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Comparison of Grammar in Austrian and Spanish English Language Teaching Textbooks

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Abstract

The topic of this diploma thesis is the comparison of Austrian and Spanish ELT textbooks in respect to grammar teaching. In the first part of this paper, approaches and methods in foreign language teaching are introduced and criteria relevant for the analysis of grammar in ELT textbooks are derived from them. Further, a number of additional criteria analyzing grammar at a more general level are included in the analysis of this paper as well. For the textbook analysis, which is presented in the second part of this paper, two ELT textbooks written for the Austrian market and two ELT textbooks written for the Spanish market have been chosen. It will be analyzed if the four ELT textbooks follow the principles of one single approach or method or of more than one approach or method to language teaching. Further, it will be analyzed to what extent the ELT textbooks adhere to these principles and if the recommendations made in the Austrian curriculum concerning the teaching of foreign languages are fulfilled in the ELT textbooks. Finally, it will be analyzed if there are any differences in terms of grammar teaching between the Austrian and the Spanish ELT textbooks analyzed in this paper.

1. Introduction

As future teacher I found it useful and practical to write my diploma thesis about a topic in language teaching. Since in many foreign language teaching classrooms the ELT textbook plays a major role, I wanted to focus on a textbook analysis in my paper (Dendrinos 1992: 23). McGrath, for example, stresses the “absolute centrality of materials in language education” (McGrath 2002: 204). For the actual textbook analysis I considered different aspects of language teaching which could be analyzed and came to the conclusion to analyze grammar teaching in ELT textbooks. In my time at school and in many foreign language classes today grammar plays a very important if not central role. The dominant role of grammar is also reflected in most approaches and methods to language teaching: a defining criterion of an approach or a method always has been whether or not grammar is taught and if so in which form. There have also been various attempts to abandon grammar from language classrooms and textbooks, however, as Scott Thornbury points out “[i]f grammar ever went away, it was only very briefly and not very far” (Thornbury 2000: 23).

The latest developments in approaches and methods to language teaching, such as the Communicative Approach and Task-Based Language Teaching, have raised new issues for discussion about teaching grammar, as for example teaching grammar through language functions etc. I also wanted to explore these recent developments in language teaching and to analyze if and to what extent these developments are already implemented in recent ELT textbooks. Hence, in this research paper one of the main aims is to find out to which approach(es) and method(s) the ELT textbooks chosen for this analysis adhere, if they adhere to one single approach or method, or to more than one and to which ones. According to Swaffar, Arens and Morgan in textbooks the philosophy of a given method or approach is not strictly followed (Swaffar, Arens & Morgan 1982). Whether this is also the case in the textbooks analyzed in this paper will be explored. As I have spent my summer semester 2009 in Santiago de Compostela in Spain, I considered it as quite interesting

to compare Austrian ELT textbooks to Spanish ones and to analyze whether there are any differences in terms of grammar teaching between the ELT textbooks of the two countries. For the textbook analysis in this paper, I have selected two ELT textbooks published especially for the Austrian market and two ELT textbooks published for the Spanish market.

When analyzing the concept of grammar it is worth considering definitions of grammar at first. Thornbury writes in his book *How to teach grammar* (2000) that all language in use can be analyzed at each of the four levels: text, sentence, word and sound. A text consists of sentences, which themselves consist of words, and the words, when spoken, consist of sounds. Thus studying grammar, in part, means to look at the way these four forms of language are arranged and patterned (Thornbury 2000: 1). Traditionally, grammar has been concerned almost exclusively with the analysis of language at the level of the sentence (Thornbury 2000: 1). According to Thornbury (2000: 3) most language teaching textbooks and grammars are still firmly grounded in the sentence grammar tradition. In the analysis of grammar of this research paper this 'basic' definition of grammar, as "a description of the rules for forming sentences", will be considered (Thornbury 2000: 13). Further, aspects of more recent views on grammar teaching, such as the meaning making potential of grammar, as expressed for example through functional terms, will be regarded as well in the textbook analysis of this paper (Thornbury 2000: 3).

This research paper consists of three main parts: namely the presentation of approaches and methods to language teaching, the educational systems in Austria and Spain and the actual ELT textbook analysis. In the first part, in which influential approaches and methods in language teaching are presented, criteria relevant for analyzing grammar in textbooks are derived form these approaches and methods. Thus, when analyzing these criteria, it can be inferred to which extent the ELT textbooks analyzed follow which approach(es) and/or method(s) in respect to grammar teaching. In the second part of this paper, the educational systems of Austria and Spain are presented. This is important since the years of learning English in school have

to be considered for the selection of the grade levels of the textbooks. In the end, however, the selection of the grade levels of the Austrian and Spanish ELT textbooks has been mainly based on the grammatical content taught in the textbooks of Austria and Spain. A great similarity in terms of grammatical content between grade levels has been regarded as crucial for comparing the textbooks. The grade level of the Spanish ELT textbooks has been chosen at first and the Austrian textbooks have been adjusted to the Spanish ones in terms of similarity of grammatical content. This issue is explained in more detail in chapter three. In the third main part of this research paper, the textbook analysis is carried out. In this analysis, the criteria derived from the approaches and methods to language teaching in chapter two are analyzed, as well as certain additional criteria relevant in analyzing grammar. Finally, in the conclusion the research questions of this paper will be answered and the results of the textbook analysis will be summed up.

2. Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching

In this chapter approaches and methods in language teaching are discussed, especially with respect to the role of grammar in the different approaches and methods. Many authors have written books or texts on the topic, however, most authors have approached it quite differently. For bringing the approaches and methods to language teaching in a sequence a number of books have been considered:

Scott Thornbury's briefly describes in his book *How to Teach Grammar* (2000) the main approaches and methods relevant for the development of grammar teaching: these are the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method, Audiolingualism, the Natural Approach and Communicative Language Teaching including Task-Based Learning. Thornbury basically arranges the approaches and methods chronologically and particularly discusses the role of grammar in each approach or method (Thornbury 2000: 23).

Bessie Dendrinos adopts in her book *The EFL Textbook and Ideology* (1992) a quite different way of arranging the approaches and methods to language teaching. At first Dendrinos deals with the role of the textbook in education and then examines the educational value systems in respect to foreign language teaching: these value systems are Classical Humanism, Reconstructionism and Progressivism. Under Classical Humanism Dendrinos describes the Grammar-Translation Method and the Cognitive Approach.[1] In Reconstructionism she describes the Audio-Lingual and the Communicative Approaches. In the educational value system of Progressivism the Task-Based Approach, the Process Syllabus and the Procedural Syllabus are discussed. In examining the different approaches and methods to language teaching Dendrinos always describes a typical syllabus adhering to the discussed approach. She further critically comments especially on contemporary approaches to language teaching. Hence, certain aspects of her book are considered as well in this research paper. However, arranging approaches and methods to language teaching according to educational value systems might be rather confusing for most readers on the one hand and it does not allow a chronological perspective, which, in my opinion, shows most clearly how the different methods and approaches came into being. A chronological perspective further shows which movements motivated different innovations in language teaching and especially in grammar teaching.

Such a chronological sequencing has been adopted by Richards and Rodgers in their book *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* (2007). They divide their book into three main parts, namely: Major trends in twentieth-century language teaching, Alternative approaches and methods and Current communicative approaches. In the first part of their book Richards and Rodgers briefly report on the beginnings of language teaching and on first approaches and methods to language teaching. Further they distinguish between the concepts of approach and method and outline how these two concepts are related. Then they discuss the Grammar-Translation Method, the Oral and Situational Approaches to language teaching as well as the

[1] Dendrinos calls it Grammar-Translation Approach in her book *The EFL Textbook and Ideology* (1992).

Audiolingual Method. In the second part alternative approaches and methods to language teaching are examined. However, as the authors point out, the great majority of them did not influence mainstream language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 72). This is also true for contemporary teaching materials, such as the four ELT textbooks analyzed in this paper and therefore most of these alternative methods and approaches are not discussed in this research paper. In the third part current communicative approaches to language teaching are described, namely Communicative Language Teaching, the Natural Approach, Cooperative Language Learning, Content-Based Instruction and Task-Based Language Teaching. Richards and Rodgers make the chronological sequence of the development of the approaches and methods very explicit and thus their way of sequencing approaches and methods has been adopted in this chapter.

Further Richards and Rodgers arrange every method or approach in basically the same way: after a general introduction to the method or approach they divide it into three main parts, namely *Approach*, *Design* and *Procedure*. In the *Approach*-part theories of language and learning underlying the approach or method are described. In the second part, *Design*, the objectives of the approach or method as well as a typical syllabus are described. Further, types of learning and teaching activities, learner and teacher roles and the role of instructional materials are discussed. In *Procedure* Richards and Rodgers describe classroom procedures typical for the described approach or method. The other books described above do not make explicit how they have arranged the approaches and methods described. Richards and Rodgers' arrangement of the approaches and methods is quite logical and makes it easier for the reader to follow the main arguments and to understand that approaches and methods consist of theories of language and learning which form the theoretical base and of adequate teaching material and procedures. Therefore, in this paper basically Richards and Rodgers' way of arranging the approaches and methods has been adopted, although a number of other books and articles have also been considered in describing them, of course. Diane Larsen-Freeman adopted in her book *Techniques and principles in*

language teaching (2000) a quite similar approach as Richards and Rodgers. Insights of her book have been included in this chapter as well.

Finally, it has to be said that not all of the existing approaches and methods to language teaching are described in this paper. Only those, which influenced mainstream language teaching and teaching materials, are discussed in detail. These mainstream approaches and methods are covered by most of the books considered in this chapter. Based on the view of Richards and Rodgers (2007: 67), these are:

- the Grammar-Translation Method
- the Direct Method
- the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching
- Audiolingualism
- Communicative Langue Teaching
- the Natural Approach
- Content-Based Instruction
- Task-Based Language Teaching

2.1. A History of Language Teaching

The 20th century was characterized by many changes and innovations in the field of language teaching ideologies. In the history of language teaching approaches and methods, there was a move away from methods that focus on writing and reading to methods that stronger concentrate on the skills speaking and listening. Even the actual questions concerning language teaching that are debated have already been discussed throughout the history of language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 1-3).

Actually the first teaching methodology for acquiring a foreign language was the one applied for learning Latin. Due to the fact that Latin was the language of education 500 years ago its study was immensely important for educated learners. The detailed study of grammar, as for example studying

conjugations and declensions, doing translations and writing sample sentences was seen as central in the teaching methodology at the time. The teaching methodology used for learning Latin was, after its decline from a spoken language to a school subject, adopted for learning foreign languages in general. This approach to foreign language teaching became known as the Grammar-Translation Method (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 3-4).

2.2. The Grammar-Translation Method

This method was mainly advocated by the German scholars Johann Seidenstücker, Karl Plötz, H. S. Ollendorf and Johann Meidinger and became known in the USA as *Prussian Method* first (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 5). As the name already suggests, grammar was seen as starting point for instruction (Thornbury 2000: 21). One of the main components of the Grammar-Translation Method was its focus on the detailed study of grammar rules, followed by the application of the learned rules in translation-exercises first into and then out of the target language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 5; Dendrinos 1992: 106). In terms of the four language skills, the main focus was on writing and reading, whereas little attention was paid to speaking or listening (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 6). Accuracy was an important feature of this method as well, since students were expected to achieve high standards in translating sentences, which was tested in written exams (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 6).

Learning in a classroom in which principles of the Grammar-Translation Approach were taught meant learning

> to understand the rules underlying the sentence constructions, to memorize paradigms, to analyze sentences in their constituent parts, to classify these in terms of grammatical categories and to be able to produce new sentences on the basis of the grammar and vocabulary taught (Dendrinos 1992: 106).

In the Grammar-Translation approach grammar was taught deductively (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 6): in a typical lesson the grammar rule was at

first explicitly stated and followed by translation exercises (Thornbury 2000: 21). Grammar was also taught in a systematic and organized way, which was reflected in the syllabus where grammar items were sequenced from easy to more complex (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 6). For the explanation of grammar rules and for instructions the language used in class was the native language of the students (Richards & Rodgers 2997: 6). In grammar exercises pupils had to apply the learned rule by completing already constructed sentences and then by formulating new ones, showing that they had understood how the rule had to be used (Dendrinos 1992: 107).

The Grammar-Translation Method was very popular and dominant in Europe from the 1840s to the 1940s and is, according to various authors (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 6; Dendrinos 1992: 106), still used in modified form in certain foreign language classrooms even today. The method may be frustrating for students but on the other hand expects little qualifications of teachers, since the teacher basically just has to know the rules of grammar (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 6). There is no language theory available on which the method is based and on which it is justified. This is due to the fact that the method was adopted from a time when Latin was the most important language, 500 years ago and at this time no language teaching theory seems to have existed. It is no wonder that in the mid- and late 19th century the Grammar-Translation approach was questioned and a reform movement in Europe laid the basis for other, at the time new ways of language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 6-7).

After having presented the cornerstones of the Grammar-Translation Approach we are in a position to derive an analysis of grammar exercises. The relevant criteria of the Grammar-Translation Approach in respect to analyzing grammar exercises are:

- translation exercises
- deductive grammar teaching[2]
- L1 is used for explaining grammar rules
- focus on writing and reading skills
- typical grammar exercises: completing already constructed sentences, then formulating new ones, filling-in exercises, matching exercises, etc.

2.3. The Reform Movement:

During the Reform Movement the discipline of linguistics was revived again and in this period the discipline of Phonetics was established, which brought new insights into speech processes. In the same period of time, namely in 1886, the International Phonetic Association was founded and the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA) was designed to make it possible to transcribe sounds. One of the goals of the association was the improvement of language teaching and one of its concrete claims was an inductive approach to grammar teaching. There were many debates going on at the time about what was the best way or method to teach foreign languages. The linguist Henry Sweet advocated in his book *The Practical Study of Languages* (1899) among other things to arrange the learning matter in terms of the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. He also wrote that the learning material should be graded from simple to complex (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 9-10).

In contrast to the principles of the Grammar-Translation Method, the reformers believed that spoken language was, primary and should be reflected in an oral-based methodology. They also advocated the findings of phonetics should be applied in teaching foreign languages and that the learner should first hear the language before seeing it in written form. Another point, which is relevant for this research paper, was that they recommended that words should be taught in sentences and sentences should be practiced

[2] Deductive grammar teaching means an explicit statement of the rule and afterwards examples follow in which the rule is applied (Thornbury 2000: 29). For further explanation see Textbook Analysis.

in meaningful contexts and not in isolation. Even more relevant for the research paper is the suggestion of the reformers that grammar rules should be taught after the students have met the grammar points in context, in other words that grammar should be taught inductively. The reformers also stated that translation should be avoided, although it was considered as acceptable to use the mother tongue to explain new words or to check comprehension as for example in the explanation of grammar rules (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 10).

These principles provided the basis for applied linguistics, the study of foreign language teaching and learning. However, none of the proposals ever achieved the status of a method as a widely known and accepted concept of language teaching. At the same time of the Reform Movement there was another movement favoring the naturalistic principles of language learning. Out of this movement finally emerged the Direct Method, a natural method of language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 10-11).

2.4. The Direct Method:

This method was developed at the end of the nineteenth century and challenged the views on grammar teaching held by the Grammar-Translation method (Thornbury 2000: 21). The language teaching expert F. Gouin and other reformers tried to create a method based on the insights drawn from the observation of child language learning (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 11). However, the attempt to teach a foreign language somehow like a first one is not particularly new. Already in the 16th century, for example, Montaigne explained that he was just spoken to in Latin the first years of his life, since his father wanted him to speak Latin well. L. Sauveur (1826-1907) who used intensive oral interaction as main means of instruction. In his language school in Boston in the late 1860s his method became known as the Natural Method (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 11).

Sauver and other advocates of this method maintained that language could be taught without translation or the use of the learner's mother tongue if demonstration and action was used to convey meaning. F. Franke (1884), a German academic, wrote about the psychological principles of direct association between forms and meaning in the target language and provided a theoretical justification for monolingual language teaching in this work. He argued that a language could be best taught to students when using it actively in class and he was against techniques that focused on the explanation of grammar rules (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 11). The learner was supposed to pick grammar up like children in their L1, simply by being exposed to the language, that is inductively (Thornbury 2000: 21). Further, no textbook was used in the first years of learning and the teacher was the main medium of instruction (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 11). Consequently a textbook used in the first years of learning focused mainly on oral skills, in contrast to the Grammar-Translation method, which focused mainly on writing (Thornbury 2000: 21). These language learning principles were the basis of the Direct Method, the most popular of the natural methods (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 11).

In practice, the main principles of the Direct Method were:

- Classroom instruction was only given in the target language. Thus, the native language of the students was not used at all.
- Only what was considered everyday vocabulary and sentences were taught.
- Oral communication skills were shaped in a carefully graded process in form of question-and-answer exchanges between teacher and pupil.
- Grammar was taught inductively.
- New teaching items were introduced orally first.
- If possible, vocabulary was taught through demonstration, actual objects or pictures. Abstract vocabulary was taught via association of ideas.
- Speech and listening comprehension were taught.
- Correct pronunciation and grammar were regarded as crucial.

(Richards & Rodgers 2007: 12)

However, the Direct Method was also strongly criticized. Richards and Rodgers (2007: 12-13) point out that the method failed to consider the practical classroom realities: for example, the Direct Method required teachers who were native speakers or spoke with a native-like fluency. Thus, the success of the method depended on the teachers' skills. It was further criticized that the method lacked a basis in applied linguistics and was "the product of enlightened amateurism" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 13). It was also criticized that the exclusive use of the target language was sometimes counterproductive since it was often easier to translate a word or phrase instead of "performing verbal gymnastics", as the Harvard psychologist Roger Brown (Brown 1973: 5 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 13) has pointed out.

For mainly these reasons the Direct Method declined by the 1920s in Europe. According to the British applied linguist Henry Sweet, the method gave innovations at the level of teaching procedures but lacked a clearly defined methodological basis. Sweet and other applied linguists advocated for the integration of sound methodological principles as basis for language teaching techniques. These developments led to Audiolingualism in the United States and Situational Language Teaching in Europe. According to Richards and Rodgers the Direct Method can be seen as first teaching method to be recognized by teachers and language teaching experts and its proposed methodology moved language teaching into a new era, which they call 'the methods era'. Nevertheless the Direct Method will not be considered in the analysis of the four ELT textbooks since the method can be seen as forerunner of Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism, in which major principles of the Direct Method are reflected. Audiolingualism and Situational Language Teaching had a greater impact on language teaching as will be seen in this chapter and hence these methods will be considered in the analysis part of this paper (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 13-14).

2.5. The Methods Era

The history of language teaching shows that the various proposed methods and approaches experienced ups and downs throughout the twentieth century, as Richards and Rodgers point out. However, common to most of them are the following assumptions (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 14-15):

- An approach or method refers to a theoretically consistent set of teaching procedures that define best practice in language teaching.
- Particular approaches and methods, if followed precisely, will lead to more effective levels of language learning than alternative ways of teaching.
- The quality of language teaching will improve if teachers use the best available approaches and methods.(Richards & Rodgers 2007: 15)

The various approaches and methods to foreign language teaching, that emerged mainly in about the last 60 years had often very different characteristics. However, they all share the same belief that they will bring about improvements in language teaching through improvements in teaching methodology. Between the 1950s and the 1980s the most active period of changes and developments of language teaching methods and approaches took place. In the 1950s and 1960s the Audiolingual Method and Situational Language Teaching experienced their period of greatest popularity. Nevertheless, they were both replaced by the Communicative Approach. During the same period other methods also attracted some attention, however not as great as the methods just stated above. Among these nevertheless still well known methods were the Silent Way, the Natural Approach and Total Physical Response. In the 1990s, Content-Based Instruction, Task-Based Language Teaching and Competency-Based Instruction were introduced. Further, approaches like Cooperative Learning, Whole Language Approach and Multiple Intelligences, which were originally developed in general education, were extended to foreign language teaching as well. Finally, in the 1990s applied linguists and language teachers turned away form the view that newer and better approaches could solve the problems in foreign language teaching and sought alternative ways for understanding the nature of

language teaching. Richards and Rodgers (2007: 16) call this phase the post-methods era (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 15-16).

While developing new ways in foreign language teaching methodology reformers asked themselves the same basic questions:

- What is the aim of language teaching? Should the course teach conversational proficiency, reading, translation or some other skill?
- What is the basic nature of language and how does it affect teaching methodology?
- How is language content selected in foreign language teaching?
- Which principles of organization, sequencing and presentation of material best ease learning?
- What is the role of the native language in the learning and teaching process?
- What processes do learners use in mastering a language and can these be incorporated into the language teaching method?
- What teaching techniques work best and under which circumstances is this the case?
  (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 14)

2.6. The Nature of Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching

According to Richards and Rodgers (2007: 16) it is fundamental to distinguish between the notions of method and approach since these two terms might get confused by readers and do not refer to exactly the same thing. First of all, it is important to distinguish between approach and method and to clarify their relationship (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 16). When describing methods it is important to distinguish between a philosophy of language teaching at the level of theory and principles and a package of derived procedures for language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 19). The American applied linguist Edward Anthony suggested a schema for this in 1963. He introduced

three levels of conceptualization and organization, which he labeled approach, method and technique (Anthony 1963: 63-67 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 19). Following Anthony's model, approach is the level at which assumptions and beliefs about language and language learning are described. Method, on the other hand, is an overall concept for the presentation of teaching material which is based on the underlying approach. Method is therefore the level at which theory is put into practice and at which choices are made about which skills should be taught, the content to be taught and the order of presentation of the content. At the level of techniques the actual classroom procedures are depicted. Techniques must also be consistent with a method and by implication with the respective approach (Anthony 1963: 63-67 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 19).

By looking into the past it can be observed that the Reform Movement was an approach to language teaching and the Direct Method a method that was derived from this approach. Anthony's model is a useful model for distinguishing the relationship between underlying theoretical principles of language teaching and learning and the practices derived from them (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 19). However critique on Anthony's proposal comes form Richards and Rogers (2007: 20) who comment that in Anthony's model the nature of method itself is not discussed explicitly enough.

Richards and Rodgers extended Anthony's original model: they discuss Anthony's terms method and approach under their term *design*. At the level of *design* objectives, syllabus and content are defined and the roles of teachers, learners and instructional material is discussed as well. At the level of *technique* in Anthony's model, Richards and Rodgers proposed the according to them more comprehensive term *procedure*. They sum up the relations between the terms of their model in the sentence:

> [A] method is theoretically related to an approach, is organizationally determined by a design, and is practically realized in a procedure (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 20).

In their book *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* they adopt this model for describing the different methods and approaches in language teaching. In this research paper, basically the model introduced by Richards and Rodgers will be used to describe the methods and approaches as well. On the one hand, Richards and Rodgers make the thoughts and the logic behind their model transparent in their book, in contrast to many other authors which often do not even introduce a model for describing methods and approaches to language teaching at all. Further, their model clearly distinguishes between the terms method and approach, which is crucial in describing them. Therefore this distinction will be employed in the following sections as well. The diagram on the next page visually shows the interrelation of the terms approach, design and procedure, used in Richards and Rodgers model:

Figure 1 (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 33)

2.7. The Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching

After having introduced Richards and Rodgers revised model of Anthony (1963) for describing methods and approaches to language teaching this model is will be used to describe the approaches and methods discussed in this research paper. First of all, two of the major approaches and methods of the twentieth century, namely the Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching will be described (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 1). The Oral Approach was developed by British applied linguists from the 1930s to the 1960s. Two of the most prominent leaders of the movement were the British linguists Harold Palmer and A.S. Hornby (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 36). Their aim was to develop a more scientific oral approach to language teaching than the Direct Method with the result of a systematic study of the principles and procedures that could be used for the selection and organization of the language content (Palmer 1917, 1921 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 36).

The role of grammar and vocabulary were very important in the Oral Approach. Vocabulary was seen as central component of reading proficiency and grammar was seen as crucial as well since it caused the foreign language learner problems, according to Palmer. He assumed that there was a universal grammar common to all languages. The aim of the teacher was to express this universal grammar in the foreign language. The grammatical structures were classified into sentence patterns which should help students to internalize the rules of the sentence structure of the target language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 36-38).

Concerning teaching methodology the Oral Approach consisted of principles of selection, gradation and presentation. Selection means the principles on which the grammatical and lexical content is chosen. Gradation specifies the sequencing and the organization of the content. Finally, presentation means the techniques used for the presentation and practice of the items learned in class. Richards and Rodgers draw attention to the fact that the Oral Approach must not be confused with the Direct Method: although both lay emphasis on

the teaching of oral skills the Direct Method “lacked a systematic basis in applied linguistic theory and practice”, Richards and Rodgers (2007: 38) point out.

The principles of the approach developed over a 20-year period and one of the main principles was that new language items or points should be introduced in situations. Thus, the name Situational Approach was increasingly used instead of the term Oral Approach. Further additions were made and the term Situational Language Teaching came into usage and has been extended to a method. In this research paper the term Situational Language Teaching is used as well and includes also the Oral Approach (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 39).

Approach

The underlying theory of language of SLT is called British structuralism. Speech was viewed as the main component of language and the basic grammatical structures were regarded as central to speaking ability. In the British view of structuralism the link between a grammatical structure and an appropriate situation, in which the structure could be practiced was its distinctive feature and mirrored the functional trend in British linguistics since the 1930s. Thus, and in contrast to American views (see Audiolingualism) language was seen as purposeful and related to aims and situations in the real world (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 40).

The theory of learning to which SLT adheres is Behaviorism: language learning is the learning of correct speech habits and this can be achieved, according to this view on language learning, through drilling exercises. Grammar teaching was carried out, like in the Direct Method, inductively. This means that generally no grammar rules are explained and the learner picks up the grammar by the way the structures are used in different situations. Explanation of grammar points or vocabulary are thus discouraged. The learner then should be able to apply the language learned in real life

situations outside the classroom. Basically this is the same process as children learning their native language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 40-41).

