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To my mother.

Спаси́бо за всё, ма́ма.

Table of contents

List of tables

List of figures

1. Introduction	1
2. Grammar and its place in language learners' competence	3
2.1. Defining grammar	3
2.2. Grammar as a part of language learners' competence	5
2.3. Grammar and the communicative approach	7
2.4. Summary and implications	9
3. Controversies in grammar teaching	10
3.1. At what age and at what level(s) to teach grammar	10
3.2. Intensive and extensive grammar teaching	13
3.3. Implicit and explicit grammar teaching	14
3.4. Inductive and deductive grammar teaching	16
3.5. Consciousness-raising or practice	18
3.6. Models of teaching	21
3.7. Summary and implications	25
4. Indirect reported speech	27
4.1. Reported speech: direct and indirect speech	27
4.2. Basic features of indirect reported speech	28
4.3. Alterations in indirect reported speech	30
4.3.1. Backshifting	30
4.3.2. Deictic shifts	32
4.4. Reporting verbs	33
4.5. Questions in indirect reported speech	36
4.6. Recommendations for teaching indirect speech	37
4.7. Summary and implications	41
5. Evaluation of the textbooks	42
5.1. Aims of the study	42
5.2. Methodology and procedure	43
5.3. Introduction of the textbooks	45
5.4. First introduction and spiral principle	50

5.5. Rules of indirect reported speech introduced	52
5.6. Implicit or explicit teaching	57
5.7. Consciousness-raising and practice	60
5.8. Teaching models used in the textbooks	67
5.9. Deductive or inductive teaching	70
5.10. Discussion of the results	76
6. Conclusion	80
7. References	83
8. Appendices	89
Appendix 1. Rules of indirect speech introduced in the textbooks	89
Appendix 2. Explicit and implicit approach to teaching the rules of indirect reported speech	92
Appendix 3. Stages of the treatment of indirect reported speech	95
9. Abstract	98
10. Zusammenfassung	99
11. Curriculum Vitae	101

List of tables

Table 1. Units for the in-depth analysis and evaluation	50
Table 2. CR and practice activities in the course books	65
Table 3. Types of CR and practice activities in the course books	66

List of figures

Figure 1. Larsen-Freeman's three-dimensional grammar framework	4
Figure 2. Byrne's circular PPP model	22
Figure 3. Application of the rules of indirect speech in an exercise	58
Figure 4. Listening section	61
Figure 5. Practice of direct speech	62
Figure 6. Matching exercise	62
Figure 7. Interpretation task	63
Figure 8. Listening and speaking exercise	64
Figure 9. Vocabulary section	71
Figure 10. Grammar section in <i>Face2face</i>	72
Figure 11. Grammar section in <i>Outcomes Pre-intermediate</i> Unit 12	73
Figure 12. Grammar section in <i>Outcomes Pre-intermediate</i> Unit 9	74
Figure 13. Grammar section in <i>New Headway</i>	75

1. Introduction

Grammar teaching has always been a controversial aspect in foreign language teaching (Ellis 2006). Throughout the history of teaching, grammar was either valued higher than any other aspect of language learning or was considered unimportant. In addition, researchers and teachers have always argued about how grammar should be taught: intensively or extensively, implicitly or explicitly, inductively or deductively (Ellis 2006).

Nowadays, in spite of the popularity of the communicative approach in English language teaching, which favours fluency over accuracy, grammar still occupies an important place in the formation of communicative competence. However, the appearance of communicative language teaching (CLT) and its attention to fluency led to the necessity to redefine the notion of grammar. In the framework of the communicative approach, grammar is not seen as a set of rules or forms that should be learnt and then mechanically practised in various drills. CLT treats grammar as a resource for meaningful and successful communication. This shift in understanding what grammar is automatically created the need to change the way grammar is taught.

Now there is no solidarity among scholars regarding the question how grammar should be taught. The choice between different approaches to grammar teaching may depend on a variety of factors, such as the grammar item being taught, the age of the learners, the materials being used, and so on. This thesis tries to investigate how English grammar is taught in contemporary textbooks. To narrow down the scope of the research, three series of modern textbooks were chosen, namely *Face2face*, *New Headway* and *Outcomes*, all of which follow the communicative approach and are aimed at teaching adults. The study will concentrate on one grammar item – indirect reported speech. This grammar item has been chosen because, although it is rather often used in spoken and written English, it does not usually get enough attention in grammar teaching (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 687). Moreover, it is a rather complex structure, which might cause difficulties for many English learners (Charkova & Halliday 2011).

The aim of the study is to answer the following research questions:

- How is indirect reported speech taught in the selected contemporary textbooks that adhere to the communicative approach and have adults as the target audience?

- What similarities and differences do the selected course books have in their approach to teaching indirect reported speech?
- Which of the course books take(s) into account the specificities of teaching grammar in general and indirect speech in particular, the needs of the target audience, i.e. adults, and the principles of the communicative approach?
- Which series might be more appropriate for teaching indirect speech to adults in the framework of the communicative approach?

The thesis includes two parts: theoretical and empirical. The theoretical part addresses the main issues in grammar teaching. Chapter 2 concentrates on what grammar is and what place it occupies in communicative competence and CLT. In Chapter 3, the main controversies in grammar teaching are discussed. Chapter 4 provides information on what indirect reported speech is and what rules it includes. The theory is then applied to the evaluation of the course books. The description of the study, its results and the discussion of the results can be found in the empirical part of the paper, Chapter 5.

It is important to underline that this thesis strives to investigate how indirect reported speech is treated in course books. How it is actually taught in the classroom might differ significantly since what happens in the classroom depends not only on the course book, but also on the teacher, on how informed he is, and on what materials he has.

2. Grammar and its place in language learner's competence

For many centuries grammar has been a controversial topic in language teaching. Some teachers and scholars stay indifferent to grammar teaching, while others become captivated by or obsessed with it (Thornbury 2000: ix). The questions whether to teach grammar or not, and, if yes, then how, have been asked in L2 teaching for many years, but before addressing these questions, it is necessary to establish what grammar is and what place it occupies in language competence.

2.1. Defining grammar

The term 'grammar' can be defined in various ways, for example, as a book with language rules, an approach to the study of language and language competence, or a subject at school (Woods 1995: 1, 20). This variety of definitions can be explained by the fact that people consider different parameters trying to explain the term (Woods 1995: 2).

Grammar can be defined rather widely and include all aspects of language: phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicology, semantics, and discourse analysis (Stern 1992: 127). However, this broad approach is not appropriate in language teaching since it can be rather confusing not only for students, but also for teachers. Therefore, a more narrow approach should be used in defining grammar. Woods (1995: 14-15) gives 10 definitions of grammar, offering teachers to choose themselves which one they find more suiting and useful. However, the main idea, which is present in all of his definitions, is that grammar is the structure of the language and is concerned with the relations between words within a sentence. The same definition of grammar is adopted by Brown (2001: 362) and Thornbury (2000: 1). Sharing the identical approach to grammar, Huddleston (1988: 1) states that the two main elements of grammar are the word and the sentence, which are of interest to two branches of grammar: morphology, i.e. rules of the formation of words, and syntax, i.e. rules of the formation of sentences (Huddleston 1988: 1; Thornbury 2000: 2).

