

SLA Research and Course Books for EFL

An Exploration of the Inclusion of Current SLA
Research Findings on Grammar Instruction in a
Course Book for German Learners of English

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Teaching English as a Foreign Language

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1. Introduction

When reminiscing about foreign language lessons in school times the conversation sooner or later inevitably turns to the book used in school – the characters, the topics, the songs that are still in the memory. Most people still remember vividly the book which was used in their foreign language lessons – they are inextricably linked to their experience of the language.

And also teachers value their books and materials they have collected over the years and which they can rely on for their lesson planning.

Obviously, books and other material play a vital role in foreign language lessons for both the teachers and the students. Course books are available in most schools and most teachers work with them. They fill the abstract guidelines the curriculum provides with texts and grammar; they provide a plan for teaching and learning. But what are these books that have such a tremendous influence on the foreign language classroom based on? Do they take into consideration research findings on how to teach languages or do they primarily rely on traditional teaching methods to please the teachers – their target group?

In this work it will be examined which theories exist concerning second language acquisition (SLA) and which implications can be deduced from them concerning the teaching of grammar in English as a foreign language (EFL) classrooms (chapter 3). In order to do that we will also have a look at what the term *grammar* actually means in our context (chapter 2.1.), how grammar teaching in English instruction has developed in Germany over the last centuries up to today (chapter 2.2.) and what the curriculum suggests for current teaching (chapter 2.3.). On the basis of the deductions from chapter 3 and considerations on how the course book is used in lessons and how it affects them, suggestions for the design of course books will be proposed.

In the analysis part (chapter 4) these proposals will be applied to a certain communicative goal which is usually taught in EFL lessons – namely ways to express the future. Again suggestions for the design of course books will be proposed but this time specifically for this topic. Those will be compared to the treatment of this topic in a course book for EFL which is used in German schools. On the basis of this comparison we will then see if SLA theories have been taken into account when designing the book and where more could be done to facilitate language teaching.

2. Grammar and Grammar Instruction

In this section we will look at definitions of *grammar* and see which aspects of grammar are important for the present purpose. Furthermore, it will be described how teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) developed in Germany up to now with a special focus on grammar instruction. This will lead us to the current concept of grammar teaching. Finally, the current curriculum for instruction in modern foreign languages will be explored concerning its specifications for grammar teaching.

2.1. Definitions of Grammar

First of all it is essential to determine what exactly is meant by *grammar*. According to Börner and Vogel there are three interpretations of this ambiguous term:

- 1) Grammar as an abstract system of rules which is the collective property of a language community (grammar as a language system)
- 2) Grammar as the description of this system in form of scientific hypotheses (grammar as language description)
- 3) Grammatical knowledge of an individual which enables him to form utterances according to the rules and to determine whether other utterances are correct (grammar as language knowledge) (2002: xiii)

However, Larsen-Freeman finds seven different interpretations of grammar, of which only two will be added here because of their relevance for the present topic. Those are:

- “the structures and rules compiled for instructional and assessment purposes (pedagogical grammar)”
- “the structures and rules compiled for instructional purposes for teachers (usually a more comprehensive and detailed version of [the pedagogical grammar]) (teacher’s grammar)” (2009: 518).

Most important for the teaching context are “grammar as language knowledge”, because that is what should be developed in language teaching and “grammar as language description” to which we can add both types of Larsen-Freeman’s distinction as subcategories because formulated rules of grammar are needed as a basis for teaching grammar. Learners demand explanations and teachers (and the course material) should be able to provide answers.

Moreover, the view on grammar in this text will be primarily functional, i.e. putting an emphasis on the way a certain intention for speaking can be expressed by language rather than on looking at and studying the form or structure of the language (Larsen-Freeman 2009: 518).

2.2. Grammar Instruction

Views on how to teach languages successfully and the role grammar plays in language instruction have changed significantly over the last centuries and decades. Modern language instruction itself was rare in schools in Europe before 1800, at that time only some tradesmen needed to learn modern languages for their business. Grammar (mainly for Latin) was already taught but in an abstract way in schools, as part of acquiring “universal knowledge” (Howatt and Widdowson 2004: 130). At the end of the 18th century more and more schools began to integrate modern languages into their curriculum which required the development of methods suitable for younger students – in Germany the “grammar-translation method” was devised as a result of this need. As the name suggests, this method consisted of teaching of grammar rules with accompanying vocabulary and translation exercises. Only written language was considered in both input and production (Howatt and Widdowson 2004: 132). This approach did not change until the middle of the 20th century when the focus shifted from the structure of the language to language as a means of communication.

Formal grammar teaching was abolished in favour of *audiolingualism* which was based on the presumption that learning a language is habituation, i.e. that learners need to get used to a certain structure by repeating it many times. Lessons were based on pattern drills and talking about and analysis of grammatical structures was absent (Rathausky 2009: 60). This approach then was abandoned in favour of the *communicative approach*, which aims at developing a competent language user by providing opportunities for communication in the language lessons (Rathausky 2009: 61). Nowadays, a mixture of formal and functional views is generally preferred – practically that means that grammar is taught in relation to its communicative uses. Grammatical phenomena are not taught for their own sake but because students need them in order to express themselves in the target language (Doff and Klippel 2007: 58). In general, there is an agreement that students should be presented with a variety of input and various exercises to practice and use the target language (Doff and Klippel 2007: 62). There is, however, still discussion about the place of grammar, especially concerning the use of rules (Doff and Klippel 2007: 61). In practice, explicit explaining of rules is common, as Rathausky found out in her study on explaining in grammar lessons (2009: 148). Even though a communicative approach is favoured by researchers and the curriculum, grammatically correct statements are much more important in

the classroom than they would be in an actual conversation (Doff and Klippel 2007: 61). An alternative to this offers task-based learning, in which the students work on tasks which necessitate language use and challenges them to develop their language skills (Doff und Klippel 2007: 61).

In conclusion one can say that the dominant view on language teaching nowadays is to learn topic-based and to use grammar (instruction) as a supporting device, i.e. the grammar needed to express the content is taught.

2.3. The Curriculum

Due to the communicative orientation of the curriculum¹ it is difficult to find any specifications for grammar teaching at all. The main goal of teaching foreign languages is, according to the curriculum, to prepare the students for situations in which the target language occurs in real life (RLP 3). The students shall acquire language competence, competence in language learning and learn to reflect their own language use (RLP 3). There are five areas of competence which are to be developed in foreign language teaching: functional communicative competence, intercultural communicative competence and text/media competence (RLP 9). For the first one to develop the learners need to be in control of some linguistic means, i.e. vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, prosody and orthography (RLP 10). In accordance with what was stated above, grammar is not included for its own sake but as a means to an end - knowledge of grammar is supposed to help the learners communicate successfully. No instructions are given in the curriculum on which items of grammar to teach but only the topic areas with their subtopics that should be covered in the course of the ten years covered by the curriculum, e.g. society and public life (including living together in a society, school and education), culture and historical background (including traditions, cultural topics) etc. (RLP 34-37). Consequently, it would be quite difficult for a teacher to use the curriculum as the only guideline for lesson planning.

2.4. The Role of Course Books in the EFL Classroom

Course books are situated at the interface between research and practice. They are neither a perfect image of what happens in the lessons nor a direct epitome of scientific findings (Klippel 1994: 18). This in-between-position makes it interesting to analyse them.

In the English classroom they have, first of all, a role as the main source of material for both the students and the teacher. Most schools work with books and in many the other materials

¹ Curriculum of the federal state Brandenburg for the years 1-10, modern languages. It will be implemented beginning in autumn 2017.

belonging to the book, e.g. the work book, are used. Course books are among the first encounters students have with the target language. Especially for young students, who do not have a high level of proficiency in the target language yet, the course book is an important source of target language and information of the culture(s) connected to that language.

For the teachers the material offers, in contrast to the curriculum, concrete suggestions on what can be done when in the course of instruction. They provide a ready-made package of texts, exercises and additional material. There is usually also material for the teacher which gives information on how to work with the student book and it furthermore provides the teacher with background information he can use in the lessons. Hence it is not surprising that many teachers work with the books and the additional material and consequently follow the course given by the book. As Klippel writes, most teachers do not even dare to leave the “safe haven” the book provides (1996: 62). Behind this stands the conviction that the book and the additional material are an expression of the current state of research on foreign language teaching and the current curriculum (Klippel 1996: 63).

On the one hand this complete reliance on the course book and the additional material is of course convenient, because everything is already there and can immediately be worked with. Teachers can concentrate on the lessons themselves because part of the burden of lesson planning is taken from them, especially planning the distribution of the content the curriculum prescribes and the finding of appropriate texts for the learners. On the other hand, this means that the course of the instruction is set by an instance external of the actual classroom. The teacher becomes a mere executive, the background planning is done by the authors in the publishing houses (Klippel 1996: 63). The progression in the book can also put pressure on the teacher and the learners to fulfil expectations which were not adapted to the particular situation.

All in all, it can be said that course books constitute a “factual curriculum” (Klippel 1996: 62) because they give a form to the very open curriculum, which leaves a lot of room for individual organisation of foreign language teaching. The books are for most current and former students irrevocably tied to foreign language teaching, even years later they are able to remember the characters or certain texts, songs etc. (Klippel 1996: 62) Of course it is still the teacher who decides what the lessons will be like but it cannot be denied that most language teachers are heavily influenced by what the book offers.

3. SLA Theories and their Implications for TEFL

From the reality in schools we now turn to research on SLA and foreign language teaching. Some theories will be presented and it will be considered if they can be helpful for foreign language instruction and if this is the case, how this could work exactly.

3.1. SLA Theories

Cognitive approaches assume that individuals learn by interacting with their environment. Learning is seen as a creative process in which new knowledge is processed on the basis of existing knowledge (Hufeisen and Riemer 2010: 741). Beginning in the 1970s a lot of descriptive studies on L2 acquisition were conducted and as a result a lot of theories on SLA were set up since the 1980s (Diehl 2000: 30). In the centuries since then, new theories and models have been put forward, discussed, modified and some even disproven. Nowadays, not all disputes are settled but a lot of compromises have been found. Some theories and concepts will be presented here on which there is general agreement and which have, in the best case, been supported by empirical evidence. As the topic of this text is grammar teaching special attention will be paid to what is stated or can be inferred about grammar. Furthermore results of classroom research about effectiveness of teaching will be examined, again with a special focus on grammar instruction and learning.

3.1.1. Interlanguage and Transfer

Let us first address the question: What is happening inside the learner while he is learning an L2? In an attempt to get closer to an answer to that question Selinker introduced the concept of an *interlanguage* in 1972, which refers to “the internal system that a learner has constructed at a single point of time” as well as to “the series of interconnected systems that characterize the learner’s progress over time” (R. Ellis 1994: 350). In the acquisition process the learner constantly changes his interlanguage and adapts it to new insights. A learner’s interlanguage is, according to Selinker, the result of the following processes: Firstly, *language transfer* (which will be discussed in detail below) and secondly *transfer of training*, which means that the language used in the classroom affects the learner’s interlanguage. If, for example, present progressive was practiced a lot the learner might use it more than is actually appropriate. The other factors are *strategies of language learning*, *strategies of second language communication* and *overgeneralization of the target language material* (R. Ellis 1994: 351). Overgeneralisation in this context means that the learner extends L2 rules to instances where they should not be used (R. Ellis 1994: 30).

The first process mentioned was that of *language transfer*. Study of transfer has long been a part of SLA research because it makes sense to assume that having learned one or several languages before influences the acquisition of a second (or third etc.) language. It is still difficult, however, to define what transfer is exactly. Odlin suggests as a working definition: “Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired.” (1989: 27). This definition shows that contrary to early theories, e.g. the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, transfer does not necessarily hinder the language learning process. The similarity of the L1 and the target language can be extremely helpful, obviously in the area of phonology but also in terms of grammar and vocabulary. There are some studies which have shown where grammar transfer happens. One effect that is very evident in grammar is *avoidance*. Studies with participants with different first languages have shown in the area of phrasal verbs that the participants whose first language does not contain any clear equivalent to phrasal verbs are most likely to avoid them in the target language but avoidance reduces with the growing proficiency of the learners (R. Ellis 2008: 371-72).

So it has been demonstrated that transfer in the area of grammar is happening. It is still difficult, however, to determine when acquisition is facilitated and when it is made difficult. Close correspondence in the L1 and L2 can result in either (R. Ellis 2008: 398-99).

In order to solve this paradox, Ringbom and Jarvis work with another parameter. They claim it is not primarily important how similar the learner’s L1 and the target language objectively are (*actual similarity*) but their assumed similarity is even more important (2009: 106-107). They quote results from prior studies (e.g. Kellerman 1978, Odlin 1989) which have suggested that assumed similarities “have a greater and more direct effect on language learning and performance than actual similarities” (2009: 107). Hence it is necessary to find out how learners arrive at their judgement of similarity. Some general tendencies are: Firstly, learners tend to assume semantic and pragmatic similarities between their L1 and the target language (Ringbom and Jarvis 2009: 108). For other features it depends on how language specific they perceive a certain feature to be. Concerning formal features of languages learners tend not to assume similarities until they have actually perceived them. With typologically related language there is however the danger that learners have already perceived so many similarities that they assume that the languages are more alike than they really are. This is of course a possible source of errors (2009: 108).