Design

The main objective of SLT is the teaching of the four language skills, a goal shared with most methods and approaches to language teaching. However, in SLT the four skills are approached via structure. Further, accuracy is seen as important for grammar and pronunciation teaching and errors should be avoided whenever possible. Automatization of basic structures and sentence patterns is seen as the basis for the teaching of reading and writing skills, which are tackled through speech work. In SLT a structural syllabus is the basis for teaching. The syllabus lists the basic structures and sentence patterns of English. Moreover, structures are always taught within sentences and vocabulary is chosen according to how well it is compatible with the sentence patterns to be taught (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 41-42).

Typical types of learning and teaching activities are sentence pattern drills. The situations in which the drills are placed are carefully guided so that the learner can certainly infer the correct meaning of what he hears. By situation the use of concrete objects, pictures and *realia* together with actions and gestures by the teacher are meant. The function of the situation is to demonstrate the meaning of new language items. The teaching techniques usually include guided repetition and substitution activities, chorus repetition, dictation, drills and controlled oral-based reading and writing exercises. Sometimes, group and pair work is incorporated into the exercises as well (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 42-43).

Learners have no control over what is learnt and their main duties are to listen to and repeat what the teacher says. The teacher, on the other hand, serves as a model and sets up situations in which the target structure can be practiced. The teacher is regarded as “skillful manipulator” who uses questions, commands, etc. to elicit correct sentences from the pupils (Richards & Rogers 2007: 43). The teacher is central to the success of the

method, since the textbook only describes exercises for the teacher to carry out in class (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 44).

Procedure

Concerning the procedure of SLT, there is a move from controlled practice to freer practice of structures and from oral use of sentence pattern to their automatization and their use in speech, reading and writing. As already said, drills are likewise embedded in situations. To illustrate this, the pattern “There’s a NOUN + of (noun) in the box” shall briefly be considered: the teacher takes things out of a box that he has placed on a table in the class and the class repeats: “There’s a bottle of ink in the box. There’s a pencil in the box.” etc. (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 44-45).

Conclusion

SLT is a method that is an extension and further development to the earlier Oral Approach. The central component of SLT is the P-P-P lesson model: in this model a lesson has three phases: presentation of a new language item, controlled practice of the item and finally a freer production phase. Textbooks written on the basis of SLT are still widely used today, especially when materials are based on a grammatical curriculum. However, SLT was later called into question and finally led to Communicative Language Teaching, which will be discussed a little later in this chapter. The main principles of SLT, namely the strong emphasis on oral practice, grammar and sentence patterns offer a practical methodology to counties in which the national curriculum is grammar based (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 47).

2.8. Audiolingual Method

One of the reasons for the development of the Audiolingual Method was the entry of the United States in World War II. Personnel were needed who spoke foreign languages like French or German fluently. Thus, the government

appointed American universities to develop foreign language programs for military personnel (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 50). One main aspect of this "Army Method" was intensive oral drilling (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 51). Moreover, as the United States emerged as international power, there was a growing demand for teaching English to immigrants and foreign students. In the Audiolingual method most emphasis was put on the "mastery of the formal properties of language", which means good grammatical habits (Dendrinos 1992: 113). Grammar or 'structure' was the starting point of teaching and language was manifested by its basic sentence patterns and grammatical structures (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 52). Language was mainly taught through intensive oral drilling and by paying attention to pronunciation. As can be observed, the Audiolingual Method is quite similar to SLT. However, the two methods and their underlying approaches developed independently. The major difference between the two approaches is that the American one was closely connected to American structural linguistics and its applied linguistic applications.

The Audiolingual Approach consisted of remarkable linguistic analysis but contained very little pedagogy. The Aural-Oral Approach, which was proposed by linguists at Michigan and other universities, emphasized the priority of aural training in language teaching. Through the inclusion of the Aural-Oral Approach, insights taken form behaviorist psychology and contrastive analysis the Audiolingual Method was developed (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 53).[3]

Approach

The theory of language underlying Audiolingualism is structural linguistics. The theory was proposed by American linguists in the 1950s and was a reaction to traditional grammar teaching. In structural linguistics language was seen as system of related elements for the encoding of meaning (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 54-55). The elements were of a phonemic, morphological and

[3] Contrastive analysis of two languages: Potential problems concerning differences in grammar and phonology of the two languages could be predicted more easily (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 52).

syntactic nature and were structurally interrelated. Therefore language learning meant the learning of the elements of the language and the rules by which the elements could be combined. Another very important aspect of structural linguistics is the primacy of speech: “speech is language” (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 55). Similarly to SLT, it was argued that children learn to speak before to write and hence speech should have a priority in foreign language teaching as well (Dendrinos 1992: 115; Richards & Rodgers 2007: 55).

In the period in which the Audiolingual Method was developed the school of American psychology, termed behavioral psychology, was said to explain all the processes of human learning (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 56). It considered language simply as form of behavior to be learned through the formation of correct speech habits (Thornbury 2000: 21). This learning theory was the basis of Audiolingualism and had the goal to duplicate native language habits in learners through a stimulus-response-reinforcement teaching methodology (Dendrinos 1992: 114). These three central elements, stimulus, response and reinforcement, fulfilled different functions: the stimulus serves to elicit a behavior of a student, the student’s response is caused by a stimulus and reinforcement serves to grade the response as being appropriate or inappropriate (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 56). Thus reinforcement encourages or discourages repetition of the given answer by the student. Reinforcement maybe is the most important of the three components since it increases the possibility that the desired behavior of the student will occur again and finally become a habit. It is the approval of the teacher or fellow students that tells the pupil if his behavior was appropriate or inappropriate (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 56). The stimulus-response-reinforcement scheme is visually well-described by Richards and Rodgers below:

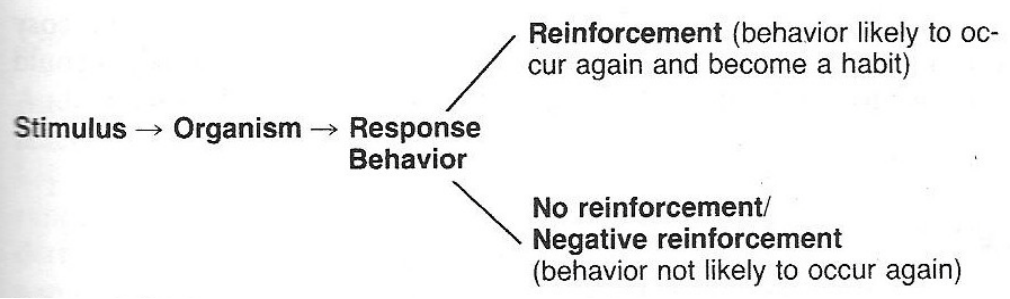


Figure 2

(Richards & Rodgers 2007: 57)

Design

The Audiolingual method required a complete reorganization of the foreign language teaching curriculum. A return to speech-based instruction was proposed with the main goal of oral proficiency and the dismissal of the study of grammar or literature as main goals of foreign language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 58). According to Thornbury (2000: 21), although explicit grammar teaching was rejected, the sentence patterns to be learned were nevertheless grammatical in origin. The objectives of the Audiolingualism were a focus on oral skills in the early stages of learning with the gradual inclusion of other skills as learning develops (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 58). Oral proficiency was understood in terms of accurate pronunciation and grammar and the ability to answer quickly and accurately in speech situations such as conversations (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 58).

Audiolingualism is linguistic, or structure-based. Hence its syllabus is a linguistic one (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 59). According to Dendrinos (1992: 113) it contains items of grammar and syntax, phonology and lexicon of the target language. Thornbury (2000: 21) writes that the Audiolingual syllabus consists of sentence patterns, which need to be practiced in class through pattern-practice drills. The four language skills are taught in the order of listening, speaking, reading and writing (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 59). Listening shall help the student to identify basic sound patterns. In early stages language is usually presented exclusively orally (59). After the student

has recognized and differentiated between the heard sound patterns, he or she has to imitate, repeat and memorize them (Brooks 1964: 50). Only after the student has mastered these patterns his or her vocabulary will be enlarged as well. Further, accuracy should be achieved before fluency (Brooks 1964: 50). When reading and writing is introduced, students learn to read and write only what they have already mastered orally. Generally, in speaking and writing, the risk of making mistakes should be kept to an absolute minimum (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 59).

Basic learning and teaching exercises of the Audiolingual Method are dialogues and drills. Through dialogues structures are contextualized and cultural aspects of the target language can be included as well. Moreover, dialogues are used for repetition and memorization of sentence structures. Correct pronunciation, stress, speech rhythm and intonation are seen as crucial. After the students have memorized the dialogue, specific grammatical patterns are selected and practiced in pattern-practice drills (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 59). Richards and Rodgers point out that “the use of drills and pattern practice is a distinctive feature of the Audiolingual Method” (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 60). Further, Richards and Rodgers as well as Dendrinos mention various kinds of drills, such as repetition drills, completion drills, substitution drills, etc. (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 60-62; Dendrinos 1992: 114-115). The drills of the four ELT textbooks analyzed are mainly repetition drills in which students repeat utterances aloud as soon as he or she has heard it (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 60). However, in a certain number of drills of the textbook analysis students hear a conversation, a song or a couple of sentences before they have to repeat them. Hence, there is no one-to-one match between the drills of the ELT textbooks analyzed and the category of repetition drills as mentioned by Richards and Rodgers. The other types of drills mentioned by them clearly do not correspond to the drills in the textbooks. Hence, in the textbook analysis the category of drills will not be differentiated and analyzed in general and not according to these types just mentioned.

The role of the learner in Audiolingualism was a reactive one. He has to respond to stimuli and thus has little control over the content, pace or style of learning. In behaviorist learning theory the learner is seen as organism that produces correct responses through the teaching techniques proposed by the method. Hence Audiolingualism, as SLT, is a teacher-dominated method. The teacher plays the more active part, as he is central in the learning and teaching process (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 62). According to Richards and Rodgers "the teacher models the target language, controls the direction and pace of learning, and monitors and corrects the learners' performance" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 62). Language learning is viewed as the outcome of verbal interaction between the teacher and the students (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 63).

The instructional material used in the Audiolingual Method was therefore teacher-oriented as well. Textbooks for students were often introduced after the elementary learning stages of the pupils, in which pupils' tasks were mainly to listen, repeat and respond. When textbooks are introduced to students, they usually contain dialogues and drilling exercises. Moreover, tape or CD recordings and audiovisual material are crucial in an Audiolingual course (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 63).

Procedure

The process of teaching mainly focuses on intensive oral instruction. Students are supposed to produce immediate and accurate speech. Only little time is spent for the explanation of grammatical structures or talking about the target language. Usually the target language is the medium of instruction and translation exercises as well as other uses of the learners' native language are dismissed (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 64). According to Richards and Rodgers (2007: 64) in typical lessons students first hear a model dialogue, which they have to repeat and to memorize. Then, the dialogue may be acted out by the students (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 65). After that, key structures of the dialogue are selected and practiced in the form of pattern drills. After

that, different follow-up activities may follow, including other language skills as well (Richards and Rodgers 2007: 65).

Dendrinos (1992: 115) writes that in a typical lesson language patterns, which are related to specific themes, may be first presented as well. Students have to learn these by heart and only after they have done so does the teacher provide the literal meaning of the learned patterns, avoiding the mother tongue at all costs. Then follow drills in which the language structures are further practiced. After that a reading passage may follow, which is accompanied by comprehension questions. Moreover, a conversation is also presented in a typical unit, which has to be memorized and then acted out by students (Dendrinos 1992: 115). Finally, more drills follow which are less controlled as well as a series of completion, fill-in and reconstruction exercises providing students with further practice (Dendrinos 1992: 116). Dendrinos (1992: 114) further distinguishes between the Audiolingual Approach and the Audiovisual Approach. She points out that in the Audiovisual Approach many illustrations complement the new language so that pupils are always aware of the meaning of the language and hence "parrot-learning" is tried to be avoided more deliberately (Dendrinos 1992: 114-116). In this research paper the term Audiolingualism or Audiolingual Method will be used including both of these forms.

The decline of Audiolingualism

Audiolingualism was most popular in the 1960s, particularly in the United States. Nevertheless, the method was criticized on the one hand because the theories of language and learning were viewed as unsound and secondly because the effects on language learning did not show as the method promised, Richards and Rodgers point out (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 65). The main problem was that students could not transfer the skills learned in class to communicative real life situations. On the theoretical basis, critique mainly resulted from changes in American linguistic theory in the 1960s. The well-known linguist Noam Chomsky rejected both the structural approach to

language teaching as well as behaviorist learning theory (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 65). According to Chomsky

> [o]rdinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy (Chomsky 1966: 153 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 65).

Chomsky further argued that languages were not learned by repetition but were "generated" from the students underlying knowledge of abstract rules (Chomsky 1966: 153 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 66). By this he meant a conscious focus on grammar and the learning of grammar rules and a focus on the "abstract mental processes in learning" rather than seeing learning just as habit formation (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 66).

It is obvious that there are many similarities between Audiolingualism and SLT (67). The order in which language skills are introduced, namely from aural and oral to reading and writing, the focus on accuracy via drills and practice of basic sentence patterns are common to both methods. However, Richards and Rodgers state that "Situational Language Teaching was a development of the earlier Direct Method […] and does not have the strong ties to linguistic and behavioral psychology that characterize Audiolingualism" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 67). The common views of the two methods on language theory and learning were, although quite similar, developed from different traditions (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 67). Nevertheless, the criteria for the textbook analysis in this paper will be the same for both methods since they are very similar in terms of teaching methodology, which is relevant in the textbook analysis of this paper. The criteria derived from Situational Language Teaching and Audiolingualism are the following:

- drilling exercises (repetition of structures, including dialogues with the instruction to repeat them or to act them out)
- no use of the L1 (in explaining grammar rules)

- inductive grammar teaching[4]
- main focus on listening and speaking skills

2.9. Alternative and Contemporary Approaches and Methods to Language Teaching

Although Chomsky's theory was quite influential no methodological guidelines emerged for it and the lack of an alternative method to the Audiolingual Method led to a period of experimentation and also some confusion in language teaching in the 1970s and 1980s (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 66-67). Several alternative methods and approaches were proposed but none of them influenced mainstream language teaching and foreign language teaching with a lasting effect. These alternative methods include Total Physical Response, the Silent Way and Counseling-Learning. According to Richards & Rodgers (2007: 67), these proposals attracted some attention, but never reached a significant level of acceptance. Other proposals have mirrored developments in general education and other fields of study outside language teaching. These proposals are Whole Language, Multiple Intelligences, Neurolinguistic Programming, Competency-Based Language Teaching and Cooperative Language Learning (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 67). Richards and Rodgers point out that

> Mainstream language teaching since the 1980s, however, has generally drawn on contemporary theories of language and second language acquisition as a basis for teaching proposals. The Lexical Approach, Communicative Language Teaching, the Natural Approach, Content-Based Teaching, and Task-Based Teaching are representative of this last group (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 67).

These contemporary methods and approaches to language teaching will be discussed in this research paper in detail, since they are relevant for the textbook analysis in chapter four. The methods and approaches that Richards and Rodgers have labeled alternative, will not be described in this paper nor

[4] In an inductive approach first language examples are presented from which a rule is inferred. For more detailed explanation see Textbook Analysis.

included in the textbook analysis, since they have not had much impact on mainstream language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 67).

2.10. Current Influential Approaches and Methods in Foreign Language Teaching

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), as discussed on the following pages, stands for a concept of language teaching that focuses on the functional and communicative potential of language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 153). CLT is an approach that can be interpreted and adapted in many different ways (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 157). According to Richards & Rodgers, this is due to the fact that teachers and language teaching experts from "different educational traditions can identify with it, and consequently interpret it in different ways" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 157). Nevertheless, the key characteristic of Communicative Language Teaching is communication: "Language learning is learning to communicate" (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983: 91).

The Natural Approach is another current approach to language teaching, although not as widely established as CLT. Krashen's theories of language learning, which underlie this approach, have had a great effect on the debate about language learning theories, particularly in the United States. The issues addressed by the Natural Approach are still in the centre of debates about learning methods today (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 151). Cooperative Language Learning, Richards & Rodgers (2007: 151) point out, has its origins outside of language teaching, however is compatible with the principles of CLT and thus a straightforward way of foreign language teaching and learning. Content-Based Teaching, on the other hand, is "a logical development of some of the core principles of Communicative Language Teaching, particularly those that relate to the role of meaning in language learning" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 151). Task-Based Teaching can be seen as development of a communicative methodology, in which communicative

methodology and recent theories of second language acquisition are combined (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 151).

On the following pages, CLT, the Natural Approach, the Lexical Approach, Content-Based Teaching and Task-Based Teaching will be described more closely, since these are the current approaches that have had a more lasting effect on foreign language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 67).

2.11. Communicative Language Teaching

The origins of CLT can be found in changes in the British language teaching tradition (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 153). The Situational Approach (see SLT) had run its course and "predicting language on the basis of situational events" was called into question (Howatt 1984: 280). According to Dendrinos (1992: 116) it was mainly criticized that predicting which language students would need to use in specific situations was extremely difficult. Further it is also very hard to say which specific situations students will be likely to encounter in their later life or which will be important in their later profession (Dendrinos 1992: 116). Moreover, Noam Chomsky stressed in his book *Syntactic Structures* the importance of the creative and unique potential of language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 153). At the time, British linguists further viewed the communicative and functional potential of language as central in foreign language teaching and language teaching in general. They saw it more useful to focus primarily on communicative proficiency and not, as proposed in SLT and Audiolingualism, on the mastery of grammatical structures (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 153).

According to Richards & Rodgers (2007: 155), today European and American language teaching experts view CLT as an approach, and not a method which has communicative competence as its goal of language teaching and which seeks to include all of the four language skills into communicative exercises.[5]

[5] CLT is considered as an approach and not a method since it is compatible with many teaching methods. There is no specific teaching methodology available for CLT. The

The great coverage of the Communicative Approach and the great range of teaching and learning procedures and exercises compatible with it, however, make it hard to compare CLT to other approaches and methods: for some CLT simply means the teaching of grammar and functions, for others it means using classroom procedures such as pair or group work, in which a problem has to be solved or an information-gap between the two parties has to be mastered (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 155).

Some scholars, such as Thornbury or Howatt distinguish between a "weak" or "shallow-end" version of CLT and a "strong" or "deep-end" version of CLT (Howatt 1984: 279; Thornbury 2000: 22). In *weak* or *shallow-end* CLT, which is according to the authors today's standard, grammar is still the main aspect of the syllabus, although it is often "dressed up in functional labels: *asking the way, talking about yourself, making future plans etc*." (Thornbury 2000: 22). Some of these functions just cited are also found in some of the ELT textbooks analyzed, as shall be seen later in the analysis part of this paper. In the *strong* version, which Thornbury (2000: 22) referred to as *deep-end* CLT, explicit grammar instruction is rejected and instead a syllabus of tasks is proposed. It is no wonder that this was the predecessor of the Task-Based Approach to language teaching, Thornbury points out (Thornbury 2000: 22). The Task-Based Approach to language teaching will be discussed later in this chapter. In this text rather the *shallow-end* or *weak* version of CLT will be described. After having introduced many different views on CLT, what can definitely be stated is that CLT involves some form of communication, which is manifested in communicative exercises and moreover the functional potential of language is viewed as crucial (c.f. Richards & Rodgers 2007: 153).

Approach

availability of a teaching methodology would be typical for a method (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 172).

The underlying theory of language of CLT logically views language as communication. The goal of teaching is to develop communicative competence (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 159). There are rules and regularities governing the relationship between the linguistic form of a message and other constituent parts of the speech event. Hymes points out that "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (Hymes 1971: 278). For him rules of use are rules of appropriacy linking forms of language to contextual features (Hymes 1971: 279). These rules depend on the roles and relationships of the participants, the physical setting, the psychological scene, the topic, the purpose, the attitudinal key, the channel of communication, the code of language variety, the norms of interaction, the physical distance, the norms of interpretation and the genre (Hymes 1971: 278). The aim clearly is to develop learners' communicative competence (Dendrinos 1992: 118). Referring to the role of grammar Thornbury states that

> Communicative competence involves knowing how to use the grammar and vocabulary of the language to achieve communicative goals, and knowing how to do this in a socially appropriate way (Thornbury 2000: 18).

In contrast to the various works that have been written on the theory of language very little has been written on the theory of learning in CLT (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 161). However, some CLT practices can be defined as theories of learning: according to Richards and Rodgers (2007: 161), these are the communication principle (exercises that emphasize real communication promote learning), the task principle (exercises in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks encourage learning) and the meaningfulness principle (meaningful language supports the learning process) (c.f. Johnson 1983).[6] Others have tried rather to describe theories of the language learning process, which are compatible with CLT. For example Steven Krashen's theory of language learning and acquisition, which is not directly associated with CLT, stresses that language learning takes place by using language communicatively (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 161-162).

[6] Task principle: see also Task-Based Language Teaching.

Design

The objectives of CLT, as represented in the curriculum, incorporate aspects of communicative competence in accordance with learners' proficiency level and their communicative needs. Learners' needs are defined in terms of four language skills of reading, listening, writing and speaking, and each skill is approached from a communicative perspective (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 163). Wilkins (1983) divided the syllabus into two main parts, namely semantic-grammatical categories and categories of communicative functions. His work was adopted by the Council of Europe and expanded in terms of the situations in which adult learners might typically be involved (travel, business, etc.), the topics of interest (education, shopping, etc.), the language functions learners might have to perform (requesting information, describing things, agreeing and disagreeing, etc.) the notions used in communication (time, frequency, etc.) and finally the needed vocabulary and grammar for performing these speech acts (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 163). The outcome was published in *Threshold Level English* by van Ek (1980). According to Richards & Rodgers the *Threshold Level* should "specify what was needed in order to be able to achieve a reasonable degree of communicative proficiency in a foreign language, including the language items needed" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 163). However, this type of syllabus was also criticized. For example, Widdowson (1980) expressed the opinion that the Functional-Notional Approach does not deal with language in context but only with concepts and functions in idealized isolation. He states that notional syllabuses "are notional rather than structural isolations, but they are isolates all the same (Widdowson 1980: 248). Such teaching materials do not take into account that

> communication does not take place through the linguistic exponence of concepts or functions as self-contained units of meaning, but as discourse whereby meanings are negotiated through interaction (Dendrinos 1992: 119).

The learners are seen as individuals with unique interests, styles of learning, needs and goals, which should be considered in instructional materials and by the teacher (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 158). According to Breen and Candlin

the CLT learner is a “negotiator – between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning” (Breen & Candlin 1980: 110). Further, within the group the learner is joint negotiator, as for example in classroom procedures and group work (Breen & Candlin 1980: 110). Not surprisingly it is also argued that some of these CLT principles may cause confusion among learners. This is especially the case, when the preconceptions of learners of what teaching and learning should be like are not met (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 166). Therefore learning procedures have to be introduced consciously and carefully. For Richards and Rodgers (2007: 167) in CLT the teacher takes over the roles of needs analyst, counselor and group process manager: the teacher is responsible for finding out about learners’ language needs. This can be done via one-to-one discussions with students, via a needs assessment test or any other procedure that might help the teacher to find out about students’ needs. (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 167). As counselor the teacher is supposed to

> exemplify an effective communicator seeking to maximize the meshing of speaker intention and hearer interpretation, through the use of paraphrase, confirmation, and feedback (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 168).

As group process manager the teacher has to organize the classroom as setting in which communication and communicative activities can take place. Further the teacher monitors group processes, encourages students to speak and helps students in mastering gaps in vocabulary, grammar and communication strategies (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 168).

The role of instructional materials in CLT is quite clear: they have to promote communicative language use. Richards and Rodgers (2007: 168) have defined three kinds of materials in CLT: text-based materials, task-based materials and *realia*. Text-based materials are for example textbooks that are written around a mainly structural syllabus, but have adapted their exercises to be regarded as communicative (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 169). Task-based materials are role plays, games and communication exercises in which students have to perform certain tasks (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 169). *Realia* are authentic, real life materials. They contain language like it is

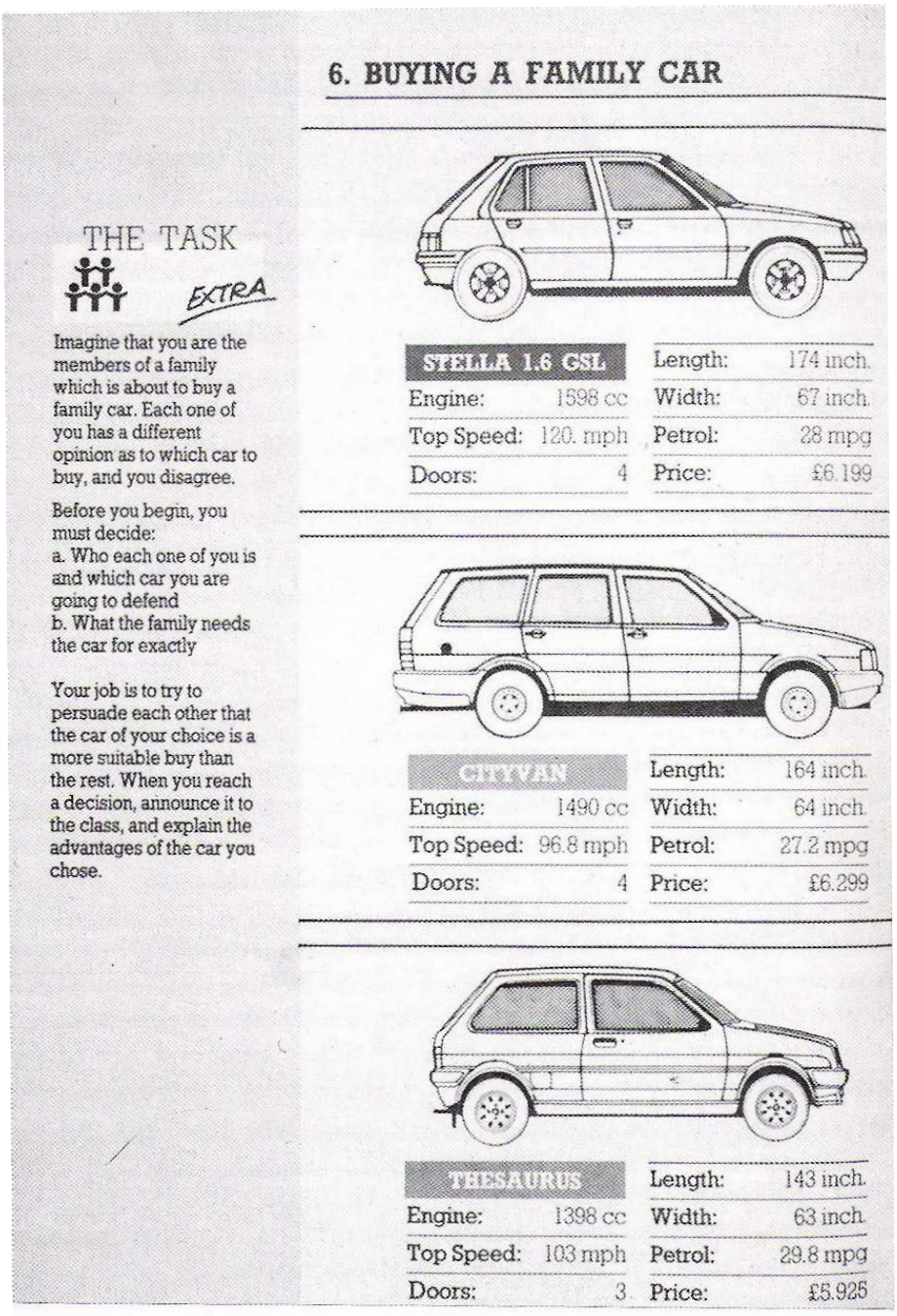
actually used in real life. Examples of *realia* are signs, magazines, advertisements, newspapers, etc. (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 170). The difference between text-based and task-based materials according to Richards and Rodgers is quite fuzzy and ambiguous, since it is not clear if, for example, pair work is regarded as text-based or task-based material or as both. Hence in this paper exercises will be regarded as communicative if at least two parties are involved, which is usually the case in group or pair work.