Applying another perspective, Woods (1995: 13) also points out that grammar can be viewed as rules, as form, or as resource. Learning the rules of grammar is believed to be the foundation on which learners can later base their knowledge of the language (Woods 1995: 15). However, some language teaching methods, for instance the direct method and the natural approach (Thornbury 2000: 21), consider grammar to be "unimportant"

and “unnecessary” (Woods 1995: 16-17) in foreign language learning. This is explained by the fact that when children learn their first language, and they do it very efficiently, they do not memorise the rules of the language (Woods 1995: 16-17), but “[form] associations between language and the real world” without any explicit explanation of the rules (Thornbury 2000: 50). Meanwhile, there has been no sufficient proof of the efficiency of natural second language acquisition (Thornbury 2000: 50).

If grammar is seen as form, then it covers, for instance, word order, word formation, and the use of articles (Woods 1995: 17). In this case, all the attention is paid to the formal side of the language, not to its communicative value. When applying this view, teachers may hinder students’ communication, correcting all their grammatical mistakes (Woods 1995: 18).

Finally, grammar can be considered a resource for communication. In this approach, the form itself is important, but also its meaning(s) and use play an important role (Larsen-Freeman 2001: 252). Like words, grammatical forms may change their meaning in various contexts. In addition, a choice between two synonymous grammatical structures can depend on the context and on the meaning one wants to convey (Larsen-Freeman 2001: 252; Woods 1995: 28). Larsen-Freeman (2001: 152) argues that grammar has three dimensions, as given in Figure 1: structure/form, semantics/meaning and pragmatic conditions/use. The relations between these components are not hierarchical, but all three of them are interconnected and if one of the components is altered, the other two also change (Larsen-Freeman 2001: 252). According to Larsen-Freeman (2001: 252) this view on grammar may help “to achieve a better fit between grammar and communication”. Addressing each of them separately and the three of them together might be beneficial in grammar teaching.

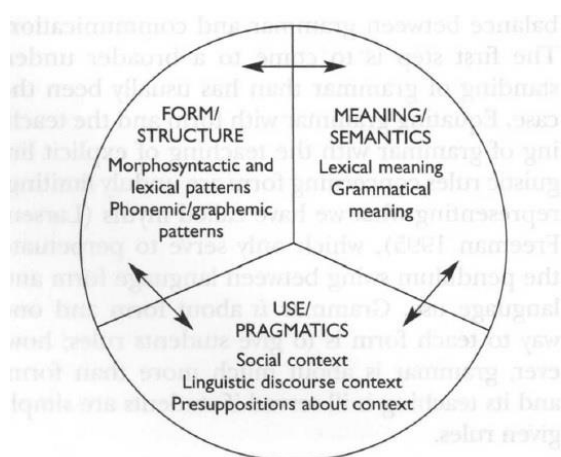


Figure 1. Larsen-Freeman’s three-dimensional grammar framework (Larsen-Freeman 2001: 252)

Overall, the analysis of literature shows that grammar can be seen as either a very wide notion, or it can refer only to the structure of the language and include only morphology and syntax. In this thesis, the second approach will be applied, as it provides a clearer and more precise understanding of the term. In addition, grammar should be seen as not only a set of forms or meanings, but also a meaningful resource for communication, which includes such dimensions as form, meaning and use. This approach to grammar appears to be widely spread nowadays, especially within the frame of communicative competence, which will be discussed in the next section.

2.2. Grammar as a part of language learners' competence

The study of grammar has always played an important role in second and foreign language teaching and learning (Purpura 2004: 1). For many years, grammar was “taken for granted” (Stern 1992: 127) and was “at the core of language teaching” (Woods 1995: 32). Learning a foreign language equalled learning the grammar of this language (Purpura 2004: 1).

The appearance of the communicative approach in the 1970s (Woods 1995: 33) led to the debate about the status of grammar (Purpura 2004: 1; Stern 1992: 127). Then foreign language teachers started to realise that grammar should not be simply memorised, but it should fulfil a communicative purpose (Purpura 2004: 2). However, there appeared another, more radical point of view, which tried to diminish the role of grammar in foreign language acquisition (Ellis 2002c: 17; Summer 2011: 1). It even attempted to make foreign language learning similar to L1 acquisition, as, for instance, it was the case in the natural approach (Purpura 2004: 2-3).

Nowadays, grammatical competence is still considered an integral part of communicative competence (Purpura 2004: 3; Summer 2011: 1), the formation of which is the main goal of contemporary language teaching (Purpura 2004: 3). Meanwhile, Purpura (2004: 3) rightfully claims that grammar should be seen as “an indispensable resource” for successful communication but not as a separate object for studying.

In spite of a variety of models of communicative competence (Purpura 2004: 56), grammar is thought to play a prominent role in most of them (Brown 2001: 362). Bachman (1990: 87), for instance, argues that communicative competence, or, as he calls it, “communicative language ability” (Bachman 1990: 84) incorporates pragmatic competence and organisation competence. Pragmatic competence includes

sociolinguistic and illocutionary competence, while organisational competence consists of grammatical and textual competence (Bachman 1990: 87). Describing elements of grammatical competence, Bachman (1990: 87) employs Widdowson's (1978 referred to in Bachman 1990: 87) point of view and states that grammatical competence includes vocabulary, morphology, syntax and phonology/graphology, applying the broad approach to the definition of grammar, discussed in the previous section.

Canale and Swain (1980: 29) used a similar approach to the components of grammatical competence. According to them, grammatical competence incorporates morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology. In general, their structure of communicative competence is simpler and includes grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence (Canale & Swain 1980: 28).

However, some models of communicative competence do not single out grammar as a separate component. Woods points out that, for instance, Hymes "gave a lower profile to grammar" (Woods 1995: 25) and concentrated on communication in general and on whether something is possible, feasible, appropriate and actually done in communication (Hymes 1972: 281). Woods explains Hymes's point of view by saying that grammatical mistakes do not necessarily hinder communication, and interlocutors can perfectly understand each other in spite of them (Woods 1995: 23, 25).

Nevertheless, grammar still plays an important role in communication and language. Brown (2001: 362) rightfully points out that any language needs a structure, otherwise, it will be "chaotic". That is why in *The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages*, a widely used manual for language educators, grammatical competence constitutes a part of linguistic competence together with lexical, semantic, phonological, orthographic and orthoepic competence. Linguistic competence, in its turn, along with sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence, is an element of communicative competence (Council of Europe 2001: 13, 109).

The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages defines grammatical competence as "knowledge of, and ability to use, the grammatical resources of a language [...] as opposed to memorising and reproducing them as fixed formulae" (Council of Europe 2001: 112-113) and distinguishes two spheres of grammar: morphology and syntax (Council of Europe 2001: 114). This grammar knowledge is comprised of two types of skills: receptive and productive (Leech 1994: 22). Receptive grammar skills are employed by learners in listening and reading, while productive

skills are used in speaking and writing (Leech 1994: 22). With time, consciously or unconsciously, receptive skills transform into productive ones (Leech 1994: 23).

