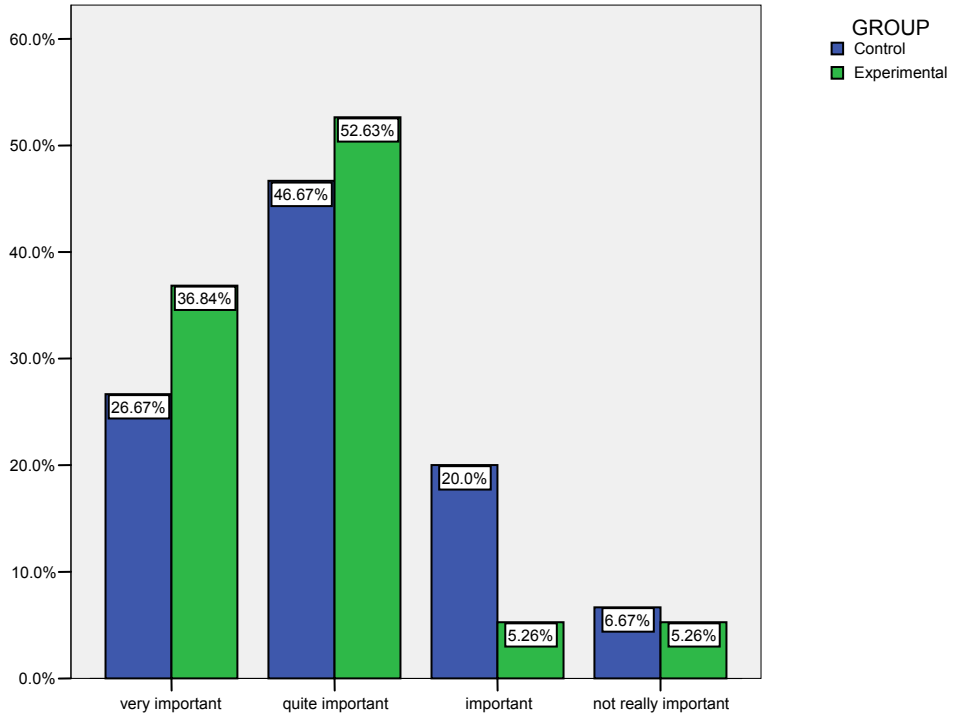


FIGURE 25
FQ2/6.4. WHAT IS THE DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE IN YOUR LEARNING OF EACH OF THE FOLLOWING FACTORS IN THE ENGLISH CLASS?: THE WAY THE TEACHER USES THE TEXTBOOK