Procedure

According to Richards and Rodgers (2007: 170) a number of procedures can be brought in connection with CLT as for example group work, language games or role plays. However, none of these exercises are used in CLT classes exclusively. In a typical lesson teaching points such as for example the function “making a suggestion” are introduced via dialogues. Then the grammatical items are practiced in isolation. After the controlled practice freer activities are provided such as group or pair work. In group and pair work the practice of the language functions and forms is encouraged. Further the context and situation in which the dialogues and exercises take place are described as well: people, roles, setting, topic and degree of formality or informality of the language used (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 170-171). Richards and Rodgers (2007: 171) observe that such teaching procedures have much in common with those adhering to Audiolingualism or SLT. According to them “traditional procedures are not rejected but are reinterpreted and extended” in CLT (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 171).

Others such as Savignon (1983) reject that learners should first practice items in a controlled way before striving for freer production. She suggests that communicative practice should be given from the beginning (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 172). Dendrinos (1992: 121) critically comments that textbooks claiming to be communicative frequently include exercises which drill in language patterns as realizations of particular language functions. However, such exercises are in fact not in any significant way different from those of a structurally based textbook concerned exclusively with learners’ ability to

produce grammatically correct sentences (Dendrinos 1992: 121). In order to make an activity really communicative, Dendrinos (1992: 122) emphasizes that learners need to be provided with the sociolinguistic parameters of the communicative event, such as setting, scene, topic, purpose, roles and relationships of the participants. Then learners could develop the knowledge necessary in order to use language appropriately (Dendrinos 1992: 122). An example of such an exercise is the following:



6. BUYING A FAMILY CAR

THE TASK

EXTRA

Imagine that you are the members of a family which is about to buy a family car. Each one of you has a different opinion as to which car to buy, and you disagree.

Before you begin, you must decide:
a. Who each one of you is and which car you are going to defend
b. What the family needs the car for exactly

Your job is to try to persuade each other that the car of your choice is a more suitable buy than the rest. When you reach a decision, announce it to the class, and explain the advantages of the car you chose.

STELLA 1.6 GSL			
Engine:	1598 cc	Length:	174 inch.
Top Speed:	120. mph	Width:	67 inch.
Doors:	4	Petrol:	28 mpg
		Price:	£6.199

CITYVAN			
Engine:	1490 cc	Length:	164 inch.
Top Speed:	96.8 mph	Width:	64 inch.
Doors:	4	Petrol:	27.2 mpg
		Price:	£6.299

THESAURUS			
Engine:	1398 cc	Length:	143 inch.
Top Speed:	103 mph	Width:	63 inch.
Doors:	3	Petrol:	29.8 mpg
		Price:	£5.925

Figure 3 (Dendrinos 1992: 61)

Conclusion CLT

CLT is an approach, which emphasizes the communicative potential of language and which is compatible with a great variety of classroom procedures and which according to Richards and Rodgers (2007: 172) can be best described by the following principles:

- Learners learn a language through using it to communicate.
- Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities.
- Fluency is an important dimension of communication.
- Communication involves the integration of different language skills
- Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 172).

Further, CLT includes procedures which identify learners' needs and classroom exercises which promote communication such as group work, task-work, information-gap activities etc. (Richards & Rodgers: 173). Richards and Rodgers (2007: 173) state that these principles today are largely accepted in foreign language teaching, also because they are very general. According to them, a large number of textbooks and other teaching materials have been based on principles of CLT, although to different degrees (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 173). Dendrinos (1992: 123), however, supports the view that communication is an unpredictable process and therefore attempts to predict learners' communicative needs do not make much sense: the Communicative Approach claims to consider learner's individual needs since it is related to what learners wish and are able to do. However, Dendrinos argues, this is not the case because curricula and syllabuses are designed for large groups of pupils who are presumed to have common needs because of their similar characteristics like their age. Furthermore, the interests of the market also have their say on the topic (Dendrinos1992: 124). Especially multinational publishers want to appeal with their textbooks to a large audience (Dendrinos 1992: 124).

She points out that textbooks in which such predictions of communicative needs of students are taken into account provide

only samples of stereotypical exchanges among people in [their] dialogues and will never allow learners to develop the verbal strategies, which go along with being a person in a new language (Di Pietro 1976: 53 quoted in Dendrinos, 124).

Nevertheless CLT has influenced many other approaches and methods to language teaching as will be seen on the following pages (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 174). After having described and discussed different views on Communicative Language Teaching in great detail a number of generally accepted criteria will be derived form this approach for the textbook analysis in this paper:

- group or pair exercises (debates, discussions, role plays, tasks, etc.)
- inductive grammar teaching
- language functions (grammar presented in the form of language functions)
- contextualized grammar exercises (forms of language linked to contextual features)
- learner-oriented exercises

2.12. The Natural Approach

The Natural Approach was developed by Tracy Terrell, a Spanish teacher in California and by the well-known applied linguist Steven Krashen (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 178). Terrell introduced, in her opinion, a new philosophy on language teaching, which she called the Natural Approach (Terrell 1982: 121). Krashen provided with his influential theory of second language acquisition the theoretical base for the Natural Approach. He believed that people are naturally equipped for language acquisition (Thornbury 2000: 21). Together they published their book *The Natural Approach* (1984). Main principles of the approach were that language was used in communicative situations without any help of the mother tongue and grammar teaching was rejected. Although quite similar at first glance, the Natural Approach has to be distinguished from

the Direct Method (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 178).[7] What they have in common is that both try to replicate the conditions of first language acquisition (Thornbury 2000: 21).

However, in the Natural Approach less attention is given to

> teacher monologues, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers, and less focus on accurate production of the target-language sentences (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 179).

In the Natural Approach input rather than practice is in the main focus of teaching and learning (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 179). Innate processes would then convert this input into output (Thornbury 2000: 21). The central role of comprehension in the Natural Approach links it to comprehension-based approaches, such as the Total Physical Response Method (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 179).

Approach

Regarding the theory of language underlying the Natural Approach Krashen and Terrell view communication as main function of language. Thus they call their approach a communicative approach to language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 179). Further, they emphasize the importance of meaning, since according to them the lexicon mainly defines language and grammar only "inconsequently" regulates how the lexicon has to be used to produce messages (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 180). Nevertheless lexical items in messages or texts are grammatically structured and more complex messages or texts entail more complex grammar. Krashen and Terrell note that there are grammatical structures involved, however in their view it is not necessary to explicitly teach grammar, since it is picked up like children pick up the grammar of their native language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 180).

[7] The Direct Method has been discussed earlier in this chapter.

Krashen's theory of language acquisition provides the theory of learning of the Natural Approach. He lists five main hypothesis in his theory which will be briefly described: in his Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis he states that acquisition is an unconscious process and the natural way of learning a language, like in children learning their first language. It involves processes that develop language proficiency through understanding language and meaningful communication. Learning, on the other hand, is a process in which language rules are consciously developed. Formal teaching as for example correcting errors helps learners to develop "learned" rules. However, learning cannot lead to acquisition. In his Monitor Hypothesis Krashen states that conscious learning can only function as a monitor or editor that controls and repairs the output of the acquired linguistic system. He claims that conscious learning has only this monitor function (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 181).

In the Natural Order Hypothesis Krashen describes that grammatical structures are acquired in a predictable and hence natural order. He backs up this statement by research findings in first language acquisition. He further points out that a similar natural order is found in second language acquisition. In the Input Hypothesis Krashen discusses the relationship between input and acquisition. According to him, acquisition best takes place when learners are exposed to input that is "slightly beyond their current level of competence" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 182). Krashen calls this input in combination with the situation, context and the students' knowledge of the world *comprehensible input*. Krashen's 5th hypothesis is the Affective Filter Hypothesis. It states that the learner's emotional state or attitude strongly affects learning. Successful learning also depends considerably on the motivation, self-confidence and anxiety of learners. Thus a relaxed and secure atmosphere should exist in class (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 182-183).

Design

Concerning the syllabus, typical aims for language classes primarily emphasize oral communication skills, such as requesting information, obtaining lodging in a hotel, etc. (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 67). Communication goals are described in terms of situations, functions and topics, which are most likely to be useful and interesting for beginners (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 67). Therefore the aims of a class are “based on an assessment of student needs” (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 71).

The learning and teaching activities of the Natural Approach focus mainly on the presentation of comprehensible input in the target language. To minimize anxiety among learners they do not have to say anything until they feel ready to do so. Until then they have to respond to teacher commands or questions in other ways, for example physically (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 185). Charts, pictures, advertisements or other *realia* serve as form of comprehensible input and can be used by the teacher to ask questions which students at the beginning respond with yes or no or with single words (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 186). Pair and group work may also be carried out in class in which meaningful communication takes place. Command-techniques, borrowed from Total Physical Response, are implemented in classrooms as well. Further, Direct Method exercises such as mime, gesture and context are also used to receive answers form learners. Richards and Rodgers (2007: 186) point out that in the end there is nothing new in the Natural Approach concerning teaching procedures and techniques. Hence the approach is characterized by

> the use of familiar techniques within the framework of a method that focuses on providing comprehensible input and a classroom environment that cues comprehension of input, minimizes learner anxiety, and maximizes learner self-confidence (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 186).

The learner role in the Natural Approach is quite active since the learner decides on when he feels ready to speak, what to speak about and which linguistic expressions to use (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 186). The teacher on

the other hand has the function to provide the comprehensible input for the learners. Moreover, the teacher has to create a friendly and interesting class atmosphere (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 187). He or she also has to decide on group sizes, content and context of the exercises carried out (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 188). The instructional materials have the main function of making classroom activities meaningful by supplying situations and contexts, which help the learners to understand and hence acquire (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 55). Pictures and other visuals are often used in classrooms based on the Natural Approach as well as games, which are regarded as useful activities, since students then concentrate on what they are doing more deliberately and are using the language as tool to play the game (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 188). However, the Natural Approach is quite demanding for the teacher since he or she has to collect and select materials, which provide learners with comprehensible input (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 188).

Procedure

The activities suggested in the Natural Approach are all essential components in other approaches and methods such as SLT, CLT, Total Physical Response and other methods (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 189). This can be seen by looking at a typical lesson: first of all Total Physical Response commands are given to which students have to respond physically such as “first touch your nose, then stand up” (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 76). Then students have to answer questions as for example “What is your name?” with single words (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 76). Visuals such as magazine pictures are used to introduce new vocabulary items (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 189). Then the new vocabulary is combined with commands of the Total Physical Response Method such as “Jim, find the picture of the little girl with her dog and give it to the woman with the pink blouse” (Krashen & Terrell 1983: 77). All these activities have in common that they should provide learners with a flow of comprehensible input and provide the necessary vocabulary, appropriate gestures, context, repetition and paraphrase to make sure that students understand the input (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 190).

To sum up, the Natural Approach does not introduce any new teaching procedures and techniques. It rejects explicit grammar instruction and the organization of the syllabus around grammatical categories. The Natural Approach can be viewed as a method that “emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful practice activities, rather than production of grammatically perfect utterances and sentences” (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 190). Since the method does not introduce any innovations in terms of language teaching materials or grammar teaching materials, the method will not be considered in the analysis part of this paper (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 190).

2.13. Content-Based Instruction

Developed in the 1980s Content Based Instruction (CBI) draws on principles of CLT and is a further development of it (Richards & Rodgers, 204). The difference between CBI and CLT, however, lies in their focus (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 137). In CLT a lesson is typically centered on giving students opportunities to practice the learned communicative functions. CBI on the other hand does not mainly focus on functions or on any other language item but it gives “priority to process over predetermined linguistic content“ (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 137). In the words of Howatt, rather than „learning to use English“ pupils „use English to learn it“ (Howatt 1984: 279). A CBI course is typically organized around the content, the subject matter to be taught and not a linguistic, grammatical or other syllabus type (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 204). As the main focus of the CBI approach lies on the teaching of content it is easy to conclude that the teaching aim is to convey meaningful content to students (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 204). Language is used to teach the subject matter and the language itself is acquired “as a by-product of learning about real-world content” (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 205).

Figure 4

(Larsen-Freeman 1986: 138)

Henry Widdowson (1978) advocates the implication of CBI in language classes and states that in schools topics from other subjects should be taught in English. According to him

> simple experiments in physics and chemistry, biological processes in plants and animals, map-drawing, descriptions of historical events and so on

should be taught in English (Widdowson 1984: 16). The reason for adopting such a teaching methodology is according to Widdowson that

> if such a procedure were adopted, the difficulties associated with the presentation of language use in the classroom would, to a considerable degree, disappear (Widdowson 1984: 16).

In other words, the teacher would not have to think about how to place the language learned in class in a meaningful context. However, as shall be seen later, the CBI teacher has to carry out a number of other quite demanding tasks. CBI is a common teaching practice in many different areas of language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 205). Nevertheless, as Larsen-Freeman points out, “Using content from other disciplines in language courses is not a new idea” (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 137). For years there have been specialized language courses for particular professions or academic disciplines, which have included content relevant for them. For example, the

content of a language course for an airline pilot is different from the one for a computer scientist (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 137).

Approach

CBI is based on two basic principles:

- People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself.
- Content-Based Instruction better reflects learners' needs for learning a second language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 207).

In school the needs of the learners are the teaching content of other subjects (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 210). Concerning the underlying theory of language Richards and Rodgers propose three basic principles:

- language is text- and discourse based
- language use draws on integrated skills
- language is purposeful
  (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 208)

The first assumption holds that in discourse or in texts as they occur in the real word, language normally consists of more than single and isolated sentences, as practiced in some traditional language teaching exercises. Cohesion and coherence are important concepts within text and discourse. Thus, it makes sense to teach texts such as letters, reports, essays etc. or speech events such as meetings, lectures or discussions (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 208). The second assumption, that language draws on integrated skills, states that like in real communication outside the classroom more than one language skill at a time has to be carried out. Grammar is for example not an individual component in real communication but part of language and a component of other skills. Thus activities in CBI usually incorporate more than one skill to be practiced, since this best reflects language use in the real world. What concerns the teaching of grammar, in

CBI grammar can be presented, however it is the teacher's task to "identify relevant grammatical and other linguistic focuses to complement the topic or theme of the activities" (Richards & Rodgers, 2007: 208). Hence, explicit grammar teaching is compatible with CBI. The third assumption states that language is purposeful: this means that language is used for specific purposes such as academic or social ones. The purpose gives direction, shape and meaning to discourse and text. According to Richards and Rodgers (2007: 208) learners can benefit far more when the purpose is in tune with the learners' own interests. However, they point out, to make the learning content comprehensible for students teachers need to make adjustments and simplifications, like native speakers do when talking to foreigners (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 209). Similarly Larsen-Freeman (1986: 138) states that when students study subjects in a nonnative language they will need a great amount of assistance in understanding subject matter texts. These modifications by the teacher include:

Regarding the theory of learning CBI is based on the already cited two core principles: students learn a foreign language more successfully when the focus is on acquiring information and not on the language itself (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 209). This statement is supported by a number of studies such as the one by Scott (1974 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 209). The second principle, that CBI better reflects learners' needs for learning a foreign language is supported by the view that students learn a second language most successfully

when the information they are acquiring is perceived as interesting, useful, and leading to a desired goal (Richards and Rodgers 2007: 209).

This claim is as well backed by studies that justify the increase of motivation among learners when the learning content and goal of learning are perceived as relevant and interesting (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 209). Another principle in learning theory is that "some content areas are more useful as a basis for language learning than others" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 211). For example, geography is often one of the first topics of a CBI course, since the subject is

“highly visual, spatial and contextual; it lends itself to the use of maps, charts, and *realia*, and the language tends to be descriptive in nature with use of the ‘to be,’ cognates and proper names” (Corin quoted in Stryker and Leaver 1997: 288). This example of teaching content clearly shows that grammar has its place in the selection of topics, since at the beginning of a language course a teacher would rather choose language containing simpler grammatical structures than at an advanced level.

When instruction reflects learners’ needs, as the second principle introduced at the beginning suggests, students learn best. This assumption emphasizes the CBI concept and if a CBI approach is chosen in school for example, the needs of the students are those of the curriculum content of the different subjects (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 210). A last principle of the learning theory of CBI is that teaching should build on the previous experiences of the learners (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 211). The teacher has to start a lesson from the point where the students are “standing”, in other words from what they already know about the content (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 211). This learning principle is quite common, not only in language teaching but also in other subjects in school.

Design

As already stated, the objectives of a CBI course are described in terms of the content to be taught. Language learning on the other hand takes place more or less incidentally (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 211). The syllabus in CBI is usually derived form the content areas to be covered and is thus a theme-based one. As the name already suggests the syllabus is built around specific topics and subtopics (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 212). According to Larsen-Freeman (1986: 138), the selection and sequencing of language items depends on the communicative needs of the learners and is not predetermined by the syllabus. She further states that there must be clear language objectives as well, besides the content learning objectives since students need a great amount of assistance in understanding the non-native language content (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 138). Brinton et al. (1989: 35) state

that the topics or units of the syllabus are designed and sequenced so that they "relate to one another so as to create a cohesive transition of certain skills, vocabulary, structures, and concepts" (Brinton et al. 1989: 35). Typically, the first units are themes of generally high interest that are easily accessible. Later units deal with more complex themes that require the mastery of certain skills, vocabulary, grammatical structures and concepts (Brinton et al. 1989: 35). This shows that grammar has its place in the CBI syllabus. As already stated, topics, which require more complex grammatical structures are typically introduced in later units.

Learner and teacher roles

The role of materials in CBI is quite straightforward:

> materials that facilitate language learning are the materials that are used typically with the subject matter of the content course (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 215).

It is suggested to teach a variety of material types as long as they are authentic. Authenticity can be understood in two ways: firstly, it refers to the teaching material used in native-language instruction. Secondly, it means any kind of material not originally produced for instruction, such as magazine and newspaper articles or any other media materials (Brinton et al. 1989: 17). Further, CBI the use of *realia* such as "tourist guidebooks, technical journals, railway timetables, newspaper ads, radio and TV broadcasts" etc. is recommended in CBI (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 215). The role of the textbook, if the textbook should have a place at all in a CBI class, is a rather insignificant one. Stryker and Leaver state that "textbooks are contrary to the very concept of CBI – and good language teaching in general" (Stryker & Leaver 1993: 295). Alongside the concept of authenticity, comprehensibility is another key concept in CBI. Instructional materials may have to be modified by the teacher in order to ensure maximum comprehension among students. This may include linguistic simplification or adding redundancy to text materials (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 215). According to Brinton et al. (1989:

17) this means providing guides and strategies for students which help them understand the materials.

Procedure

In a typical lesson students might study geography and English through content-based instruction (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 138). The teacher first asks the students what a globe is. Then the teacher takes out a globe and puts it on the desk and asks the pupils what they know about it (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 138). The teacher writes the answers of students on the blackboard (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 139). When students have problems explaining a concept the teacher supplies the missing language. Next, the teacher hands out a sheet that he or she has prepared based on the video 'Understanding Globes'. On the handout the most important vocabulary items are listed which the teacher says aloud and students have to listen. The handout also contains text in which students have to fill in blanks as they watch the video. After checking the answers the teacher draws the students' attention to particular verb patterns in the cloze. The teacher explains that these are examples of the present passive, which will be studied during the next lessons. He or she explains the function of the passive, namely that it is used to defocus the agent or doer of an action. Afterwards the teacher explains how latitude and longitude can be used to locate any place in the world. By saying "This city is located at latitude 60° north and longitude 11° east" (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 139) the teacher integrates the present passive and the content at the same time. Then students play a guessing game where in small groups students write down coordinates of five cities. The other students then have to guess the correct city (Larsen-Freeman 1986: 139). This sample lesson shows that grammar still is an important, if not the main feature, of it.

Conclusion

To sum up, CBI is an approach to second language teaching which is, according to Richards and Rodgers one of the "leading curricular approaches in language teaching" today (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 220). CBI is a

development of the Communicative Approach and, as the name suggests, focuses on the content to be taught, rather than on the language itself. Hence, instructional exercises that focus on language itself are generally rejected. Further, teaching and learning materials need to be authentic, in other words taken from the real world, such as articles of magazines, newspapers, etc. Textbooks are contrary to the principles of CBI and therefore principles of this approach are hardly found in textbooks. Nevertheless, in most ELT textbooks the teaching of content and not just language itself is today standard. Further, CBI also permits explicit grammar instruction, however the teacher is responsible for deciding when to do so. Grammar exercises, as analyzed in the four ELT textbooks, are not part of CBI and consequently the approach will not be considered in the textbook analysis of this paper. However, the principle of integrating of more than one skill into an exercise will be considered in the textbook analysis (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 220).

2.14. Task-Based Language Teaching

The Task-Based Approach to language teaching was introduced in the 1980s and is a logical development of CLT, since it draws on a number of CLT principles such as:

- Activities that involve real communication are essential for language learning
- Activities in which language is used for carrying out meaningful tasks promote learning (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 223)

In the Task-Based Approach (TBA) it is assumed that these principles can be best implemented in class through tasks (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 223). Advocates of the TBA argue that

[e]ngaging learners in task work provides a better context for the activation of learning processes than form-focused activities, and hence ultimately provides better opportunities for language learning to take place" (Richards & Rodgers, 223). In the TBA language tasks are the core unit of organization and instruction in language teaching (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 223).

The definition of a task varies from author to author, however, a generally accepted definition is that

a task is an activity or goal that is carried out using language, such as finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map and giving directions, making a telephone call, writing a letter, or reading a set of instructions and assembling a toy (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 224).

According to Skehan tasks

are activities which have meaning as their primary focus. Success in tasks is evaluated in terms of achievement of an outcome, and tasks generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use" (Skehan 1996: 20).
Feez differentiates between tasks which learners might need in real life and those that have a pedagogical purpose specific to the classroom (1998: 17 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 224).

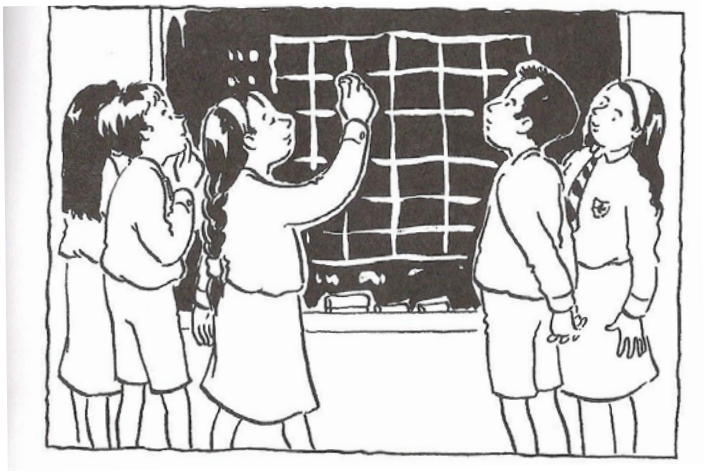


Figure 5
(Larsen-Freeman 1986: 145)

Approach

The TBA primarily draws on theories of learning, however several assumptions about the theory of language underlie Task-Based Language Teaching: firstly, it is viewed, that the main function of language is making meaning, as is expressed in other forms of CLT as well (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 226). Skehan argues that in carrying out tasks meaning is primary,

since it is the outcome in terms of content of the task that is being assessed (Skehan 1998: 98). Another principle of the TBA is that it incorporates structural, functional and interactional models of language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 226). For example, in determining the linguistic complexity of tasks, structural criteria are often employed for doing so, which is a very traditional way of sequencing language teaching material (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 227). Other researchers have proposed to focus on the interactional dimension of tasks: Pica, for example, distinguishes between interactional activity and communicative goal (1994 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 227). Another principle of Task-Based Language Teaching is that conversation is seen as key element in acquiring a second language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 228). Thus, the majority of tasks within the TBA involve conversation.