Overall, grammatical competence is a necessary part of communicative competence. It should not be seen as knowledge of rules, or sets of forms. It is a resource, a 'pool' of forms, structures and meanings, among which student should be able to choose those forms and structures that suit their communicative needs. Or, as Larsen-Freeman (2001: 255) puts it, grammatical competence should not be regarded as "a set of rules to be memorized", but as "a skill to be mastered". And the amount of attention teachers pay to grammar should depend on and vary according to the objectives of the educational process (Stern 1992: 133).

2.3. Grammar and the communicative approach

Communicative language teaching (CLT), or the communicative approach, is a rather popular approach and can be found in many EFL textbooks. One of the reasons for this popularity can be the introduction of *The Common European Framework of Reference*, which considers the development of communicative competence to be the aim of language learning. As the three selected course books series, *Face2face*, *New Headway*, *Outcomes*, are based on this approach, it is necessary to investigate what CLT is and what place grammar occupies in this approach.

The communicative approach appeared in the 1960s-1970s to replace the structural-situational and audiolingual methods (Richards 2001: 36) that were concerned with the language itself and with grammatical competence, but not with how language can be used in everyday communication (Richards 2001: 36; Duff 2012: 15). CLT is a very diverse and broad approach (Richards 2001: 36; Duff 2012: 18). It incorporates various beliefs and views on language teaching (Whong 2011: 134). In addition, it is rather dependable on the context, i.e. educational policy, available materials, teachers (Duff 2012: 18), and usage of technology (Duff 2012: 23). In spite of this variety, in any of its adaptations CLT underlines the communicative purpose of language learning and the importance of communicative competence (Richards 2001: 36).

Such attention to communication does not mean that grammar is ignored in CLT (Savignon 2005: 640). Successful communication cannot happen without grammar (Savignon 2005: 640), which is why, as has been mentioned before, grammatical competence is considered a part of communicative competence. The focus in the

communicative approach has moved from accuracy to the balance between accuracy and fluency (Duff 2012: 22) with a slight preference for fluency (Whong 2011: 130). This presupposes a usage of various meaning-focused activities to develop grammatical accuracy and fluency simultaneously (Savignon 2005: 640) and communicative activities, not drills, since fluency is mostly the result of production, not practice (Whong 2011: 130). Research in second language acquisition (SLA) shows that meaningful and communicative activities facilitate the success of grammar teaching and learning (Aski 2003: 57). The optimal combination of different types of activities depends on many factors, among them, for instance, learners' age, learners' level, language aspect, and teacher experience (Lightbown & Spada 2000 referred to in Savignon 2005: 640), but there is no doubt that all types of activities should be present (Savignon 2005: 640). The prevalence of meaningful and communicative activities in CLT leads to active learning, due to a more active interaction with the language and more active processing of it (Whong 2011: 132-133).

Various types of activities allow students to see that grammar is a complex structure, which has form and is employed to express meaning when used in a particular context (Larsen-Freeman 2001: 252). Contextualisation, meaning making and usefulness of what is being taught and learnt are highly valued in CLT (Duff 2012: 28; Whong 2011: 130-131). Introduction of new grammar in context allows students to understand its meaning and how it should be used, while "[language] that is disembodied from a context has little meaning or practical value for the language learner" (Wajnryb 1990: 13 referred to in Summer 2011: 117). Introduction in context also helps to activate various cognitive processes, such as noticing and making form-meaning connections, and, in addition, it might facilitate the acquisition of L2 grammar (Fernandez 2011: 155-156).

In sum, the communicative approach is rather diverse, but in any of its variants, it focuses on the development of communicative competence. In communicative language teaching, grammar is considered a complex structure that includes three facets: form, meaning and use. The communicative approach values meaningful and communicative activities, which address form and meaning, or form, meaning and use, and not mechanical exercises, which focus only on form. In addition, according to the communicative approach, context might help students to understand better when and how to use a particular grammar item.

2.4. Summary and implications

Controversies regarding grammar seem to appear even with defining its borders. In this thesis, a narrow approach to the definition of grammar is employed, and thus it is defined as the structure of the language, which includes morphology and syntax. This approach helps to narrow down the term and to understand it more clearly.

The place of grammar in language teaching and learning has always been a topic for discussion. A widespread use of the communicative approach and the importance of communicative competence have led to the treatment of grammar as resource, i.e. a combination of form, meaning and use. This presupposes the use of meaningful and communicative exercises, which focus on several of the grammar facets, for instance form and meaning, or form, meaning and use. Since the chosen course books adhere to the communicative approach, they should consider grammar a resource for communication. Thus, they should include meaningful and communicative activities and concentrate not only on form, but also on how to use this form in a particular context to express a particular meaning. In addition, new grammar should be introduced in context as it helps students to understand the meaning.

3. Controversies in grammar teaching

Issues arise not only in defining grammar and in finding its place in contemporary foreign language teaching and English language teaching, but also in how grammar should be taught and “how the development of grammatical competence is best attained” (Summer 2011: 1). Researchers (Brown 2004; Ellis 2006; Purpura 2004; Stern 1992; Thornbury 2000) name a number of current questions relating to grammar teaching. Some of these issues will be addressed in this chapter.

3.1. At what age and at what level(s) to teach grammar

In the previous chapter, it was established that grammar comprises an important part of communicative competence. Therefore, the development of grammatical competence is one of the goals of foreign language teaching in general and English language teaching in particular. This leads to another question, namely, when grammar should be taught. This question is especially relevant as the textbooks evaluated in the empirical part of this thesis are aimed at adults. However, in this section, not only age but also level is a topic of interest.

Ellis (2006: 90) states that there are two approaches to the question when grammar in general and English grammar should be taught. Proponents of the first approach claim that careful attention to grammar should be paid already in the early stages of foreign language acquisition, while those who advocate the second approach argue that language learners should already have some knowledge of the language to begin mastering grammar (Ellis 2006: 90). Both views offer strong arguments. For instance, providing arguments in favour of the first approach, Ellis names Brooks (1960 referred to in Ellis 2006: 90), who believes that it is easier to teach students how to use a particular construction correctly from the beginning, than to eradicate its wrong usage later. Ellis also refers to Lightbown (1991 referred to in Ellis 2006: 90), who claims that an initial explicit presentation of grammar may provide a solid basis for future language learning. On the other hand, there is evidence provided, for instance, by Genesee (1987 referred to in Ellis 2006: 90) and Hughes (1979 referred to in Ellis 2006: 90) that proves that learners are capable of acquiring grammar without any formal teaching of it. Moreover, at the early stages learners’ interlanguage is agrammatical as L2 learning starts by concentrating on vocabulary (Ellis 2002c: 23). Lexical competence then functions as a foundation for grammatical competence; therefore, grammar teaching