Can any implications for foreign language teaching be drawn from what we have established about transfer? This is of course difficult because transfer is not an isolated phenomenon which can be considered on its own but is influenced by other factors, most importantly, by the individual learner (R. Ellis 2008: 400). But still it should not be neglected that when students learn a second (or third etc.) language, they already are experts in at least one other language and, particularly in the beginning of learning a new language, the languages learned prior are the main source of ideas for the new language. That is why teachers should make their students aware of similarities, especially in the early years of instruction. But also later in the learning process it can be helpful for students to know where languages are similar and where they are not to shape their perception of the target language and with that the transfer processes.

Returning to the concept of interlanguage it is important to note that a learner's interlanguage can develop into two directions – it can improve and be revised by new input or fossilization can occur. Fossilization is “the process by which non-target forms become fixed in interlanguage” (R. Ellis 1994: 353). There is general agreement about the fact that L2-learners rarely achieve nativelike proficiency in their L2, but fossilization can also occur earlier. In a natural setting, for instance, it often occurs as soon as communicative effectiveness is achieved, which does not necessarily depend on correct language (Skehan 1998: 61). Research into the causes of fossilization have led to the conclusion that there are internal and external factors which may cause fossilization and which probably often come together. These factors are age, lack of desire to acculturate, communicative pressure, lack of learning opportunity and nature of the feedback on the learner's use of the L2 (Selinker and Lamendella (1978) quoted in R. Ellis 1994: 354).

3.1.2. The Monitor Hypothesis

Furthermore it is assumed that a learner, while producing language, makes use of a so-called *monitor*. This concept was introduced by Krashen in 1982 (Hufeisen and Riemer 2010: 758). A monitor is seen as a mental instance which observes and controls language production (ibid.). Learners can be one of three types: over-users, under-users or optimal users (R. Ellis 1994: 508). Over-users use the monitor too extensively, which results in halting language planning and production, under-users, on the other hand, do not make enough use of the monitor and resultantly speak fluently but make more mistakes than necessary given their current level of competence in the L2. The optimal users, however, know when they can pay attention to linguistic form and when this is not possible, e.g. when there is not enough time (Hufeisen and Riemer 2010: 758). The monitor hypothesis leads us straight to a central point of discussion in

SLA research: the relation between implicit and explicit language knowledge and learning and later also to implicit or explicit language instruction.

3.1.3. The Relation between Implicit and Explicit Knowledge and Learning

First of all, there is generally agreement that there are two types of knowledge, but they are named differently by different authors. It is still possible to give basic definitions of explicit and implicit knowledge as there is a common core to most definitions. The main difference between implicit and explicit knowledge is the level of conscious awareness that a person has of them. Implicit knowledge is often described as “knowing how” knowledge, i.e. something that a person can do but cannot explain how he does it. Most of a native speaker’s knowledge of the language is implicit, most fail to explain the rules of their L1 even though they use them without difficulty. Explicit knowledge, on the other hand, is often described as “knowing that”. It consists of facts that we have learned and that we are consciously aware of. Implicit learning is often defined as “learning without awareness”, but there is still discussion about the question whether this is possible. Hence there is no commonly accepted definition of implicit learning (R. Ellis 2008: 449). Explicit learning is easier to define, it happens when the learner consciously engages with learning and searches for structure (ibid.).

That there are different types of knowledge and learning is obvious to everybody thinking about language and it has already been present in very early SLA research. Krashen was the first to include it in a general model of L2 acquisition and performance (Sharwood Smith 1994: 93). He distinguishes *acquired* knowledge, which results from learning a language in a natural context, and *learned* knowledge, which is a result from formal language instruction (Hufeisen and Riemer 2010: 758). This distinction agrees with the implicit-explicit distinction (R. Ellis 2008: 420). Krashen claims further that learned knowledge cannot be turned into acquired knowledge, for him both systems are completely separate (*non-interface position*). Also, one type of knowledge is, for him, connected to one type of learning. As a foundation for his position Krashen uses the example of an advanced learner, who consciously knows the rules for forming a correct utterance but fails to use it when he produces speech. Occurrences like this prove, according to Krashen, that there is no connection between implicit and explicit knowledge. The monitor is only used little in his opinion, only when the learners are focused on form and have enough time to access their learned knowledge. He suggests a second way of modifying output by means of a feeling for what is correct, a way which builds on acquired knowledge (R. Ellis 2008: 420). Even though Krashen’s theory has been criticized vehemently and is not considered to be accurate, it does give us a good starting point for investigations, because he is right to

search for an explanation of the phenomenon of the learner who knows the rules but does not use them correctly. It captures the relevance of the question of the relation between implicit and explicit knowledge and learning.

One alternative answer is offered by Bialystok with her L2-acquisition model. She distinguishes between *analysed* and *unanalysed* knowledge. *Analysis* for her is the process in which mental representations of knowledge are built up and structured (Bialystok 1991 in R. Ellis 2008: 422). In contrast to Krashen, Bialystok claims that it is possible to turn one type of knowledge into the other one - practicing can turn analysed knowledge into implicit knowledge and implicit, unanalysed knowledge can be turned into analysed knowledge by deduction (Diehl 2000: 48). The latter happens for example in L1 acquisition when children learn something and later understand more and more the components of their own speech (ibid.).

R. Ellis' Weak Interface Model combines the relation of implicit and explicit knowledge, noticing and developmental readiness to acquire a feature (the latter two will be elaborated on further down). It says that explicit knowledge can become implicit knowledge for *variational features*. This is different for *developmental features* however, because the learner needs to have reached the stage of development to accommodate this feature in his or her interlanguage first. Explicit knowledge is seen as a facilitator for the development of implicit knowledge, as it can help the learner to notice features in the input they are confronted with and to compare this noticed features with their current interlanguage. Conclusions from that model are that knowledge often starts as implicit knowledge and that there is an interface between implicit and explicit model (R. Ellis 2008: 423). It would even explain Krashen's example as the learner might have learned the rule but he was not ready to integrate it in his implicit knowledge. We will deal with developmental readiness later in the text.

Up to now, most theories about the relation between implicit and explicit knowledge have been presented without (much) empirical evidence to support them. There are, however, some studies which have examined the relationship between learners' implicit and explicit knowledge. In these studies, explicit knowledge was defined as the learners' ability to explain certain features whereas implicit knowledge was seen and determined by the learners' use of features in language production and in judgement of correctness of sentences (R. Ellis 2008: 424). They have come to the following conclusions: Learners are able to correct a lot of sentences, even if they cannot state the rules for them. They almost always made an accurate correction when they knew the corresponding rule. This was found out by Green and Hecht in 1992. As a conclusion one can say that learners rely primarily on their implicit knowledge but explicit knowledge helps

to perform better on an error correction task (R. Ellis 2008: 424-25). R. Ellis concludes from the existing evidence that “success in L2 learning depends on implicit knowledge” (1997: 124) but also that a well-developed explicit knowledge can help learners considerably in SLA.

An important key word in studying implicit and explicit learning is *awareness*. Richard Schmidt introduced a distinction between *intentional* vs. *incidental learning* which differ concerning “noticing” of certain features. He claims that fully unconscious, i.e. implicit, learning is impossible because it presupposes *noticing* of particular features (Diehl 2000: 47), that is that the learner directs his attention towards a certain phenomenon. Schmidt’s conclusion was based on the record of his experiences of learning Portuguese as an L2 in Brazil. He kept a diary to record which input he had paid attention to and his output was examined to see how he used the noticed forms in communication. It turned out that the forms he produced were the ones he had noticed before and, conversely, that forms that were part of the input only showed up in his speech after he had noticed them (R. Ellis 2008: 435). Schmidt developed his Noticing Hypothesis and adapted it to new findings. The last version of it is that “people learn about the things they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to” (Schmidt 2001 quoted in R. Ellis 2008: 437). An important concept related to that is *noticing the gap*. This means that learners notice a mismatch between the target input and their own interlanguage form, for example as a result of interaction with the teacher (Schmidt and Frota 1986 in Mackey 2006: 408). A study by Mackey has shown that there is indeed a connection between noticing a form and improvements in the L2 (2006: 422). However, she also points out that it would be too rash to conclude that noticing is needed for learning and that learning necessarily follows from noticing. But the research does suggest that there may be a connection between noticing and learning.

But how can learners be influenced to notice certain features? Increasing the learners’ perception of L2 features can be done by *consciousness-raising* (Eckerth 2008: 120). In practice this is realized by *consciousness-raising tasks* which are defined as “a pedagogic activity where the learners are provided with L2 data in some form and required to perform some operation on or with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some linguistic property or properties of the target language” (R. Ellis 1997: 160). R. Ellis contrasts consciousness-raising (CR) with practice. The latter is characterized, according to him, by isolating specific grammatical features, asking learners to produce utterances with the target form, repetition, an “expectancy that the learners will perform the grammatical feature *correctly*” and feedback on the correctness of the production (R. Ellis 2002: 168 [emphasis in original]). CR he describes as follows:

1. “There is an attempt to *isolate* a specific linguistic feature for focused attention.
2. The learners are provided with *data* which illustrate the targeted feature and they may also be supplied with an *explicit rule* describing or explaining the feature.
3. The learners are expected to utilise *intellectual effort* to understand the targeted feature.
4. Misunderstanding or incomplete understanding of the grammatical structure by the learners leads to *clarification* in the form of further data and description or explanation.
5. Learners may be required (although this is not obligatory) to articulate the rule describing the grammatical structure.” (R. Ellis 2002: 168 [emphasis in original])

As you may notice, both methods are not completely exclusive and not entirely new. Teachers have always used CR but without calling it that, a fact which R. Ellis also acknowledges (2002: 173). For him the contribution of CR for language learning is that it helps the learners notice structures and thus facilitates the acquisition of these structures as soon as the learners are developmentally ready for processing it. Furthermore, it results in explicit knowledge which is also helpful for noticing and facilitates the acquisition of implicit knowledge needed for communication (2002: 171-72). Eckerth adds that CR tasks are usually done in pairs or groups so that there is communication happening while the task is being solved. This results in the situation that “any reflection *about* the L2 is embedded *inside* communication in the L2” (Eckerth 2008: 122 [emphasis in original]).

It has been shown that consciousness-raising tasks are effective on several levels: learners tend to notice features of the target language, activation of previous knowledge is stimulated, and comparison between input and the learner’s interlanguage is induced (Eckerth 2008: 122).

A lot of research has gone into implicit learning with some interesting results. N. Ellis claims that language processing is very sensitive to usage frequencies, i.e. that it is easier to learn high frequency forms and patterns (2015: 5). It has been shown, for example, that both native speakers and learners of a language react much faster to formulaic sequences. In an experiment by Jiang and Nekrasova in 2007, grammaticality judgements were asked of native speakers and learners which produced the mentioned results. The participants were confronted with phrases like “to tell the truth” as a high frequent form and “to tell the price” as a lower frequent form. And not only did they react faster to the more frequent form, they were also more accurate in the grammaticality judgments (N. Ellis 2015: 12). Other studies came to similar results (for an overview see N. Ellis 2005). This can be seen as a proof for the existence of implicit, i.e. unconscious, knowledge and learning, because nobody counts consciously during language perception. But there are limits to implicit learning, not all of the *input* becomes *intake*, that is

not all of the input offered to the learner becomes information he can use for the acquisition process (Truscott and Sharwood Smith 2011: 498). One reason for that is that some patterns are simply not known to the learner and not striking enough to be noticed by them. Also the learner's first language plays a role, as we learn in our L1 to pay attention to certain phenomenon and to ignore others, which we then also do not integrate in our intake in the L2 (N. Ellis 2015: 17). This could explain, for example, why the correct usage of progressive and non-progressive tenses is hard to acquire for German learners of English – it does not exist at all in German. Consequently, our experiences with our L1 limit the possibilities of implicit L2 learning and make explicit learning necessary. In contrast to implicit learning, explicit learning is intentional and involves conscious knowledge (Williams 2009: 320). It can help to overcome the restraints set by the learner's L1 by introducing L2 specific structures which can then be noticed, i.e. can be subconsciously counted and later be recognised (N. Ellis 2015: 20). As explicit learning predominantly happens in the language classroom we now turn our attention to what is known about the influence of instruction on the language learning process. There are different ways to approach instruction, i.e. indirect and direct intervention. Indirect means that the focus is on communication whereas in direct intervention it is directly stated what the learners will learn and when they will learn it (R. Ellis 2008: 837). Unfortunately, a definite answer to the question which type of instruction is superior has not been found and will probably not be found because what happens in a classroom is a very complex process which and it is consequently hard to pin down results to one factor. But one possibility is to consider the effects of natural L2 acquisition, which, in most cases, does not lead to nativelike language proficiency, but, as already mentioned before, usually end in fossilization at one point (at least for adults). Fossilization often concerns certain features of a language which suggest the assumption that there are some linguistic features that cannot be acquired naturally (R. Ellis 2008: 846). On the other hand, instruction also hardly ever results in learners achieving nativelike competence, so a more general conclusion would be that there possibly are limits to what is achievable under any circumstances (R. Ellis 2008: 847). Research on focus-on-form instruction (FFI), which is one type of direct intervention and defined as “any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners’ attention to form either implicitly or explicitly . . . within meaning-based approaches to L2 instruction [and] in which a focus on language is provided in either spontaneous or predetermined ways’ (Spada 1997 quoted in Spada 2011), has come to some results. It is, for example, relatively clear that FFI results in long-term effects, that is, the form that is taught is remembered by the learner permanently (R. Ellis 2008: 869). Furthermore, FFI helps learners to move along the natural order of acquisition more quickly. The order itself can probably not be changed but teaching a

form at the right time is very effective (Spada 2011: 234). This is of course hard to do in practice as a tool for time-efficient assessing of the learners' status has not yet been developed. But R. Ellis also points out that natural order is often related to the learners' performance but that the ability to perceive and understand a particular form can be developed before the learner is able to produce it (R. Ellis 2008: 860). One way of FFI is working with *enriched input*. That means that the target structure is in some way made more noticeable in the input for the learners, for instance by printing structures in bold or by telling them before the input to pay attention to something. This type of instruction enables learners to notice the feature, to understand its meaning and work with it in their short-term memory (R. Ellis 2008: 873). There is evidence that enriched input can help learners acquire new grammatical features and to use the ones they have already partially learned more consistently for their own production. However, if the learners have already integrated an incorrect rule in their interlanguage, enriched input usually does not help to correct that (R. Ellis 2008: 874). A small-scale study by Marsden in 2005 led to inconclusive results concerning enriched input. In this study learners were confronted with a rule and then numerous examples in which the target structure was included. She found that this did not help the learners develop their verb system but it did improve their skills in reading and listening as well as production. Moreover she reports that teachers as well as students liked working with the material and wished to continue using it after the end of the study (Marsden 2005: 16). More research in this field is needed but what has been found out so far seems promising.