Concerning the theory of learning the TBA shares the general assumptions about the nature of language learning, that underlie CLT. Nevertheless, some additional learning principles are incorporated in the task-based theory of learning: many language teaching experts assume that both input and output processing are necessary for successful second language acquisition. They emphasize that comprehensible input alone, as proposed by Krashen (see Natural Approach) is not enough (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 228). Others considered the negotiation of meaning as the vital element in acquiring a second language (Plough and Gass 1993: 36). The negotiation of meaning also involves the learner's attention to certain aspects of utterances, as for example pronunciation, grammar, lexicon, etc. which need to be modified by the learner (Plough and Gass 1993: 36). Tasks are considered to fulfill both of these functions, the input and output process and the negotiation of meaning, although not every task has to involve all of these functions. Another learning principle of the TBA is that tasks are said to heighten the motivation among learners and hence improve learning (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 229). The reason for this is that

they require the learners to use authentic language, they have well-defined dimensions and closure, they are varied in format and operation, they typically

include physical activity, they involve partnership and collaboration, they may call on the learner's past experience, and they tolerate and encourage a variety of communication styles (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 229).

Another claim for the implementation of tasks in language teaching is that they can be designed to focus on particular aspects of language or uses of language (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 229). For example, tasks can be designed to focus on a specific language structure, thus on form or accuracy. However, as Skehan points out, task designers have to make a compromise between accuracy and fluency or meaning. Skehan views both aspects, accuracy and fluency, as important features of tasks (1998: 97).

Design

A task-based syllabus then consists of tasks to be carried out by learners (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 231). Nunan (1989:) proposes a syllabus that specifies two types of tasks:

- Real-world tasks, which are based on a needs analysis of learners and reflect tasks that learners are likely to encounter later in the real world
- Pedagogical tasks, which have a psycholinguistic base in second language acquisition research and theory but do not necessarily reflect tasks which might occur in the real world
  (Nunan 1989: 40-41).

Using the telephone would be an example of a real-world task. An information-gap task, as defined on the following pages, would be an example of a pedagogical task (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 231). Norris, Brown, Hudson and Yoshioka (1998 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 232) give examples of representative real-word tasks grouped according to themes. An example would be the theme "planning a vacation" and the adequate tasks would be

- decide where you can go based on the 'advantage miles',
- booking a flight

- choosing a hotel
- booking a room
- (Norris et al. 1998 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 232).

In contrast to a task-based syllabus, Richards and Rodgers also describe a conventional syllabus in order to mark the differences between the two syllabus types (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 230). A conventional syllabus specifies the content of a language course in respect to the following categories:

- language structures
- functions
- topics and themes
- macro-skills (reading, writing, listening, speaking)
- competencies
- text types
- vocabulary targets
  (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 230)

This syllabus type reflects the table of contents of many contemporary ELT textbooks, which is also true for the four ELT textbooks analyzed (see textbook analysis). The conventional syllabus type describes learning content and outcomes and can be used as basis for classroom teaching. In contrast to that, the task-based syllabus focuses more on processes of learning than on specific content and skills that should be acquired through these processes (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 231).

As already explained at the beginning of this section there are various views on the definition of a task. Hence, there are quite a number of different descriptions of learning and teaching activities in a TBA (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 233). Prabhu states that a task is “an activity which requires learners to arrive at an outcome form given information through some process of thought” (Prabhu 1987: 24). Pica, Kanagy and Falodun (1993) proposed a classifying scheme of tasks according to the type of interaction which is involved in the fulfillment of the task:

- *Jigsaw tasks:* These involve learners combining different pieces of information to a whole (e.g., three individuals or groups may have three different parts of a story and have to piece the story together)."
- *Information-gap tasks:* One student or group of students has one set of information and another student or group has a complementary set of information. They must negotiate and find out what the other party's information is in order to complete an activity.
- *Problem-solving tasks:* Students are given a problem and a set of information. They must arrive at a solution to the problem. There is generally a single resolution of the outcome.
- *Decision-making tasks:* Students are given a problem for which there are a number of possible outcomes and they must choose one through negotiation and discussion.
- *Opinion-exchange tasks:* Learners engage in discussion and exchange of ideas. They do not need to reach agreement.
  (Pica, Kanagy & Falodun 1993 quoted in Richards & Rodgers 2007: 234).

The grammar exercises in the analysis part of this paper will not be analyzed in respect to these task types, since the definitions of these task types are not applicable for all the tasks analyzed. However, it can be stated that most of the tasks analyzed belong to the category *information-gap tasks*, which generally seems to be the most frequent task type.

In the TBA a number of roles are assumed for the learner, some of which overlap with those of CLT. Richards and Rodgers view the learners as group participant, monitor and risk-taker and innovator (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 235). In carrying out tasks learners mostly work in groups, thus group work is more frequent than in other approaches or methods. What concerns the role of monitor, tasks have to be designed in a way so that learners can notice "how language is used in communication" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 235). There has to be an example or model of how to use the language appropriately. Finally, the learner is also a risk-taker and innovator, since many tasks require learners to understand and produce messages for which they lack full linguistic resources. However, exactly this is the point of such tasks because paraphrasing, restating, etc. will be needed in order to carry out the tasks (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 235).

The teacher, on the other hand, takes over the roles of selector and sequencer. He has to choose or create appropriate tasks for students and to bring them into a sequence, considering learners' needs, interests and language skill level (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 236). Another teacher role is that he has to prepare learners for the tasks. In the TBA it is suggested that before carrying out a task learners should accomplish pretask activities first (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 236). Such activities may include topic introduction, clarifying task instructions, helping students to learn or recall useful words and phrases and to provide partial demonstration of task procedures. As already stated in the beginning, in current views of the TBA learners should focus on form as well (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 236). This means that learners "need to attend to or notice critical features of the language they use and hear" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 236). According to advocates of the TBA this does not mean doing a grammar lesson but it means

> employing a variety of form-focusing techniques, including attention-focusing pretask activities, text exploration, guided exposure to parallel tasks, and use of highlighted material (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 236).

These focus on form activities which are designed to draw the attention of learners to specific language items are overall referred to as *consciousness-raising tasks* or *discovery learning activities* and are a feature of inductive grammar teaching (Thornbury 2000: 24, 29).

The instructional material used in the TBA can be best divided, as Nunan suggests (1989), into pedagogical material and *realia*. Pedagogical materials play a very important role in the TBA because such tasks provide the basis of classroom activities and a sufficient supply of appropriate classroom tasks for the teacher (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 236). However, as Richards and Rodgers point out

many contemporary language teaching texts cite a “task focus” or “task-based activities” among their credentials, though most of the tasks that appear in such books are familiar classroom activities for teachers who employ collaborative learning, Communicative Language Teaching, or small-group activities (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 236).

They suggest looking at teacher resource books as for example the one of Willis (1996) in order to get an idea of task-based activities. *Realia*, on the other hand, are authentic materials (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 237). In the TBA the use of authentic material is recommended wherever possible. Popular media used in the classroom are newspapers, the TV and the Internet. Students are asked, for example, to “prepare a job-wanted ad using examples from the classified section” in a newspaper (Richards & Rodergs 2007: 237). An example of authentic language use with the help of the internet would be that students have to find a cheap hotel in New York via a search engine and then write an e-mail in which they book a room for a number of nights. Further they would have to decide what they wanted to do during their stay in New York, how much money to spend, etc.

Procedure

The way in which tasks are carried out in class always depends to some extent on the tasks themselves. Not every task requires the same form of preparation or preparation at all for fulfilling the task. Richards and Rodgers (2007: 238) propose a three-stage model: pretask activities, task activity and posttask activities. In pretask activities usually the topic of the task gets introduced, as well as the situation. Afterwards a role-play task, a problem-solving task might follow. Learners then might read a dialogue on a related topic, which serves as a model for appropriate language use. After that, students carry out the main task, as for example a role-play. A posttask activity would be listening to a recording of native speakers carrying out the same role-play (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 238).

Willis (1996: 56-57) proposes a quite similar sequence of task-activities. In her pretask phase Willis mentions in the context of grammar teaching that the

teacher “may highlight useful words and phrases, but would not preteach new structures” (Willis 1996: 56). While students afterwards carry out the main task, the teacher walks around and helps students to express themselves but he will not correct errors of form. Only after students have accomplished the task the teacher draws their attention to correct language forms. Concerning a language focus Willis divides between analysis and practice. In the analysis section she suggests that students should perform some language-focused tasks, based on texts or recordings which students have heard before. Instructions could be of the following kind: “Find word and phrases related to the title of the topic or text.”, “Read the transcript, find words ending in *s* or *‘s*, and say what the *s* means.”, “Find all the verbs in the simple past form. Say which refer to past time and which do not.” (Willis 1996: 57). In the practice section Willis states that exercises could include choral repetition of the identified phrases, in other words drills, sentence completion, matching the past-tense verbs (jumbled) with the subjects or objects they had in the given text, etc. (Willis 1996: 58).

The description by Willis shows that a TBA favors inductive grammar teaching, in which students have to find out the rules underlying the language themselves. It further shows that even a TBA is compatible with grammar drills, which are commonly regarded as main component of Audiolingualism. Further sentence-completion, matching, etc. often occurs in exercise types associated with the Grammar-Translation Method (see Grammar-Translation Method). It can be followed that the different aspects of the approaches and methods overlap with each other in certain dimensions and are compatible. If this is also true for the ELT textbooks chosen in this research paper, will be seen in the textbook analysis.

Conclusion

According to Richards and Rodgers (2007: 240), the pedagogical value of tasks “for promoting communication and authentic language use in second language classrooms” is widely and generally accepted. For the analysis part of this paper, the main criterion for identifying the TBA are tasks. It will be

analyzed if there are any grammar tasks in the four ELT textbooks, or in other words tasks with a language focus, as outlined by Willis (1996: 56-58) above. The role of authentic material will be also considered, if *realia* are used to mainly teach certain language structures, which is, rather unlikely. Richards and Rodgers finally note that the assumption of Task-Based Language learning to be more effective for teaching a language than other teaching approaches or methods, however "remains in the domain of ideology rather than fact" (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 241). After having discussed Task-Based Language Teaching in detail, the following two criteria for identifying the TBA in respect to grammar teaching can be derived:

- inductive grammar teaching
- tasks (teaching a grammatical feature)

After having discussed the most important approaches and methods in foreign language teaching, in the following chapter the educational systems of Austria and Spain will be looked at and the selections of the age levels of the Austrian an Spanish ELT textbooks chosen in this analysis will be explained.

3. Educational Systems in Austria and Spain

3.1. The Educational System in Spain

In Spain the educational system is divided into four phases: Infant Education, Primary Education, Obligatory Secondary Education and Post-Obligatory Secondary Education. Infant Education starts for children in their first year and lasts until the age of 6. Infant Education is not obligatory and it is divided into two cycles. Each cycle lasts three years: the first cycle can be attended from children of zero to three years and the second cycle from three to six years. In the second cycle, from three to six years, a foreign language may be included as well in the teaching of that phase and the *Ministry of Education and Science* advocates the teaching of a foreign language, usually English,

starting at the age of three (Ministerio de Educación 2006. “Educación infantil“, “Disposiciones generales”).

However, a foreign language is obligatory in the Spanish curriculum at the second cycle of Primary Education. Primary Education lasts form six to twelve years and is divided into three cycles at which every cycle lasts for two years. Thus at the age of about eight the learning of English is obligatory for Spanish pupils, as it is manifested in the DCB (*Diseno Curricular Base),* which is the Spanish General Curriculum valid for the ESO. The teaching and learning objectives for students are to understand and produce short messages, also contextualized ones and to be able to adapt the covered themes age-adequately and in respect to students’ interests and experiences. For example, students should be able to identify the sounds of the English language as well as the correct spelling. Further, students are supposed to acquire basic vocabulary of the foreign language such as the numbers, colors, family, food, etc. Another aim is that pupils develop a positive and interested attitude towards the language (Ministerio de Educación 2006. “Educación primaria”, “Objetivos de la Educación primaria”).

After the Primary Education Spanish students enter the Obligatory Secondary Education, called ESO (*Educación Secundaria Obligatoria*). The ESO is divided into two cycles and each one lasts two years and is attended by students from twelve to sixteen years. Together with the Primary Education, the ESO forms the ten years of schooling, which is obligatory and the same for all Spanish pupils. In the ESO some subjects, as for example foreign languages, are obligatory. However, there are also four optional areas: natural science, graphic and visual education, music and technology. Another foreign language may be implemented as optional course in the second cycle as well. After the ESO students have the option to enter the world of work, or to continue to attend school (LEY ORGÁNICA 2/2006 de Educación).

The last phase of Spanish Education up to eighteen years is called Post-Obligatory Secondary Education. It incorporates the Bachelor-Program and Professional Education, which last both form sixteen to eighteen years. After

having achieved the Bachelor-degree students have the options of attending a university-entrance examination, continuing with the upper stage of professional education or to leave school and enter the world of work. In the LOGSE (Ley de Ordenación General y del Sistema Educativo), the legislative structure of the Spanish educational system, it is manifested that students have four modalities in the Bachelor-Program: Natural Sciences and Health Sciences, Social Science and Humanitarian Sciences, Arts, and Technology (Ministerio de Educación 2006). Two of these four areas have to be selected by students. The learning of a foreign language, and a number of other subjects, are common to all students attending the ESPO, no matter whether they are attending the Bachelor-Program or the Professional Education-Program (Ministerio de Educación 2006 “Bachillerato”).

The Professional Education-Program (middle stage) results in the achievement of the title *Technical*. With this title pupils can continue the professional formation and achieve the title *Technical Superior*, they can enter the labor market or they can attend University-entrance examinations. As can be seen, students of the Bachelor-Program and the Professional Education-Program basically have the same options after having obtained their degree (Ministerio de Educación 2006. “Qué puedo estudiar en Formación Profesional”). The Spanish educational system is also visually shown on the next page. The ESO grades are shown in ‘turquoise’. On the right hand side of the graphic the ages of pupils are shown when attending the different grades. The *Bachillerato* can be compared to the Austrian Matura and completes pre-universitary education in Spain.

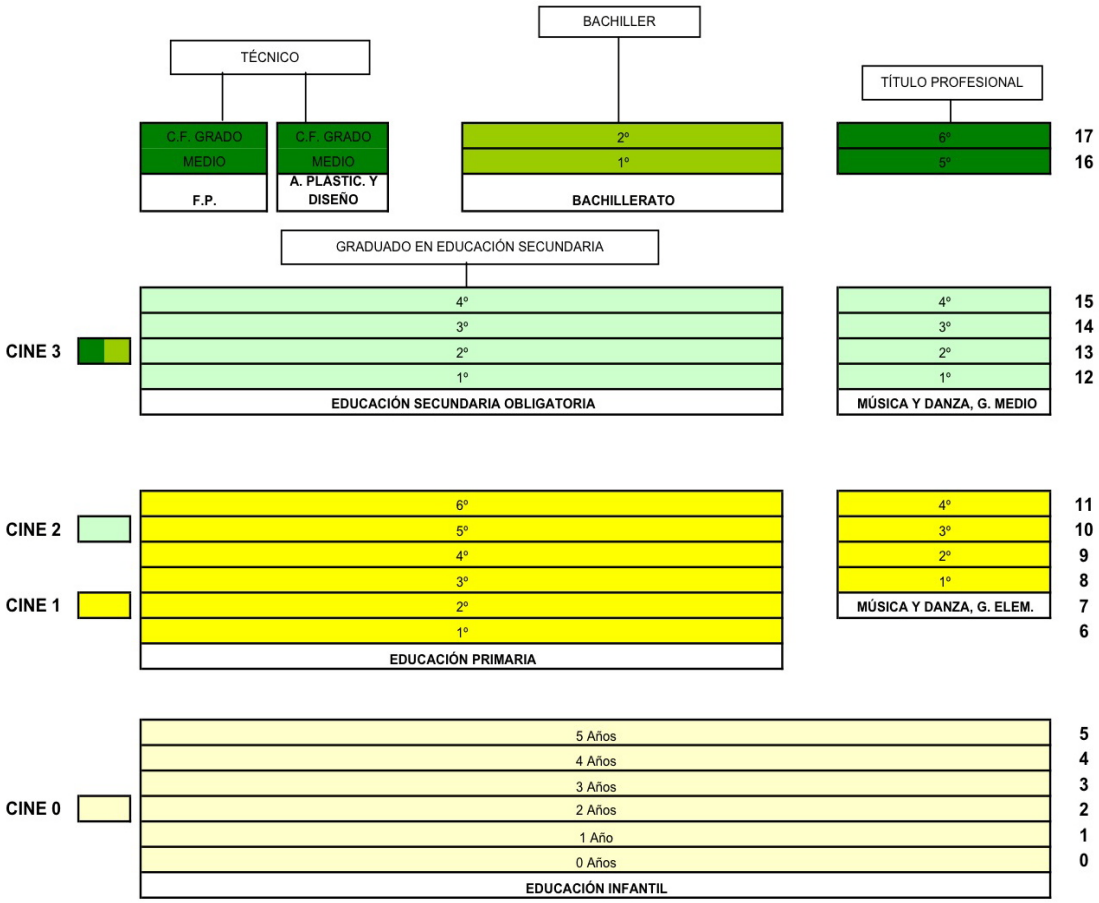


Figure 6
(http://www.educacion.es/mecd/estadisticas/educativas/cee/2007A/Organigrama.pdf)

The two Spanish ELT textbooks chosen for the textbook analysis in this paper, namely the *United 2 Student's Book* and the *Everything for ESO 2 Student's Book,* belong to the third phase of the Spanish educational system, namely the *Obligatory Secondary Education*, called *ESO*. As already stated, the *ESO* consists of two cycles, each one lasts two years. The two textbooks chosen are of the second year and hence belong to the first *ESO* cycle. In the *ESO* the teaching of a foreign language is obligatory and usually English is the foreign language chosen. Students attending the *ESO 2* are thirteen to fourteen years old, as can also be seen in the graphic above.

3.2. The Educational System in Austria

In Austrian Infant Education, the *Kindergarten* can be attended from children in their first year until children of 6 years. After that, Primary Education starts, which is obligatory and has the function to provide an elementary education for all children. Primary Education is divided into two cycles, each one lasts two years. The teaching of a foreign language starts in the first year of Primary Education and is obligatory: in the first and second year 32 hours per year of the foreign language, usually English, has to be incorporated by teachers in the teaching of the other subjects and hence English is no actual subject. In the second cycle of Primary Education, in third and fourth grade the teaching of a foreign language is manifested with one hour per week.

After Primary Education students in Austria enter Secondary Education, which is divided into two parts: *Secondary Education I* is attended by students from ten to fourteen years and *Secondary Education II* is attended by students from fourteen to eighteen or nineteen years. In *Secondary Education I* students can attend a Secondary Modern School or a Grammar School. The Secondary Modern School or Grammar School lower stage are attended by students from ten to fourteen years. In these two school types the teaching of a foreign language is obligatory. In general there are four lessons of a foreign language, usually English, per week in the first and second grade. In the third and fourth grade there are three lessons of English. However, schools may decide autonomously how many hours per week a foreign language or other subjects are taught, as long as the requirements of the curriculum can be fulfilled within the amount of lessons on which has been decided.

In *Secondary Education II* students can choose among a Polytechnic School, a Professional School, the upper stage of Grammar School, Vocational Schools or Schools for Social Education. After a Polytechnic School or a Professional School students usually enter the labor market. After having attended the upper stage of Grammar School or another school type, which finishes with a graduation degree, university can be attended. The teaching of

a foreign language is common to all school types of *Secondary Education II* (Bundesministerium für Unterricht, Kunst und Kultur 2008).

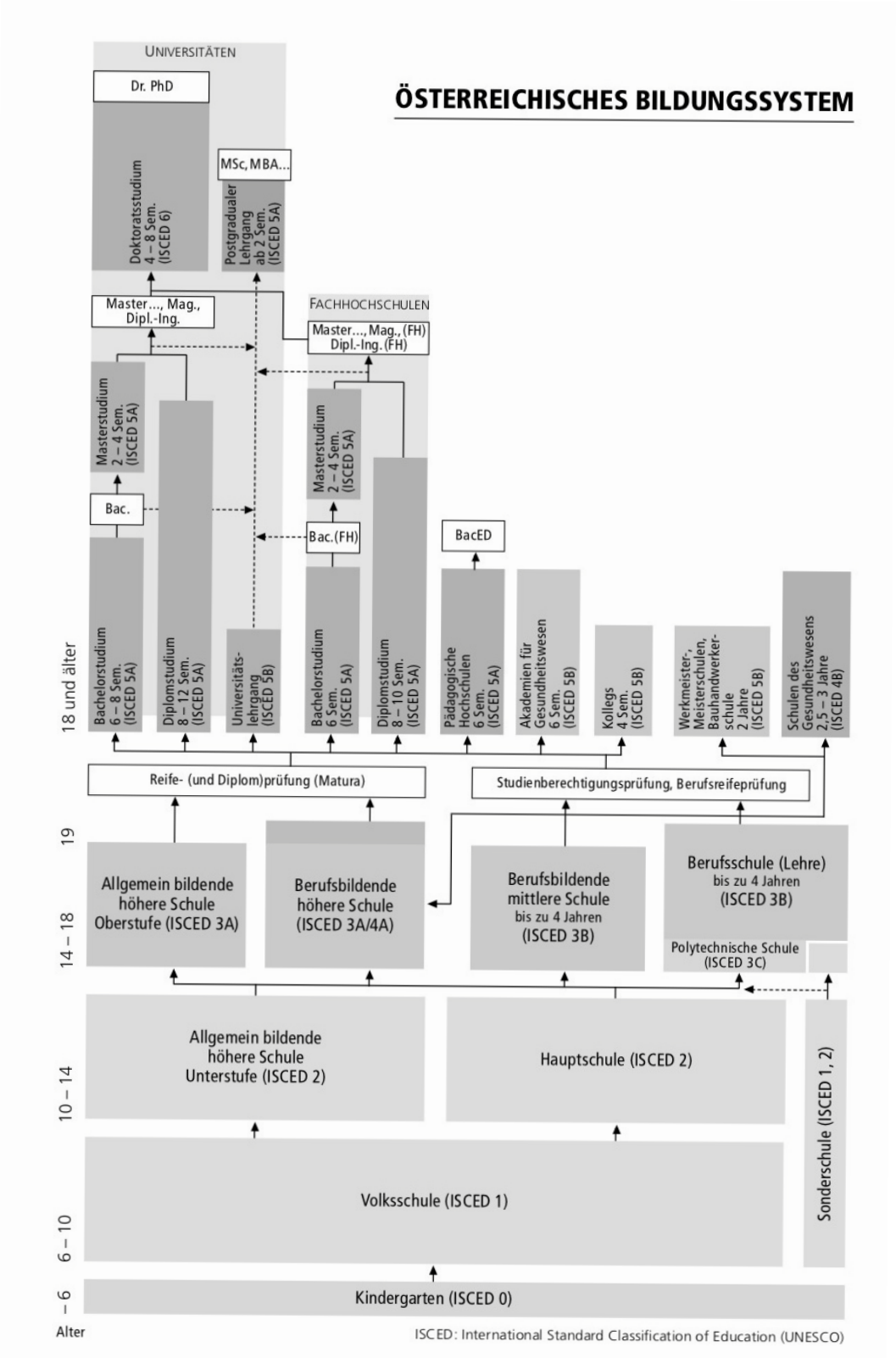


Figure 7

(http://www.bmukk.gv.at/medienpool/17146/bildungsentwicklung_07.pdf)

The Austrian ELT textbooks selected for the analysis are the *Your Turn 2 Student's Book* and the *More 2 Student's Book*. These two ELT textbooks are of year two of *Secondary Education I* and may be used in Grammar Schools or Secondary Modern Schools. Students attending the second grade of these two school types are eleven to twelve years old and thus two years younger than their Spanish fellow students of ESO 2 who are thirteen to fourteen years old. Nevertheless, ELT textbooks of these two different grades have been chosen for the textbook analysis since in terms of grammatical content these two grades show the greatest amount of similarities, as will be seen on the following pages.

3.3. Selection of the Age Levels of the Austrian and Spanish ELT Textbooks

Having considered the educational systems of Austria and Spain it seems quite logical to select ELT textbooks of both counties of the same age group or grade. In Austria as well as in Spain the teaching of a foreign language, usually English, is obligatory when students turn eight (see Educational Systems in Austria and Spain). Before, the teaching of English is either optional or done within the other subjects and only to a very limited degree. Consequently, students are exposed to the same amount of years of learning English.[8] However, the grammatical features taught in the same age groups in Austria and Spain differ considerably and therefore it does not make much sense to compare textbooks of the same grades of the two countries, since the textbooks are not comparable in terms of grammar content and the results of the analysis might be skewed in certain categories of the analysis. On the other hand, it has to be admitted that the difference of two years in the age of students also might lead to certain differences in terms of teaching content, such as choosing age-adequate contexts for the presentation of grammatical structures. Nevertheless, these differences are not relevant in the analysis, since it will, for example, be analyzed whether or not grammar exercises are contextualized and not in which kinds of context they are presented. If the

[8] The amount of hours per week and grade level of English could not be obtained for the Spanish educational system.

grammatical content of the textbooks analyzed was totally different a textbook analysis might be difficult, since different grammatical features often require different amounts and types of grammar exercises (as presented in the textbook analysis of this paper), grammar rules, etc. The textbooks analyzed have a large number of grammatical features in common. However, also features, which were taught only in some of the textbooks analyzed or only in one single textbook have been included in the analysis as well, since in my opinion a textbook analysis should consider the whole textbook in order to be able to draw reliable conclusions.