may be postponed until students have a sufficient knowledge of lexis (Ellis 1984 referred to in Ellis 2006: 91; Perdue & Klein 1993 referred to in Ellis 2006: 91) and can formulate rules using what they already know (Ellis 1996 referred to in Ellis 2002c: 23). Ellis (2002c: 23) initially supported the second approach, saying that in English language teaching grammar instructions should wait until at least the intermediate level when learners have sufficient lexical competence. But he later agrees that these two approaches can be combined, suggesting that some useful and common features of grammar, such as the *-s* and *-ed* endings, should be explained to students in the early stages (Ellis 2006: 91). A similar point of view is shared by Brown, Purpura, Stern, Woods, all of whom refer to Celce-Murcia (1985 referred to in Brown 2001: 363, Stern 1992: 129, 134, Woods 1995: 66; 2001 referred to in Purpura 2004: 30) and claim that such variables as proficiency level and age of students should be taken into consideration in grammar teaching. Brown (2001: 364) states that too much grammar in the early stages of language learning might hinder the development of fluency. That is why, at the beginning, grammar should not be the main focal point of language teaching and learning, but it should be occasionally considered (Brown 2001: 364). Due to little attention to grammar in the initial phase of language learning and age peculiarities, young learners of English might benefit more from indirect mistake correction and prevention (Brown 2001: 363). Meanwhile, at more advanced levels, grammar is less likely to block language fluency, and is more likely to be comprehended due to learners' experience in the language (Brown 2001: 364). Adults, who are capable of abstract thinking and have better cognitive skills, may profit from more careful attention to grammar (Brown 2001: 90, 363-364). Cook (2008: 149) points out that adults benefit from real life language situations as they help to illustrate the usefulness of the learnt material.

Summarising the results of age-related studies, Ellis (2008: 31) comes to several conclusions. First, despite the fact that at the initial stages of learning adults acquire L2, and especially grammar, faster than children, eventually child learners become more successful learners and speakers of L2, not only in terms of grammar. Although, this tendency is true if sufficient exposure to the L2 is provided. Otherwise, adult learners might still outperform children, especially in grammar. Second, children are more likely to achieve a native-like grammar, but there is now enough proof to claim that this may also be possible for some adults. Third, there seems to be no agreement on whether a critical period for L2 learning exists, whether grammar has its own critical period, and

when this critical period starts and finishes. Finally, according to various studies, the ability to learn an L2 does not decline rapidly at a particular age but deteriorates slowly with age.

Another issue concerning the question when to teach grammar relates to at what point in L2 teaching it is better to introduce a particular language structure. Ellis (1994 referred to in Purpura 2004: 31) argues that regardless of the age and settings, learners acquire English grammar in a more or less fixed and predictable order. Some scholars (Eckman 1977 referred to in Purpura 2004: 32; White 1989 referred to in Purpura 2004: 32) believe that the sequence is relatively universal and relates to Universal Grammar. However, Krashen (1982: 115) does not consider the natural order of acquisition and learning a suitable basis for the sequencing of grammar. He names other criteria for ordering, such as grammatical simplicity and utility, and points out that course book authors usually employ grammar simplicity, starting with rather simple constructions, i.e. with those construction that are learnable on the basis of the previously learnt material, and gradually addressing more and more complex ones (Krashen 1982: 115).

Celce-Murcia (1991: 475) offers her own approach to what aspects of grammar should be addressed at different levels. She argues that at the beginning students should deal only with grammar-meaning correlations as, for instance, the difference between the present simple and the present continuous. Later grammar-function correspondences can be explained, such as the usage of *could* instead of *can* in requests for more politeness. Finally, only at the threshold/intermediate level, students are ready to deal with grammar-discourse correspondences, for instance, the use of articles or the difference between the voices.

Overall, it is still unclear at what age and at what levels grammar teaching is more productive. Unfortunately, there have been no conclusive findings on whether children and adults learn an L2 in the same or different ways due to cognitive specificities, and, therefore, whether they should be taught with the same approaches and methods or not (Ellis 2008: 32). Nevertheless, it seems that regardless of the condition, grammar teaching should start with learnable, simple items, and gradually address more and more difficult ones. Due to cognitive differences, adults might benefit from an earlier and more focused attention to grammar than young learners of English. In addition, adult learners may learn better in conditions that are close to real life settings since it shows the usefulness of what they are learning.

3.2. Intensive and extensive grammar teaching

Another issue in grammar teaching is whether grammar should be taught intensively or extensively (Ellis 2006: 93-95). The intensive approach to grammar teaching presupposes a lesson or a set of lessons during which only one grammatical feature, or a pair of opposite or similar features, is taught (Ellis 2006: 93). The extensive view on grammar teaching involves concentrating on a series of forms and structures within one or several lessons, paying little attention to each of the grammatical elements (Ellis 2006: 93). Despite the fact that grammar teaching is mostly considered to be intensive, as teachers rather rarely consciously choose to address several grammatical structures within a short period of time, extensive grammar treatment also takes place during L2 teaching, especially through mistake correction and feedback (Ellis 2006: 93-94).

Ellis (2006: 94, 95) summarises that both approaches have their strengths and weaknesses, which were analysed in various studies (Spada & Lightbown 1999; Cook 1989), and the most appropriate solution would be to combine them within English teaching. In addition, Ellis (2006: 92, 94, 95) underlines that the choice between the extensive and intensive approach is not as important as a systematic revision of grammar. The same view is shared by Martin (1978: 153), Stern (1992: 139), Woods (1995: 59) and Pachler and Bond (1999: 95-96), who agree that a cyclical, or spiral (Bruner 1961; Martin 1978), treatment might encourage a better command of grammar (Stern 1992: 139) and provide a clearer image of language (Woods 1995: 59). Each time, usually on a level-to-level basis (Martin 1978: 152), a particular grammatical feature is revised, it should be presented in a new context (Martin 1978: 152; Stern 1995: 139; Pachler and Bond 1999: 96), which facilitates the memorisation of the previously learnt material (Martin 1978: 153) “expanding and refining it in more elaborate and subtle terms” (Martin 1978: 152).

The importance of such treatment of grammar can be explained by the fact, that, first, some grammatical constructions need to be addressed more than once to be remembered by learners (Ellis 2006: 92). Moreover, it allows learners to transfer the knowledge of the material they already know to new contexts (Pachler & Bond 1999: 96), and to understand how new material relates to what has been learnt before (Saraswathi 2004: 51). Thus, spiral teaching facilitates, on the one hand, the revision of the material, and, on the other hand, the development of analytical thinking. In addition, learners might lack all the information that is necessary to understand fully a specific grammatical element when it is introduced for the first time; therefore, it is taken up again later when

the learners' knowledge is enough to comprehend it completely. Martin (1978: 155) points out that the cyclical treatment of various grammatical structures is especially useful if they are either semantically or syntactically too complex to teach and learn at one stage (for instance, the modal auxiliaries, the conditional sentence types), or if they represent an integration of different rules and require a higher level of cognitive thinking (for example, indirect speech).

Summing up, ideally, grammar teaching should be simultaneously intensive and extensive, especially in error correction. However, it is even more important that various grammatical elements are regularly revisited and revised. Thus, grammar teaching should be cyclical, especially if the targeted structure is complex, as, for instance, is the case with indirect reported speech, the grammatical structure under investigation in this thesis.

3.3. Implicit and explicit grammar teaching

One of the main questions in grammar teaching is whether it should be taught implicitly or explicitly (Ellis 2006: 95; Stern 1992: 147). This issue relates to the opposition of explicit and implicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is the information that has been intentionally processed (Ellis 2006: 95). As it takes time to access this type of knowledge, learners usually refer to it only when they encounter grammatical difficulties (Ellis 2006: 95), or while doing grammar exercises, such as, for instance, gap-filling (Purpura 2004: 42; Pachler & Bond 1999: 97). Basing on these characteristics of explicit knowledge, explicit grammar instructions can be defined as the ones focusing on consciousness-raising (Summer 2011: 299) and explaining rules (Purpura 2004: 42; DeKeyser 1995 referred to in Purpura 2004: 42), which should be applied in various activities (Purpura 2004: 42).