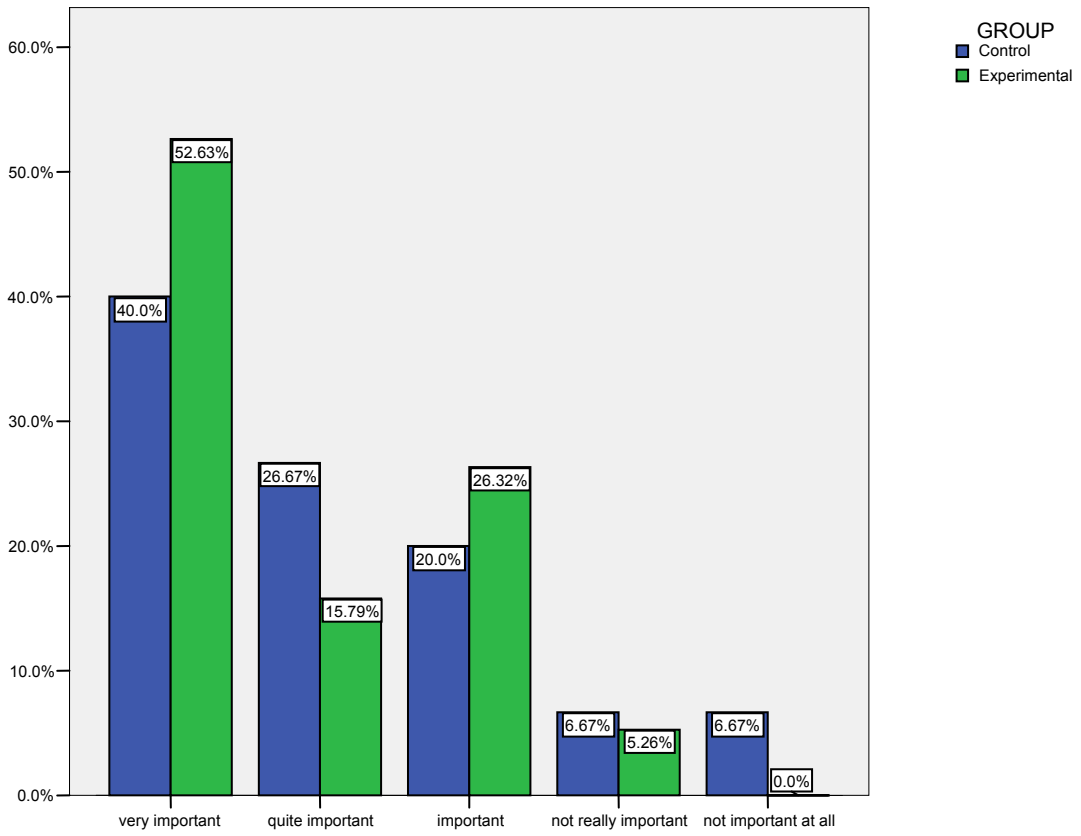


FIGURE 26
FQ2/6.5. WHAT IS THE DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE IN YOUR LEARNING OF EACH OF THE FOLLOWING FACTORS IN THE ENGLISH CLASS?: THE ORGANISATION OF THE LESSONS

In connection with the extra activities (books, films, workshops…) mentioned in FQ2/6.6, all the participants from the two groups appeared to consider them important. There were only 5.26% of subjects within the EG and 6.67% within the CG who dismissed them as not really crucial; none rejected them as "not important at all". To conclude this FQ2/6 group, there were no participants who thought that the cordiality with their classmates was not important at all. All the untreated participants regarded this factor as very important, quite important and important, whereas 15.79% of the EG informants judged it as not really essential.

Finally, the FQ2/7 set asked the participants about the level of importance that they attached to certain elements in a textbook. All the subjects from the EG and the CG considered that the activity types were important (FQ2/7.1). As can be observed in Figure 27, a parallel pattern of responses was uncovered in relation to the *sequencing* of activities (FQ2/7.2), there being no significant differences between groups ($U = 0.47$, $p > .05$).

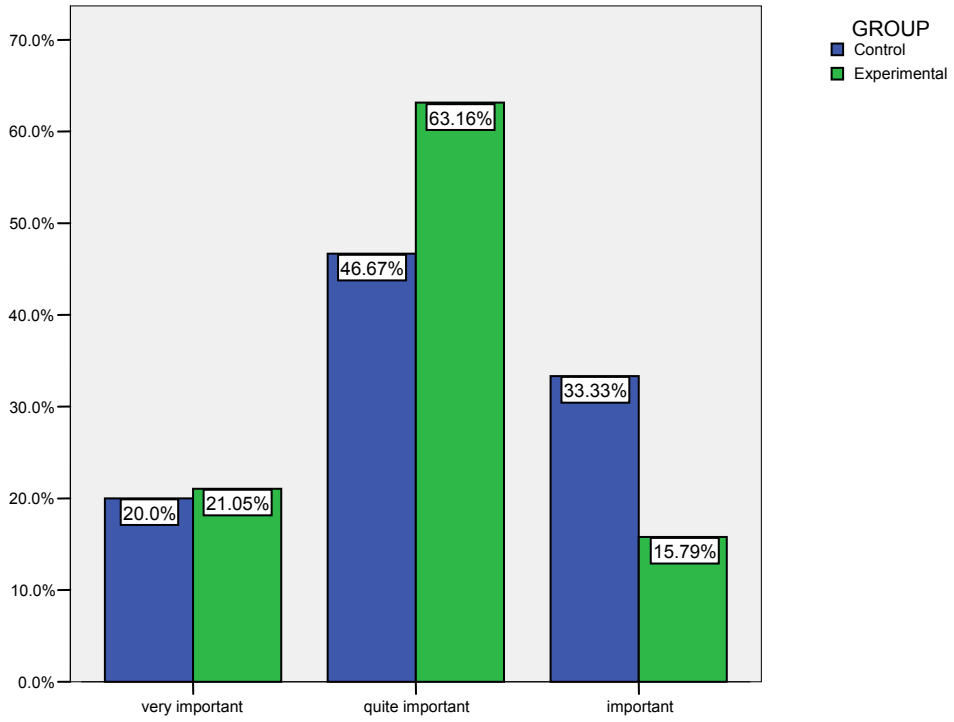


FIGURE 27
FQ2/7.2. WHAT IS THE DEGREE OF IMPORTANCE THAT YOU ASSIGN TO EACH OF THE FOLLOWING ELEMENTS IN A TEXTBOOK?: THE SEQUENCING OF ACTIVITIES