I have already stated that the grammatical content of the same age levels of the Spanish and Austrian ELT textbooks differs considerably. Thus I considered the grammatical content of Austrian ELT textbooks of one grade below the Spanish ones, such as of the *Your Turn 3* and compared it to the grammatical content the Spanish ELT textbook *Everything for ESO 2*. Below, it can be seen that there are not many grammatical features in common. These are:

- first conditional
- should
- could
- will-future
- going-to future

In terms of complexity of the grammatical items the Spanish ELT textbooks of *ESO 2* are generally more similar to the ones of second grade in *Secondary Education I* of the Austrian school system, although Austrian students are two years younger than the Spanish ones. For example, the present perfect is taught in Austria in most ELT textbooks in the third and fourth grade of lower secondary. In the same grades in Spain, ESO 1 and 2 the present perfect does not appear in most ELT textbooks. Therefore the grades *ESO 2* in Spain and the second grade of lower secondary in Austria have been chosen for the textbook analysis. The grammatical features common to all four ELT

textbooks chosen for the analysis, namely the ones of the Spanish *ESO 2* and the Austrian secondary lower stage, are the following ones:

- past tense
- going-to future
- will future
- comparatives and superlatives
- should and shouldn't
- mustn't
- countable and uncountable nouns

Further, there are also a number of grammatical features common to three out of the four ELT textbooks analyzed:

- quantifiers
- adverbs of frequency
- present continuous
- past continuous
- must
- present simple
- irregular verbs
- past simple: regular & irregular verbs
- past simple: negation
- like (doing)

There are also certain grammatical structures common only to the Austrian ELT textbooks:

- have to / don't have to
- as…as comparison
- adverbs from adjectives (adverbs of manner)
- So do I., Neither do I., Do you?, I don't.
- present perfect

Finally the grammatical structures common to the Spanish ELT textbooks are listed below:

- can and can't – ability
- can and can't – permission
- have got
- present simple: to be
- wh-questions
- love, like, hate + ing
- expressions of frequency
- there was /were
- think and don't think + will

It can be seen that the amount of grammatical features common only to the Spanish ELT textbooks is with nine grammatical items not insignificant, nevertheless the grammatical items common to all four ELT textbooks or common to three out of the four ELT textbooks analyzed is with 17 grammatical features clearly higher. It is in some way surprising that in terms of the grammatical content to be taught there is a difference of two years between the two countries teaching similar grammatical features. The reason for this difference may lie in the different conditions in the two countries, as for example the different mother tongues. After having discussed the educational systems in Austria and Spain, considerations concerning grammar teaching made in the Austrian curriculum will be looked at on the following pages. Unfortunately, the Spanish curriculum of teaching foreign languages could not be obtained, due to lack of data.

3.4. The Austrian Curriculum

The Austrian curriculum is divided in a general part, the *General Curriculum*, and a subject-specific part, or what Dendrinos calls *subject-specific curriculum* (Dendrinos 1992: 102). The Austrian *General Curriculum* and the subject-

specific curricula are designed on a national level. Furthermore, both curricula are split up in lower secondary and upper secondary: lower secondary includes the fist four years of Grammar school or Secondary Modern School and upper secondary the second four years of Grammar school. For the analysis of the Austrian ELT textbooks of second grade lower secondary in this paper, the curriculum for the teaching of foreign languages of lower secondary English will be looked at more closely concerning what is written about grammar teaching. Whereas the General Curriculum refers to basic teaching principles the curriculum for teaching foreign languages gives clearer guidelines concerning language teaching methodology and guidelines.

In the foreign language curriculum the importance of the teaching of the four language skills is emphasized. Moreover, the teaching of learning strategies is seen as crucial in foreign language teaching, since especially in their later life students might have to acquire knowledge about languages by themselves. Under ‘didactic cornerstones’ (didaktische Grundsätze) it is stated that ‘communicative competence’, which is a criterion of Communicative Language Teaching (see Chapter two), is the most important goal of learning (Lehrplan Unterstufe Lebende Fremdsprachen 2000). Further, the contextualization of vocabulary and grammar is demanded as well as the interconnection of the language skills and grammar and vocabulary. Another claim made concerning grammar teaching is that functional grammar teaching has priority over formal grammar teaching. It is stated that where purposeful, grammar should be presented without teaching the appropriate grammar rules (Lehrplan Unterstufe Lebende Fremdsprachen 2000). Moreover, inductive grammar teaching is favored. Concrete language learning goals are described in terms of the criteria of the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*. The goals are basically described in terms of the four language skills. Grammar goals are not explicitly mentioned in this framework (Lehrplan Unterstufe Lebende Fremdsprachen 2000).

4. Description of the Four ELT Textbooks

4.1. Everything for ESO 2 Student's Book

The ELT textbook *Everything for ESO 2 Student's Book* has been written by Rodrigo Fernandez Carmona and Jim Lawley and was first published in the year 2007. The textbook is a Richmond publication and, as the title already reveals, it has been written for Spanish pupils learning English. The ESO of the title stands for *Educacion Secudaria Obligatoria,* which stands for Secondary Education in Spain and has already been explained in chapter three. The textbook consists of 88 pages which cover nine units and three consolidation sections (A,B,C), in which mainly grammar is practiced. On the final pages of the book additional two pages of reading strategies, a grammar reference section, called Quick grammar reference, and a phonetic chart are included as well. Other materials available for students are a Practice Book with Language Builder, a Student's Multi-ROM and a *Spooky Times* DVD and Magazine. Teachers can order a Teacher's Book, Class CDs, Mixed-ability Worksheets and tests from the publishing company. Further there is also a Class Pack available, consisting of Grammar Worksheets, a Picture Dictionary, Posters, a Songs CD and Worksheets, a Spooky Times Teacher's Guide and a Test Generator CD-Rom.

4.2. United. English for ESO Student's Book 2

The *United. English for ESO Student's Book 2* has been written by Nick Beare and by course consultant Maria Jesus Paramo and was first published in the year 2004 by Macmillan Education, Oxford UK. The *Student's Book* chosen for this analysis is a 2008 publication. As the ESO of the title tells, the textbook has been published for the Spanish market as well. It consists of 119 pages, including nine units, and at the end of the book a grammar summary, containing mostly grammar tables and rules, a list of irregular verbs and a wordlist. Further, the *United 2* textbook contains three review sections in which grammar is mainly practiced. After every unit, a consolidation page is

included, in which mainly grammar exercises are presented as well. The *Student's book* is accompanied by a CD-Rom and a United Magazine. Further available are a Workbook, Self-Study Worksheets, a Teacher's Book, a Teacher's Resource Pack and Audio CDs.

4.3. More 2 Student's Book

The *More 2 Student's Book* is a Helbling Languages publication of the year 2008. It has been written by Günter Gerngross, Herbert Puchta, Christian Holzmann, Jeff Stranks and Peter Lewis-Jones and has been designed especially for the Austrian market. The textbook contains an annotation on the second page that the textbook fulfills the requirements the actual Austrian curriculum for foreign language teaching in grammar schools and secondary modern schools of the second grade.

The *More 2 Student's Book* consists of 172 pages covering 20 units, four *Progress checks*, a *CLIL* section (Content and Language Integrated Learning), a wordlist, a list of irregular verbs, a list of the typical language used in the classroom and a phonetic chart. In addition to the textbook there is also available: a *More 2 Workbook*, an Audio-CD, a *SbX Schoolbook* (containing interactive exercises to do online), a *Teacher's Book*, a test-folder including an Audio-CD and a CD-ROM and a DVD-ROM with a test-trainer. For some exercises free audio-recordings are available, which students can download from the Internet.

Further, the exercises of the textbook are marked as easy, average and challenging. Moreover, exercises that teach content belonging to the core part of the Austrian curriculum for teaching foreign languages are especially marked as well. According to the explanations in the textbook, exercises which are not marked as belonging to the core part of the curriculum can be left out without any problems, as for example due to lack of time. After every 5th unit a progress check is implemented which always consists of a listening,

reading, grammar, vocabulary and dialogue exercise covering the main learning matter of the previous five units.

4.4. Your Turn 2. Textbook

The *Your Turn 2 Textbook* was first published in 2008 by Langenscheidt, Vienna and has been written by Jeremy Harmer and Ana Acevedo. The textbook has been published for the Austrian market and, similarly to the *More 2* the Austrian Ministry of Education, Arts and Culture has approved the textbook as adequate for the teaching of English second grade lower stage in Austrian grammar schools and Secondary Modern Schools by a notation on the second page. In this notation, the ministry confirms that the *Your Turn 2 Textbook* adheres to the actual standards of the Austrian curriculum for teaching foreign languages. The textbook contains of 164 pages including an introduction, 24 units which are divided into blocks A to F, and an X-tra unit which consists of an 'X-tra' English magazine, additional exercises called '*secrets'*, a wordlist, a list of irregular verbs and a pronunciation table. Additionally available are a *Your Turn 2 Workbook*, an Audio-CD, a DVD, a CD-Rom, an online-addition for the textbook, *Your Turn 2 Clues* (free to download), an exams CD-Rom, a *Your Turn in Action DVD*, a Teacher's Guide and a *Memory Lifter* (a vocabulary trainer).

5. Criteria for Analyzing Grammar in ELT Textbooks

In order to carry out the analysis of the grammar exercises in the four selected ELT textbooks, a number of criteria, which focus on certain aspects of grammar exercises, are necessary to do so. In the chapter *Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching* a number of criteria have already been derived form the introduced approaches and methods to language teaching. These criteria, of course, have been adapted in respect to analyzing grammar exercises in ELT textbooks. In addition to these criteria derived from approaches and methods to language teaching, a number of other criteria relevant for analyzing grammar exercises have been selected as well. These additional criteria shall help to give a larger picture of grammar teaching and grammar exercises in the textbooks analyzed. Both, the criteria derived from approaches and methods to language teaching and the additional criteria are listed below and explained in more detail throughout the analysis on the following pages:

<u>1. Criteria derived from approaches and methods to language teaching:</u>

Grammar-Translation Method:

- translation exercises
- deductive grammar teaching
- use of L1 for explaining grammar rules
- focus on writing and reading skills (in grammar exercises)
- typical grammar exercises: completing already constructed sentences, then formulating new sentences (instructions: fill-in, match, order, complete, etc.);

Situational Language Teaching & Audiolingualism:

- drilling exercises (repetition of structures)
- no use of the L1 for explaining grammar rules

- inductive grammar teaching (generally no explanation of grammar rules)
- main focus on listening and speaking skills
- presentation of grammatical structures first orally and later in written form

Communicative Language Teaching:

- group and pair exercises
- inductive grammar teaching (discovery learning, consciousness-raising activities, etc.)
- language games (in which a grammatical item gets practiced)
- language functions (grammar presented in the form of language functions)
- contextualized grammar exercises (forms of language linked to contextual features)
- learner-oriented exercises

Task-Based Language Teaching (in addition to CLT)

- tasks (teaching a grammatical structure)

2. Additional criteria for analyzing grammar in ELT textbooks:

- How many grammar exercises are presented in relation to the total number of exercises per textbook? (role of grammar)
- grammar check-up
- grammar self-tests
- grammar learning strategies
- grammar tables (in addition to grammar rules)

In the following analysis the criteria are not presented in the above order, since certain criteria would have to be mentioned a number of times which

might lead to confusion among readers. Instead, first of all the role of grammar in the ELT textbooks is looked at. Then the relative amounts of grammar exercises in the four ELT textbooks are determined. These identified grammar exercises are the basis on which the criteria that follow are analyzed. These criteria are analyzed at the level of grammar exercises as for example *group* and *pair work* in grammar exercises or *contextualization* of grammar exercises. After that, criteria focusing on more general aspects of grammar are analyzed such as deductive and inductive grammar teaching or gradation and presentation of grammar. Finally, in the Conclusion the main findings of this textbook analysis are summed up and interpreted in respect to the research questions posed in the Introduction of this paper.

5.1. The Role of Grammar in the Four ELT Textbooks Analyzed

The role of grammar in the four ELT textbooks is a quite central one. This can be seen by looking at the table of contents of the textbooks: in all ELT textbooks grammar teaching is explicitly mentioned for each unit. The *Everything for ESO 2 Student's Book*, for example, contains six categories describing each unit: these are vocabulary, grammar, reading and writing, listening & speaking. In general, all six categories are interrelated: this can be clearly observed by looking, for example, at unit six: in the grammar section the past simple and in the writing section *summarizing a story* are taught. The listening & speaking section teaches *Telling a story*. These examples evidently display the interrelation of the six categories. Also the vocabulary and grammar sections are closely connected to the other categories: for example in unit four *The weather and future time expressions* are taught. In the grammar section the will-future and question tags are taught which is done mostly through exercises in which students have to make predictions about the weather (See e.g. pg. 31: 5, 6;). In the writing section students learn to write about the future and in the listening & speaking section they listen to and make weather forecasts.

Considering the examples just given, it can be seen that the whole syllabus is organized around the grammar items to be taught in each unit. Depending on which grammar items are taught in the unit, appropriate texts and topics are chosen and all the other categories are organized around them. In the conventional syllabus type described in chapter two, explicit grammar teaching also has its central role (c.f. Richards & Rodgers 2007: 230). Thornbury calls this syllabus type a “multi-layered syllabus” and states that such syllabuses “specify not only the grammar areas to be taught, but include functional and topical areas as well” (Thornbury 2000: 11). Nevertheless, these syllabuses show, as in the case of the four ELT textbooks analyzed, “a strong grammar basis” (Thornbury 2000: 23). This central role of grammar is also valid, besides in the *Everything for ESO 2*, in the other three ELT textbooks analyzed.

5.2. Amount of grammar exercises per ELT textbook

Analyzing the relative amount of grammar exercises per ELT textbook gives an idea of the position of grammar held in the textbook. As already mentioned, by taking a closer look at the table of contents of the four ELT textbooks, it becomes obvious that, although the four language skills and also pronunciation etc. are explicitly taught, the majority of exercises in which the four language skills are practiced are organized around the grammatical feature of the specific unit and often one of the main purposes of such exercises practicing one of the four language skills is to practice a grammatical item. In the analysis of the amount of grammar exercises per textbook the total number of exercises per book and the page-length have to be considered as well as can be viewed in the table below:

Textbook	**Your Turn 2**	**More 2**	**United 2**	**Everything for ESO 2**
exercises total	222 (X-tra not included)	297 (CLiL not included)	361	390
pages	164 pgs.	171 pgs.	119 pgs.	88 pgs.

Table 1

By looking at this table it can be seen that the two Spanish ELT textbooks contain significantly more exercises than the Austrian ELT textbooks. However, the Austrian ELT textbooks have got a greater number of pages. This is the case because the exercises in the Austrian textbooks are generally more complex and often include a number of sub-exercises. In these 'longer' exercises consequently more language skills get practiced, as for example speaking and writing or listening and speaking. For example, exercise three of unit 10 on pg. 53 of the Austrian *Your Turn 2* textbook (see next page!) actually consists of three different exercises: in the first exercise, students have ask about now and 15 minutes ago, practicing present continuous and past continuous. In the second sub-exercise they have to listen to words that sound quite similar and to tell the difference. Then they have to repeat the sentences they hear. Thus the second sub-exercise falls into the category of pronunciation and contains elements of drilling exercises as well. Finally, the third sub-exercise is called *SECRETS 3* and has to be carried out on the final pages of the book. This grammar task contains an information-gap and has to be carried out in pairs.[9] In terms of grammar teaching its aim is to practice the past continuous.

[9] SECRETS exercises are counted as single grammar exercises in the analysis because they are independent in terms of situation, content, etc. from the rest of the exercise.

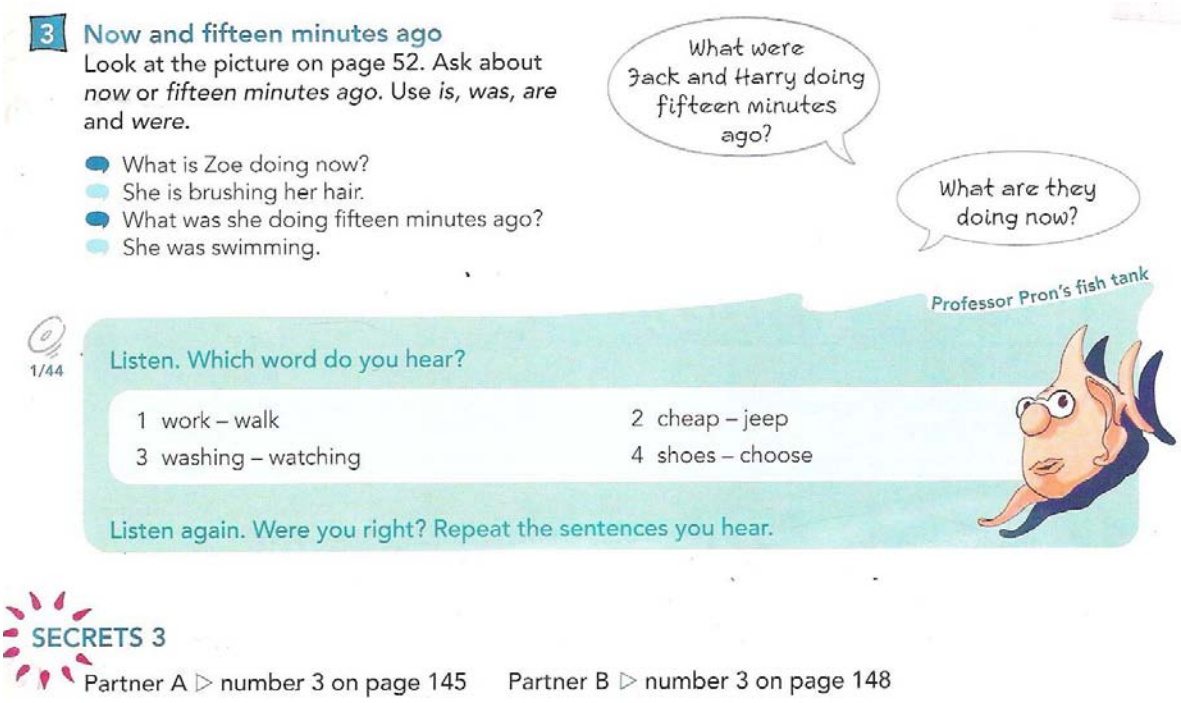
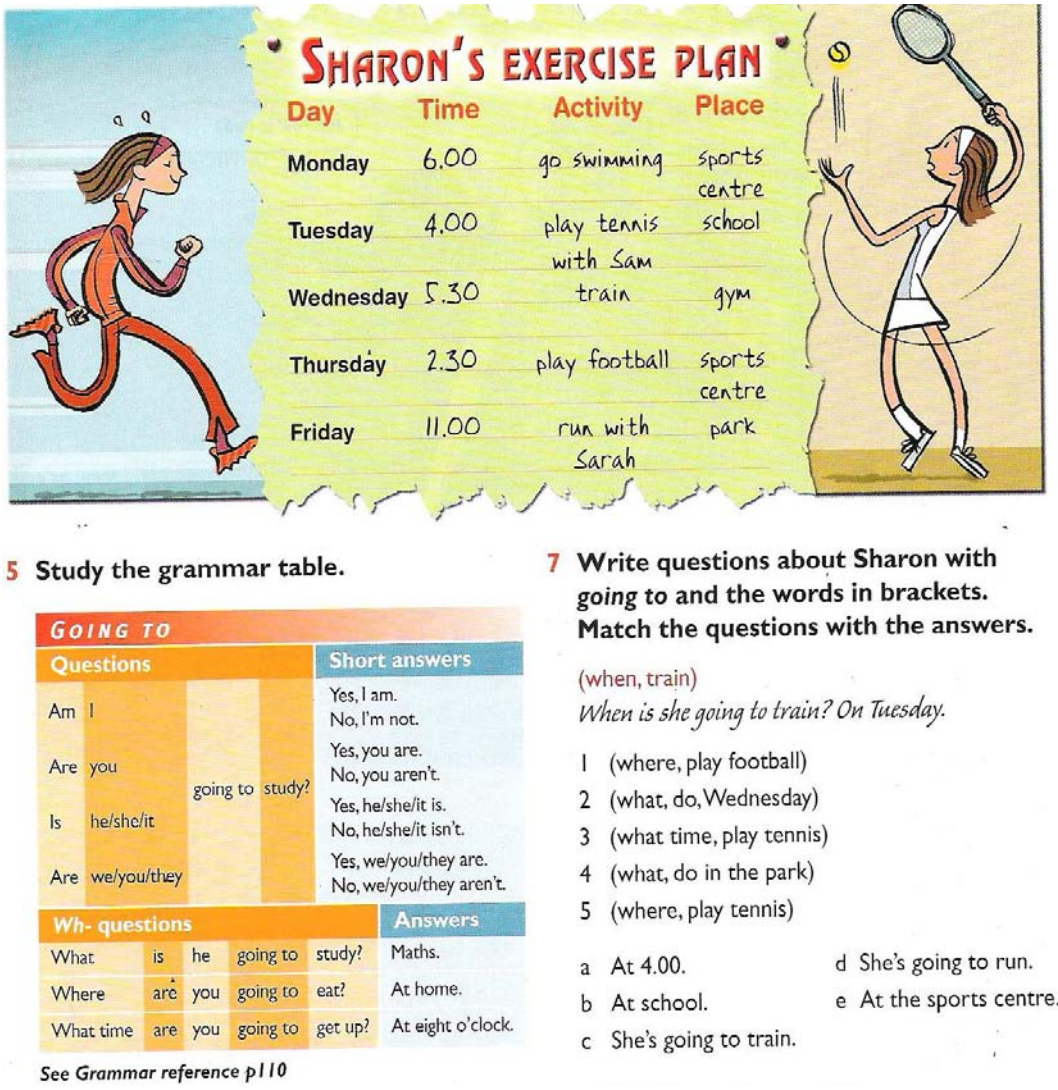


Figure 8

(Your Turn 2 2008: 53)

The exercises of the two Spanish ELT textbooks usually contain of only one instruction or skill per exercise, and never more than two. In the *United 2* ELT textbook a typical grammar exercise is exercise seven of unit six (pg. 63). The instructions are quite short. The others exercises of the textbook, no matter whether grammar exercise or not, are quite similar in terms of complexity. In the other Spanish ELT textbook, the *Everything for ESO 2* basically the same is true as for the *United 2*.



SHARON'S EXERCISE PLAN

Day	Time	Activity	Place
Monday	6.00	go swimming	sports centre
Tuesday	4.00	play tennis with Sam	school
Wednesday	5.30	train	gym
Thursday	2.30	play football	sports centre
Friday	11.00	run with Sarah	park

5 Study the grammar table.

GOING TO

Questions			Short answers
Am	I	going to study?	Yes, I am. No, I'm not.
Are	you		Yes, you are. No, you aren't.
Is	he/she/it		Yes, he/she/it is. No, he/she/it isn't.
Are	we/you/they		Yes, we/you/they are. No, we/you/they aren't.

Wh- questions					Answers
What	is	he	going to	study?	Maths.
Where	are	you	going to	eat?	At home.
What time	are	you	going to	get up?	At eight o'clock.

See Grammar reference p110

7 Write questions about Sharon with *going to* and the words in brackets. Match the questions with the answers.

(when, train)
When is she going to train? On Tuesday.

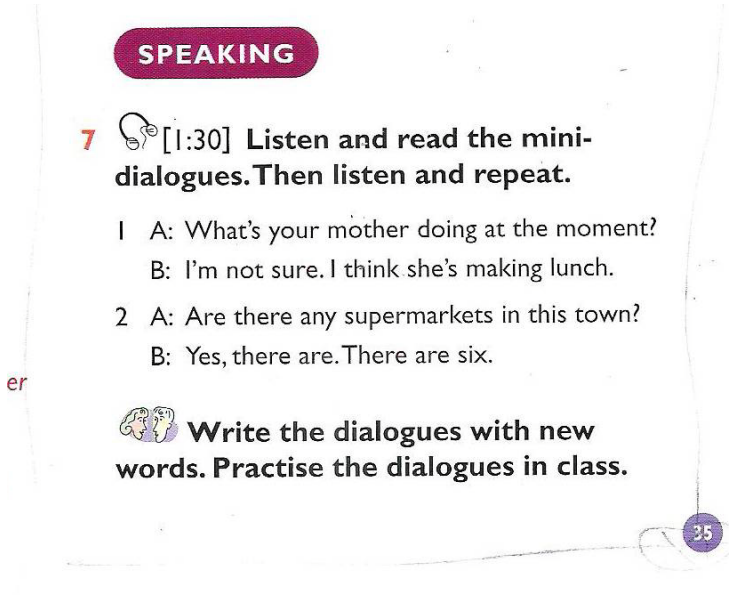
1 (where, play football)
2 (what, do, Wednesday)
3 (what time, play tennis)
4 (what, do in the park)
5 (where, play tennis)

a At 4.00.
b At school.
c She's going to train.
d She's going to run.
e At the sports centre.

Figure 9
(United 2 2008: 63)

Another difference between the Austrian and the Spanish ELT textbooks is the labeling of the exercises. Whereas in the Spanish ELT textbooks grammar exercises are explicitly labeled, there is no labeling of grammar or any other exercise types in the Austrian ELT textbook. In the *Everything for ESO 2* textbook there are two pages called *Grammar and vocabulary* in each unit. In this section exercises in which grammar is explicitly taught are found. In other words, this section contains many completion, fill-in, etc. exercises, which are features of the Grammar-Translation Method (c.f. Richards & Rodgers 2007: 107; see also chapter two). Similarly, the *United 2* textbook contains a *Language Focus A* and a *Language Focus B* in each unit, in which the same type of grammar exercises is shown. However, many other exercises of the

Spanish textbooks, although no labeled as grammar exercises, mainly teach grammatical features as well. A good example of this is exercise seven of unit three in the *United 2* textbook on page 35. This exercise is labeled as speaking exercise. However, the two main grammatical features of the unit, namely the present continuous and *some* and *any*, are practiced as well:



SPEAKING

7 [1:30] **Listen and read the mini-dialogues. Then listen and repeat.**

1 A: What's your mother doing at the moment?
B: I'm not sure. I think she's making lunch.

2 A: Are there any supermarkets in this town?
B: Yes, there are. There are six.

Write the dialogues with new words. Practise the dialogues in class.