3.1.4. Form-Focused Instruction (FFI)

FFI is characterised by R. Ellis as an explicit intervention because it includes clear goals of what should be taught and learned when. But still FFI can be conducted explicitly and implicitly. Housen and Pierrard (2005) sum up the main characteristics as follows:

Implicit FFI	Explicit FFI
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>attracts</i> attention to target form - is delivered <i>spontaneously</i> (e.g. in an otherwise communication-oriented activity) - is unobtrusive (minimal interruption of communication of meaning) - presents target forms in context - makes no use of metalanguage - encourages free use of the target form 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - directs attention to target form - is <i>predetermined</i> and <i>planned</i> (e.g. as the main focus and goal of a teaching activity) - is obtrusive (interruption of communicative meaning) - presents target forms in isolation - uses metalinguistic terminology (e.g. rule explanation) - involves controlled practice of target form

Table 1: Implicit and Explicit FFI

(Housen and Pierrard 2005: 10)

On the basis of several studies it seems that explicit FFI is more effective than implicit FFI. Spada concluded from a meta-analysis that “explicit FFI is more effective than implicit FFI on simple and complex features in both the short and the long term” (Spada 2011: 231). After surveying a number of studies R. Ellis concludes that most of them showed that explicit FFI is superior to implicit FFI and that not even the type of implicit instruction made a difference (2008: 881). Both authors, however, point out some caveats with these results. Spada relates them to the difficulty of defining which features are “simple” and which are “complex” and that the result of the analysis would have been different with other definitions (Spada 2011: 231). R. Ellis observes that the results were only clear in regard to easy structures and that in two studies (by Williams and Robinson) no significant difference between implicit and explicit learners was found concerning the complex structures in the study (R. Ellis 2008: 881). He also sees methodological problems concerning the question of how “acquisition” is measured. Furthermore he adds that the results of explicit FFI alone are not that conclusive but that FFI in combination with opportunities to use the target language communicatively seems to be a promising way of foreign language teaching (R. Ellis 2008: 855). To draw a tentative conclusion one could say that it seems that explicit FFI might be more effective, especially in regard to simple structures. There is, however, no reason to forget about implicit FFI completely. There is still a lot of research work to be done to find out which factors of instruction are influential and in which way.

3.1.5. Order of Acquisition

In the previous sections terms like *developmental readiness* and *natural order of acquisition* were used. They relate to the assumption that there is a particular order of acquisition for grammatical morphemes in language acquisition. In the 1970s a lot of research was conducted in order to find out whether there is such a universal sequence for learners of an L2, it was already known that there is one for first language acquisition. The studies showed that there is indeed a standard acquisition order in learning an L2, which does not depend on the speaker's first languages and age. It can be seen for both speaking and writing (R. Ellis 2008: 82-85) and, as mentioned previously, it cannot be altered significantly by instruction. Krashen was among the first to claim that there is such a sequence and he called it *natural order*. For him it looked as follows:

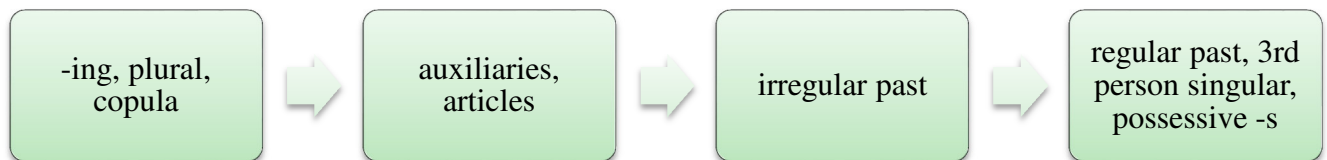


Figure 1: Order of Acquisition (Krashen)

(R. Ellis 2008: 86 after Krashen 1977)

It might be surprising at first that regular past forms are acquired after the irregular ones but this is because irregular forms are acquired like lexical items whereas regular forms are learned as a pattern.

Concerning some areas of morphological acquisition there have been some more detailed findings. Dietrich et al. (1995) conducted a meta-study and found three general stages for the acquisition of past tenses in an L2:

1. The learners do not have the linguistic means to express time yet, so they rely on pragmatic strategies (e.g. context, chronological order).
2. The lexical stage: Past references are usually made by using various lexical expressions, for instance adverbs. Verbs are not yet marked for past tense but used in invariant forms.
3. At this stage morphological markers for past tenses are used. In the beginning their use is inconsistent but it stabilises over time. Parallel to that development one can observe a decrease in the use of adverbials.

By far not all learners achieve full command of the L2 tense system (R. Ellis 2008: 88-89).

On the same topic Bardovi-Harlig (2000) worked out four general principles:

- Acquisition is slow and gradual.
- Form often precedes function. That means that learners, after they have acquired a new form, often use it in too many contexts (overgeneralization). With time they learn to use it more appropriately.
- Irregular morphology precedes regular morphology (for the reason explained above).
- When acquiring compound tenses (e.g. the past perfect in English) learners usually only use the verb with the suffix at first and later also the auxiliary.

(R. Ellis 2008: 91).

In order to find a general sequence of acquisition of L2 morphemes Meisel, Clahsen and Pienemann developed the *Multidimensional Model* in 1981. They distinguished between developmental features, whose acquisition occurs at a particular stage of the learner's L2 development, and variational features, which are not acquired by every learner and which can be acquired at any point in development (R. Ellis 2008: 97). This model was developed further by Pienemann into his *Processability Theory*. Its basis is the fact that language is information processing and that the more you acquire of a language the more you can process. Language acquisition is a process of gradually acquiring the computational routines needed for processing the target language (Pienemann 2005: 2). Every learner has to go through a series of steps (*processability hierarchy*) where every step can be understood as a process of *feature unification*. Every utterance starts with the speaker's intention to say something, this is also true for language learners. If they want to express themselves in the L2 they then search for the right words to express what they want to say. In the end these words need to be connected, which includes matching for example of number and person. This matching process is meant by feature unification. The more proficient a language learner becomes the more processes of feature unification are automatized and the quicker he is in formulating. The processability hierarchy is based on a hierarchy of processing procedures which is presented in the following table for English as an L2. For illustration the example of learning how to formulate questions in English is added.

Level	Unit	What the learner can do	Application to formulation of questions
1	word/ lemma	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - remembers and uses words - uses formulaic expressions without understanding their composition 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - one word questions with rising intonation (e.g. Pizza?) - questions learned as formulas (e.g. What's your name?)
2	category procedure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - starts to pay attention to word categories - uses first meaningful constructions (e.g. many money, my house) - uses SVO sentence structure 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - SVO questions (e.g. You have a dog?)
3	phrasal procedure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - attempts to achieve agreement within phrases e.g. by using plural morphemes (intra-phrasal information check) - typical phenomenon: overgeneralization - starts to use adverbs, negators or <i>do</i> but without changing the order of the sentences (e.g. There children play.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - do-/Wh-/adverb-fronting + keeping SVO structure (e.g. Why you have a dog?)
4	s-procedure, word order rules and +salience	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - uses inter-phrasal information check for salient features - inverted questions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - copula, yes-/no-inversion (adapting the word order in questions without do; e.g. Why are you here?)
5	s-procedure, word order rules -saliency	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - uses inter-phrasal information check for non-salient features (e.g. 3rd person -s) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - don't/do/have in 2nd position (acquisition of the auxiliary in second position; e.g. Where do you go?)
6	subordinate clause procedure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - indirect questions possible (knows when to use inversion and when not to) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - indirect questions (I wonder where she is.)

Table 2: Hierarchy of Processing Procedures (Pienemann)

(Multhaup 2002: 83-85; Pienemann 2006: 35-38)

In the table it can be seen how the learner is able to process increasingly larger units of language. It should be noted though that not all learners get to stage 6, especially in a natural settings most learners do not even reach level 5. Another point in connection to that is that learners can get “stuck” because they develop “wrong” solutions for developmental problems. Learners find different solutions to deal with the constraints they face on every step of their development. These can be more or less helpful for their further development. If a learner at stage 2 does not acquire copula (for example he can just leave them out as in *He nice guy.*) he has a problem at stage 4 when copula inversion is acquired. A “bad solution” of an earlier problem can hence disturb the development at a later stage (Pienemann 2006: 40-41).

Pienemann and others have conducted studies to test if this sequence is accurate and have found that to be the case (e.g. Johnson 1985, Pienemann & Mackey 1993; Pienemann 2005: 19). However, others could not find it. As usual there is no hundred percent evidence that the assumptions of the Processability Theory are true, but again it gives is some food for thought.

There seems to be enough evidence to believe that there is something like a natural sequence in SLA. What can be deduced from that for teaching a foreign language? It would be too much to adjust the whole curriculum like to that because firstly there is not enough evidence for any sequence and secondly individual differences and variational features should not be forgotten. One application of sequences could be to help teachers understand what is going on with their learners. If we believe the sequence suggested by Processability Theory then third person –s is acquired pretty late, on level 5 to be exact, because it requires matching between phrases and it is not a salient feature. On the surface it seems quite easy to just add the –s to the verb for he/she/it but if we understand what is behind this we can more easily comprehend and accept that it might take a while for the learners to use it consistently. An interesting point made by Lightbown is that we should not equate progression along the sequence with an improved performance on the learners’ side (2000: 442). She explains that like this: At the beginning a learner uses formulas he has learned, complete phrases or sentences he has memorized. So he is probably able to formulate a correct question very early. Later, however, he might use incorrect questions but these are then his own creation. He has improved by learning how to create new utterances but on the surface he has not become better (Lightbown 2000: 442). It is not possible yet to determine the stage the learner is at with a suitable tool. In connection to the Processability Theory *Rapid Profiling* has been developed but this still requires a lot of time and is hence not suited for language teachers in school. Pienemann suggests talking to the learners to find out their communicative needs which they want to express because for him the wish to communicate

is the cause for wanting to learn new language. This seems like a simple but interesting idea – to assume the learners’ interest in acquiring more language and to ask them about it. All in all, the idea about sequences of acquisition helps to adjust expectations to teaching to a reasonable level. Language learning is a long and rather slow process and teachers should give learners the chance and encourage them to build up their language knowledge step by step.

3.2. Implications for TEFL and the Design of Course Books

3.2.1. Relations between Research and Practice

First of all we need to ask whether implications from SLA can, in general, be applied to actual foreign language teaching. There are two positions concerning this question, one saying that SLA research should be applicable to foreign language teaching pedagogy because this research belongs to applied linguistics which is concerned with problems in the real world (Spada 2015: 69). Others are more cautious and say that only some aspects of SLA research are relevant for classroom practice.

In agreement with Lightbown (2000) the view represented in this paper is that SLA research can be useful because it can help teachers to figure out what to expect of themselves and their students (2000: 452). But Lightbown also remarks that suggestions made by researchers should be handled with care, meaning that if suggestions are completely contradictory to what teachers know from their experience this might be the result of unrealistic conditions in their experiments (2000: 453). Then again, it is sometimes useful if teachers’ intuitions are challenged because these are shaped by the way they were taught and what they learned about teaching during their education and professional life (ibid.). Nowadays, for example, it seems obvious that students need to have opportunities to speak spontaneously whereas this was seen as a danger in times of audiolingualism because it was thought then that when learners are exposed to erroneous speech they would include the errors they have heard more or less immediately into their own learner language. Lightbown comes to the conclusion that a dialogue between researchers and teachers is the most important condition for a working relation between theory and practice (2000: 453) and that “no matter how sound the research on which new ideas, materials and techniques are based, pedagogical innovations must be implemented and adapted according to local conditions, the strengths of individual teachers and students, the available resources, the age of the learner, and the time available for teaching.” (Lightbown 2000: 454).

Concluding one can say that SLA research can be applied to foreign language teaching but that caution is in order. Not everything can be applied in every situation, by every teacher, in every class etc. But still pedagogy should be open to suggestions from SLA research (and vice versa).

3.2.2. Implications

In what follows possible implications from the SLA theories summarized above will be presented. In agreement with the focus of this essay we will then draw conclusions from that for the design of course books, i.e. what books should or could offer in order to support the style of teaching suggested here, and will pay special attention to the learning and teaching of grammar phenomena.