Implicit knowledge is automatic and intuitive, and it is memorised unconsciously, without any controlled learning (Ellis 2002b: 162). That is why it is easily accessible, and it allows fluent and natural communication. Thus, some scholars believe that it may be the basis of L2 competence (Ellis 2001: 252; Ellis 2006: 95). Implicit grammar teaching presupposes no focus on form and no formal presentation of rules (Purpura 2004: 42; DeKeyser 1995 referred to in Purpura 2004: 42). In this case, new grammar is presented in context, and learners are supposed to "notice" it themselves and gradually incorporate it in their speech without any attempts from the teacher to draw students' attention to the new grammatical material (Purpura 2004: 42-43).

If implicit knowledge is the foundation of language competence, it is logical to assume that grammar teaching should be implicit, especially in the framework of the communicative approach. Several studies support this idea. Purpura (2004: 32), for instance, refers to Prabhu's *Communication Teaching Project*, conducted in the South of India (Prabhu 1987 referred to in Purpura 2004: 32). Prabhu's research showed that grammar learning is possible through task-based teaching and meaningful communication without any formal instructions (Pupura 2004: 33). In addition, Purpura (2004: 33) names other studies which received the same results, for example, studies conducted by Terrell, Gomez and Mariscal (1980 referred to in Purpura 2004: 33), or Lightbown (1992 referred to in Purpura 2004: 33).

Nevertheless, studies conducted by Tomlinson *et al.* (2001 referred to in Tomlinson 2012: 143) and Masuhara *et al.* (2008 referred to in Tomlinson 2012: 143) showed that explicit teaching is more common in contemporary EFL course books for adults. This might be explained by the fact that implicit and explicit types of knowledge are interconnected, more precisely, explicit knowledge helps the formation and development of implicit knowledge (Ellis 2006: 96). Purpura (2004: 38) stresses that learners can benefit from such a technique of explicit grammar teaching as error correction, and concludes by saying that explicit grammar teaching is important in a foreign language classroom, as although "some L2 learners are successful in acquiring selected linguistic features without explicit grammar instructions, the majority fail to do so". Unfortunately, he does not explain or give examples of the features that cannot be acquired without explicit instructions. Purpura (2004: 33-34) also mentions a study by Seliger (1979 referred to in Purpura 2004: 33-34) and Lightbown (1985 referred to in Purpura 2004: 33-34), who claim that explicit grammar teaching might contribute to "learner's awareness of grammar".

Therefore, it seems rather rational that Purpura (2004: 38-39) suggests combining the explicit and implicit approaches, although, in general, the studies analysed by him favour explicit grammar teaching since it allows to develop communicative competence faster (Purpura 2004: 44; Pachler & Bond 1999: 98). Hulstijn (1989 referred to in Purpura 2004: 38), Alanen (1995 referred to in Purpura 2004: 38), Long (1991 referred to in Purpura 2004: 38-39), and Millard (2000: 48) provide evidence that L2 grammar teaching is more successful when the educational process is based on communication and meaningful interactions, with an occasional focus on grammar to clarify, specify and correct (Purpura 2004: 38-39). These principles help to achieve a higher level of

fluency and accuracy simultaneously (Millard 2000: 48). Norris and Ortega (2000 referred to in Purpura 2004: 39) also underline that for grammar teaching to be effective in this situation not only form, but also its meaning should be attended to. To achieve this, grammatical constructions should be introduced in meaningful context, as it allows them to be “fully intelligible” (Thornbury 2000: 89). Decontextualisation may deprive new grammatical material of important shades of meaning (Thornbury 2000: 71). Such attention to meaning, according to Doughty and Williams (1998 referred to in Purpura 2004: 39), might help L2 learners to move from “communicative effectiveness to target-like performance” if this is the aim (Purpura 2004: 39). Supporting the idea that both, explicit and implicit, approaches can coexist in grammar teaching, Read (2007: 86) claims that implicit learning is more suitable for young learners while explicit knowledge is more appropriate for adults. She also suggests comparing and contrasting newly learnt L2 constructions with already familiar patterns or even with similar features from students’ native language to develop their awareness at higher levels (Read 2007: 87).

In sum, the analysis of the literature shows that scholars favour explicit grammar teaching, i.e. with attention to form, especially in teaching adults. Nevertheless, new grammar material should be presented in context and then practiced in communicatively meaningful situations. Therefore, a better option for grammar teaching seems to combine implicit and explicit teaching, putting one or the other forward, depending on the material, the students and their needs.

3.4. Inductive and deductive grammar teaching

Another issue in grammar teaching is whether grammar should be taught inductively or deductively, or as Thornburry (2000: 29, 49, 51) puts it, whether grammar teaching and learning should be “discovery” or “rule-driven”. Deductive grammar teaching presupposes, first, the presentation of rules, then examples, and finally some practice (Purpura 2004: 42; Ellis 2006: 97). In the inductive approach, first, learners are given examples of usage of the new grammatical material and are encouraged to understand rules or to make a generalisation from the context, thus discovering the rules themselves with or without formulating them or concentrating on the form, i.e. either explicitly or implicitly (Purpura 2004: 42; Ellis 2006: 97).

Similar to the previous controversies, the results of the research on which approach, inductive or deductive, is more appropriate in grammar teaching, have been

heterogeneous (Ellis 2006: 97; Thornbury 2000: 55). Herron and Tomosello (1992 referred to in Ellis 2006: 98) and Erlam (2003 referred to in Ellis 2006: 98) found that inductive grammar teaching is more efficient. Inductive teaching allows learners to discover the language on their own (Woods 1995: 77). This makes learners more motivated and autonomous (Rutherford 1980 referred to in Woods 1995: 77) and the material more memorable and meaningful (Thornbury 2000: 54), especially, if it is introduced in an entertaining context (Woods 1995: 77). In addition, supporting inductive teaching, Brown (2001: 365) points out that it resembles the acquisition of L1, suits learners' interlanguage development, and helps to avoid explanation overload. Moreover, Lobeck (2000: 17 referred to in Summer 2011: 315) argues that it is "more useful to think of studying grammar as a means of discovering more about the principles and basic structure of human language, rather than as a search for right answers", and thus the inductive approach suits the nature of grammar better (Summer 2011: 315). On the other hand, Robinson's (1996 referred to in Ellis 2006: 98) research showed advantages of the deductive approach. Employing the deductive approach, learners are less likely to misinterpret the form and its meaning since they are clearly explained, and that this approach saves time, which can be later spent on practicing new material (Woods 1995: 76). Finally, Rosa and O'Neill (1999 referred to in Ellis 2006: 98) see no significant difference between the approaches.