A balanced presence of grammar, vocabulary, reading, writing and speaking activities (FQ2/7.3) was equally considered important by all the 34 participants. In reference to an existence of abundant pair and group activities (FQ2/7.4), only 10.53% of the EG subjects regarded them as not really important, whereas the remaining participants of this group as well as all those from the CG assessed them as important with varying degrees of weight. In relation to the interest of the topics proposed (FQ2/7.5), the entirety of the EG and of the CG participants thought that they were to be valued, again within diverse levels of importance. On the other hand, 10.53% of the EG subjects and 13.33% of the CG subjects did not allot a great importance to the employment of real/authentic oral and written texts in FQ2/7.6, and none of them dismissed them as not being important at all. Thus most participants judged them as important. A similar tendency was found in FQ2/7.7 regarding the presence of cultural references of the language studied - where 21.05% of the participants within the EG and 6.67% within the CG believed that it was not really important - and in the edition and

format aspects referred to in FQ2/7.8 **-** of which the "not really important" response was chosen by 10.53% of the EG and 26.67% of the CG.

See section 6.4. below for an interpretation of the most pertinent findings of the FQ1 and FQ2 as framed within the main results of this study.

6.4. DISCUSSION

The findings reported in section 6.3.1. connected with the Pre-test and Post-test scores of the *FCE* exam indicate that the EG performed significantly better than the CG in both outcomes of *grammar* and *vocabulary* measured together (*FCE_2, FCE_3* and *FCE_total)* and *vocabulary* alone *(FCE_5).* Therefore, in contrast to modern communicative material(s) versions of the traditional exercise *sequencing* pattern (P-P-P), instruction through textbook units which present the CPM does have a significant positive effect on students' L2 English linguistic learning. Furthermore, the pertinent means show the maintenance of the EG level in *vocabulary* only (*FCE_1*) as well as an evident advancement of the treated group in *grammar* alone (*FCE_4)* even if both effects were not significant.

It should be observed that the significant effects in the *FCE* test were obtained in the measures whose accomplishment demanded both recognition and production on the subjects' part. In other words, the modified open cloze, key word transformations and word formation - which measured *grammar* and *vocabulary* together (*FCE_2, FCE_3)* and *vocabulary* only *(FCE_5*) - required more complex cognitive operations than pure recognition alone. The latter concerned the multiple-choice cloze and the error correction, which respectively measured *vocabulary* (*FCE_1*) and *grammar* (*FCE_4*). Thus it could be suggested that, for this sample, such recognition-based tasks were not appropriate because no significant effects on learning were achieved with the CPM instruction. Additional future research may contribute to confirm or refute these findings.

In relation to the *OSL* results, although the EG subjects did not significantly improve their scores, the specific interaction effect on *grammar* as measured with the *OSL_rep* part did reveal a clear tendency towards improvement and a better performance of the EG than the performance of the CG (whose results slightly worsened in the Post-test). The absence of any significant effect means that the

hypothesis cannot be confirmed indicating that both teaching programs are equal in efficiency. Indeed, it could be contended that the teaching driven by the CPM showed a level of efficacy akin to that of lessons centred on the P-P-P when measured with this section of the *OSL* exam.

It is important to recall that the influence of all the moderator variables identified in the present work was controlled. Few of them caused a relevant impact on the main results (see section 6.3.1.2.). However, it is not possible to extrapolate such an impact due to the small sample and, consequently, the reduced sample size in each category. Nonetheless, I regard it worthy of note to comment on some significant correlations that suggest certain tendencies. Such results should be cautiously considered since the following interpretation is focused on the small sample analysed, the objective being to gain information about all the possible intervening variables and not to perform a modelling of the efficacy of the CPM intervention.

With regard to bilingualism and multicompetence issues, it is interesting to observe the following findings of this study. On the one hand, *knowledge of other foreign languages besides L2 English prior to the quasi-experiment* positively correlated with *vocabulary* (*FCE_1)* in the CG. On the other, *studying other foreign languages during the quasi-experiment* was responsible for a negative correlation in the EG with both *grammar* and *vocabulary* measured together (*FCE_total).*

In connection with the amount of English learning, the fact that subjects attended *extra L2 English instruction lessons before and during the study* positively correlated with *vocabulary* (*FCE_1)* in the CG, as well as the related *number of months* preceding the research. Furthermore, in the CG there appeared positive correlations between *vocabulary* (*FCE_5)* and both the *number of stays in English-speaking countries* and the *number of L2 English study weeks.* As to the EG, a medium positive correlation was unveiled between the *years of L2 English study* and *grammar* (*OSL_rep),* whereas an absence of *L2 English study gap year* contributed to the performance in *grammar* and *vocabulary* (*FCE_2*) (similar to the aforementioned case with the *study of any foreign languages during the quasi-experiment* variable and its correlation with better scores in *grammar* and *vocabulary* (*FCE_total*)).