First of all, the acquisition of implicit and explicit knowledge as well as implicit and explicit learning need to be supported because it has been shown that these types of knowledge and learning all have their advantages. Explicit knowledge can be built by explanations of rules or also by deducing them from examples. A book can support this by giving explicit explanations, e.g. on grammar topics, and by offering a variety of exercises for specific topics. Implicit learning depends a lot on frequency of occurrence. Thus, a lot of input should be offered to the learner. If learners are confronted with a lot of input they later will be better in forming and recognising correct word combinations. Course books can achieve a lot here, not only in the form of texts. Nowadays it is possible to also offer audio texts, which the students can also listen to at home and a variety of other resources. Online material that supports the contents of the student book could be offered as well as references to material from other sources which fit a particular context.

Enriched input helps to understand and consolidate new structures and should ideally be also included in form of different types of input.

Important in all this is, that the students also have access to a lot of input and that it is interesting for them. As not all students have the same interests, choices would ideally be offered. Being able to choose is always motivating and the probability is higher that students read, listen to etc. what they are interested in. Furthermore, using new technologies and devices is often also motivating for students at school because these are already part of their everyday life.

Hence the first criterion for the design of course book is as follows:

- (1) Course books should contain a lot of (enriched) input.

Secondly, it has been established that FFI is an effective way of teaching. R. Ellis claims that it is most effective in combination with opportunities to use the target language in communication (2008: 855). Consequently course books should be designed in a way which supports FFI. There are numerous possibilities how this can be done. Obviously, explicit rules should be included in the book, so that the students can read them and go back to them when they need to. Also the teachers can refer to them and advise the students to work with them. It is difficult to let real communication take place in the classroom, as it is an artificial situation with the purpose of learning a language. But still there are exercises which can result in more or less real communication, for example with a partner or within a group. As communication in the classroom is important they should be included in a course book for the foreign language classroom.

The use of enriched input can also be mentioned here, because it helps learners to be aware of a certain form in context.

The second criterion is hence:

(2) Course books should support FFI by offering explicit explanations, exercises etc.

As to the types of exercises to be offered learners' expectations as well as empirical findings on effectiveness need to be considered. In a study with learners of English and French as a second language Gladys found out that most learners did not particularly like form-focused grammar exercises but they still considered them useful (2011: 476). An elaboration on the effects of learner beliefs on language acquisition is beyond the scope of this paper but it is obvious that they cannot be ignored. On the other hand it has been established that consciousness-raising activities help learners to notice features and thus to acquire them. They should consequently be used in lessons to help learners understand and notice structures in the target language.

Another criterion is accordingly:

(3) Course books should include practice and consciousness-raising activities.

Furthermore, the sequence of acquisition should be taken into account. That leads to two implications: One is that the sequence of grammatical phenomena taught can be adapted. But this is quite hard to do, especially as there is no general agreement on the exact sequence of acquisition. Still attention can be paid to the sequence trying to introduce phenomena which involve less feature matching in the beginning. The second implication is even more essential. It has been recognized that learners go through the sequence of acquisition in their own speed. Not

every learner is ready to acquire every structure at the same time. Language teaching should take this into consideration by offering revision on many occasions and not assume that something has been learned and integrated into the learners' interlanguage after it was the topic of instruction. Books and additional material are very important here because they can be used by individual learners to revise what they have not learned yet. Instruction time with the teacher is limited and it is difficult to account for every individual student in the time available. Hence it would be very helpful if the book offered exercises on many topics, not only the ones that are immediately in the focus of instruction, so that individual revision is possible. Explicit explanations of grammar rules in the book are also important for this point and it would be even better if students had access to all explanations from the previous years of instruction. Thus the fourth criterion is:

- (4) Course books should take into consideration the sequence of acquisition by ordering the grammatical phenomena introduced accordingly but also, more importantly, by offering a variety of opportunities for students for individual revision.

In connection to that it needs to be recognized that learning a second language is a slow process which cannot be rushed (Bardovi-Harlig 2000 qtd. in R. Ellis 2008: 91). Thus, the grammatical progression of instruction and in the book should not be too steep as that sets unrealistic expectations on both the teacher and the students and lowers motivation. Grammatical progression should be, moreover, somewhat variable so that it can be adapted to the learning group and also possibilities for differentiation should be offered so that learners can learn at their own pace. The fifth criterion is resultantly:

- (5) The fact that SLA is a slow process should be taken into account in the design of course books.

The students present in a German EFL classroom usually already know at least one other language, namely: German, a language that is even related to English. This prior knowledge can be made use of by pointing out formal similarities between English and German. Especially early in the learning process learners turn to their L1 (or other languages they have already acquired) for inspiration on how to solve linguistic problems in English (Ringbom and Jarvis 2009: 106). Instruction can help them to determine when it is helpful to turn to German and when it is not. In a book explanations like this can also be given, e.g. when grammatical structures are explained. Hence the sixth criterion is:

- (6) In course books there should be made recourse to the knowledge the learners already have about language.

It has been suggested above that a lot of revision should be done, especially individual revision. In order to do that it has to be found out where the problems lie. This necessitates the existence of a diagnostic tool so that students can determine what they need to practice. It is very important that this tool does not only include the current topic but also aims at more fundamental structures. If a student has, for example, problems with forming correct sentences with the simple past the cause must not necessarily be that he cannot form this tense but it might also be that he is unsure in the formation of questions. A diagnostic tool needs to determine the real problem. In connection with that, exercises need to be available so that the student can then work on his difficulties. The last criterion here is now:

- (7) A course book should offer a diagnostic tool for students to know what they need to work on and connected exercises.

4. Analysis

4.1. Aims and Methodology

The analysis serves the purpose of finding out if the criteria set down in the previous section were taken into account in the conception of a current course book for TEFL in Germany (English G 21 – A2). This will be done in relation to one particular communicative intention – talking about the future. First it will be examined how futurity can be expressed in English and then this will be reduced for the use in school on the basis of frequency and usefulness. Referring back to the criteria of the previous section it will then be determined what should be included in a book in order to help the students acquire ways to express the future. Afterwards, the book will be examined and it will be determined if it is in line with the set criteria and, if necessary, recommendations for improvement will be given.

In the examination of the book it will be considered how often the target forms appear in the input and furthermore, it will be established what types of exercises are included. The latter is based on the distinction between consciousness-raising (CR) activities and practice by R. Ellis (2002). The main feature making it possible to distinguish between CR and practice activities is whether the learners are required to actually form sentences themselves or whether they are asked to pay attention to input. An exception are focused communication tasks in which the learners are communicating and paying attention to language.

Concerning the typology of the exercises the distinction by Nitta and Gardner (2005) will be followed. They conducted a study on which types of exercises are used in nine course books – CR or practice. Their classification of exercises is as follows (2005: 5-7):

Type	Name	Characteristics
Consciousness-Raising	Grammar Consciousness-Raising Task (GCRT)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - learners are provided with material in L2 and have to do something with it - aim: learners understand something about L2 grammar - tasks provides metalanguage → likely that learners also need metalanguage
	Interpretation Task (IT)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - emphasis on an aspect of interpretation - goals <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • learners identify the relation between a form and a function • enhance input so that learners notice certain structure • compare similar items - little or no metalanguage, no formulation of rules required
	Focused Communication Task (FCT)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - learner’s attention directed towards a problematic linguistic form during communication
Practice	Grammar Exercise (GE)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - controlled - “emotionless” effort - examples: gap filling, matching, completion, rewriting etc.
	Grammar Practice Activity (GPA)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - used to create interaction and develop fluent use of the form

Table 3: Classification of CR activities and practice (Nitta and Gardner)

4.2. The Future in English

Now we will turn to the grammar behind the topic that was chosen for examination.

All those sentences contain a future meaning:

- i. Sarah will arrive tomorrow.
- ii. Sarah is going to arrive tomorrow.
- iii. Sarah will be arriving tomorrow.
- iv. Sarah is arriving tomorrow.
- v. Sarah arrives tomorrow.
- vi. Sarah is to arrive tomorrow.
- vii. Sarah is about to arrive.

And there are even more possibilities. In the following we will explore a number of possibilities to express futurity in English.

4.2.1. Future Tenses

The examples above show that there are many possibilities to refer to the future in English. However, there has been discussion about the question whether English has actual future tenses, mainly because there is no inflectional marking of the verb for future in English. But tense is not necessarily defined solely on the basis of the existence of inflectional markers. In this text *tense* will be understood as “a grammatical system which is used by languages to encode (or grammaticalize) the time (1) at which a situation denoted by a verb is viewed as taking place.” (Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar) This leaves the possibilities to encode the future (or any time) by other means than inflection, like it is done in English. Hence the term *future tense*.

4.2.2. The Future with *will*

4.2.2.1. *Will + Infinitive*

Examples:

- a. It **will snow** tomorrow.
- b. I'**ll do** better next time.
- c. I **will go** there right now!
- d. **Will** you **meet** her soon?
- e. We **shall give** your complaint our immediate attention. (Close 1988: 57)
- f. **Shall** I **carry** your bag?
- g. Let's go, **shall** we?
- h. We **won't go** there tonight.

The future with *will* is the most commonly used way to express future meaning in English. A corpus analysis by Mindt showed that it occurred most frequently to express the future in all types of texts they investigated (2000: 589). It is used to make plain statements about the future, often for future events the speaker is certain about, the future is regarded as fixed and out of the individual's control. The will-future can also be used to express an instant decision (Eastwood 2005: 80-81, example c).

Even though *will* developed of a modal it does not have any modal meaning in Modern English any more (Close 1988: 51). However, it can suggest an element of intention (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 76) as can be seen in example b and c.

In some grammars the will-future is called the *future with will/shall*, implying that those two auxiliaries are interchangeable. That is not completely true. *Shall* is used less than *will* and tends to occur in rather formal language (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 76; example e) or to be used for stylistic reasons, i.e. to avoid repetition of *will* (Close 1988: 57). In questions *shall* is used for suggestions or to find out someone else's wishes (ibid: 58; examples f and g).

The will-future can be realized in different forms, namely *will* and *'ll* and with negation as *will not* or *won't*. The forms with *will* are more typical of formal speech but that does not mean that they never occur in spontaneous language (Close 1988: 52). *Will* occurs frequently in precise or emphatic speech (ibid.). There are some restrictions for the use of *'ll* instead of *will*. While it is possible to contract after vowels (e.g. *I'll*) and most consonants (e.g. *it'll*) it is not possible to use it after *//* and at the very beginning or end of a clause (Close 1988: 53). This can easily be seen with the aid of the following examples:

Will you go there?	*'ll you go there?
Yes, I will.	*Yes, I'll.

4.2.2.2. *Will + be + Present Participle*

Examples:

- a. We **will** soon **be passing** the Tower of London.
- b. I have eaten so much today. I **will be exercising** a lot the next days.
- c. The train **will be arriving** at 12.36.
- d. **I'll be seeing** you. (Close 1988: 54)
- e. I hope I **will be hearing** from them.

It is possible to express the progressive aspect in the will-future by using *will + be + present participle*. This form is usually found with dynamic verbs and it emphasises activity (Close 1988: 51), as can be seen in the first two example sentences. But the combination of will-future, *be* and present progressive also appears without the intention to express the progressive aspect. It is still only used for dynamic verbs and occurs mainly in informal conversation to talk about an event that is expected to happen at a certain time (Close 1988: 53-54; example c). Moreover, it is often used with the verbs *see* or *hear* as in examples d and e.

4.2.2.3. *Will + have + Past Participle*

Example:

- a. I am looking forward to October. I **will have finished** my master thesis by then.

The “past in the future” (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 79) is used to refer to something being over at some point in the future (Eastwood 2005: 88).

4.2.3. The Future with *going to*

4.2.3.1. *going to + Infinitive*

Examples:

- a. There are no clouds. It **is going to be** a fine day.
- b. Don't eat so many sweets – you **are going to feel** sick!
- c. Get in quickly. The train **is just going to start**. (Close 1988: 59)

The future with *going to* is mainly used to refer to the future as a result from a current situation, i.e. the future is understood as resulting from factors in the present (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 76). This can be seen in the example sentences a and b. In informal speech the future with *going to* is also used in other situation, as a means to express pure futurity (Close 1988: 58). Often the use of this future implies that something is going to happen quite soon, especially if it is used with the adverb *just* (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 77; Close 1988: 59; example c).

4.2.3.2. *was/were + going to + Infinitive*

Examples:

- a. We **were going to leave** our umbrellas at home, when it started to rain.
- b. I **was going to finish** work early but something came up.
- c. She was **about to** leave when the phone rang.

This construction is used to express “future in the past”, i.e. usually to say that something was anticipated but did not happen (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 78-79). The same is possible with *was/were + about to + infinitive* (ibid.).

4.2.4. Present Tenses Used to Express Future Meaning

4.2.4.1. *Future with the Simple Present*

Examples:

- a. I **have** a dentist's appointment tomorrow morning.
- b. Our bus **leaves** on 11.30 on Sunday.
- c. I'll look it up as soon as I **get** home.

The simple present can be used to refer to the future. Usually it needs an adverbial to show that it does refer to the future or this can be inferred from the context (Close 1988: 60). Using the simple present for the future is not very common but when it is done it usually refers to events which are seen as absolutely certain because they are part of a schedule or plan (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 78; example a and b). Another frequent use is with some types of subordinate clauses, especially adverbial time clauses (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 77; example c).

4.2.4.2. *Future with the Present Progressive*

Examples:

- a. I **am meeting** with her next week.
- b. The train **is leaving** on Monday at nine.