35

Figure 10
(United 2 2008: 35)

This exercise is an example of a grammar exercise, although not labeled as such in the textbook. Further, this exercise actually includes two exercise types: namely a grammar drill and a pair work exercise. Hence, the exercise will be attributed to each of the two categories in the analysis. All the other categories have been analyzed the same way. Which exercises are considered as grammar exercises and which not has been selected according to the following definition:

- In the exercise students have to reproduce the grammatical feature in a certain form (e.g. speaking, writing, filling it in, ordering it, matching it, writing a text containing this feature, etc.)
- The grammatical feature has to be reproduced at least three times.

This definition has been applied to all the exercises of all the four ELT textbooks, no matter how the authors have done the labeling. Since the definition of a grammar exercise is the same for all four textbooks the results can be compared to each other more easily:

Textbook	**Your Turn 2**	**More 2**	**United 2**	**Everything for ESO 2**
exercises total	222 (X-tra not included)	297 (CLiL not included)	361	390
grammar exercises	111	60	203	134
percentage of grammar exercises (rounded)	50	20	56	34

Table 2

This table shows that grammar plays a very central role in the *Your Turn 2* and the *United 2* textbooks. In both textbooks around 50 percent of all the exercises are grammar exercises. In contrast to that, the *Everything for ESO 2* contains only 34 percent of grammar exercises. The *More 2* textbook displays least grammar exercises, with only 20 percent. The reason why the *United 2* textbook contains most grammar exercises also lies in the number of grammar review sections presented in the textbook. After every unit a consolidation section is included and further three review sections mainly teaching grammar are incorporated as well (see grammar check-ups below). The *Your Turn 2* generally includes more than one tasks or instructions in one exercise. Therefore, it is more likely that grammar is among these sub-exercises and the exercise is then counted as grammar exercise. Nevertheless, the number of grammar exercises of the *Your Turn 2* is quite high, especially many communicative exercises are included in which a grammatical feature gets practiced. The *More 2* generally contains many texts and dialogues combined with comprehension exercises. Grammar seems to play a minor role in this textbook. The relative amount of grammar exercises in the four ELT textbooks is also visually shown in the bar chart below:

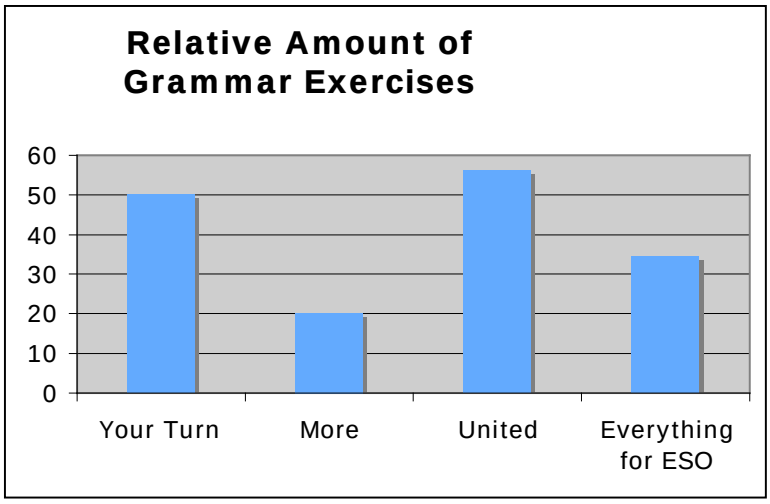
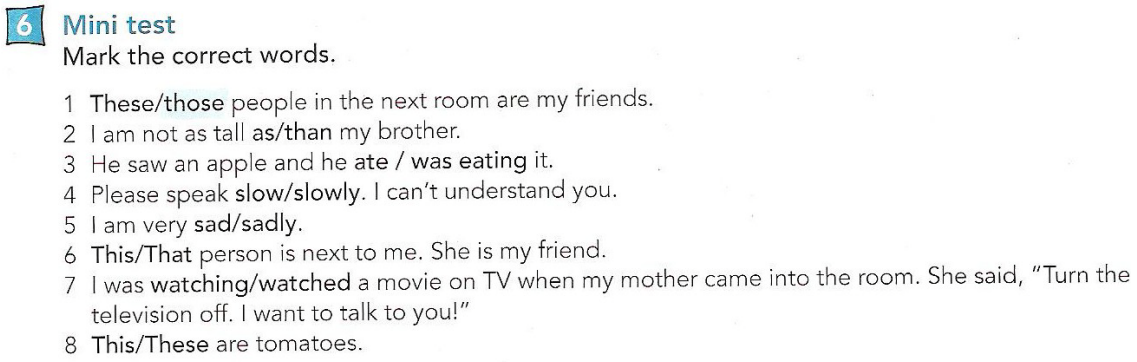


Figure 11

5.3. Grammar Check-Ups

A reason for the differences in the amounts of grammar exercises in the four ELT textbooks is the number of consolidation or grammar review sections. The *United 2* includes a one-page long consolidation section at the end of each unit. Moreover, the textbook contains three review sections as well. These consolidation and review sections mainly consist of grammar exercises, accompanied by a few vocabulary exercises. The *Everything for ESO* textbook does not contain consolidation sections at the end of each unit. However, after every third unit a consolidation section is included, in which mainly grammar exercises are displayed on three pages per consolidation section. The Austrian ELT textbooks contain grammar check-ups as well. The *Your Turn 2* textbook has got five units which are called 'Big break'. Every fourth unit is a 'Big break' unit and in these units the grammatical features of the previous three units are revised again. However, only the two last exercises of every such unit focus especially on grammar teaching. One exercise is called *Mini test* in which all the grammatical items learned get practiced, however at the expense of a meaningful context.



6 Mini test

Mark the correct words.

1 These/those people in the next room are my friends.
2 I am not as tall as/than my brother.
3 He saw an apple and he ate / was eating it.
4 Please speak slow/slowly. I can't understand you.
5 I am very sad/sadly.
6 This/That person is next to me. She is my friend.
7 I was watching/watched a movie on TV when my mother came into the room. She said, "Turn the television off. I want to talk to you!"
8 This/These are tomatoes.

Figure 12

(Your Turn 2)

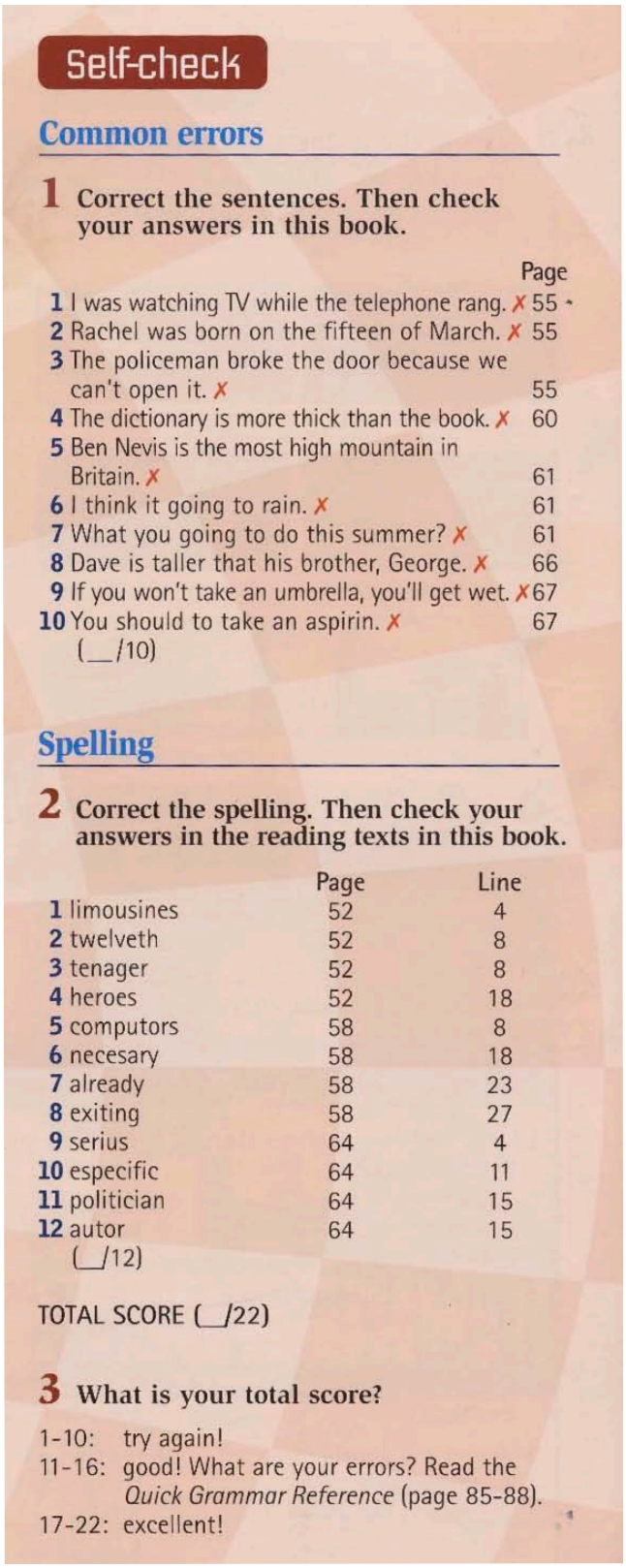
The other grammar exercise of the *Your Turn 2* is called *Question time*. In this exercise students have to match the first and the second parts of questions, in which the grammatical features are displayed as well. Often, there is also an exercise in which students have to make sentences out of given lexical junks. Every *Big break* unit also consists of a cartoon at the beginning of the unit followed up by a number of comprehension exercises. On average there are three to four grammar exercises per *Big break* unit in which the grammar of the previous units gets repeated. This suggests that the *Your Turn 2* textbook generally contains more grammar exercises in the units themselves, since it does not contain many grammar exercises in its grammar review sections.

In the *More 2* ELT textbook 5 progress checks are included. After every 5th unit comes a progress check which always consists of a listening task, a

reading task, a grammar task, a vocabulary task and a dialogue. Mostly, just one or maximal two exercises of theses progress checks are grammar exercises and throughout the textbook not many grammar exercises are included either. Consequently, the relative amount of grammar exercises is with 20 percent the lowest of all four ELT textbooks analyzed.

5.4. Grammar Self-Checks

After having analyzed grammar check-ups, another significant feature of such grammar revisions will be analyzed, namely self-check-ups. In the Austrian curriculum it is stated that students should be encouraged to learn independently and should become independent learners (Lehrplan Unterstufe Lebende Fremdsprachen 2000). A way of giving students the chance to learn independently is trough grammar self-tests. The defining feature of a self-test is that it can be corrected by students themselves. McGrath points out that self-assessment raises learners' awareness of what they can do themselves to become more efficient learners (McGrath 2002: 207). Grammar self-tests according to this definition were only included in the *Everything for ESO 2*, one self-test per *Consolidation Section*. In this self-checks students are given sentences which they have to correct. The correct answer to the sentence has to be found in the textbook afterwards. The page number on which the correct sentence can be found is given next to the sentence. Moreover, there is a spelling exercise as well, in which students have to correct words if they are misspelt. Similarly, the page number is indicated on which students can check whether or not they have spelt the words correctly. Finally, students are given a marking scheme for their total score, indicating them if they should do the test again or not. A self-check of the *Everything for ESO 2* is shown below:



Self-check

Common errors

1 **Correct the sentences. Then check your answers in this book.**

		Page
1	I was watching TV while the telephone rang. ✗	55
2	Rachel was born on the fifteen of March. ✗	55
3	The policeman broke the door because we can't open it. ✗	55
4	The dictionary is more thick than the book. ✗	60
5	Ben Nevis is the most high mountain in Britain. ✗	61
6	I think it going to rain. ✗	61
7	What you going to do this summer? ✗	61
8	Dave is taller that his brother, George. ✗	66
9	If you won't take an umbrella, you'll get wet. ✗	67
10	You should to take an aspirin. ✗	67

(__/10)

Spelling

2 **Correct the spelling. Then check your answers in the reading texts in this book.**

		Page	Line
1	limousines	52	4
2	twelveth	52	8
3	tenager	52	8
4	heroes	52	18
5	computors	58	8
6	necesary	58	18
7	already	58	23
8	exiting	58	27
9	serius	64	4
10	especific	64	11
11	politician	64	15
12	autor	64	15

(__/12)

TOTAL SCORE (__/22)

3 **What is your total score?**

1-10: try again!
11-16: good! What are your errors? Read the *Quick Grammar Reference* (page 85-88).
17-22: excellent!

Figure 13

(Everything for ESO 2 2007: 72)

The *Progress Check* in the *More 2* textbook contains a marking scheme of the total score of students as well, but students do not have the possibility to check their answers themselves. There is a link, however, to the web-page of the textbook www.more-online.at on which grammar exercises about the previous units can be practiced and for which the solution is given as well. Nevertheless, the grammar exercises of the *Progress Check* in the textbook itself cannot be corrected by students.

5.5. Grammar Learning Strategies

Besides grammar self-tests, learning tips and strategies are another way of helping students to learn individually and to optimize their learning. In the Austrian curriculum the importance of including learning strategies in teaching procedures is explicitly mentioned. Learners shall be able to learn individually, especially after having finished school (Lehrplan Unterstufe Lebende Fremdsprachen 2000). Whether this claim is also made in the Spanish curriculum could not be analyzed, due to the lack of data. However, it can be assumed that this is also the case, since only the United 2 Student's Book, which is a Spanish ELT textbook, contains a grammar learning strategy. The other three ELT textbooks analyzed do not contain grammar learning tips or strategies. The grammar learning strategy in the *United 2 Student's Book* is exercise eight on pg. 57. Students are advised in this exercise to make a grammar section in their notebook and to use it for special grammar points:

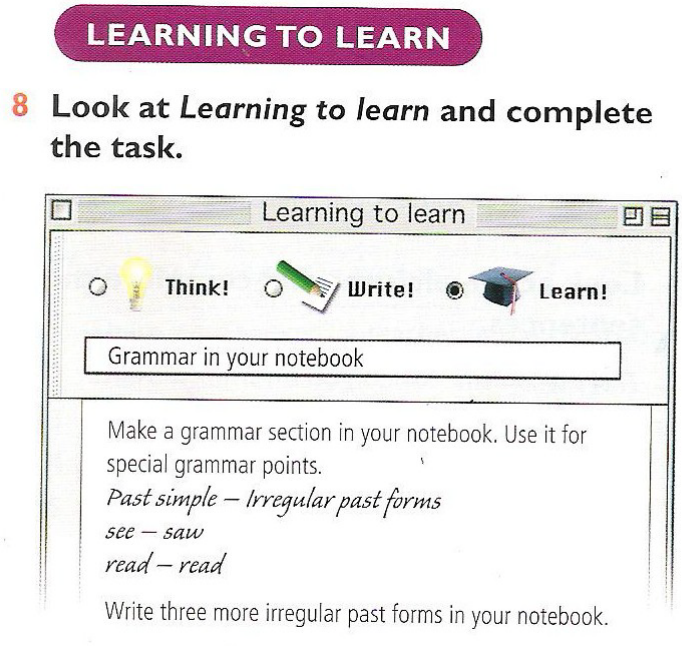


Figure 14

(United 2 2008: 57)

5.6. Grammar Drills

A grammar drill, which is a typical feature of Audiolingualism (see chapter 2), is considered as an exercise in which the grammatical item is first presented to the students orally and then has to be repeated by them (Littlejohn & Windeatt 1989: 167 quoted in Mc Grath 2002: 206). Usually, the grammatical feature appears in sentences, texts, poems or conversations. Hence, conversations with the instruction to repeat them or to act them out are considered grammar drills in this analysis as well. However, students have to listen to the conversation before acting it out. If they just have to act it out an important feature of a grammar drill is missing, which is *listening*. In such cases the exercises has not been counted as grammar exercise in this analysis. Critique on drilling activities comes from Littlejohn and Windeatt who bring drills in connection with power relations in class and state that the students' role while performing drilling activities is a powerless one since they simply repeat sentences after the teacher's prompts and "they mechanically

follow instructions" (Littlejohn & Windeatt 1989: 167 quoted in McGrath 2002: 206). The bar chart below shows the relative amount of grammar drills of each textbook in relation to the total amount of grammar exercises in the textbook:

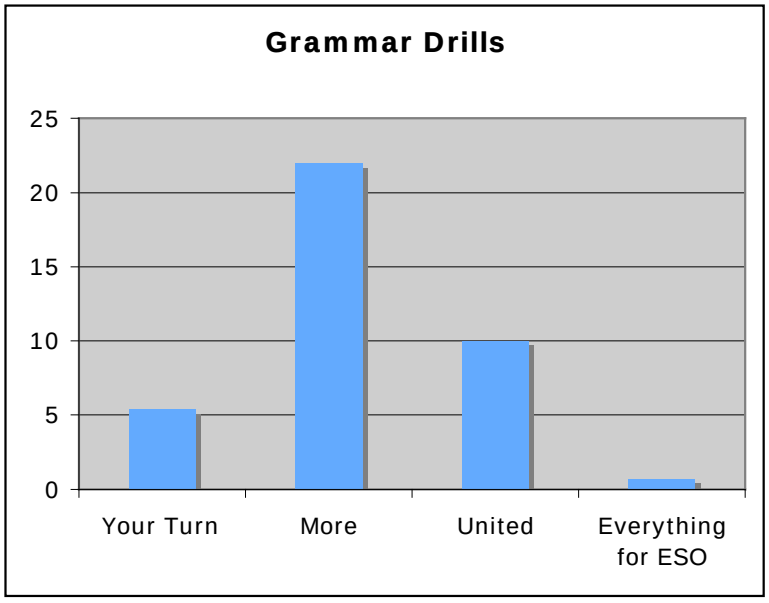


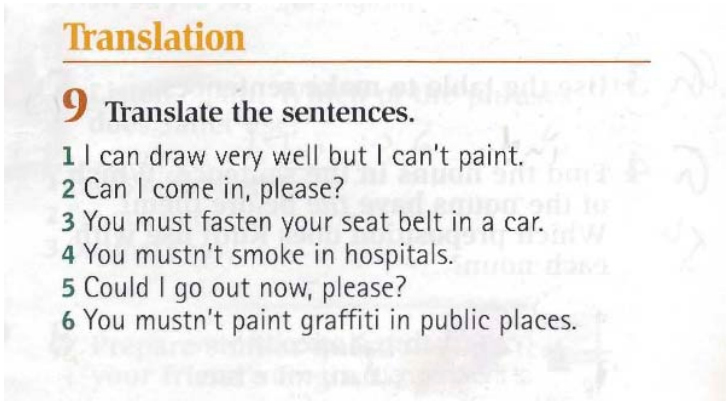
Figure 15

As can be viewed, the *More 2* textbook contains with over 20 percent the most grammar drills in relation to the total number of grammar exercises of the textbook. The *United 2 Student's Book* contains with 10 percent about half of the relative amount of grammar drills as the *More 2* textbook. The *Your Turn 2* textbook contains 5 percent grammar drills and the *Everything for ESO 2* contains with only slightly below 1 percent the least grammar drills in relation the total amount of grammar exercises in the textbook.

5.7. Translation Exercises

A feature associated with the Grammar-Translation Method is the use of translation exercises (see chapter two). Translation exercises can be carried out by translating sentences or a text into or out of the mother tongue. The only textbook that contains translation exercises is the *Everything for ESO 2*. In each unit there is one translation exercise, therefore the textbook contains

9 translation exercises in which decontextualized sentences have to be translated into the mother tongue:



Translation

9 **Translate the sentences.**

1 I can draw very well but I can't paint.
2 Can I come in, please?
3 You must fasten your seat belt in a car.
4 You mustn't smoke in hospitals.
5 Could I go out now, please?
6 You mustn't paint graffiti in public places.

Figure 16

(Everything for ESO 2 2007: 37)

5.8. Fill-in-, Completion-, Matching-, Ordering-, etc. Exercises

Another exercise type, which is brought in connection with the Grammar-Translation Method, is an exercise type typically considered 'typical' grammar exercise. In such exercises students have to complete already constructed sentences and then formulating new sentences, or to fill-in the correct grammatical form in a text with blanks, or to choose between two grammatical options in order to complete a sentence, etc. (c.f. Richards & Rodgers 2007: 107; see chapter two). According to the definition adopted in this paper such exercises are carried out by students individually and do not involve speaking skills. Some of these exercises may be contextualized, others may not. Some may involve listening others may not. Moreover, this exercise type does not involve free production and there are always sentences constructed at first or some example is given. Such exercises often lack a natural content of language use and do not involve the learner personally. The results of the textbooks analysis can be viewed in the chart below:

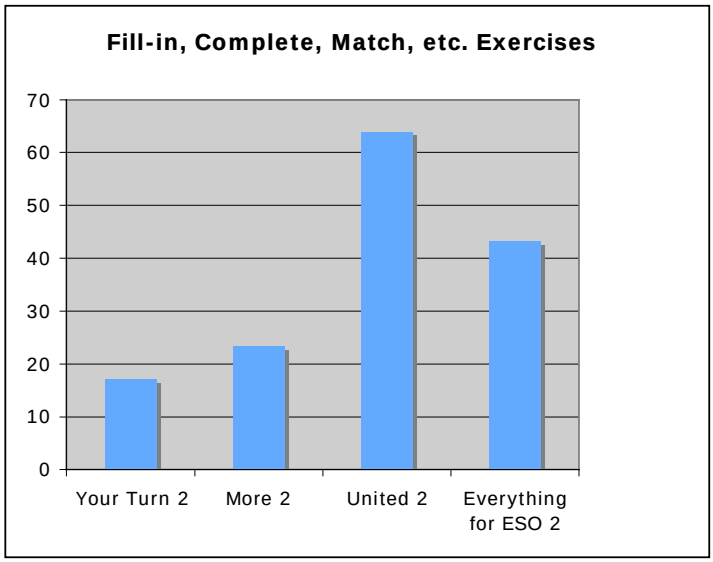


Figure 17

This chart shows that the *United 2* clearly contains with 64 percent most 'completion'-exercises. In the *Everything for ESO 2* 43 percent of completion-exercises are included. The Austrian ELT textbooks contain significantly less exercises of this type: the *Your Turn 2* contains with only 17 percent the lowest relative amount of completion-exercises and the *More 2* also contains with 23 a quite low percentage of completion-exercises. The reason why the *United 2* contains that many completion-exercises also lies in the high amount of grammar review sections which are included in the textbook: after every unit comes a consolidation section with a high amount of grammar exercises and after every third unit a two page long grammar review is presented. The *Everything for ESO 2* also contains three grammar review section and further includes many completion-exercises in the units of the textbook, which is also true for the *United 2*. The Austrian ELT textbooks generally include less completion-exercises in their review sections. Further, there are also very few or as in the *Your Turn 2* none, completion-exercises in the regular units of the textbooks.

Comparing these figures with the ones of social interaction, learner-orientation or contextualization of the four ELT textbooks below, the interrelation of these criteria becomes very obvious. The Spanish ELT textbooks, for example, show higher rates of decontextualized grammar exercises and lower rates of

pair or group work. These are features of grammar exercises contrary to the completion-type just discussed.

5.9. Group Work and Pair Work

The next feature of grammar exercises which is analyzed is the form of social interaction involved in carrying out the exercise. There are exercises that require collaboration with a number of other students, called group work, and there are exercises which require the collaboration of only two students, called pair work. Group work and pair work are seen as important parts of a foreign language class since learners "learn from interaction with others and from the process of carrying out tasks" (McGrath 2002: 205). Besides the linguistic learning such as negotiating meaning or arguing a point of view, arguments in favor of group tasks are that they encourage socialization and teamwork and they also make it possible to learn by observing others (McGrath 2002: 205). Further, transferable skills such as collecting and classifying information, reasoning, critical thinking, creativity and problem solving can also be transmitted to the learners through group tasks (McGrath 2002: 206).