Therefore, speaking or having some knowledge of other foreign languages before the quasi-experiment, supplementary L2 English instruction and stays in English-speaking countries **-** specifically those with an academic purpose **-** benefited the traditional method in *vocabulary* (*FCE_1* in the first two covariates and *FCE_5* in the

last two). This sheds some light on the effects of stays concerning the specific lexicon sub-skill as quantified on a delayed-measure basis. With regard to the EG, it is intriguing to notice, at least as a first impression, that studying other foreign languages during the L2 English instruction period did not impart any positive effects on linguistic learning at all. Future research, similar to the present thesis, may unveil the exact degree of influence of all these moderator variables on different targeted language areas - skills and sub-skills - in both P-P-P and CPM instructions.

As stated in sections 2.4.2., 2.4.3. and 5.1., there are no other empirical works that I am aware of dealing with the effect of activity *sequencing* on learning. Hence, certain variables from the FQ1 and FQ2 have been codified and analysed since they may account for the different interactional effects between the teaching method and the two time measures in most *FCE* parts as compared with the *OSL_rep* section. These variables correspond to those which were statistically analysed with inferential analyses (except for FQ1/6-FQ1/8; see section 6.2.4.3.5. for a related explanation). Certain of these variables are linked to subjects' satisfaction with the activity *sequencing* in the lessons that they received (FQ1/13.2); their predilection for English classes which reflect real-life situations as much as possible (FQ2/1) and their preference of all the textbook activities being related to the topic of the corresponding unit (FQ2/4). Given that such variables are measuring students' preferences, it could be established that they are indirectly uncovering certain information regarding the participants' motivation (as long as we agree that motivation is intrinsically related to likings and preferences).

The angle from which motivation is measured in these variables is framed within one of the three levels distinguished by Dörnyei (1994):[68] The "Learning situation level", the other two being "Language level" and "Learner level". The second is related to integrative and instrumental issues of L2 motivation and the third concerns students' individual characteristics that affect their motivation (self-confidence, etc.). It is the "Learning situation level" which is particularly relevant for the purposes of this research as it concerns formal classroom situations. Three types of elements are encompassed here: The "teacher-specific motivational components" (i.e., the influence of his/her personality and way of teaching on motivation); the "group-specific motivational

[68] Dörnyei (2003b) provides an exhaustive review of all the theoretical and research advances in motivation and their applications. However, as opposed to his former study, in this work Dörnyei describes the three levels indicated above very succinctly. That is the reason why I have drawn on his 1994 article in my research.

components" (which deals with the features of the group) and the "course-specific motivational components". These directly relate to the framework of this study as they are linked to the teaching materials; this category also comprises the syllabus, the teaching method and learning tasks.

Certainly the most enlightening and intrinsically related result from the FQ1 and FQ2 is that of the variable underlying item FQ1/13.2. When asked about whether they had liked the activity distribution and *sequencing* of their textbook, subjects' answers showed significant differences between groups, with the EG subjects being noticeably more enthusiastic than those of the CG.

At this point, however, I must acknowledge two vital things. Firstly, the correlational nature of all the analyses in the FQ1 and FQ2 imply that it is not possible to establish a causal relationship between learners' motivation and the positive EG answers of the targeted variables that lie underlie intervention features or related classroom implications. Thus it would be erroneous on my part to endorse, on the basis of the pertinent results of these questionnaires, the following assumptions: a) That the CPM intervention (alone) fostered students' motivation, which heightened their learning in turn - as students may have already been motivated before the instruction; and b) that the EG subjects' learning enhancement promoted by the efficacy of the intervention was the single cause of an increase in their motivation. Secondly, and in connection with a) and b), it is extremely important to remember that the objective of this study is to confirm or reject my hypothesis, whose dependent variable is learners' mastery of Grammar and Vocabulary, *not motivation and its directionality*. Accordingly, no exhaustive questionnaires which included all the possible motivational factors described by Dörney (1994) were included prior to and following the quasi-experiment. Nevertheless, I strongly believe that the information revealed by the two final questionnaires can help to cast some constructive light on the students' attitudes towards the two teaching programs and their derived classroom management consequences.

Answers from other items supported the treated subjects' preference for the CPM uncovered in FQ1/13.2. In item FQ2/1, the EG believed that English lessons are more interesting if the latter reflect real-life situations as much as possible, which is the skeleton of the CPM. CG subjects agreed with them, there being no significant differences between the two. Besides, most participants preferred all the coursebook language exercises to be linked to the topic of the corresponding unit (FQ2/4). This is

an element contemplated in the EFUI SB in accordance with its topic-based syllabus. It is also clearly present in the CPM as it could not be otherwise, since the event or process underpins the *sequencing* and its activities.