Just like the simple present the present progressive can be utilized to express future meaning, but it also needs an adverbial or the context to make clear its future reference. It is mostly used to talk about future events which result from a present plan, programme or arrangement (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 77; examples a and b). Furthermore, its use often implies that the event referred to will happen in the near future or that it has already started but not yet ended (ibid, Close 1988: 59).

4.2.5. *Other Ways of Referring to the Future*

There are also other expressions which contain a future meaning. Consider the following examples:

- a. Chancellor Merkel **is to arrive** in London on Friday afternoon.
- b. I'll call you back soon. I'm just **about to finish** my essay.
- c. He **was at the point of leaving** when he received a call.
- d. I **expect** to see you tomorrow.
- e. It is **certain** to be freezing this weekend.

The future with *be to* can be seen as an alternative to *be going to* and is frequently used, because of its shortness, in newspapers. It implies that a statement about the future can be made on the basis of the information currently at hand (Close 1988: 60). Example a illustrates a typical use of the future with *be to* – it is often used for official arrangements (Leech and Svartvik 1994: 78). In addition to that expressions like “be about to” and “be at the point of” suggest futurity, as well as verbs like *expect*, *hope* and *promise* (example d) and adverbs, for example *likely* and *certain* (example e; Close 1988: 62-63).

In addition to all that, there are still other ways to convey future meaning in English. Modals can, depending on the context, be used to talk about the future. But the forms presented above are the ones used to express pure futurity.

4.2.6. Frequencies of Future Forms

As already mentioned Mindt (2000) conducted a corpus analysis and counted which verb patterns were used to express time orientation such as present, past and future. Five general corpora and four newspaper corpora were analysed and the results were ranked for frequency and arranged into categories. The table gives a small overview over their results:

Verb Pattern	Spoken Conversation		Fictional Texts		Expository Prose		Aggregate	
	%	rank	%	rank	%	rank	%	rank
Will-future	44 %	1	40%	1	53%	1	46%	1
Shall-future	*	9	10%	2	3%	9	5%	5
Going-to-future	17%	2	6%	6	*	**	9%	3
Present tense (except be, have, do)	*	10	3%	7	4%	5	3%	9
Present progressive	3%	8	3%	9	*	**	*	10

Table 4: Frequencies of verb patterns used to express future meaning (Mindt)

*the percentages for values < 3% are not provided; ** the ranks for values <0.05% are not indicated (Mindt 2000: 589, shortened²)

As you can see the future with *will* is by far the most common way to refer to the future, it is found in around half of the cases of future reference in all different text types. Of the investigated text types spoken conversation is most important for language instruction, as the learners need to be able to produce spoken language. In spoken conversation the future with *going to* is also used quite often, whereas the other forms we looked at earlier do not seem to occur very frequently.

² Mindt included forms with modals such as *may*, *should* etc., which were left out here. His list consisted of 12 verb patterns. The shortening accounts for the missing percentages. For the full table see Mindt (2000): 589.

4.3. Didactic Analysis

4.3.1. Why should the Future Tenses be taught?

Being able to talk about the future is important and it should be taught rather early in the course of instruction for the following reasons. First of all, this ability is essential to succeed in authentic conversation. It is common to talk about the future, for example about plans or to make predictions. Thus a learner wishing to take part in conversations in the target language successfully needs to be able to express futurity as well as to understand when somebody else is referring to the future. This is of course also true for written texts. Consequently one can say that the learner's overall language competence benefits from acquiring this new structure and makes it possible for him to understand and produce more in the target language. As futurity is quite frequently expressed, teaching it also satisfies the learners' communicative needs. Sooner or later the learners will want to talk about something in the future and they need to be provided with the linguistic means to do this. It is something they will see the need of and thus be interesting for them to learn. Other grammar topics might seem redundant from a German learner's perspective, e.g. progressive forms, because the underlying concept is not expressed in German. The future, however, is without doubt important and it makes sense for the learners that they need to learn how to express it. Furthermore, learning how to express futurity in the target language promotes the acquisition of intercultural competence. As has been pointed out above, German and English show considerable differences concerning their ways of expressing the future. Hence in learning the future forms in English the learners are confronted with a new way of expressing futurity (if German is their only L1). They learn that concepts can be expressed differently in different languages, which broadens their horizon and teaches them about language in general. A speaker of only one language knows one way to say something and considers this way to be the "natural" one. Multilinguals however know that there are different ways of expressing one concept or that some concepts are expressed in one language and not in another one. This contributes to their knowledge about language and the language awareness. Teaching the future tenses in English is one point on which this knowledge can be acquired in EFL lessons.

It has been shown before that the curriculum is oriented towards instruction for successful communication and provides topics to be covered. Several of those topics necessitate the use of future tenses. One topic is "personality" which includes the subtopics "life plan" and "dream and hopes" (RLP 34). This definitely requires talking about the future. The same is true for the topic "school, qualification and work life" (RLP 35) and to some extent also for "environment and ecology" (RLP 37).

4.3.2. Comparison of English and German concerning Expressions of Futurity

In the following it will be examined how English and German are similar or different concerning their ways of expressing futurity. This is only meant as a short overview to detect areas which might be easy or difficult for learners to acquire. As has been pointed out above, similarities can help the student with acquiring structures in the target language, especially early in the learning process.

The future tense in German is formed by using a form of the auxiliary *werden* and the infinitive of the main verb, e.g. *er wird schwimmen*. This is quite similar to the will-future in English so it might not be difficult for learners to acquire. The similarity of the English verb *will* to forms of the German word *wollen* (e.g. *ich will*) might be confusing though.

The future tense in German is hardly ever used as the future is normally referred to by using the present tense. It usually only occurs when the context necessitates it, i.e. when using the present tense could make the meaning of the utterance ambivalent (Durrell et al. 2015: 122). Hence we can see that the use of the future tense is quite different in English and German. Of course we can also use the present tense to refer to the future in English but this happens in very few cases (see table 4) as opposed to in German where it is the usual way to talk about the future. This difference in use might make it difficult for German learners to identify situations in which to use one of the future tenses in English, especially as futurity is quite a blurry concept and often subject to interpretation.

There is no equivalent of the going-to-future in German. This form must consequently be acquired completely new by German learners. The same is true for the progressive forms of both tenses but with the difference that the learners have probably encountered other progressive forms in English, e.g. the present progressive, so that they can use previously acquired knowledge here. There is also the possibility that students confuse the present progressive and the going-to-future as they look quite similar. Those forms need to be separated clearly. Furthermore, if one future form has already been learned it might be preferred over the other which leads to overuse of one. This would result in a non-target like distribution of the future forms.

4.3.3. Reduction and Sequence of Instruction

The analysis of the frequencies of the forms used to express futurity has shown that the future with *will* is by far the most common one, followed by the going-to-future if we leave out modals with future meaning. Consequently, it makes sense to teach only those two ways of expressing

future meaning, at least until the learners are quite advanced in their proficiency in English. But first of all it seems sensible to introduce the futures with *will* and *going to* and the differences in their uses.

Of these two the will-future should be introduced first as it is easier to process for the learners. It requires less matching of features because it is the same for every person and number, there is no morphological marking required. In Pienemann's processability hierarchy it could be on level 3 as it only requires matching inside of one phrase.

The going-to-future is slightly more difficult to acquire as it requires matching with the subject of the sentence. The form of *be* needs to be adjusted on top of forming the combination of *going to* and the infinitive of the main verb.

What has been mentioned so far only concerns the formation of affirmative statements with the future tenses. The formation of negative statements and questions is a whole different matter as more matching processes are required and consequently it is possible that a learner does not acquire a structure in all variations, i.e. he might be able to form correct statements with the will-future but still struggle with the formation of questions.

4.3.4. Introduction of the Will-Future

4.3.4.1. Components to be Taught

What does *introducing the will-future* consist of? This process of instruction can be divided into the following steps:

- statements – I will go home tomorrow.
- negative statements – I will not go home tomorrow.
- questions – Will you go home tomorrow? When will you go there?
- negative questions – Won't you/Will you not go home tomorrow?
- short forms 'll, won't
- rules of usage

There is, of course, a lot more to be considered as the will-future is part of a larger system. We will come back to that when considering the learners' prerequisites in the next section.

4.3.4.2. Learners' Prerequisites and Possible Sequence of Steps

It is assumed that the learners' have had already some experience with English. Most importantly, they should have learned sufficient vocabulary to be able to form a variety of sentences, they should know to use the SVO structure for English sentences and they should

know about the existence of different tenses, possibly from their L1. Those are the two points really essential for the acquisition of the future with *will*. The following points are optional and help one component of the acquisition of the will-future respectively. Learners should be able to negate statements with *do* so that they are familiar with the use of the negation particle. They should know other short forms similar to *'ll*, for example the short forms of *be* in *I'm* and *he's*. Furthermore, it would be helpful for the learners to know adverbials of time, e.g. *tomorrow*, *next week* etc. in order that they can form sentences more easily.

The sequence of teaching depends a lot on the prior knowledge of the learners. Simple statements with the will-future do not differ much from statements in the present tense and do not require any feature unification. Hence they are not difficult process for the learners, especially if they are combined with adverbials of futurity. However, they need to remember to encode the concept of futurity in English differently from that in German, i.e. to use a future marker other than an adverbial. So the difficulty of acquisition should not be underestimated, especially the consequent use in spontaneous speech. Communicative needs probably lead to the introduction of the negation of the will-future and questions with it. Otherwise it cannot be used appropriately in conversation but only for single statements. The short forms can be introduced quite early if the learners are already familiar with other short forms and know when to use them. A tentative order, if all the prerequisites are fulfilled, could thus be:

1. Statements using the will-future, short forms
2. Negative statements, short forms
3. Questions
4. Negative questions

Rules of usage are not that important yet because the will-future can occur in almost every statement about the future (chapter 4.2.2.). After the introduction of other ways to refer to the future, this becomes more relevant.

4.3.5. Introduction of the Going-to-Future

4.3.5.1. Components to be Taught

The components in the introduction of the going-to-future are quite similar to those of the will-future, and are as follows:

- simple sentences – I'm going be rich.
- negation – I'm not going to give up.

- questions – Are you going to sue him? What are you going to do?
- negative questions – Aren't you going to sue him?
- rules of usage

4.3.5.2. *Learners' Prerequisites and Possible Sequence of Steps*

The prerequisites are similar to those of the introduction of the will-future. But in addition to these, the learners should know the forms of *be* in order to be able to form the going-to-future. The sequence of introduction can also be similar to the one of the will-future – starting with simple statements and going on to negation and questions.

4.3.6. Recommendations

On the basis of what we can state about SLA and what has been gathered about future reference in English recommendations for the design of instruction of these phenomena and in particular of the course material needed to teach these phenomena will be given. There is no denying of the fact that every teaching situation is different and requires different types of instruction and different material. Still, general principles and recommendations for instruction can be given, how and if they are realized needs to be decided on the basis of the actual situation. What this text is interested in is to find out whether course material is conducive to teaching on the basis of SLA research and in order to do that we need to determine how material that takes into account the latest SLA research would need to be designed.

The criteria laid down concern the input which is offered to the learners, the sequence of instruction in relation to the natural sequence of acquisition, the pace of instruction, the teaching style supported and means to determine where the learners stand in the acquisition process.

4.3.6.1. *Input*

Several aspects of the input are important. First of all, the amount of input. A lot of it should be offered to the learners. On the basis of research (e.g. N. Ellis 2005) it is presumed that statistical learning is effective, i.e. that being exposed to a certain structure many times results in learners being able to recognise it and judging its correctness. Hence statistical learning should be supported in foreign language instruction. The learners should be confronted with much input which contains the language structure to be learned before, during and after the units on the future tenses so that they have the chance to “absorb” the structure and build up their implicit knowledge. For the current topic this is not even difficult as the future can occur in a lot of contexts, for example when people are talking about their plans or hopes for the future. It is also

possible to talk about the development of the world and how the world will be in 50 or 100 years. The possibilities are almost unlimited.

Especially when the structure is new, enriched input would also be helpful. In order to help the learners *notice* the target structures, they can be highlighted in written and spoken texts. Additionally, the vocabulary connected to the structure can be introduced, in the case of future structures adverbials like *tomorrow, next week, in two years* etc. The material offered should be interesting for the learners so that they want to decode its content. As not all material is equally attractive for all learners they should be offered choices. Furthermore, different types of material should be offered, especially nowadays it is possible to offer more than printed texts. Hearing texts, which are also available to the learners at home, as well as other types of media like movie clips or games can help avoiding material becoming too repetitive. Exercises to work with the new language material are also important.

It is of course a challenge to offer a great number of material which also fulfils the requirement of being interesting and involving for the learners. This is where the course book comes in. It can offer a lot of material and be a point of reference where to find more. Ideally it would have some kind of online component which is updated regularly which offers material or points to more material on the internet.

4.3.6.2. FFI

We have seen before that FFI is effective; it can help learners' acquire grammatical structures faster. FFI was defined as "any pedagogical effort which is used to draw the learners' attention to form either implicitly or explicitly . . . within meaning-based approaches to L2 instruction [and] in which a focus on language is provided in either spontaneous or predetermined ways' (Spada 1997 quoted in Spada 2011). One thing a book could obviously offer to support this style of teaching are explicit explanations of the phenomena talked about in the lessons. In the case of future tenses, explanation of the formation of the will- and the going-to-future should be included. Furthermore, a contrastive description of when they are used is important. These explanations should be supplemented with consciousness-raising tasks so that the students understand the structure and are more likely to notice it from then on. For this explicit dealing with the topic it is essential that the students understand metalinguistic language. Consequently, a course book needs to include translations, explanations and examples for metalinguistic terms. What has been described so far only relates to explicit FFI but implicit FFI is also a possibility. There is only so much time you can spend on explicit explanation and practice of a grammatical phenomenon. Implicit FFI is less planned than explicit FFI (see definition by Housen and

Pierrard 2005: 10; chapter 3.1.4.) and can happen in a communicative situation in the classroom. It is mainly up to the teacher to include spontaneous explanations but can also point out when it would be possible in the teacher's materials. This could be especially useful for revision. If in a later text in the book, for example, forms of the future appear they could be highlighted for the teacher so that he can choose to talk about these forms with the students if he sees the need for it.