Normally group or pair exercises involve communication and hence are a typical feature of Communicative Language Teaching (see chapter 2). It has been analyzed how many of the grammar exercises in each textbook involve group or pair work. The percentage of group exercises has been compared to the percentage of individual exercises, as can be seen in the charts below. Pair work is shown in blue, group work in red and individual work in yellow:

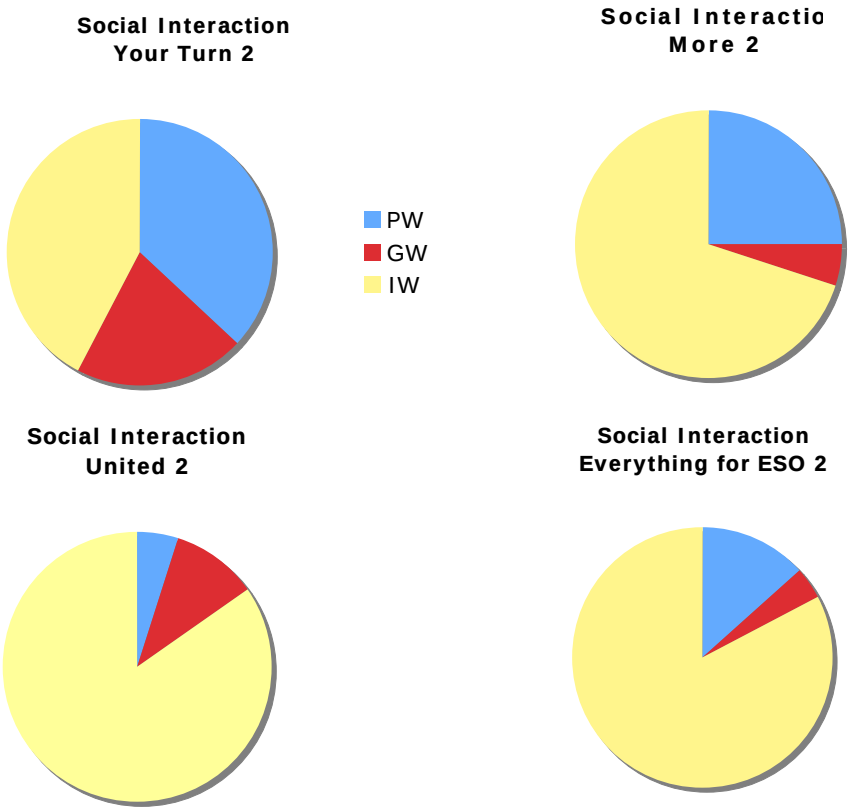


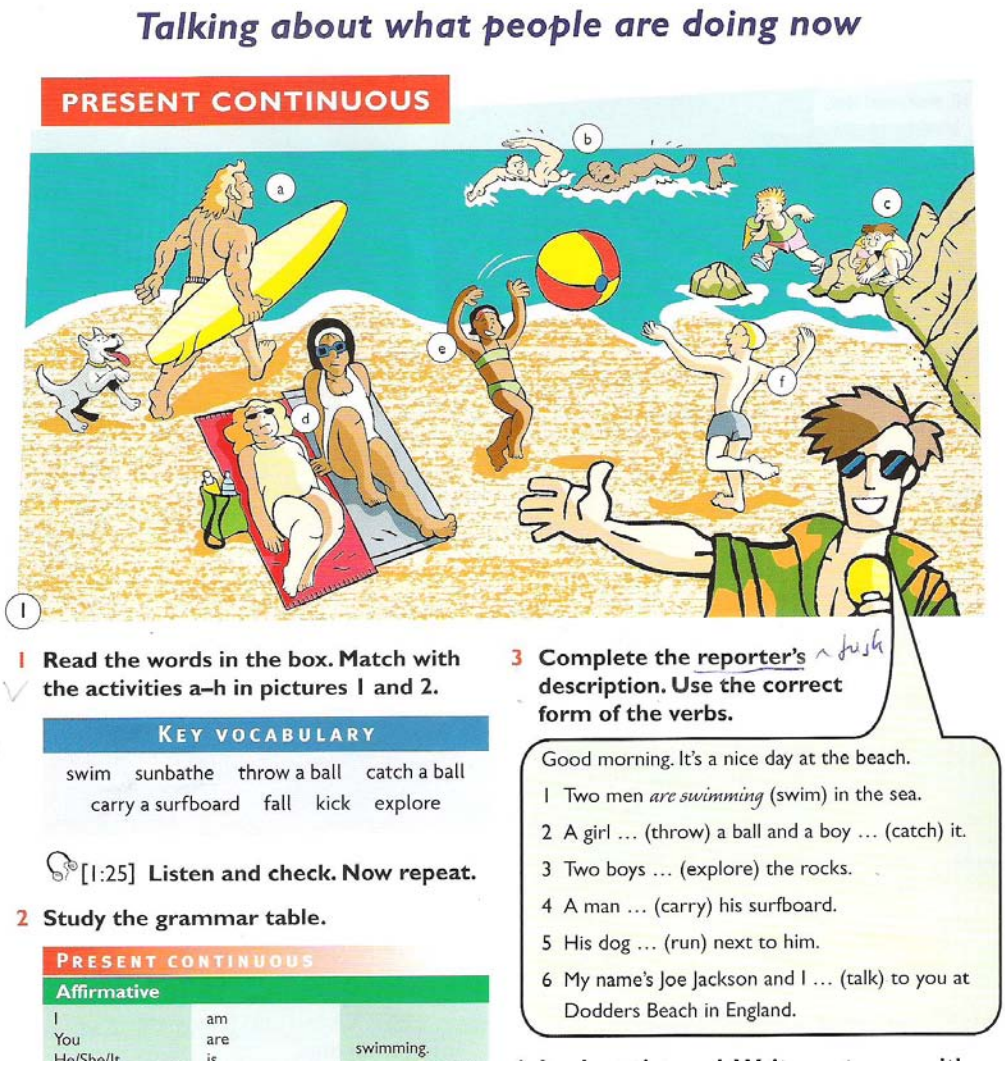
Figure 18

As can be seen in the charts above, the Austrian textbooks contain generally more group and pair work grammar exercises than the Spanish ELT textbooks. Over half of the grammar exercises in the *Your Turn 2* textbook involve group or pair work. This high amount of group or pair work is also due to the fact that grammar exercises in this textbook often involve more skills and consequently it is more likely that pair or group work is included as well. At all events this high amount of group and pair work is still striking, especially when contrasting it with the Spanish textbooks: the *United 2* contains only 15 percent of group and pair work and the *Everything for ESO 2* only 17 percent. In most ELT textbooks analyzed there is more pair work involved than group work, except for the *United 2*, which includes more group than pair work.

5.10. Contextualization of Grammar Exercises

Another important criterion of contemporary language teaching is that language is placed into a meaningful context. As Thornbury points out “Language is context-sensitive.” (Thornbury 2000: 69). This means that without a context it is quite difficult to make sense of a single word or phrase. This is also true for sentences taken out of the context of texts or situations (Thornbury 2000: 69-70). Teaching language features without a natural context in which these features occur was a typical characteristic of the Grammar-Translation Method, since the idea of contextualizing grammar exercises emerged later in Situational Language Teaching. In Situational Language Teaching, which emerged in the 1960s, it was advocated that language should be taught in *generative situations* (Thornbury 2000: 51). Such a situation ‘generates’ sentences in which the target language structure occurs (Thornbury 2000: 51). In contemporary approaches and methods, such as Communicative Language Teaching or the Task-Based Approach, the teaching of language structures in meaningful or natural contexts is more or less standard (see ‘meaningfulness principle’ in chapter two (Johnson 1982)).

In this research paper a grammar exercise is viewed as contextualized if the grammatical structure is placed in some form of context, as for example a text or a situation. Situations typically inform learners about the roles and relationships of the speakers and the mode of communication (Thornbury 2000: 70). Is it a public notice, a letter, …? (Thornbury 2000: 70). However, situations may be also created with the help of a picture and a short description of the situation. Situation occurring in everyday life may be included as well. An example of such a situation is given in the *United 2 Student’s Book* on pg. 30. In exercise three the present continuous gets practiced. A reporter is describing a scene at the beach. Hence, in this situation the present continuous may be used and the logic behind this grammatical feature is displayed quite clearly:



Talking about what people are doing now

PRESENT CONTINUOUS

1 Read the words in the box. Match with the activities a–h in pictures 1 and 2.

KEY VOCABULARY

swim sunbathe throw a ball catch a ball
carry a surfboard fall kick explore

[1:25] **Listen and check. Now repeat.**

2 Study the grammar table.

PRESENT CONTINUOUS

Affirmative		
I	am	
You	are	
He/She/It	is	swimming.

3 Complete the reporter's description. Use the correct form of the verbs.

Good morning. It's a nice day at the beach.

1 Two men *are swimming* (swim) in the sea.
2 A girl … (throw) a ball and a boy … (catch) it.
3 Two boys … (explore) the rocks.
4 A man … (carry) his surfboard.
5 His dog … (run) next to him.
6 My name's Joe Jackson and I … (talk) to you at Dodders Beach in England.

Figure 19
(United 2 2008: 30)

The charts below show the relative amounts of contextualized grammar exercises (blue) in contrast to exercises not contextualized (red). Generally, the majority of grammar exercises of all textbooks analyzed are contextualized. However, the Austrian textbooks show both with 92 percent higher rates of contextualized grammar exercises than their Spanish counterparts. The *United 2 Student's Book* contains 82 percent of contextualized grammar exercises and the *Everything for ESO 2* contains with 69 percent the least contextualized grammar exercises. In any case it has to be added that the rates of contextualized grammar exercises are in all four ELT textbooks analyzed quite high and the idea to teach language and

especially grammar in contexts is present in all four textbooks analyzed. Of course, the contexts themselves vary from textbook to textbook. Meaningful contexts are especially given in tasks (see 'task principle' (Johnson 1982)).

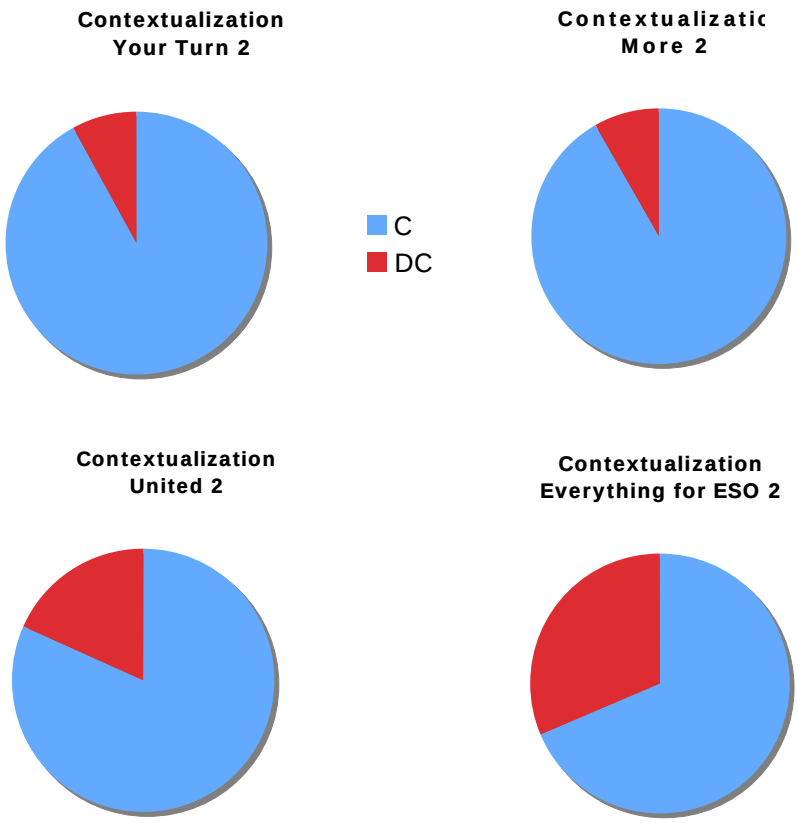


Figure 20

5.11. Learner-orientation of Grammar Exercises

Learner-centeredness is another aspect valued in Communicative Language Teaching (Thornbury 2000: 27). For Thornbury learner-centeredness means "giving learners more responsibility and involvement in the learning process" (Thornbury 2000: 27). This is also achieved through discovery learning activities, in which learners have to work out rules themselves (Thornbury 2000: 27). Discovery learning is also a feature of inductive grammar teaching and will be discussed there in this research paper (see Inductive Grammar Teaching). In this analysis, learner-oriented exercises are exercises which call on the learners' personal experience or personal life. Further, exercises in

which learners can choose among options, as for example, which language to use to complete an exercise or task are counted as learner-oriented as well. These are exercises in which learners can produce language creatively and which give the learners more freedom for personal contributions. A learner-oriented exercise, as defined in this paper, is for example exercise 11 on pg. 85 in the *More 2*. The instruction in this exercise is the following: "Work in pairs. Tell your partner six things you must (mustn't) do at home." (More 2 2008: 85). In this grammar exercise students practice the grammatical items *must* and *mustn't*. Further, the exercise calls on the learners' personal life and students tell each other which things they must or mustn't do at home. The heading of this exercise is "Rules at home" and it somehow creates a context for the grammatical items to make sense, since *must* and *mustn't* are used to describe things that are necessary to do. This is usually the case in house rules. The results of learner-oriented exercises in the ELT textbooks analyzed are shown in figure 21 below (the amounts of learner-oriented exercises are shown in blue and the ones which are not learner-oriented in red):

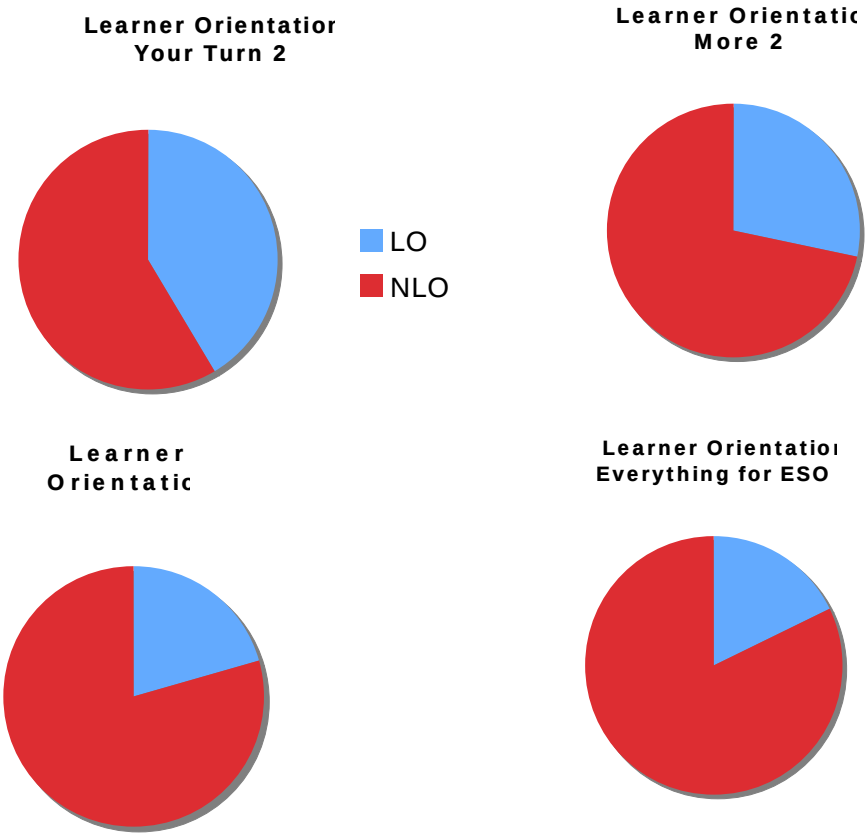


Figure 21

The chart above shows that the *Your Turn 2* clearly contains with 41 percent most learner-oriented grammar exercises, compared to not learner-oriented grammar exercises. In the *More 2* 28 percent of learner-oriented grammar exercises are included. The two Spanish textbooks obviously contain less amounts of learner-oriented grammar exercises: in the *United 2* 21 percent and in the *Everything for ESO 2* 18 percent of learner-oriented grammar exercises are included. These figures support the view that the Austrian ELT textbooks show a stronger tendency towards Communicative Language Teaching than the Spanish ones, at least in terms of learner-orientation.

5.12. Grammar Tasks

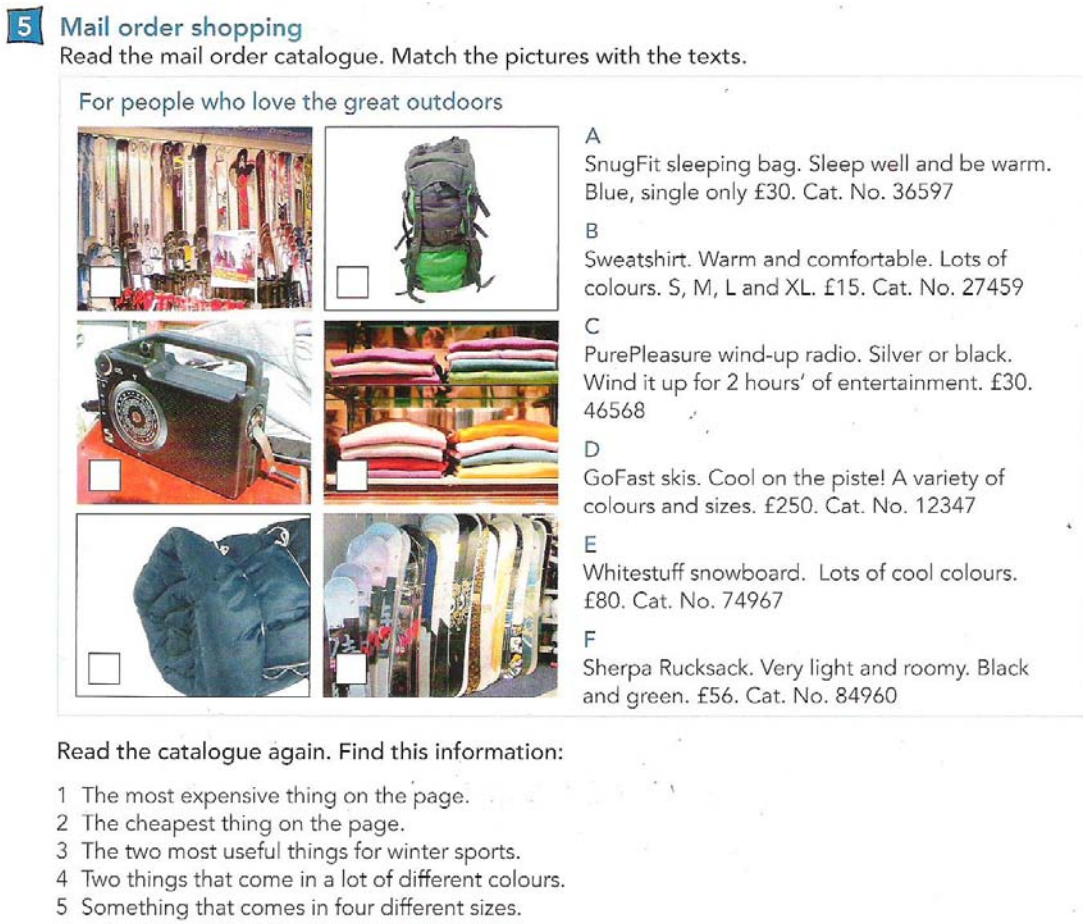
As already described in Chapter two in this research paper, tasks are a feature of Task-Based Language Teaching and thus of Communicative Language Teaching as well. A task is generally defined as

> an activity or goal that is carried out using language, such as finding a solution to a puzzle, reading a map and giving directions, making a telephone call, writing a letter, or reading a set of instructions and assembling a toy (Richards & Rodgers 2007: 224).

Skehan (1996: 20) points out that tasks have meaning as their primary focus and are evaluated in terms of an outcome. He further states that tasks generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use (Skehan 1996: 20).

In this analysis all the above statements concerning the definition of a task are considered. The most important criterion is, however, that in carrying out the tasks a grammatical item is practiced. This must be one of the main purposes of the task. Moreover, as Richards and Rodgers (2007: 223) have already stated, it is crucial that language is used as means to carry out a task, such as finding a solution to a problem, or to give directions etc. Hence, a task must have, among other purposes, the purpose of practicing a grammatical structure and it must have an outcome of some form. Finally, language should

be used as means to complete the task and not as an end itself. A representative task is exercise seven on page 37 in the *Your Turn 2*. Students have to choose products from the catalogue in exercise five (pg. 36) and then to complete the order form of exercise seven. They have got 250 pounds and have to buy things with this money. The grammatical structures taught in this exercise are *quantifiers*, such as *much* and *many*.



5 Mail order shopping

Read the mail order catalogue. Match the pictures with the texts.

For people who love the great outdoors

A
SnugFit sleeping bag. Sleep well and be warm. Blue, single only £30. Cat. No. 36597

B
Sweatshirt. Warm and comfortable. Lots of colours. S, M, L and XL. £15. Cat. No. 27459

C
PurePleasure wind-up radio. Silver or black. Wind it up for 2 hours' of entertainment. £30. 46568

D
GoFast skis. Cool on the piste! A variety of colours and sizes. £250. Cat. No. 12347

E
Whitestuff snowboard. Lots of cool colours. £80. Cat. No. 74967

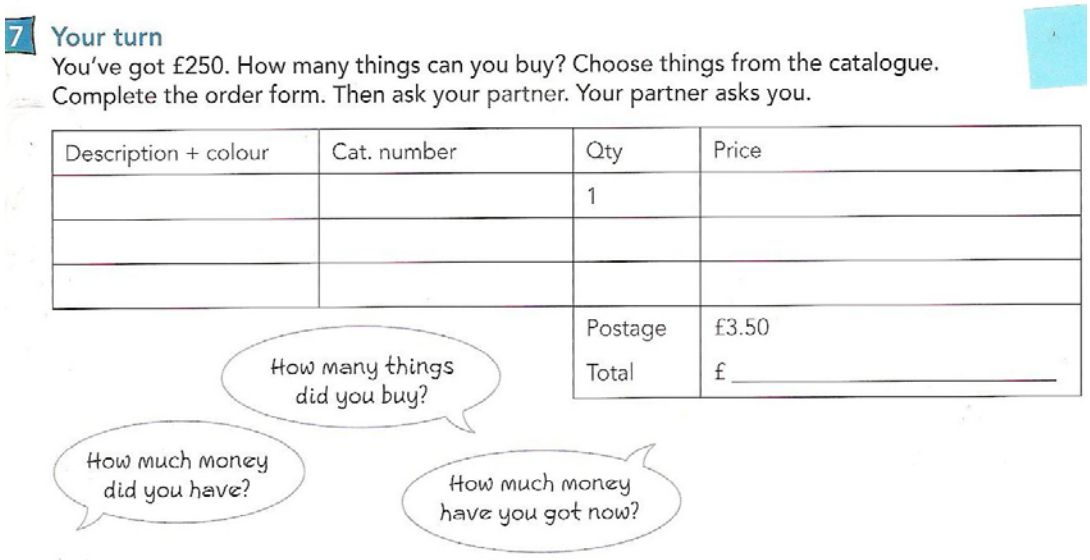
F
Sherpa Rucksack. Very light and roomy. Black and green. £56. Cat. No. 84960

Read the catalogue again. Find this information:

1 The most expensive thing on the page.
2 The cheapest thing on the page.
3 The two most useful things for winter sports.
4 Two things that come in a lot of different colours.
5 Something that comes in four different sizes.

Figure 22

(Your Turn 2 2008: 36)



7 Your turn

You've got £250. How many things can you buy? Choose things from the catalogue. Complete the order form. Then ask your partner. Your partner asks you.

Description + colour	Cat. number	Qty	Price
		1	
		Postage	£3.50
		Total	£ _____

How many things did you buy?

How much money did you have?

How much money have you got now?

Figure 23

(Your Turn 2 2008: 37)

The bar chart below shows that the *Your Turn 2* contains with slightly over 50 percent most tasks. In the Your Turn 2 about half of all grammar exercises are tasks. This figure is quite striking in terms of the inclusion of latest developments in language teaching methodology, such as Task-Based Language Teaching. The *More 2* shows with 33 percent also a relatively high amount of grammar tasks. The Spanish textbooks clearly contain less grammar tasks than the Austrian ones: the *United 2* contains 19 percent grammar tasks and in the *Everything for ESO* 13 percent of grammar tasks in comparison to other grammar exercises are included. Many tasks typically involve pair or group work. This is reflected by the figures of group and pair work in which the *Your Turn 2* also shows the highest rates, followed by the *More 2* and afterwards by the Spanish textbooks.

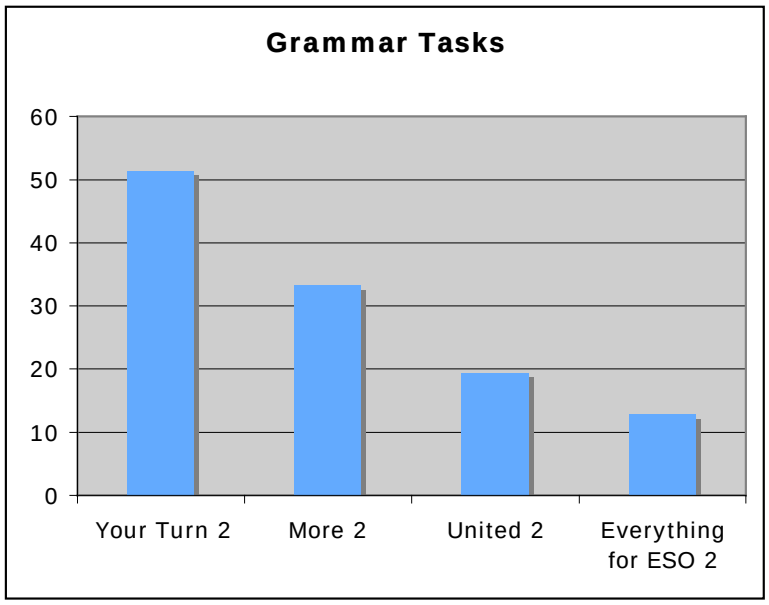


Figure 24

5.13. Language Functions

Grammatical items expressed through language functions are found in all four ELT textbooks analyzed. In the *United 2 Student' Book* language functions are even explicitly mentioned in the table of contents. The table below shows the language functions and the corresponding grammar, both mentioned in the table of contents of the *United 2* textbook:

Language Functions	**Grammar**
describing people and things	have got, Using adjectives
talking about abilities	can and can't - ability
asking for and giving permission	can and can't – permission

Table 3

As can be seen in the above table, for example the language function *talking about abilities* and the grammatical feature *can and can't* are describing exactly the same thing. It can be concluded that in this textbook the grammar items are taught through the language functions, or in the words of Thornbury, grammar is "dressed up in functional labels", which is a feature of CLT

(Thornbury 2000: 22). Thornbury states that certain “form-function matches”, like the examples in the table, are quite easy identifiable (Thornbury 2000: 6). However, there are also functions, which can be expressed through more than one grammatical structure, as for example the function of warning:

You’d better not do that.
I wouldn’t do that, if I were you.
Mind you don’t do that. (Thornbury 2000: 7).

Although there is a lack of a “one-to-one match” between language forms and functions many textbook writers still see it as useful to organize certain grammatical structures in terms of functional labels, such as *Inviting, Making plans, Requesting things, Making comparisons*, etc. (Thornbury 2000: 7).

In the *Everything for ESO 2* language functions are often expressed in the *Listening and speaking* sections. Examples are *Introducing yourself, Talking about your hobbies, Describing and comparing people, objects and places* etc. In the *More 2* and the *Your Turn 2* language functions are similarly often included in the speaking sections of the textbooks. Hence, it can be followed that in terms of language functions all four ELT textbooks analyzed are ‘up-to date’ and adhering to a Communicative Approach to language teaching in this respect.