The results above permit the statement that the linguistic enhancement of the EG is accompanied by a high degree of satisfaction concerning the alternative *sequencing* model, which I believe might be related to motivation. As has been demonstrated, not only did the EG subjects show their approval of this alternative *sequencing* when explicitly asked (FQ1/13.2), but they also showed their appreciation of inherent characteristics of the CPM when indirectly enquired in FQ2/1 and FQ2/4. It could be argued that the CG positive responses to these last two questions, particularly the first one, provide further backing for key features of the CPM. Likewise, it is worthy of note to observe that both groups attached a similar high value to the distribution and ordering of exercises (FQ2/7.2.). Therefore, the joint results from FQ1/13.2. and FQ2/7.2 add to the consideration of activity *sequencing* as a factor that definitively should not be scorned in the FL classroom.

Given the materials-framework of this research, I also consider it pertinent to discuss other FQ1 and FQ2 results that are linked to classroom management issues (as derived from the implementation of the experimental teaching program) and to the subjects' attitudes towards their textbook. With regard to the former, several assumptions can be determined. Lesson organisation was assessed as important by most subjects from both groups in their learning (FQ2/6.5). The answers of item FQ2/2 revealed that the majority of participants were in favour of novelty and creativeness in the structuring of classes with an absence of significant differences. When asked about the actual teaching that they experienced (FQ1/12), statistically different results were obtained regarding whether they believed that the organisation of the lessons had been varied and entertaining (two qualities that are easily linked to novelty and creativeness). Whilst the EG almost entirely responded in a positive manner only half of the CG did so. Accordingly, there appears to be a relation between the CPM and the subjects' perceptions of lesson organisation being varied and engaging, which cannot be stated regarding the P-P-P group. Of course, another issue is the quantitative and qualitative extent of this connection, which could be more accurately defined in future research. Another important aspect connected to the variety in lessons is the students' degree of predilection for frequent regularity in classroom procedures (FQ2/3). Most participants

felt more comfortable if they knew the class development beforehand, whether frequently or on an occasional basis.

As argued in section 6.3.2., the apparent contradiction between the results of FQ2/2 and FQ2/3 might be over-ridden by seeing them as complementary rather than opposite. Indeed, it could be argued that what they actually reveal is the value attached by these participants to innovation and diversity in lesson procedures when inserted in suitable proportions. Recall too the responses of FQ1/11 which revealed that the EG did not have to make greater efforts than the CG in following the development of the lessons.

Taking the results of FQ1/11, FQ2/2 and FQ2/3 together, it could be argued that the CPM instruction seemed to incorporate a balanced degree of variety in this study so as not to overwhelm the EG subjects. A possible reason for this moderate presence of variety might have been rooted in two facts: a) As hinted in section 6.2.6.6.1.4., the familiarity or non-shocking patterns of events due to their foundation in real-life events (which is connected to the notion of *script* in section 5.2.8.); and b) without neutralising a), the participants being already accustomed to the type of activities in the coursebook, as they had used it during the whole of the first semester.

With regard to the subjects' opinion of their textbook, in FQ1/4 all the EG subjects found the textbook useful as well as the majority of the CG, of whom a single subject neither agreed nor disagreed. Despite the statistical differences found, from a qualitative perspective it could be considered that the answers in both groups were virtually the same and that therefore all the participants regarded their coursebook as beneficial. Besides, most subjects from the two groups had liked both their coursebook and its content (FQ1/13.1.). Likewise, the results from question FQ2/6.3 uncovered that for nearly all the participants the coursebook was a (very) important factor in the English class. Hence the answers of FQ1/4, FQ1/13.1 and FQ2/6.3 lead to the unsurprising conclusion that the textbook had a crucial function for these students. Such results draw a parallel to the claims mentioned in sections 1.1. and 1.2. about the magnitude of coursebooks in the EFL classroom (Chambers, 1999; Cook, 1998; Richards, 1993, 1998, 2001) and constitute another indication of the vital nature of research on materials development.

To summarise the main findings of this study, the CPM teaching was shown to have a greater significant effectiveness on L2 learning than the P-P-P instruction. Furthermore, the EG seemed to like the CPM and its chief characteristics.

6.5. CONCLUSIONS OF THE QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

The key findings of the study are summarised below:

1. A chi-square test revealed that the 17 dropouts from the initial *OSL* sample could be disregarded as an extraneous variable. Furthermore, the results of a t-test showed that subjects' non-attended lessons out of the overall 35 ones did not exert a negative influence on the interpretation of the results.