4.3.6.3. *Consciousness Raising Activities*

The prerequisites for CR activities are already given by the two previous points: providing learners with explicit rules and a lot of data which contains the target structure. This point now focuses on activities hence another component is added. CR activities are characterized by a necessity for the learner to get intellectually involved so that he really understands the structure. For the future topic this could be done for each structure individually as well as for their differences in use in contrast. They can also be utilized with the aim that the learners *notice the gap*, i.e. that they need to express futurity but they do not know yet how this is done in English.

4.3.6.4. *Sequence of Acquisition*

It has been established that there is a certain sequence of acquisition that cannot be changed, only be speeded, by instruction. Generally, it can be tried to take into consideration the natural order of acquisition in the selection and sequence of grammatical topics when designing a course book. But now we are considering what a sequence of acquisition implies for the instruction in one topic. Mostly it means that it should not be forgotten that learners differ in their speed of acquisition and that it is one goal of teaching to avoid learners developing *bad solutions* for developmental problems, because they can develop into fundamental errors in language production which cannot easily be corrected. To avoid this it would make sense to offer explanations of phenomena that have already been taught or at least pointed out.

For the future topic two things can be inferred: Firstly, that previously taught structures should be revised during the units on future, such as the structure of questions, and secondly that the future tenses themselves need to be revised in later chapters and the following years of instruction. Like this the probability rises that a learner receives instruction at a point where he can process it. It will then be even easier for him as he already has the explicit knowledge on how the structure is formed and used. Even when a learner is not yet ready to process a structure it is still possible for him to understand it.

Furthermore, it would make sense to present the structure earlier than it is taught so that students who are already further in their development are given the chance to use this advance for their

advantage. It is definitely possible to use future tenses in earlier texts in the course book without risking confusion on the learners' part.

4.3.6.5. *SLA is a Slow Process*

Learning a second language is a slow process which cannot be rushed. As a consequence it should not be tried to teach too much in too little time. The focus of the current curriculum is on being able to communicate in real life. Accordingly, different situations are addressed and practiced in school. This includes grammatical as well as lexical means which need to be learned by the students. Especially in early years of instruction this is a great challenge for most students which is tended to be underestimated by more proficient speakers, teachers for instance.

Inside one topic, like the future tenses, not everything should be introduced at once. In the previous section we have seen that the process of learning one way of expressing the future can be divided into several substeps. Learners should not be expected to learn them all at once and by themselves. Every step needs attention. It is also useful to include revision into every unit, as has already been pointed out, as well as appearances of the structure in previous units so that the new structure does not appear completely out of the blue.

4.3.6.6. *Recourse to Existing Knowledge*

German and English are typologically related and because of that they are quite similar in many regards. This should be included into teaching so that students know when the languages are similar, and then can use these similarities, and when they are different so that they can avoid assuming similarities where there are none. In the short comparison between futurity in English and German (chapter 4.3.2.) it can be seen that the will-future in English and the future with *werden* in German are very similar regarding their formation. This should be pointed out in the book in connection with the explanations about the will-future. In terms of use of the future tense a reference to the differences between German and English needs to be made so that the students with German as their L1 know that, in contrast to the use of the future tense in German, it is really necessary in English to use it.

4.3.6.7. *Diagnostic Tool*

In order to know if a learner is ready for a new structure or to see where his problems really are it would be useful to have a diagnostic tool determining the current state of the learner's interlanguage.

It would be helpful if a course book offered tests so that the students can find out what they are good at and what they still need to work on. These tests should not only ask to reproduce what

has just been introduced as a topic but also more general skills, e.g. negating statements, formation of questions etc. as well as old topics which have been introduced before and a reference to input and exercises which contain the structure should be given so that the student has the possibility to work on his deficits.

Tests like these also form a good basis for talks with the teacher because they can be much more productive if it can actually be determined where the problem lies. If the student has done some self-assessment tests he can point clearer to what he has not understood and where exactly he needs help which helps the teacher to give the explanations or exercises really needed.

4.4. English G 21

The following parts of the analysis will directly relate to the treatment of the future topic in one particular course book – English G 21 A2.

4.4.1. English G 21 – General Information

English G 21 is a series of course books for English instruction in Germany. It has different editions, which are meant to be used in the different school types in Germany. Edition A (Ausgabe A) is designed to be used in grammar schools (Gymnasium). There are six books in Edition A – A1 for the first year of learning, A2 for the second and so on. This means that the books are usually used from year 6 to year 10 in schools. As Edition A is meant for the use in grammar schools it prepares already for the last two to three years of school leading up to the A-Levels (cornelsen.de). According to the publisher it helps to train skills (communicative skills, method skills, study skills) and provides offers for differentiation in the classroom (cornelsen.de).

English G 21 has been chosen for this work as it is used by many schools in Germany.

4.4.2. English G 21 – A2

English G 21 A2 is used in the second year of learning English, i.e. usually in year 6. In the explanation of its guiding principles it is stressed that mainly based on the ideas of holistic learning, a focus on students' interests and communicative needs (Schüler- und Handlungsorientierung, HR 5³).

The student book is structured as follows: It consists of six units (each about 14 pages) and an extra topic after every unit (2 pages). In the back of the book numerous other sections can be

³ (SB x) – page in student book (HR x) – page in teacher's material (WB x) – page in Work Book

found, e.g. the skills file, the grammar file, a list of vocabulary for each unit, a dictionary, irregular verbs, classroom English etc. In the grammar file (GF) there is a section for every unit and revision. There are 23 sections altogether, four of them are optional.

The topics and grammatical content in A2 are ordered as follows (SB 4-5):

Unit 1 (Back to School)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revision: simple past: positive and negative statements, questions and short answers • subject/object questions with who and what
Unit 2 (What money can buy)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Possessive pronouns • revision: some and any • compounds with some and any • going-to-future • comparison of adjectives
Unit 3 (Animals in the city)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Will-future • conditional sentences 1 • adverbs of manner • extra: comparison of adverbs • revision: comparison of adjectives
Unit 4 (A weekend in Wales)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revision: word order SVO • word order place-time • present perfect • extra: present perfect and simple past in contrast
Unit 5 (Teamwork)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relative clauses • question tags
Unit 6 (A trip to Bath)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extra: contact clauses • extra: indirect speech • revision: present progressive • past progressive • extra: conditional sentences 2

Table 5: Table of grammatical content in English G 21 A2

The GF is at the back of the student book and starts with a table of contents which lists all topics covered in it. An explanation of the structure and advice on how to use the GF follow on the same page. The pages in the GF are divided roughly into two columns. On the left there are examples of the target structure. The structure itself is printed in bold. As can be seen in the example page, there are attempts to present in a context of more than one sentence. In the example the target structure is highlighted in a short dialogue and there is a German translation given for the sentence in which it occurs. In the right column explanations on the form and function of the structure are given. Issues which are seen as potentially problematic are marked with an exclamation mark. In addition to that, there are boxes in the GF which give more examples on the formation of the phenomenon. Also a reference

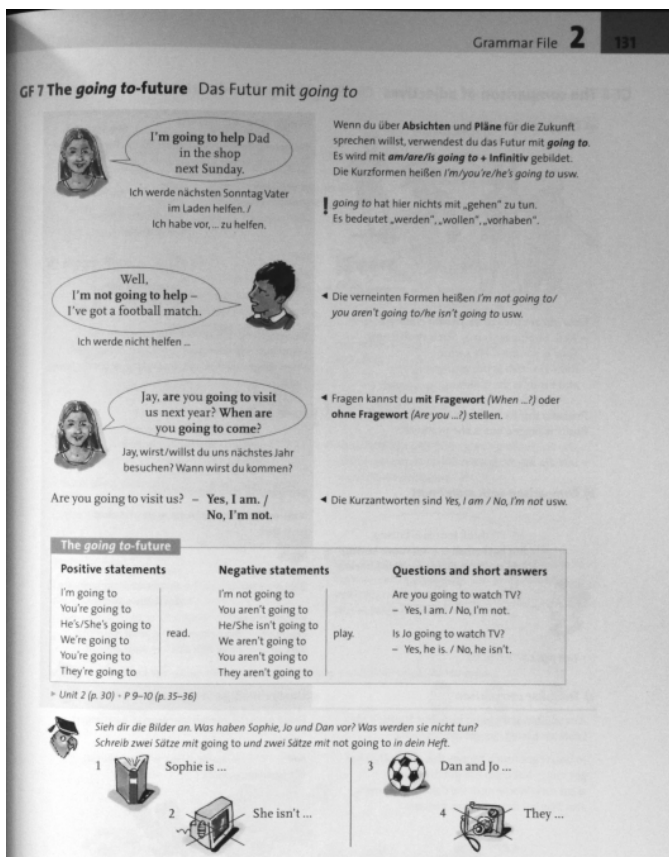


Figure 2: Example Page from the Grammar File in English G 21 A2

to the relevant pages in the unit of the book is given. At the end of most topics in the GF Polly the bird, a character in the book, presents a short exercise that the students can use to test whether they have understood the topic. Sometimes there is also a little cartoon added which is related to the grammatical phenomenon explained.

4.4.3. The Work Book

The Work Book (WB) needs to be separately purchased by the students and it contains extra material and exercises for the units of the course book. The exercises refer directly to the texts in the book which is indicated by references to the relevant pages next to the activities. For every exercise there is also a traffic light in which the students are supposed to colour according to how difficult the exercise was for them. At the end of each unit there is a *Check Point* that contains short exercises about the unit's topics and the students are asked to compare their answers with the solution at the end of the WB and see how many right answers they had. Furthermore, there is always a little writing task. The solutions in the back of the WB not only provide the students with the answers for the exercises but also with tips if they had difficulties for every single

exercise. These consist of references to the GF, to the skills file and to certain exercises in the student book.

For every two units there is double page for self-evaluation. It contains statements about the skill the students are expected to have gained (e.g. *I am able to talk freely and to ask questions during the lesson, even though I make a few little mistakes.*) and also about grammar and vocabulary. Next to the statements the students can cross *Very Good!*, *OK* or *Improve!*. All the text on these pages is in German. At the bottom of this self-evaluation page there are tips for improvement, e.g. *I could read aloud texts from the book every day.* At the end of the WB there is a short version of the book's GF included.

4.4.4. Concept of A2

For the work with the course book A2 there is a teacher's handbook (Lehrerhandreichungen) which offers general information on the concept of the book as well as specific information about the units and worksheets.

The basic principles, as stated by the authors, are holistic learning a focus on students' interests and communicative needs (Schüler- und Handlungsorientierung, HR 5). The development of skills is to be supported (HR 7), among them communicative competence, methodological skills, learning competence and active learning. Students shall be introduced to learning and working strategies and study techniques. There is an overview over the skills to be acquired in the *skills file* at the end of the book and they are also included into the units of the book (HR 9). Students are encouraged to reflect their learning, e.g. by the *stop-check-go* method which is supposed to motivate students to check whether they have understood the unit's topic and advice is given on how to act when they have difficulties with something. Furthermore, possibilities for cooperative forms of learning are included in the book.

The work with linguistic means is described as follows (HR 15): They are introduced systematically but there is no strict grammatical progression because the students have encountered a lot of phenomenon already in the early years of teaching (Anfangsunterricht⁴). Structures are strictly separated when they are introduced and some of them are taken up later again in the course of the book(s). The general guidelines for the introduction of linguistic means are (HR 15):

- Spoken language has priority over written language.

⁴ In years 1-4 in German schools, English lessons are usually conducted based on play and communication, i.e. without grammar teaching.

- Isolation of difficulties
- Parallel progression of grammar and communicative needs (Sprechabsichten)
- Learning by understanding
- Revision
- Focus on exercises.

Revision is considered as particularly important and is done in several ways – implicitly, by using linguistic means which were already introduced and explicitly by means of revision exercises. The basic principle is to revise similar or related structures which were a topic earlier, before a new structure is introduced. Important new grammar structures are practiced in the following unit with revision exercises (HR 21). In order to avoid confusion because of concurring structures, these are introduced far apart from each other. Furthermore, when new grammatical items are introduced there is usually no new lexis to be learned.

The GF at the end of the book is meant as an additional material to the explanations of the teacher. The students are supposed to also work with the GF on their own. The teacher should introduce them to the work with the GF (HR 18).

All of this seems to be compatible with the current views on how to teach modern languages and the curriculum (chapters 2.2. and 2.3.) Particularly the priority of spoken language and the parallel progression of grammar and communicative needs mirror the focus on communication which is currently seen as most important in language teaching.

4.5. Going-to Future in English G 21

In the following it will be described how often and in which form the going-to-future appears in texts and exercises in English G 21 A2.