Leech (1994: 22) points out that these two approaches can actually be combined, and the choice between them depends on the type of grammatical skill, receptive or productive, teachers want to practice: inductive grammar teaching is more appropriate for receptive grammatical skills, while productive skills are more connected to the deductive approach. Woods (1995: 79) and Stern (1992: 150) also agree that these two approaches can be combined, but they do not relate them to any particular type of grammatical skills. Stern (1992: 150) explains the necessity to integrate deductive and inductive teaching by saying that learners cannot and should not identify all grammatical principles themselves, although this is, beyond doubt, a useful task, but only when it is employed in moderation. Even Brown (2004: 365), who favours the inductive approach, accepts that the usage of both ways of teaching can be justifiable in some cases.

Trying to unite inductive and deductive teaching Leech (1994: 23) offers the prototype approach to grammar teaching, which is based on Rosch's (1975 referred to in Leech 1994: 23) prototype theory. According to this approach, the "hard core", or the

prototypical grammar rules, should be taught deductively, and exceptions can be left to the inductive approach and be processed when they are encountered in reading or listening (Leech 1994: 24). Brckalo (2011), who supports the inductive-deductive way of teaching grammar, adopts a similar view. According to her, grammar teaching should start with examples that help students to formulate rules, and then these rules are employed in new examples (Brckalo 2011: 108). This procedure leads to a slow but steady transition from known and simple information to new and more difficult material (Brckalo 2011: 108). This approach seems to be valid in relations to the cyclical treatment of grammar discussed before. When the material is presented for the first time, it can be introduced deductively, inductively, or a combination of the approaches can be employed. When the material is taken up again at a following level, it can follow Brckalo's inductive-deductive pattern, as students already know some rules, and they can apply them to new examples and contexts, discovering new rules.

Overall, it may be concluded that there is no one definite answer to the question whether grammar should be taught inductively or deductively. The best solution seems to be once again an integration of these two approaches. The choice between inductive and deductive teaching should depend on the material being introduced, on the skill being targeted, and on the learners. Adults might benefit more from the inductive approach as it will help them to use their cognitive skills and work with examples, formulating the rules themselves and addressing the grammar more thoroughly and carefully.

3.5. Consciousness-raising or practice

Practice and drilling in different types of exercises are considered an important part of grammar teaching and learning. However, Ellis (2002a: 167) does not believe in their efficiency and supports the usage of consciousness-raising (CR). If practice exercises aim at helping "the learners to absorb the structure thoroughly", i.e. "to transfer what they know from short-term to long-term memory" (Ur 1988: 7), CR attempts "to equip the [learners] with an understanding of a specific grammar feature" (Ellis 2002a: 168), developing explicit grammar knowledge (Ellis 2002a: 169) in spite of learners' inability to use it at once (Hinkel & Fotos 2002: 1).

The CR does not presuppose an instant ability to produce the targeted structure, but it draws learners' attention to it, making them aware of it, and contributes to the noticing and recognition of the structure in communication (Fotos 1994: 326). Ellis (1997) differentiates two types of activities that are based on comprehension, facilitate

consciousness-raising and presuppose no or almost no production of the targeted grammatical element: interpretation tasks and grammar consciousness-raising tasks.

Interpretation tasks aim at intake facilitation as they focus on a particular structure in the oral or written input and encourage learners to recognise and comprehend the meaning of this structure in context (Ellis 1997: 149-150). The result of an interpretation activity is a non-verbal or minimally verbal response, which can take a number of different forms, for instance, true or false, check a box, select the correct picture, draw a diagram, or perform an action (Ellis 1997: 155). The response signals whether the student has managed to establish the form-function correlation of the targeted structure (Ellis 1997: 159). Among the advantages of interpretation tasks are cognitive, affective, efficiency and utility advantages (Gary 1978 referred to in Ellis 1997: 150). Interpretation tasks facilitate better L2 learning, help to avoid the stress of speaking in the L2, they are suitable for learners with different levels of aptitude, and stimulate learners' independence from the teacher (Gary 1978: referred to in Ellis 1997: 150). Studies conducted by VanPatten and Cadierno (1993 referred to in Ellis 1997: 151) and Tuz (1993 referred to in Ellis 1997: 151) provide evidence that the learners who have been taught grammar through interpretation tasks are successful in not only the comprehension of the targeted grammar, but also its production (Ellis 1997: 151). However, the production in these studies included an item-based written test, not an unplanned language use (Ellis 1997: 151). Therefore, although interpretation tasks contribute to not only input, but also output, at this point it is rather early to conclude that this type of grammar tasks leads to the acquisition of the implicit knowledge necessary for spontaneous language usage (Ellis 1997: 152).

Grammar consciousness-raising tasks are also aimed at eliciting minimal or no production, and thus do not contribute directly to the use of the targeted grammatical aspect in spontaneous speech (Ellis 1997: 160). The purpose of grammar consciousness-raising tasks is to construct an explicit knowledge of the target grammatical feature in learners' consciousness (Ellis 1997: 160). As grammar consciousness-raising tasks presuppose minimal production and are aimed at grammar awareness and not at accuracy or fluency directly, an example of a grammar consciousness-raising task is finding mistakes.

If interpretation and grammar consciousness-raising tasks aim at the development of explicit knowledge, practice activities strive to form implicit knowledge (Ellis 2002a: 171). Practice tasks help learners to establish automatic control of targeted grammatical

elements and to use them freely in various productive activities (Ellis 2002a: 171). Ur (1988: 8-9), Ellis (2002a: 168), and Nitta and Gardner (2005: 5) single out three types of practice activities: which attend to form, i.e. mechanical practice, which attend to form and meaning, i.e. meaningful, or contextualised, practice, and which are aimed at communication, i.e. communicative practice.

Although practice is considered to be an important part of grammar teaching, various studies (Seliger 1977 referred to in Ellis 2002a: 169; Day 1984 referred to in Ellis 2002a: 169; Ellis 1984 referred to in Ellis 2002a: 169) show that there is not always a one to one correlation between practice and proficiency (Ellis 2002a: 170). Controlled practice of the structure does not lead by default to its free usage in real communication (Ellis 2002a: 170). In addition, the study conducted by Amirian and Abbasi (2014) provides evidence that consciousness-raising tasks are more effective in grammar teaching than purely practical tasks. Amirian and Abbasi also name other scholars who have come to similar results, among them Ellis and Fotos (Ellis 2002a: referred to in Amarian & Abbasi 2014: 256; Fotos 1994 referred to in Amarian & Abbasi 2014: 256; Fotos & Ellis 1991 referred to in Amarian & Abbasi 2014: 256), and Schmidt (1990 referred to in Amarian & Abbasi 2014: 256; 1994 referred to in Amarian & Abbasi 2014: 256).

To eliminate the disadvantages of CR and practice, Ellis (2002a: 169) recommends combining activities of both types, using CR at the presentation stage and traditional grammar activities during practice. Despite the fact that Ellis (2002a: 169) argues that practice cannot occur without some CR, while CR is possible without practice, he also points out that CR is not an alternative to practice but a “supplement” (Ellis 2002a: 174). Cook (2008: 40) shares this point of view and writes that conscious understanding of grammar does not automatically presuppose the ability to use it. Hence, once again, there seems to be a necessity to combine two approaches to the treatment of grammar in order to achieve the desirable results. As has been mentioned before, explicit and inductive teaching of grammar is more beneficial for adult learners. That is why CR activities might be more suitable for adults as these activities lead to the formation of explicit knowledge. However, in order to transform this explicit knowledge into the implicit one practice is necessary.