2. Different inferential analyses from 1), not only a chi-square test but also a t-test depending on the nature of the variables, enabled the assumption that the EG and the CG belonged to the same subject population.

3. The EG and the CG were homogeneous and thus comparable regarding their linguistic level at the beginning of the quasi-experiment as demonstrated by the result of a t-test.

4. The EG and the CG were also homogeneous and thus comparable in their variances and co-variances as revealed by the results of a Box and Levene test.

5. Instruction driven by the CPM had significant effects on the following test measures: *FCE_2* (open cloze); *FCE_3* (key word transformations); *FCE_5* (word formation) and *FCE_total*. Therefore the hypothesis of this study was confirmed concerning the entirety of this exam and the three sections which required both linguistic recognition and production. This means that when contrasting the two groups there were significant differences in their changes as derived from the comparison of their Post-test results with their Pre-test ones.

6. Instruction based on the CPM had no significant effects on the *OSL_rep* measure. Consequently, the hypothesis of this quasi-experimental study was rejected regarding this part of the *OSL* exam. It should be remarked that, despite not being statistically significant, a clear positive influence of the CPM intervention on learning was shown in

this *OSL_rep* section (which was similar in format to *FCE_3* and for which significant effects were found).

7. The non-significant effects on the measures of *OSL_rep*, *FCE_1* and *FCE_4* in favour of the CPM indicate that this alternative pattern was at least as efficient as the P-P-P instruction in improving L2 proficiency.

8. Other parts which did not constitute the object of this study were also compared: *Listening (OSL_lis), writing (OSL_writ)* and *pronunciation* mixed with *grammar* and *vocabulary* (*OSL_mc*). The high correlations among all the outcomes of the two exams (both those added in this point and the others) revealed that such tests displayed construct validity since they really measured language proficiency regarded as a general concept.

9. Most correlations between the time measures in both exams revealed a similar pattern in the subjects' performance in the Pre-test and the Post-test.

10. A medium ES value was obtained in the *OSL_rep* section. Excluding the low value of *FCE_4* and the medium one of *FCE_1,* all the other parts measured by the *FCE* exam had high and positive ES values. This indicates that the CPM intervention was superior to the traditional method in improving L2 English linguistic proficiency.

11. Most of the relations between the covariates and the improvement of the different measures for the two outcomes were not significant. Accordingly, the potential moderator variables did not have a bearing on the effect of each teaching program. Certain high positive correlations were found between some *FCE* parts and the CG in both quantitative and categorical variables: *FCE_1* with *number of months of extra L2 English instruction before the quasi-experiment, extra L2 English instruction before and during the quasi-experiment* and *knowledge of other foreign language(s) besides L2 English before the quasi-experiment; FCE_5* with *number of stays in English-speaking countries* and *number of L2 English study weeks* in the stays. The small amount of CG subjects who presented values higher than 0 (for the quantitative variables) or an affirmative answer (for the categorical ones) justifies the lack of any impact of these variables on the *FCE_1* and *FCE_5* results. Hence no predictive models were accomplished.

A middle positive correlation was found for the EG between *OSL_rep* and *years of L2 English study*, whilst a negative correlation appeared in the two following cases (both of which involved categorical variables): *L2 English study gap year* with *FCE_2* and *studying other foreign language(s) besides L2 English during the quasi-experiment* with *FCE_total*.

Finally, all these results concerning the correlations between test measures and moderator variables cannot be extrapolated owing to the reduced sample size in each category and the rather small overall sample.

The results from the two final questionnaires revealed the following:

a) Textbooks and their activity *sequences* were an important element for the subjects of both groups.
b) The EG seemed to enjoy the activity *sequencing* followed in the CPM intervention, as opposed to the CG (whose instruction was based on the P-P-P).
c) The EG liked certain CPM key features that were indirectly asked (its reliance on real-life events and all the activities revolving around the topic of the lesson).
d) The CPM intervention was not accompanied by a greater effort on behalf of the EG subjects when compared to their CG counterparts in following the development of the lessons.
e) Both groups appeared to value regularity in the patterns of work as well as novelty and variety, which was considered to imply that learners appreciate diversity if carefully introduced in moderate enough degrees.
f) The CPM seemed to offer an adequate degree of variety so as not to overwhelm the EG participants.