5.14. Deductive and Inductive Grammar Teaching

5.14.1. Deductive Grammar Teaching

In a deductive approach typically the grammar rule is first presented and followed by examples in which the rule is applied (Thornbury 2000: 29). Another common term for the deductive approach is *rule-driven* learning (Thornbury 2000: 29). Teaching grammar through rules is one of the most traditional, but still not unfashionable, ways of teaching grammar (Thornbury 2000: 21). Using grammar rules in order to teach a language is a typical feature of the Grammar-Translation Method (Thornbury 2000: 21). However, also many other approaches and methods, as for example Communicative

Language Teaching, nowadays accept explicit rule giving (see Chapter two). In the *Longman Active Study Dictionary* a rule is defined as:

- A principle or order which guides behaviour, says how things are to be done etc. or
- the usual way that something happens (Thornbury 2000: 11).

In three of the four ELT textbooks rules are given explicitly: in the *Everything for ESO 2*, the *United 2* and in the *More 2*. Only the *Your Turn 2* textbook does basically not contain explicit grammar rules, however it contains some grammar tables. Rules may be given in the target language or in the native language of the students. Traditionally the explanation of grammar rules was given, as in the Grammar-Translation Method, in the student's mother tongue. In the table below, the amount of grammar rules and the use of the mother tongue (L1) are shown. Further, the amounts of grammar tables included in the textbooks are presented as well.

Textbook	**Your Turn 2**	**More 2**	**United 2**	**Everything for ESO 2**
amount of rules	5	74	116	136
use of L1	No	Yes	No / Yes	No
amount of grammar tables	31	29	26	36

Table 4

This table shows that the Spanish textbooks clearly contain more explicit grammar rules than the Austrian ones. Although the *Your Turn 2* textbook contains most pages only five explicit grammar rules can be found in the whole textbook. However, the *Your Turn 2* contains 31 tables in which grammatical language forms are displayed as well. Hence, grammar instruction has its place in the textbook. Moreover, the L1 is not used in the *Your Turn 2*. In contrast to that, in the *More 2* the L1 is used in explaining

grammar rules throughout the textbook. With 74 grammar rules the *More 2* still contains significantly less rules than the Spanish ELT textbooks: the *United 2* contains 116 explicit grammar rules and the *Everything for ESO 2* even 136 explicit grammar rules. It has to be added that these high amounts of grammar rules are also due to the fact that these two textbooks include grammar reference sections at the end of the textbook, which the Austrian ELT textbooks do not.

In these reference sections the grammar gets explained in great detail. In the *Everything for ESO 2* there are no rules given throughout the textbook. However, next to the grammar exercise presented in the textbook is a reference to the relevant page of the grammar reference section on which the grammar rule can be found. The language used for explaining grammar rules in the *Everything for ESO* is English. In the *United 2* rules are given in the grammar reference section as well as throughout the textbook. The grammar rules of the reference section are given in Spanish and the ones of the different units in English.[10] Concerning grammar tables all four ELT textbooks contain with around 30 the same amount of grammar tables. Thus it could be concluded that especially the Spanish ELT textbooks show a greater tendency towards deductive grammar teaching, in respect to explicit rule giving. This is only partially true. The *More 2*, for example, also seems to be oriented towards deductive grammar teaching, since 74 explicit grammar rules are given. However, in many examples students have to work out the rules themselves. This is an example of discovery learning, a feature of inductive grammar teaching.

5.14.2. Inductive Grammar Teaching

According to Thornbury “An inductive approach starts with some examples from which a rule is inferred” (Thornbury 2000: 29). To be more precise, in an

[10] In this analysis only the rules of the reference section have been counted, since the ones of the units are explained in more detail in the grammar reference.

inductive approach the learner first studies examples in which the grammatical structure is used, without having met the rule, and from these examples he or she has to develop an understanding of the rule (Thornbury 2000: 49). Inductive language learning is quite similar to the way native speakers acquire their language and thus the approach often is associated with the Direct Method and the Natural Approach (Thornbury 2000: 49). These approaches are modeled on fist language acquisition and their basic assumption is that “language data (or input) is best processed inductively and without recourse or translation” (Thornbury 2000: 49).

In contrast to views in the Direct Method and the Natural Approach, an explicit statement of the rule after having worked out the examples is now tolerated in inductive language teaching (Thornbury, 51). Another principle of inductive language teaching is *discovery learning*. Pascal best explained the logic that lies behind this term, several centuries earlier:

> People are generally better persuaded by the reasons which they themselves have discovered than by those which have come into the minds of others (in Thornbury 2000: 51).

Further, discovery learning also involves trial and error by the student and correction by the teacher. Soon, the principles of discovery learning were adapted for classroom use and ELT textbooks that promote an inductive approach include these principles and are, according to Thornbury, today more or less standard (2002: 52).

Discovery learning, as already stated, is found in the *More 2* and further in the *Everything for ESO 2*. Another term for discovery learning is consciousness-raising: according to Thornbury a consciousness-raising task is designed to “raise learners’ awareness regarding specific grammatical items in order to promote the ‘restructuring’ of their mental grammar” (Thornbury 2001: 100). The table below shows the numbers of instances of discovery learning in the four ELT textbooks analyzed:

Textbook	Your Turn 2	More 2	United 2	Everything for ESO 2
discovery learning	0	21	0	17

Table 5

In the *More 2 Student's Book* grammar rules are 21 times presented inductively: typically some examples of the correct use of the language item are given and the student then has to infer the correct grammar rule. An example of this inductive presentation of grammatical features is the presentation of *should* and *shouldn't* on page 31:

Grammar ***Should, shouldn't***

Lies die Beispielsätze.

We **should go** home – it's late.
We **shouldn't go** in there – it's dangerous.
What **should** I **do**?

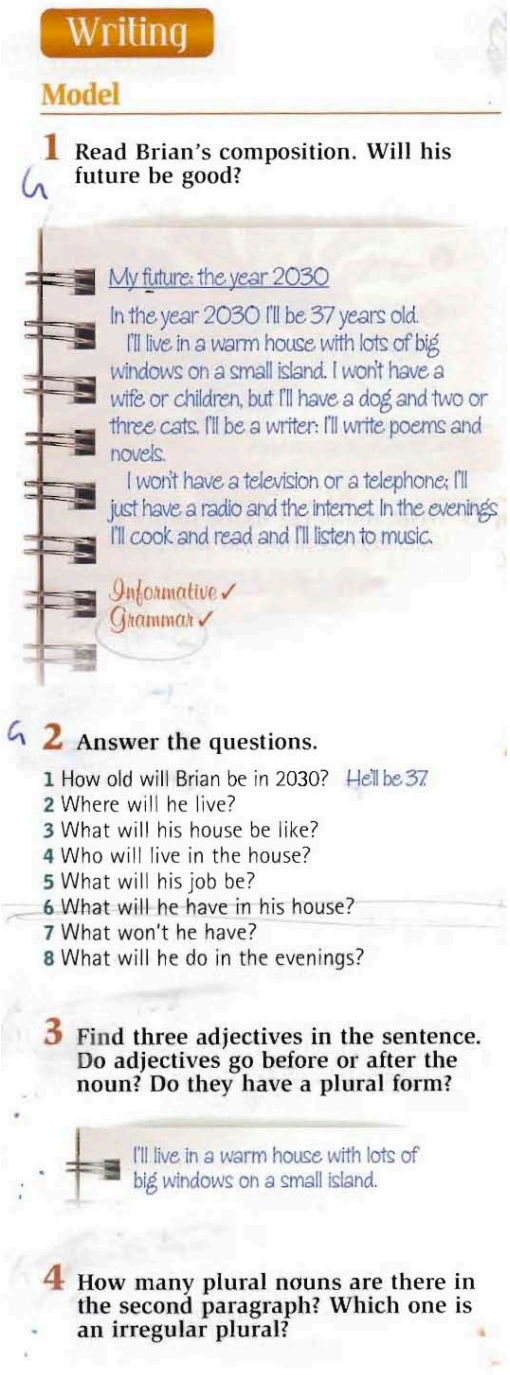
Complete the sentences with *should* or *shouldn't*.

Wenn du sagen willst, was jemand tun sollte, dann verwendest du [1].....
Wenn du sagen willst, was jemand nicht tun sollte, dann verwendest du [2].....
Wenn du um Rat fragst, dann verwendest du ebenfalls [3].....
Bildung: *should/shouldn't* + *base form* (Nennform) des Zeitwortes.

Figure 25
(More 2 2008: 31)

In the *Everything for ESO 2* grammar rules are presented quite in the same way as in the *More 2*. However, the grammatical items presented in these inductive grammar exercises, which are part of the writing-section of the textbook, do not necessarily teach the grammatical items shown in the table of contents of that unit. Often other aspects of grammar are presented inductively to students. Further, the inductive grammar exercises presented are often connected with a short text that always goes before these grammar

exercises. In some exercises students also have to produce a grammatical feature. In most cases, however, they have to answer comprehension questions and infer grammar rules. An example of typical inductive grammar exercises in the *Everything for ESO 2* are found on page 32 and shown below:



Writing

Model

1 **Read Brian's composition. Will his future be good?**

My future: the year 2030

In the year 2030 I'll be 37 years old.
I'll live in a warm house with lots of big windows on a small island. I won't have a wife or children, but I'll have a dog and two or three cats. I'll be a writer: I'll write poems and novels.
I won't have a television or a telephone; I'll just have a radio and the internet. In the evenings I'll cook and read and I'll listen to music.

Informative ✓
Grammar ✓

2 **Answer the questions.**

1 How old will Brian be in 2030? He'll be 37.
2 Where will he live?
3 What will his house be like?
4 Who will live in the house?
5 What will his job be?
6 What will he have in his house?
7 What won't he have?
8 What will he do in the evenings?

3 **Find three adjectives in the sentence. Do adjectives go before or after the noun? Do they have a plural form?**

I'll live in a warm house with lots of big windows on a small island.

4 **How many plural nouns are there in the second paragraph? Which one is an irregular plural?**

Figure 26

(Everything for ESO 2 2007: 32)

In exercises three and four inductive grammar teaching is applied. In exercise students have to find out if the adjectives go before or after the noun. Further, they have to consider whether adjectives have a plural form, like the ones in their native language Spanish. In exercise four the distinction between regular and irregular plurals in nouns is taught to students. However, students have to check themselves, if there are any irregular plural forms in the text.

The *Your Turn 2* and the *United 2* do not contain any discovery learning activities or instances of an inductive presentation of grammar rules. Therefore, it can be summed up that in the *United 2* rather a deductive approach to grammar teaching is adopted, since rules and tables are usually given before students have to do the exercises in which the feature gets practiced. Moreover no instances of inductive grammar teaching are included in the textbook. In the *Your Turn 2* there are no instances of inductive rule giving or discovery learning activities either, however, generally no rules are presented. The approach adopted in this textbook rather seems to be inductive, although no instances of discovery learning are included. McGrath (2002: 206) views such an inductive approach as critical and states that the absence of any explicit grammar reference in a textbook may give learners the impression that learning a language means to learn a set of fixed phrases in which different items can be substituted or changed. It has to be admitted however, that in the *Your Turn 2* grammar tables are included, which can be seen as a form of explicit grammar teaching. The *More 2* and the *Everything for ESO 2*, on the other hand, contain discovery learning activities or instances of inductive rule giving. However, there are also quite a number of instances of deductive rule giving. Hence, the approaches in these two textbooks lie somewhere between deductive and inductive grammar teaching, according to the definition of these two concepts adopted in this analysis.

5.15. Presentation and Gradation of Grammar

In all ELT textbooks analyzed a text or conversation is given at the beginning of each unit in which the grammar items to be learned in the unit are included. This way of presenting grammar points gives students the chance of being exposed to grammar in its context of use, which is, according to Thornbury, at the very least, in the form of texts (Thornbury 2000: 72). Afterwards, grammar rules or tables are presented. This is also true for all four ELT textbooks analyzed. Usually, grammar exercises follow in which the items are practiced, especially in the Spanish ELT textbooks also in decontextualized forms. Thornbury points out that this is done because it is easier to study examples of grammar out of context, since the natural context of the grammatical item often is distracting for learners, especially beginners or elementary learners (Thornbury 2000: 71). However, he states, if language or in particular grammar becomes detached from its co-text and its context of situation, it becomes more difficult to make sense of it (Thornbury 2000: 71).

In all four ELT textbooks grammar exercises are generally graded from simple to more complex ones. A good example of this are the exercises on page 40 and 41 in the *Your Turn 2*. In these consecutive exercises the grammatical structure *have to* is practiced. In the first exercise students just have to complete sentences, however they do not have to produce the grammatical structure themselves. They have to complete sentences like “He has to …”. In the next exercise students have to say why they can’t come to Sadie’s party and they have to produce whole sentences. However, they are given a model sentence and are supposed to produce similar ones. In the next exercise students have to produce the negation of have to and in the final exercise they have to produce sentences containing the grammatical structure in pair work. Students can choose among a few options what they have to or don’t have to do at a day of the week. In the other ELT textbooks analyzed similar examples can be found. Gradation of grammar exercises is a general principle in language teaching. Thornbury states that the grading of grammar items is done according to the criteria “complexity”, “learnability” and “teachability” (Thornbury 2000: 9).

6. CONCLUSION

After having analyzed the four ELT textbooks in respect to various aspects of grammar teaching, the main findings are summed up in this final chapter. It can be concluded that grammar plays a major role in all four ELT textbooks. This gets obvious by considering the textbook syllabuses of the four textbooks, which show that the teaching content is mainly organized around the grammatical items to be taught. The relative amounts of grammar exercises in the four ELT textbooks are generally quite high: the *Your Turn 2* and the *United 2* show with over 50 percent the highest rates of grammar exercises in comparison to the whole amount of exercises in the textbooks. The *Everything for ESO 2* contains 34 percent and the *More 2* only 20 percent of grammar exercises on the total number of exercises in the textbooks.

The question posed in the introduction of this paper, namely if the textbooks strictly follow one single approach or method, clearly has to be answered with no. For example, all four ELT textbooks also teach grammar through language functions, which is a feature of Communicative Language Teaching. On the other hand, the *Everything for ESO 2* contains translation exercises, which is a typical feature of the Grammar-Translation Method. Another feature of the Grammar-Translation Method are fill-in, completion, matching, etc. exercises, which sometimes are also decontextualized and generally do not involve communication skills. This exercise type is also found in all four ELT textbooks, however to different degrees. Concerning this criterion, the Spanish ELT textbooks clearly surpass the Austrian ones: the *United 2* contains 64 percent and the *Everything for ESO 2* 43 percent of this exercise type, measured on the total amounts of grammar exercises in the textbooks. The *Your Turn 2* only contains 17 percent and the *More 2* only 23 percent of fill-in, completion, etc. exercises.

Another feature, which has shown quite interesting results, is the incorporation of grammar drills in the four ELT textbooks. This exercise type, which is one of the main features of Audiolingualism or Situational Language Teaching, has mainly been found in the *More 2*, with about 20 percent. The

United 2 contains 10 percent and the *Your Turn 2* only 5 percent of grammar drills. Finally, the *Everything for ESO 2* contains less than one percent of grammar drills, in respect to the whole amount of grammar exercises in the textbook. So far it can be concluded that the Spanish ELT textbooks show a greater tendency towards traditional approaches to language teaching than the Austrian ones, since concerning the criteria of the Grammar-Translation Method, namely translation exercises, fill-in, completion, etc. exercises and the focus on writing and reading skills, which is also prevalent in these exercise types, the Spanish textbooks show higher rates. What regards Audiolingualism, the only defining criterion of the method which is present in the ELT textbooks is grammar drills. The *More 2* shows with about 20 percent the highest rates of grammar drills. Nevertheless, drills are incorporated in all ELT textbooks analyzed.

Finally, the more actual approaches to language teaching, namely Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Teaching will be looked at more closely. The criterion group and pair work is a typical feature of Communicative Language Teaching, since in this approach communication skills are emphasized. The *Your Turn 2* contains with over 50 percent clearly most group and pair work exercises, in which a grammatical structure is taught. The *More 2* contains over a quarter of group and pair work exercises, in contrast to the Spanish ELT textbooks, which contain with 17 (Everything for ESO 2) and 15 (United 2) percent, significantly less group or pair work. Concerning contextualization of grammar exercises basically the same is true: although all four ELT textbooks generally show high rates of contextualization, the Austrian ELT textbooks show higher rates than the Spanish ones: *Your Turn 2* and *More 2*: 92 percent; *United 2*: 82 percent, Everything for *ESO 2*: 69 percent; For the learner-orientation of grammar exercises basically the same pattern can be seen: the *Your Turn 2* shows with 41 percent the highest rates, followed by the *More 2* with 28 percent. The Spanish ELT textbooks contain with 21 percent (*United 2*) and 18 percent (*Everything for ESO 2*) clearly lower rates. Finally, the relative amounts of tasks teaching a grammatical structure have been analyzed. Here, the *Your Turn 2* shows with over 50 percent a very high rate of tasks, teaching a

grammatical feature. The *More 2* contains with 33 percent a respectably high rate as well. The *United 2* contains 19 percent and the *Everything for ESO 2* 13 percent of grammar tasks.

In terms of deductive and inductive grammar teaching it can be concluded that the *United 2* shows a tendency towards deductive grammar teaching and the other three ELT textbooks lie somewhere between these two concepts. The *More 2* and the *Everything for ESO 2* include discovery learning activities, which is a feature of contemporary language teaching and inductive grammar teaching. Grammar rules are explicitly taught in the *United 2*, the *More 2* and the *Everything for ESO 2*. The *Your Turn 2* only contains very few rules, but all four textbooks contain grammar tables. Hence, the recommendation of the Austrian curriculum, to teach grammar rules only when purposeful and not for all grammatical features is fulfilled by the *Your Turn 2*. However, in the *Your Turn 2* as well as the *United 2* no instances of discovery learning are presented. Contrary to that, discovery learning is included in the *More 2* and the *Everything for ESO 2*. The recommendation in the Austrian curriculum for inductive grammar teaching is implemented to some extent in the *Your Turn 2*, the *More 2* and the *Everything for ESO 2*.

To answer the research questions to which approach or method the four ELT textbooks adhere, it can be concluded that the Austrian textbooks generally show a greater tendency towards Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Teaching than the Spanish ones. Especially the *Your Turn 2* shows a very strong tendency towards these approaches. Thus the teaching of communicative competence as stated in the Austrian curriculum, is implemented in the textbooks in terms of group and pair work. The Spanish ELT textbooks, however, contains features of these more recent approaches, as group and pair work, inductive grammar teaching or discovery learning as well. Nevertheless, the Spanish ELT textbooks contain higher figures of criteria of the Grammar-Translation Method, such as translation exercises, fill-in, completion, etc. exercises, deductive grammar teaching or a focus on reading and writing skills, than the Austrian textbooks, which contain such criteria as well, although at lower rates. It can be followed that the four ELT

textbooks do not stick to one single method and Swaffar, Arens and Morgan's findings, namely that in textbooks the philosophy of a given method or approach is not strictly followed can be confirmed in this textbook analysis (Swaffar, Arens & Morgan 1982). The Austrian ELT textbooks, especially the *Your Turn 2*, are stronger oriented towards more recent approaches to language teaching than the Spanish ones. Consequently, there is a difference between the Austrian and Spanish ELT textbooks: it can be concluded that the Austrian ELT textbooks are more up-to-date than their Spanish counterparts. However, it has to be added that every textbook also contains quite unique features and this has to be regarded as well when selecting an ELT textbook for a language course.

Finally, I want to state that textbooks are important tools for foreign language teachers and teachers in general. A textbook analysis, as the one of this paper, helps teachers to select textbooks according to their teaching aims. However, teaching means more than simply teaching a textbook and I agree with Kumaravadivelu who emphasizes that teachers should

> know not only how to teach but also know how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula and textbooks (Kumaravadivelu 1994: 30).

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8. Appendices

Appendix 1: Analysis grid of the *Your Turn 2 Textbook*

Your Turn 2											
TOC	**G**	**PW**	**GW**	**C**	**LO**	**D**	**TA**	**FI**	**R**	**IR**	**TAB**
Intro	2	2	0	2	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
Unit 1	9	4	2	8	4	0	5	1	0	0	3
Unit 2	5	4	1	5	1	0	3	0	0	0	2
Unit 3	4	1	2	4	2	1	1	1	0	0	1
Unit 4	5	0	2	3	2	0	4	2	0	0	0
Unit 5	8	2	1	8	1	1	2	1	0	0	2
Unit 6	3	3	0	3	1	0	2	0	0	0	1
Unit 7	3	1	0	3	2	0	1	1	0	0	1
Unit 8	5	2	1	4	1	0	3	2	0	0	0
Unit 9	5	2	2	5	2	0	2	1	0	0	2
Unit 10	7	2	2	6	2	1	3	1	2	0	3
Unit 11	2	0	1	2	0	1	2	0	0	0	1
Unit 12	6	2	1	5	3	0	4	2	0	0	0
Unit 13	7	2	1	7	4	0	3	1	0	0	2
Unit 14	3	2	1	3	2	1	2	0	2	0	1
Unit 15	5	2	1	5	3	0	3	0	0	0	2
Unit 16	6	2	1	5	2	0	2	2	0	0	0
Unit 17	2	1	0	2	2	0	2	0	0	0	1
Unit 18	4	3	0	4	2	0	3	0	0	0	2
Unit 19	3	2	0	3	3	0	2	0	0	0	1
Unit 20	4	0	2	3	2	0	3	1	0	0	0
Unit 21	4	2	0	4	1	1	1	1	1	0	3
Unit 22	2	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	2
Unit 23	4	0	2	4	1	0	2	0	0	0	1
Unit 24	3	0	0	2	2	0	1	1	0	0	0
grammar exercises total	111	41	23	102	46	6	57	19	5	0	31
exercises total	222										
percent. grammar exercises	50										

Appendix 2: Analysis grid of the *More 2 Student's Book*

More 2											
TOC	**G**	**PW**	**GW**	**C**	**LO**	**D**	**TA**	**FI**	**R**	**IR**	**TAB**
Unit 1	5	0	1	5	2	0	1	0	4	0	2
Unit 2	4	1	0	4	1	1	1	1	3	2	1
Unit 3	4	1	0	4	2	2	1	1	3	2	2
Unit 4	3	0	0	3	1	1	0	1	3	3	1
Unit 5	4	1	0	4	2	2	3	0	8	0	3
Progress Ch.	2	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	0	0
Unit 6	6	1	0	6	0	1	4	0	2	0	1
Unit 7	4	2	0	4	0	1	2	0	2	2	1
Unit 8	5	3	0	5	2	1	2	0	4	0	2
Unit 9	3	0	0	3	1	0	1	1	5	0	2
Unit 10	2	0	0	2	0	1	0	1	6	2	1
Progress Ch.	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Unit 11	2	0	0	2	1	0	1	0	4	2	2
Unit 12	5	3	0	5	3	1	3	0	2	1	2
Unit 13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	2	1
Unit 14	4	2	1	4	1	2	0	2	6	1	2
Unit 15	3	1	0	2	0	0	0	3	5	0	2
Progress Ch.	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0
Unit 16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	1
Unit 17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	1
Unit 18	1	0	1	1	1	0	1	0	3	0	1
Unit 19	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	2	1
Unit 20	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Progress Ch.	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
grammar exercises tota.	60	15	3	55	17	13	20	14	74	21	29
exercises total	297										
percent. grammar exercises	20										

Appendix 3: Analysis grid of the *United 2 Student's Book*

United 2											
TOC	**G**	**PW**	**GW**	**C**	**LO**	**D**	**TA**	**FI**	**R**	**IR**	**TAB**
Remember	3	0	0	3	1	0	0	5	18	0	5
Unit 1	20	1	2	16	4	3	2	10	9	0	2
Unit 2	21	1	3	17	7	3	3	10	15	0	4
Unit 3	24	1	3	21	5	2	4	13	20	0	2
Review 1	11	0	0	11	0	0	0	11	0	0	0
Unit 4	17	1	2	14	3	2	3	11	8	0	1
Unit 5	22	1	3	16	4	2	3	13	14	0	4
Unit 6	16	1	2	11	5	3	2	8	11	0	3
Review 2	8	0	0	7	0	0	0	8	0	0	0
Unit 7	18	1	3	17	6	2	4	10	6	0	3
Unit 8	18	1	1	13	3	2	2	13	7	0	2
Unit 9	17	2	2	12	4	2	3	10	8	0	0
Review 3	8	0	0	8	0	0	0	8	0	0	0
grammar exercises total	203	10	21	166	42	21	26	130	116	0	26
exercises total	361										
percent. grammar exercises	56										

Appendix 4: Analysis grid of the *Everything for ESO 2 Student's Book*

Everything for ESO 2												
TOC	**G**	**PW**	**GW**	**C**	**LO**	**D**	**TA**	**TR**	**FI**	**R**	**IR**	**TAB**
Unit 1	9	1	1	6	2	0	2	1	5	20	1	8
Unit 2	10	2	0	5	0	0	2	1	6	21	1	3
Unit 3	8	2	0	5	0	1	1	1	4	15	1	5
CA	9	1	1	5	1	0	3	0	5	0	0	0
Unit 4	18	1	0	15	4	0	4	1	5	8	3	3
Unit 5	11	1	1	9	2	0	2	1	5	12	1	0
Unit 6	14	2	0	10	2	0	3	1	6	12	1	3
CB	8	2	0	5	2	0	1	0	4	0	0	0
Unit 7	13	1	1	10	2	0	2	1	5	11	2	3
Unit 8	19	2	0	14	5	0	3	1	7	22	4	9
Unit 9	8	1	0	4	1	0	0	1	3	15	3	2
CC	7	2	1	4	3	0	3	0	3	0	0	0
grammar exercises total	134	18	5	92	24	1	26	9	58	136	17	36
exercises total	390											
percent. grammar exercises	34											

Labeling:

G = grammar exercises
PW = pair work
GW = group work
L = learner-orientation
CO = contextualization
D = grammar drills
TA = tasks
TR = translation exercises
FI = fill-in, matching, completion, etc. exercises
R = explicit grammar rules
IR = instances of discovery learning (inductive grammar teaching)
TAB = grammar tables

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