4.5.1. Input – Texts and Exercises

The going-to-future first occurs in the middle of Unit 2 in a text (SB 30). The book's character Ananda writes a letter to her grandmother in India in which she tells her about the upcoming weekend and asks if the family is going to visit soon. According to the teacher's material the aim of the unit is that the students learn about life in different countries, how to extract information from a letter and to write about the fictitious plans of the characters of the course book (HR 85). The grammar to be introduced is the going-to-future and the methodological competence to be acquired is to recognise grammatical structures and to name and explain them (ibid.).

The teacher's material suggests talking about *jobs for kids* before dealing with Ananda's letter in order to introduce the required lexical items before. Then the text should be read or listened to and the content discussed. Afterwards the students are supposed to find the sentences in which Ananda talks or asks about people's plans and sort those in a table which looks like this:

	(Question word)	form of to be	going to	infinitive
+		I'm He's ...	going to ...	help
-		He's not	...	
?	When	...		

In the teacher's material it is assumed that the students recognise in this way that the word order follows the usual rules for

Figure 3: Exercise from English G 21 A2 (p. 30)

statements and questions. Further work should then

be done with the GF (HR 86).

Afterwards the students are required to explain how to form the going-to-future. This exercise is a GCRT because the learners are working with L2 input (Ananda's letter) and they are expected to arrive at an understanding how one structure of the target language, in this case the going-to-future, is formed.

This is followed by an exercise in which statements with the going-to-future by characters of the book are given and the students need to decide which character they belong to. Here the learners can see that the going-to-future is used to express plans and consequently this exercise can be classified as an IT. The second part of the exercise is to invent similar statements and let your partner guess which character could say this. Here the students need to form own statements following the pattern they have previously looked at and they need to interact with a partner which makes this a GPA.

As to the input the text offers: in Ananada's letter there are 27 verb phrases, five of them contain the going-to-future. Of those two are statements, one is a negative statement, one is a y/n-question⁵ and one is a wh-question.

The next text in the student book (SB 31) already has a different grammatical focus (comparison of adjectives) and in this text the going-to-future occurs two times, the text after that does not contain any forms of the going-to-future (SB 32).

⁵ y/n-question: a question to be answered with *yes* or *no*, i.e. without a wh-word

In the unit's practice part there are two exercises directly directed at practicing the going-to-future. In one (SB 35) the students are supposed to imagine who is going to wear what at the fashion show which the characters plan in the unit. The students are thus required to form statements using the going-to-future and the vocabulary they have learned. This is a GE because it focuses on the students reproducing the grammar structure that was introduced.

In the first part of the second exercise (SB 36) the students are asked to speculate with their partners what the book's characters are going to do in their lunch break. In the second part the students are supposed to make three appointments with other students in the class and then ask them about their plans for the weekend and the next holidays. These results should then be reported to the class. Both parts are GPAs because they ask the students to produce sentences with the target form in interaction with others.

At the end of the unit there is a longer text (SB 40-41) which concludes what has been the unit's topic. It is longer than the text before but also only contains two forms with the going-to-future, one wh-question and one statement. In the texts of the next unit the going-to-future does not occur at all, but there is one exercise in which it is possible that the learners use it but it is not required (SB 44). The next occurrence of a form of the going-to-future is in Unit 5 (SB 78).

The Work Book also offers one exercise for the going-to-future in which the students need to write sentences using given language material (WB 21), a clear case of a GE. For every two units there is a self-evaluation page in the Work Book on which the students can choose if they agree with statements about their skills concerning listening comprehension, reading, grammar comprehension etc. Even though the going-to-future is introduced in unit 2 of the book, it is not mentioned on this self-evaluation page (WB 28-29).

4.5.2. Grammar File

In the GF the going-to-future is explained on one page (SB 131). In the left column a short dialogue between two characters from the book is given in speech bubbles. It contains one statement with the going-to-future, one negative statement, one y/n-question and one wh-question. All sentences which contain the going-to-future forms are translated next to the text. In the right column it is explained that the going-to-future is used to talk about plans and intentions for the future and how the forms and short forms are formed. It is stressed that it does not have anything to do with going in the literal sense. Furthermore, the formation of the negated statement, the questions and short answers (e.g. *Yes, I am.*) are described. All these explanations are in German. In the box below there are several examples for positive and negative statements

and y/n-questions with short answers. A reference to the relevant pages in Unit 2 is given. At the bottom of the page there is a short exercise in which the students are supposed to form positive and negative statements with the going-to-future (GE).

4.6. Will-Future in English G 21

4.6.1. Input – Texts and Exercises

The will-future first appears in a listening exercise in the lead in of Unit 3 (HR 115). At this point it is not a topic yet. The next occurrence is in the first text of the unit. In it Ananda finds baby hedgehogs and asks Sophie what she needs to do with them. In the text almost half of the verb phrases are with the will-future (15 of 34), among them seven statements, four negative statements, two y/n-questions and two short answers. The teacher's material specifies that the students are supposed to learn the will-future including positive and negative statements, questions and short answers (HR 116). Furthermore, they should learn how to recognise grammatical regularities and how to formulate rules. After reading and talking about the text the teacher can decide which of the tasks offered he wants to do with the students first. There is the possibility to write an e-mail for which some components are already given. This task requires the students to use the will-future already but they can take most sentences from the text. It is an IT because it makes the students aware that future statements are formed with *will* but they are not required to use metalanguage. The alternative is to start with a GCRT about the use of *will*, *'ll* and *won't*. The task is to work with the *looking at language* box which asks of the students to collect verb forms which contain forms of the will-future from the text. Then the following questions shall be answered by the students: "What time are Sophie and Ananda talking about when they use will and won't? When do you use 'll/will? When do you use won't?" (SB 46). According to the teacher's material the students will, on the basis of this, realize that the will-future refers to guesses and possible events in the future or to predictions and that it takes the same form for every person. The teacher is given the possibility to talk about signal words with the students, such as *maybe*, *probably*, *I think* etc. Then the students should translate some sentences to raise consciousness of the difference between the English *will* and the German *wollen* (HR 117). A last exercise belonging to the text is to build sentences from given parts (In 20 years I'll probably... /I probably won't... be a pop star, be married etc.) about the future. The second part of the exercise is to compare with a partner what both will or won't do in twenty years. Those are both GPAs.

In the next text in the unit the will-future appears again but the focus of the tasks is already on a different grammatical topic (conditional sentences). Two of the unit's three other texts also contain forms of the will-future but mainly only statements (16 occurrences in total, 15 of them positive statements, one wh-question).

The unit's practice part contains two exercises explicitly for the will-future. One is about the year 2050 (SB 50). Pictures, verbs and another part of the sentence are given and the students are asked to form sentences with *will* or *won't*, which is a GE. There is also an extra part to that exercise, a GPA, in which the students are supposed to discuss with their partner if they agree with the statements.

The next exercise is similar but the students are also required to form questions with the will-future (SB 51), hence this is a typical GE. The second part is a GPA in which the students are also supposed to invent own questions and answers. There are also some exercises for the practice of conditional sentences type I, which also requires the use of the will-future.

In the work book there are also two exercises for the will-future. One of them is forming sentences with *will/won't* and *need* and given pictures (WB 31). The second one is only about formulating questions with the will-future (ibid.). Both are GEs. Additionally, there is a GPA in which the learners need to plan their next birthday and say what they will or will not do (ibid.). There are exercises for conditional sentences as well in which the students need to use the will-future. In the *Checkpoint* section at the end of the unit in the work book one of four exercises and the extra task are about the will-future and one is about conditional sentences (WB 41).

4.6.2. Grammar File

The grammar page on the will-future (SB 134) contains four parts. At the top in the left column a dialogue between Ananda and Sophie is presented, similar to the one in the Unit. It contains positive statements with the long and short forms *will'll* and a negative statement with *won't* as well as one y/n-question and one wh-question. The explanation on how to form the will-future is to be found in the right column. It contains the basic formation (*will + inf*), the short form *'ll* and the negated forms. It is explained that the will-future often occurs with adverbials of time like *tomorrow, next month* etc., that question can be formed with or without a wh-word and what the short answers look like.

In the second part there are also two statements from Sophie and Ananda in a sort of dialogue presented in the left column. They are translated and their functions are highlighted (speculation, prediction). That the will-future is used to express those is explained in the right column. It is

described how one can recognise a speculation and what a prediction is typically used for. The way German and English express these function is contrasted.

The third part is used to make the students aware of the difference between the English *will* and the German *wollen*. In order to do that there are two statements on the right, one containing *will* and the other one *want*. Both of them are translated into German. On the right it is said not to confuse the two because of the similarity of *will* to *wollen*.

At the bottom of the page there is a short GE in which the learners need to fill in *will/’ll* and choose one of the given words into gaps in sentences.

4.7. Results

In the following the recommendations for course books for the introduction of the future tenses will be compared with what has been found in English G 21 – A2. This comparison will be combined with an evaluation on what is already satisfactory in the book, in relation to what has been found out in this paper, and recommendations for possible improvements will be given.

In chapter 4.2. the many ways of referring to the future in English have been described. Out of them the will-future and the going-to-future were chosen to be taught in schools. The reduction in A2 is consistent with that – only those two tenses are introduced, at least in this part of the series. In later books of the series the present progressive with future meaning (A3), the future perfect, the future progressive and the simple present with future meaning (A5) are also introduced. The sequence suggested in chapter 4.3.3., on the basis of the processability hierarchy, for the introduction of the will-future and the going-to-future was to start with the will-future. However in A2 the going-to-future is introduced first in Unit 2 and the will-future only in Unit 3. The reason for this is not given so that the order worked out in this text is still seen as being better because it takes into consideration what the learner is able to process at which point in his development.

Furthermore, the components to be taught for both future tenses have been specified in chapters 4.3.4.1. and 4.3.5.1., e.g. negated statements and questions. This distinction is not visibly made in the progression in A2. In the texts all forms appear at once. In the CR tasks belonging to the texts (SB 30, SB 46) all forms are included and in the GF examples are given for all components although there is no distinction made between y/n-questions and wh-questions in both the tasks and the explanations. It does not seem that it is the authors’ intention that the components are taught separately.

One important criterion from chapter 4.3.6. is to include a lot of input into the books and extra material so that implicit learning can take place, if possible also enriched input. Throughout the texts in the book however the going-to-future appears very little. In order to introduce it, the going-to-future occurs several times in one text (SB 30) but never before and hardly ever afterwards. In the whole of Unit 2 there are only nine occurrences of going-to-future forms and no enriched input at all. Those are very few occurrences and definitely not enough to enable implicit learning. It is quite surprising that the going-to-future hardly occurs in the other texts of the units when it is especially important to consolidate this new structure right away. Concerning the will-future there is considerably more input – of the structure on its own and also because the next grammatical phenomenon introduced is conditional sentences I which contain the will-future as well. The will-future also occurs before it is introduced, at least one time, and more often after it has been introduced. But also for the will-future there is no enriched input given in the course book.

In order to make the input more interesting for every learner it was suggested to offer choices so that it is more likely that everyone finds something he is interested in. In the concept of the book it is also claimed that learners are offered choices but in both units that were examined here, no choices for the learners were found. There are, however, possibilities for the learners to be creative (e.g. SB 51).

The provision of additional material on the internet and other sources was also demanded. This is provided for this book. For the teacher there are materials offered online, for instance work sheets, extra texts and links to information on the songs and other topics from the book. For the students a CD-ROM is included in the work book. It contains extra exercises for the topics of the unit in three different levels of difficulty. Moreover there are so-called *web units* on which the students can work on the internet and which supplement the units of the books. All in all it is therefore possible to include more input but it is up to the teacher to make use of those offers.

The next criterion for effective EFL teaching was that FFI should be supported, for example by giving explicit explanations of the phenomena included in the book. English G 21 A2 does provide the students with grammar explanations in the GF at the end of the book. Everything is explained and examples are given. There are also references to the GF in Units of the book and the Work Book so that the students can easily check something and in addition to that there are references in the GF to texts and exercises containing the structure that is explained on the page. What is missing in A2 is a contrastive description of the will- and the going-to-future. However, they are introduced as having different functions – the going-to-future for intentions and plans

for the future (SB 131) and the will-future to express what will happen in the future and for presumptions or predictions (SB 134). There are no hints for the teacher given when it would be possible to include a spontaneous revision explanation of a structure. FFI is mainly a teacher decision but the course book at hand is suited for the use in lessons with FFI.

Furthermore, the demand for explanations of metalinguistic terms is complied with in the form of a list of the terms used in the GF with a translation and an example at the end of the student book.

It has been claimed (R. Ellis 2008) that FFI works best in combination with communicative activities. For the future tenses there are some activities with a partner or a group but most of them do not leave much room for own ideas. In the two units considered there are no activities which require the students to really use the language and which might trigger them to notice a gap in their language ability.

The following table shows how many practice type exercises and CR tasks were found in the relevant units in the book and the corresponding sections of the Work Book.

	GCRT	IT	FCT	GE	GPA
going-to-future	1	1	0	3	3
will-future	1	1	0	5	5
total	2	2	0	8	8

Table 6: Distribution of CR activities and practice on the going-to-future and the will-future in English G 21 A2

As you can clearly see, practice activities are by far in the majority. When a new grammar topic is introduced there is usually a box with the heading *looking at language* below the text in which the new structure appears for the first time. For both units examined those boxes contain the only GCRT in the unit. Obviously, there are not that many opportunities for CR activities seen by the authors. It would be possible, however, to further break down the structures into smaller steps and then to include more CR tasks. Like this it would be easier for the learners to process these new structures because they are not confronted with many new grammar items at once.