The following methodological limitations must be mentioned. As indicated in sections 6.2.3., 6.2.4.2.1.4. and 6.2.5.2., *OSL* administrative constraints accounted for 1), 3) and 4) (with the exception of the use of a single *OSL* centre in 4):

1) The unfeasibility of using the whole of the *FCE* exam as the instrument to quantify the L2 knowledge. This constraint interferes with the construct validity of the currently accepted concept of language proficiency. Such impossibility led to the omission of the sections that measured the four skills and the selection of the *FCE* part that tested linguistic elements (*grammar* and *vocabulary*). As explained in section 6.2.4.2.1.4., this

decision was thought to be the best solution regarding the *OSL*'s impediments to the administration of the overall *FCE* exam. It is acknowledged that the inclusion of all the Papers would have provided a more integrative view of L2 proficiency, since the following outcomes would have been included: Reading, listening, writing and speaking. Moreover, the employment of the entire *FCE* would have permitted a comparison of the effect of the two teaching programs on all the language areas that coincided in the two exams, i.e., *listening*, *writing*, *grammar* and *vocabulary*. A reading section was absent in the *OSL* exam and the results from the oral interview would not have been possible to contrast as the *OSL* administration conditions were not the same in the Pre-test and the Post- test.

2) The lack of follow-ups to attempt to check long-lasting learning effects of the CPM instruction. This appears to be the most acceptable way of measuring long-term influence in L2 learning, of which definition there is no agreement in SLA (Muranoi, 2000). In any case, accomplishing a series of follow-ups was not possible for the present thesis. The quasi-experimental study finished just before the *OSL* closed for summer holidays; back in October 2003 it was not guaranteed that the same composition of both groups could be maintained owing to possible dropouts, different timetables chosen by the subjects, etc. However, even if this study had taken place during the first semester (which I was strongly advised against by the teachers themselves as explained in section 6.2.5.1.) and the end of the second semester had thus served as a delayed post-test, such results would probably not have been valid. They would be contaminated since the effects could have been due to the new *OSL* instruction the participants had been receiving during those months. In other words, the more classes they had attended, the more they would have learnt and presumably, the better they would have performed in the follow-ups.

3) The use of intact classes instead of randomly selected participants.

4) The use of a single *OSL* centre, only two groups and the restricted number of participants within them. Despite this, it is important to remember the subjects' homogeneity between groups regarding a) their individual variables both before and during the quasi-experiment; b) their performance variability of the exams; c) their L2 English level prior to the quasi-experiment. The homogeneity in a) is independent from

the reality that the sample was in fact heterogeneous, i.e., that it was composed of different and varied participants as revealed in the analysis of their individual features in section 6.2.3. This latter reason together with my past experience as an *OSL* learner leads me to conclude - if not from a statistical viewpoint but from a qualitative perspective - that the population of the present work is a representative sample of the typical students in this institution. The theoretically high motivation of this sort of learner should also be carefully considered. On the one hand, this characteristic prevents the extrapolation of these results to populations of different ages and educational bodies, as the motivation may be different in type and degree. Conversely, this very same trait might permit the generalisation of the results of this quasi-experiment to other populations who, in theory, are equally motivated, such as English Studies undergraduate students.

In any case, it is acknowledged that the actual small sample size and the non-random selection procedure restrict the extrapolation of the findings reported in the present study. Hence, further research is necessary to establish whether the CPM is successful in different teaching situations. The latter are outlined in the section below (*General Conclusions of the Thesis. Pedagogical Recommendations and Implications*).

Lastly, the general caveat that researchers (including myself in the present dissertation) should never forget in any study is Pica's wise warning, which should encourage authors to contemplate our findings humbly: "No one experience, activity or endowment can account for all of L2 learning" (Pica, 1994: 517). Indeed, the learning of a foreign language is an extremely complex phenomenon which cannot be explained with a single-factor-based reason, even if such a reason is rooted in the objectively quantified efficiency of an intervention such as the present case is.

General conclusions of the thesis. Pedagogical recommendations and implications

In spite of the preceding methodological limitations and of Pica's (1994) aforementioned cautionary note, I believe that activity *sequencing* in general and the CPM in particular deserve recognition in FLT methodology and research owing to the two following reasons present in this thesis: Firstly, the findings from the *FCE* results and from the FQ1 and the FQ2; secondly, the theory which underpins the CPM. These are its reliance on a cognitive account widely applied in SLA regarding the sequence of human learning processes in knowledge attainment; its agreement with the flexibility of the stages in the learning routes; its consideration of *scripts* and its compliance with current fundamental pedagogic practices (integration of skills, connection with real-life situations outside the classroom and variety of work patterns as a trigger for motivation).

In the light of the previous theoretical principles and findings reported in this research, I suggest the following recommendations:

1) To materials designers: The creation of textbooks whose lessons are grounded on the CPM.