3.6. Models of teaching

Another topic for discussion in language teaching is teaching sequences. There are many different teaching models in the contemporary literature for language teachers. In this section, the following sequences are discussed: the PPP model, the task-based model, the III model, the ARC model, and the ESA model. An overview of different models will be provided in order to make an informed conclusion on what models are used in the selected course books in the empirical part of this thesis.

The first model to be discussed is the PPP model, which stands for ‘presentation -> practice -> production’ (Thornbury 2000: 128). This model has been found in many English course books of the last forty years (Tomlinson 2012: 160).

The first stage of the PPP model, presentation, refers to the introduction of new material (Scrivener 2010: 271). Then follows the most important phase of this model, according to Scrivener (2010: 255, 271), practice, as “the real learning experience” starts when learners begin to apply the newly learnt grammar material in the language themselves. The purpose of practice is to “target” accuracy and fluency and to develop both (Thornbury 2010: 91). The production stage of the PPP model includes authentic communication in the written or spoken form (Scrivener 2010: 272). In this phase, learners are supposed to use newly learnt grammar material together with what they already know in various communicative activities (Scrivener 2010: 273). The merits of this model include the facts that the teacher can easily control the development of the lesson and use this model as a template for the introduction of various grammar topics (Thornbury 2000: 128) at all levels (Harmer 2007: 50). This fact explains the popularity of this model. However, many scholars are not satisfied with the PPP model (Summer 2011: 229). First, grammar learning is not always under total control of the teacher, and it is less linear (Thornbury 2000: 129) and more complex (Bocale 2004: 101) than the PPP model assumes. Byrne (1986: 3) partly resolved these issues by proposing a circular PPP model, figure 2. It allows the teaching sequence to start with any of the Ps, depending on the students’ level, needs and available teaching materials.



Figure 2. Byrne's circular PPP model (Byrne 1986: 3)

Another disadvantage of the PPP model is that, according to it, accuracy precedes fluency (Thornbury 2000: 129). In addition, discrete forms are practiced in low-level exercises, such as listening and repeating, matching and filling in the gaps (Tomlinson 2012: 160). Thornbury (2000: 129) claims that such a delay in communication and focus on accuracy can be “counterproductive”. Rather, communication should be used to fine-tune accuracy (Thornbury 2000: 129).

This criticism of the PPP model has led to the appearance of other sequences in L2 teaching. A common alternative model is the ‘task -> teach -> task’ model, which, opposing the PPP approach, follows a fluency-to-accuracy sequence (Thornbury 2000: 128). Although this model and the PPP model have a number of similarities, the main difference between them is that in the task-based model learning starts with communication tasks, which allow students to use the grammar resources they already have (Thornbury 2000: 129). This helps learners to realize what they can already do and what gaps in their knowledge there might be, and motivates them to look for ways to fill in those gaps (Thornbury 2000: 133, 135). After the new material is introduced, it is practiced and used again in communicative activities, similar to those in the initial stage (Thornbury 2000: 129). The task-based model attends to accuracy and fluency, form, meaning and use at the same time (Thornbury 2000: 137; Amirian & Abbasi 2014: 252).

The next model is the III model. This model concentrates on teaching spoken grammar and on the inductive presentation, and includes the following stages: ‘illustration – interaction – induction’ (McCarthy & Carter 1995: 207; Harmer 1996: 10). During the illustration stage, learners are provided with “real data” where the choice of grammatical forms is conditioned by context and use (McCarthy & Carter 1995: 217).

Then learners are supposed to participate in “discourse-sensitive activities”, which raise students’ conscious awareness of the forms that were presented in the illustration phase (McCarthy & Carter 1995: 217). Through these activities, which involve observations and class discussions, learners start to negotiate the meaning of these forms and to concentrate on the interpersonal usage of language (McCarthy & Carter 1995: 217). Finally, in the induction phase, learners summarise how the grammatical element under discussion functions in interpersonal communication (McCarthy & Carter 1995: 217). This description of the model illustrates that the III model is based on inductive teaching, where learners are supposed to draw conclusions from the samples they are given (McCarthy & Carter 1995: 207).

The III model is more suitable for students of higher levels, who can participate in communicative activities and comprehend authentic texts (Harmer 1996: 10). Uhler (2011: 14) rightfully points out that the whole III model corresponds to the presentation phase of the PPP approach. There is some attention to production in the interaction and induction phases, but it is little in comparison to a detailed presentation (Uhler 2011: 14). Therefore, Uhler (2011: 15) concludes that the aim of this model is to help learners to comprehend the grammar rules through communicative activities and not to develop fluency, although McCarthy and Carter (1995: 217) claim that their model has potential to develop “fluent, accurate, and naturalistic conversational and communicative skills”.

Trying to find a replacement for the PPP model, Scrivener (1994: 133; 2010: 283) offered his model of language teaching, ARC, which stands for ‘authentic use/output’, ‘restricted use/output’ and ‘clarification’ (Harmer 1996: 10). Authentic use presupposes the usage of the new grammar material by learners in communicative activities that are as similar to authentic communication as possible (Scrivener 2010: 273). In the restricted use stage, learners practise grammar in oral and written exercises (Scrivener 2010: 273). In the clarification stage, teachers provide or elicit examples of the construction being introduced, and then explain it themselves or elicit necessary information from students (Scrivener 2010: 273). One of the advantages of the ARC model is that its components can be put in different sequences, for example, RCR, CRCRCRCR, CRRA (Harmer 1996: 10). However, in its components the CRA sequence is very similar to the PPP model since clarification corresponds to presentation, restricted use equals practice, and authentic use is similar to production (Harmer 1996: 11; Uhler 2011: 16). Therefore, the ARC model is only a more flexible variation of the PPP sequence.

The last model discussed is the ESA model, created by Harmer (1996; 2007). Trying to underline that all students learn language in different ways, he includes three components in his model: ‘engage’, ‘study’, and ‘activate’ (Harmer 2007: 51-52). Harmer (1996: 11) claims that engagement, or involvement is one of the main characteristics of students, but it does not get enough attention. He explains his point of view by saying that if students are not involved, or interested, then “there [is not] much point in going on” (Harmer 1996: 11). In order to engage students, in the first stage of the sequence the teacher should perform as a motivator and employ such activities as games, music, discussions, visual aids, and dramatic or funny stories (Harmer 2007: 52). The second stage of the ESA model, i.e. study, aims at drawing students’ attention to the language and allows them to work with it and to discover its rules (Harmer 1996: 11; Harmer 2007: 52). The third stage of this model, i.e. activation, is, according to Harmer (1996: 11), the most important part of the lesson since it is the phase when students activate what they have learnt. However, the aim of the activities in this phase is not only to use the grammar element being learnt as much as possible, but also to convey meaning (Harmer 2007: 53). Various activities in this stage stimulate thinking processes and help to go from learning to acquiring grammar (Harmer 1996: 11; Ellis 1982 referred to in Harmer 1996: 11). In addition, they motivate students (Harmer 1996: 11; Ellis 1982 referred to in Harmer 1996: 11) and illustrate how students can use what they have learnt in meaningful communication. Speaking about the merits of the ESA model, Harmer (1996: 13) names the fact that this model can incorporate all the other models discussed in this paper. Moreover, due to its flexibility, this approach is appropriate for any level, beginner, intermediate, or advanced (Harmer 1996: 13). It is also the only method among the ones discussed that includes engagement (Uhler 2011: 17), and it puts students, not material, in the centre of the classroom. In addition, in contrast to the PPP approach, the ESA method is rather flexible in sequencing its components (Uhler 2011: 18).