Concerning the sequence of acquisition it was recommended to offer a lot of opportunities for revision so that learners can acquire structures when they are ready for them. For the future topics no revision of relevant structures such as questions or negations is offered. It is clear from the teacher's material that the authors are certain that all students know how to form questions or negations. This is obvious when they state, for example, that after doing the GCRT about the text

with the going-to-future the students will see that the formations of statements and questions follow the usual word order. Hence they believe that the usual word order is known to the students. Furthermore, the future tenses are not, or only very little, revised in the later chapters of the book. Revision of the future tenses as an explicit topic is only scheduled in A5 right before the future perfect and progressive are introduced.

In general some revision is done (see overview over grammar topics) and some older topics are included in the grammar file. However, there is no concept for individual revision described.

In addition to that, it was proposed to take into consideration that SLA is a slow process by particularly paying attention not to teach too much at once. In the description of the book's concept it is claimed that no new vocabulary is introduced in texts which contain a new grammatical phenomenon which would considerably lessen the cognitive load for the students. It is true that for the texts which contain the future tenses for the first time there is less new vocabulary than for other texts.

But as we have already pointed out in the beginning of this section, there is no sequence in the introduction of the future tenses - all components are introduced at once. This results in the fact that the learners are faced with very much material to process and makes it more likely that they develop *bad solutions*.

Furthermore, the grammatical progression is very steep. For both future tenses there is only one text respectively and on the following page there is already another grammatical phenomenon introduced. It is questionable whether it is really necessary to introduce that many grammatical structures in such rapid progression. In the description of the concept the authors claim that very many grammatical structures need to be introduced but at least from the point of the curriculum this does not seem to be the case. The main goal is that the students are able to communicate and this surely does not require them to know structures like the future perfect, which is introduced in A5 of the English G 21 series. As has been shown by Diehl (2000) few students keep up with the grammatical progression of the lessons so it seems like a sensible idea to lessen the amount of the grammar taught and concentrate on frequent structures and those necessary to communicate successfully.

It has also been suggested to take into consideration that students already know a language to point out similarities between the learners' L1 and the target language. Ringbom and Jarvis stressed that it is especially important to get away from only concentrating on differences and to help the learners see similarities because they have a more direct effect on language learning and

performance than differences (2009: 106). In A2 only differences are highlighted, e.g. that *will* does not translate as *wollen* and in English, in contrast to German, it is important to use a future tense when referring to the future. The similarity of the German future with *werden* and the will-future is not pointed out. Like this the learners are not supported in their attempt to facilitate the learning task – the activation of the mechanisms of transfer is not supported.

Concerning self-assessment the Work Book offers some possibilities for the students to see where they stand (see chapter 4.4.3.). The traffic lights next to the exercises remind them of what they found difficult or easy. At the end of every unit there is a Checkpoint with advice on how to improve in the solutions. This helps the students to improve if they have difficulties with understanding how a certain structure is formed or used. The self-assessment pages rely more on the metaknowledge of the students – they are supposed to judge what they can or cannot do. This is quite difficult to judge because of the number of items (about 40) and due to the time covered. If a topic was talked about at the beginning of the first unit the student is probably not sure anymore if he knows it. Furthermore, the advice on what to do to improve is quite vague. The design of the Checkpoint pages is better because it combines exercise and evaluation so that the students really see what they can do.

All in all, the tools for self-assessment offered in the Work Book might be efficient to find out when a structure which has just been a topic has been learned but they do not help to find out where the student stands in general. Even though it is stressed in the concept that revision is important it is assumed that the students can use the linguistic items taught previously. If a student struggles in English because he has not successfully acquired a previous structure this will not come out in the self-assessment and thus he will not find where his problem lies. It is more suited for studying for a test about a certain structure.

As a conclusion one can say that the strengths and weaknesses of English G 21 – A2 lie in the following areas: the grammar explanations are very clear and well structured, examples are provided and there are references to relevant texts and exercises. This makes it very easy for the student to find what he is looking for. In addition to that, there is the attempt to include consciousness-raising as a means of introducing new grammatical structures, a strategy which has been proven to be effective. Thus it is especially important that books take over such a new type of activity as they influence classroom practice considerably. On the other hand it is still important to use more CR activities. A lot more can and should be done.

Great importance is given in this text to the amount and the form of input. In A2, the input can be sufficient if the additional material is used. A lot of additional material is offered in extra books or online. It is up to the teacher to use it. If it is not used, the input is not sufficient to enable implicit learning. Hence the teachers should be urged to use more material for more input. This could be done more clearly in the teacher's material so that the teachers are aware that it is important to give more input. Furthermore, there could be more offers directed at students who want to read, listen to etc. more input.

In the book a lot of grammatical topics are introduced in rapid succession. This leaves the learners little time to understand and practice. In relation to few opportunities for revision this will most probably result in most learners not acquiring what is being taught. The main question to be asked here is whether all of these structures are really necessary to achieve the goal of preparing students for authentic communication. Obviously, the ability to use correct language is important for communication but especially in the early years of English instruction it should be enough to know one or the most frequent ways of expressing one concept like the past or the future. The students are confronted with much new language material which is hard for them to process and puts the focus yet again on grammatical forms when it is supposed to be on communication. Opportunities for revision would furthermore help to take into consideration the sequence of acquisition – they especially help to prevent that the learners develop *bad solutions* for developmental problems in the target language. This would also be aided by providing effective means of self-assessment. The instruments already given (*Checkpoint*, self-assessment pages) are too specific, they only check what has just been taught and concentrate very much on form.

5. Conclusion

In this text it has been examined what can be deduced from theories about SLA for language teaching and how this can be used in the design of course books for TEFL. Furthermore, it has been explored how the future can be expressed in English and, on the basis of the criteria of the first part, suggestions have been made as to the treatment of this topic in a course book for German learners of English. Lastly, one course book has been concerning the treatment of this topic and the results have been compared to the suggestions made before.

We have seen that in many points that the course book that was examined conforms to the criteria which were based on theories of SLA. Included are, for example, explanations of grammatical structures with examples, possibilities for self-assessment and consciousness-

raising activities. There is, however, still room for improvement concerning the amount of input directly included in the book, the number of CR activities, the amount and pace of introduction of grammatical structures and the opportunities for revision.

Future research should continue to explore the way languages are learned and also take into consideration the language classroom, especially the role of material. Clear recommendations can help authors of material for schools to design material which supports the language acquisition process optimally and which also helps the teachers to teach more effectively. It would be especially interesting to know more about different types of activities which can support the language acquisition process.

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Appendix A – List of Abbreviations

A2, A3 etc.	English G 21 A2, A3 etc.
CR	consciousness-raising
EFL	English as a foreign language
FCT	focused communication task
FFI	form-focused instruction
GCRT	grammar consciousness-raising task
GE	grammar exercise
GF	grammar file (in English G 21 A2)
GPA	grammar practice activity
HR	English G 21 A2 Teacher’s material (Lehrerhandreichungen)
IT	interpretation task
L1	first language, mother tongue
L2	language learned after mother tongue has been acquired
RLP	Rahmenlehrplan (curriculum)
SB	English G 21 A2 student book
SLA	second language acquisition
SVO	subject verb object
TEFL	teaching English as a foreign language
WB	English G 21 A2 Work Book

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Appendix E – Zusammenfassung

Die vorliegende Arbeit beschäftigt sich mit der Grammatikvermittlung im Englischunterricht. Im Rahmen dessen wird ein Schulbuch (English G 21 A2) daraufhin untersucht ob es kompatibel mit aktuellen Theorien zum Zweitspracherwerb ist.

Zu Beginn der Arbeit werden historische und aktuelle Auffassungen zur Grammatikvermittlung zusammengefasst und im Anschluss der aktuelle Rahmenlehrplan auf seine Aussagen hinsichtlich der zu vermittelnden Grammatik im Fremdsprachenunterricht untersucht. Hierbei wird deutlich dass der Rahmenlehrplan des Landes Brandenburg wenige Vorgaben bezüglich der grammatischen Phänomene, die behandelt werden sollen, gibt. Dies erklärt unter anderem den hohen Stellenwert, den Lehrbücher im Fremdsprachenunterricht haben. Sie dienen den Lehrenden als Materialquelle und gleichzeitig als Richtlinie dafür, welche Themen wie und in welcher Reihenfolge unterrichtet werden können.

Es folgt eine Übersicht über kognitive Theorien des Zweitspracherwerbs und des Sprachunterrichts, u.a. Krashens Monitorhypothese, R. Ellis' Weak Interface Modell oder Pienemanns Processability Theory. Auf der Basis dieser Theorien werden Kriterien für die Gestaltung von Schulbüchern, die einen möglichst aktuellen Erkenntnissen folgenden Grammatikunterricht unterstützen herausgearbeitet. Dazu gehören das Anbieten von viel zielsprachlichem Input, Bereitstellung von Übungen (practice) und bewusstmachenden Aktivitäten (consciousness-raising activities), das Beachten der Erwerbssequenz und das Bereitstellen eines diagnostischen Instruments sodass die Schülerinnen und Schüler herausfinden können, wo sie im Fremdsprachenerwerb stehen und woran sie noch arbeiten müssen. Auch das Anbieten vieler Gelegenheiten zur (individuellen) Wiederholung wird als sehr wichtig herausgestellt. All diese Vorgaben stehen natürlich unter dem Vorbehalt dass Schulbücher den Unterricht nur in begrenztem Maße beeinflussen können und die endgültigen Entscheidungen von den Lehrenden in der Situation getroffen werden.

Für den Analyseteil wird eine kommunikative Absicht, die in der Regel im Englischunterricht der Sekundarstufe 1 behandelt wird, herausgegriffen. Es handelt sich dabei um die Fähigkeit, über die Zukunft zu sprechen. Dazu werden zunächst die Möglichkeiten im Englischen über die Zukunft zu sprechen beschrieben und in der didaktischen Analyse für die Vermittlung im Unterricht reduziert. Nach einer Beschreibung des betrachteten Schulbuchs und der Behandlung dieses Themas in diesem Buch wird dies mit den ausgearbeiteten Kriterien verglichen. Hierbei stellt sich heraus, dass das Buch in vielen Punkten durchaus mit aktuellen

Zweitspracherwerbtheorien kompatibel ist (z.B. bezüglich des Einarbeitens von Erklärungen zu grammatikalischen Strukturen) in anderen jedoch noch Raum für Verbesserungen besteht (z.B. bezüglich der Fülle des Inputs und der Anzahl an bewusstmachenden Aktivitäten).

Wissenschaftliches Fehlverhalten in Pro- und Hauptseminaren: Plagiat

Plagiat ist eine Form des geistigen Diebstahls und führt zu ernsthaften Sanktionen. Das Wesen des Plagiats besteht darin, wissenschaftliche Erkenntnisse, Hypothesen, Ideen oder Formulierungen Anderer als eigene auszugeben. Eine unbefugte Verwertung unter Anmaßung der Autorschaft besteht dann, wenn die jeweilige Quellenangabe (Name des Autors / der Autorin und weiterer sachbezogener Informationen wie Titel der Arbeit, Erscheinungsort und –datum, Seitenzahl) unterbleibt.

Folgende Formen des Plagiats sind zu unterscheiden:

- 1) Bei einem „insularen“ Plagiat, d.h. wenn ein Satzfragment ohne entsprechende Kennzeichnung als Eigenes ausgegeben wird, liegt es im Ermessen des/der Dozent/in, ob dem/der Studierenden eine Überarbeitung des Seminarbeitrages (Referat, Hausarbeit) zugestanden wird.
- 2) Besteht bei einer studentischen Leistung der begründete Vorwurf eines Plagiats, bei dem ganze Textpassagen und/oder Argumentationszusammenhänge Anderer ohne Quellenangaben übernommen wurde, wird der Prüfungsausschuss des Instituts für Anglistik/Amerikanistik über Sanktionsmaßnahmen entscheiden. Diese führen in der Regel zum Nichtbestehen des Seminars. Der Prüfungsausschuss fasst ein Protokoll über diese Entscheidung. Im Wiederholungsfalle können Studierende zwangsexmatrikuliert werden.

Folgendes Beispiel soll die Unterschiede zwischen einem Originaltext, einem Plagiat und einer angemessenen Übernahme von Ideen und Formulierungen Anderer in die eigene Argumentation deutlich machen:

Here is the original text from Elaine Tyler May's *Myths and Realities of the American Family*:

"Because women's wages often continue to reflect the fiction that men earn the family wage, single mothers rarely earn enough to support themselves and their children adequately. And because work is still organized around the assumption that mothers stay home with children, even though few mothers can afford to do so, child-care facilities in the United States remain woefully inadequate" (May 588-89).

Plagiarism

Since women's wages often continue to reflect the mistaken notion that men are the main wage earners in the family, single mothers rarely make enough to support themselves and their children very well. Also, because work is still based on the assumption that mothers stay home with children, facilities for child care remain woefully inadequate in the United States.

No Plagiarism

Women today still earn less than men — so much less that many single mothers and their children live near or below the poverty line. Elaine Tyler May argues that this situation stems in part from "the fiction that men earn the family wage" (588). May further suggests that the American workplace still operates on the assumption that mothers with children stay home to care for them (589). This assumption, in my opinion, does not have the force it once did. More and more businesses offer in-house day-care facilities. . . .

From: <http://webster.commnet.edu/mla.htm>; 06.11.2003

Name:

Datum:

Ich bestätige hiermit, dass ich von der Plagiatregelung am Institut für Anglistik/Amerikanistik Kenntnis genommen habe und durch die Teilnahme an diesem Seminar diese ausdrücklich anerkenne.

Unterschrift