2) To teacher trainers: That they should be informed about the CPM and train teacher candidates on the adaptation of ordinary lessons into CPM units from already-existing materials. It is expected that the familiarity of the source on which to draw for this purpose (real communicative processes or events) would make trainees lose their

possible insecurity towards adapting whole lessons. Besides, it would be a good idea if teacher trainers instructed their trainees on creating their own CPM lessons too.

3) To EFL teachers: That they should use CPM lessons in their classrooms.

4) To researchers:

4.1.) That they should pursue future studies aimed at further unveiling of the effects of activity *sequencing* on L2 English proficiency. This could be done by replicating the present research with larger samples that have parallel characteristics to the sample of this study. Likewise, similar studies with participants from different language levels and ages from those used here could be implemented. Such populations could belong to larger groups and be located in the *OSL* and other educational settings (e.g. high-schools, university…); they could pertain to Second Language contexts besides Foreign Language environments… It would also be very interesting to contrast the influence of the CPM with that of *sequencing* proposals other than the P-P-P by means of both adapted and completely newly devised lessons. Moreover, it would be equally revealing to compare such an effect on language knowledge as measured through both linguistic (grammar and vocabulary) and skill-based activities. Ultimately, determining all these effects on the proficiency of other L2 and L3 languages besides English would contribute to enrich this area of study.

4.2.) That they should carry out studies focused on discovering the effects of the CPM in recognition and recognition and production-based linguistic activities. These studies would be extremely important to ascertain the impact of CPM in relation to grammar and vocabulary learning, and accordingly decide on the classroom use of this activity *sequencing* model whether on a regular basis or in selected moments of the course depending on the particular emphasis of the teaching. As indicated in 4.1.), future related works could also attempt to unveil the impact of the CPM in the learning stages of receptive and productive skills.

4.3.) That they should accomplish future studies with larger sample sizes with the objective of uncovering the precise level of influence on both the P-P-P and the CPM teaching methods of all the moderator variables distinguished in this study, especially

those that revealed high and medium positive correlations with some test measures: The number of years of L2 English learning, the overall amount of extra L2 English instruction; stays in English-speaking countries aimed at formally studying this language; knowledge of other foreign languages before the actual intervention.

Regarding the overall amount of extra L2 English instruction, it would be interesting to analyse the effect on learning of the quantity and type of such an instruction, as well as to shed more light on the exact gains from stays in different proficiency levels and their impact on these two programs.

As to foreign languages study and command, it would be very enlightening to examine the cross-transference effects on the learning of non-bilingual subjects who study other foreign languages (whether L2 or L3, etc.). Such effects could be measured both before and during an intervention which involved the P-P-P and the CPM teaching programs for the CG and the EG respectively, and which was implemented in studies with a larger sample than the present one. It would also be worth carrying out studies aimed at attempting to uncover the influence on learning in the two following cases: a) Bilingualism - with English being one of the two languages - in the lessons of another third language; b) bilingualism on the learning of L3 English. Revealing findings could be attained from studies that attempted to ascertain the effect of these three moderator variables (i.e., non-bilingualism and the two types of bilingualism specified in a) and b)) in the type of works suggested in 4.2.: Skill-based activities and on those focused on linguistic recognition alone and both recognition and production.

4.4.) That they should implement studies that attempted to untangle the influence of the CPM and other activity *sequencing* models on students' motivation, by way of performing the various studies mentioned in 4.1.), including that which is reported in this dissertation. As mentioned in section 6.4., these studies could also endeavour to uncover the precise quantitative and qualitative relationship between CPM instruction and the subjects' assessment of the lessons being varied and entertaining. Besides, such works could also try to unmask as accurately as possible the *exact* degree of variety participants believe that is introduced by the CPM and what their related attitudes are. This information could be complemented with the subjects' views on global variety and regularity in the EFL classroom teaching procedures. Accordingly, we would gain a more complete picture of the students' perspective of diversity in the CPM within the overall context of the classroom procedures. In order to obtain these data, researchers

could administer specially constructed questionnaires that had been validated and tested for their reliability. In the case of working with adapted lessons, if it were possible to employ a sample that had not used the same textbook immediately prior to the research, this would ensure that being accustomed to its activity types and layout would not interfere with their opinions.

4.5. That they should perform multivariate factorial designs that measured the influence of different activity *sequencing* patterns on the learning and motivational indicators of students of various linguistic levels and ages.

Finally, it is necessary that scholars definitively undertake research on materials development in general given the dynamism of this applied field. This *applied* research should always be driven by the joint efforts and work of both SLA and FLT academics. It is only in this way that we will be able to truly improve one of the formal students' commonest (if not the most) tools for language learning: Textbooks.

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