The analysis of the existing teaching models shows that all of them have their own advantages and disadvantages. Moreover, although the authors of these models try to oppose them to the PPP model, they are still rather similar to it. All of the discussed models single out almost the same stages of teaching, simply suggesting different names for them, provide a more flexible sequence, and put more emphases on one or another stage. There seems to be no model that is more appropriate for teaching grammar to adults. Each of the discussed models includes communicative activities and thus follows the principle of the communicative approach.

3.7.Summary and implications

The analysis of the literature shows that there are many controversial points in grammar teaching: what grammar is, what place it occupies in contemporary L2 classrooms and how it should be taught. There seem to be no straightforward answers to any of these questions. Thornbury (2000: 90) explains this by the absence of one unique way of grammar teaching that would suit all grammar items and all learners. Blyth (1997: 57) also points out that grammar is not “a monolithic and homogeneous phenomenon”, and thus every grammar aspect might require a different way of teaching. Finally, grammar teaching largely depends on teachers, how informed they are, and how they choose to use the resources they have.

The controversies discussed in this chapter help to establish the framework for the evaluation of the course books. In the empirical part, the following issues will be analysed:

- At what level(s) grammar, i.e. the construction under investigation, namely indirect reported speech, is taught;
- Whether the cyclical/spiral principle is employed;
- Whether grammar is taught implicitly or explicitly;
- Whether CR or practice is used;
- What types of CR and practice activities are used;
- What model of teaching is used;
- Whether grammar is taught deductively or inductively.

The results of this evaluation will help to see the differences and similarities in how indirect speech is taught in contemporary EFL textbooks. In addition, it will be examined which course books take into account the specificities of adult teaching (the need for earlier and more careful attention to grammar, inductive teaching, the importance of the explicit grammar knowledge and consciousness-raising) and grammar teaching in general (the spiral approach, starting with simpler rules), and the principles of the communicative approach (the use of meaningful and communicative activities, the importance of context).

While it is important to remember that although all of the selected course books adhere to the communicative approach, it does not automatically mean that the educational process in the classroom will follow the same approach since teaching almost completely depends on teachers and how they use the available materials (Duff 2012:

24). In this thesis, only the course books and the approaches they offer, not the teaching process itself, are evaluated with the example of indirect reported speech, which will be discussed in the following chapter.

4. Indirect reported speech

Several linguistic studies of reported speech have proved the importance of this grammar item (Janssen & van der Wurff 1996: 1). As reporting on other people's words is rather frequent in communication, it is an important aspect of L2 communicative competence (Charkova & Halliday 2011: 5). It is used in a variety of genres: reports, fiction, articles, speeches (Parrott 2000: 217). In addition, it plays a significant role in everyday conversations, especially for students of college and university (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 687). In this chapter, one of the types of reported speech, indirect reported speech, will be discussed in details.

4.1. Reported speech: direct and indirect speech

In the consulted linguistic and applied linguistic literature, reported speech is employed as an umbrella term and is further divided into two main types: direct speech, and indirect speech (Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1020-1021; Coulmas 1986: 2; Greenbaum & Quirk 1990: 297-298; Yule 1998: 272; Swan 2005: 246; Carter & McCarthy 2006: 804; Keizer 2009: 846). Besides these two "prototypical" types of reporting, there are a number of less prototypical ways of reporting, which may be more or less direct, and thus occupy various positions on the scale of "directness" (Keizer 2009: 846). Those less prototypical models of reporting include such mixtures of direct and indirect speech as free direct speech (Greenbaum & Quirk 1990: 302; Yule 1998: 280; Carter & McCarthy 2006: 819-820; Keizer 2009: 846), and free indirect speech (Greenbaum & Quirk 1990: 301; Carter & McCarthy 2006: 819-820; Keizer 2009: 846). Among even less prototypical types of reporting Keizer (2009: 846) names free indirect speech with a parenthetical reporting, distancing indirect speech and interrogative blends. However, as this paper concentrates on indirect reported speech, only this type of reporting will be analysed in detail, although a brief distinction between indirect reported speech and direct reported speech, the main counterpart of indirect speech, will be provided first.

Direct speech conveys "the exact words of the original speaker in direct discourse" (Coulmas 1986: 2) and does not presuppose any formal difficulties: it is an original utterance verbatim put in quotation marks and attributed to its source (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 687). In indirect speech, the main aim is to communicate the content of the original message (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 687; Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 1023) with or without repeating the initial utterance

exactly. Indirect reported speech “adapts the reported utterance to the speech situation of the report in indirect discourse” (Coulmas 1986: 2) “in the words of a subsequent reporter” (Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1020-1021). Therefore, the principal difference between these two types of reported speech lies in the perspective adopted by the reporter (Coulmas 1986: 2). In direct speech, the reporter does not actually report but repeats exactly what has been said by the original speaker conveying the speaker’s point of view (Coulmas 1986: 2). Meanwhile, indirect speech is more variable in terms of content and form (Coulmas 1986: 6). The reporter tells about the events from his own perspective and might change the original utterance and add information based on his perception of the world (Coulmas 1986: 2-3) applying various rules of conversion (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 687), such as paraphrasing and summarisation (Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1021), but “without affecting the essential truth of the report” (Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1025).

This distinction between direct and indirect speech shows that in terms of content and structure indirect reported speech is a more complex phenomenon. In addition, languages follow different rules, regarding indirect reporting speech. Therefore, students’ L1 may either contribute to or interfere with the learning of indirect speech in English. That is why a particular attention should be paid to this grammar aspect in the L2 classroom.

4.2. Basic features of indirect reported speech

Before addressing the main features of indirect speech it is important to point out that scholars employ different approaches to the distribution of the terms ‘reported speech’ and ‘indirect speech’. For instance, Parrott (2000: 257) uses these terms synonymously. In EFL course books the term ‘reported speech’ is always used instead of ‘indirect speech’. In this thesis, the approach suggested by Janssen and van der Wurff (1996: 3) and shared by the majority of the authors of the consulted literature will be employed: to use ‘reported speech’ as an umbrella term for direct speech, indirect speech and other types of reporting, and to treat indirect (reported) speech as a type of reported speech. In the rest of the thesis, the terms ‘indirect speech’, ‘indirect reported speech’, and ‘indirect reporting’ will be used synonymously.

As has been mentioned before, indirect speech is a version of the original utterance adopted by the reporter. It can be used to report on real and hypothetical events, as well as past and future intentions (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 806). Indirect speech, as well as

direct speech, includes reports of what has been said, written, believed, thought, or imagined (Parrott 2000: 257; Swan 2005: 246). It can also be used to check on understanding or to refresh memory, to make sure that all parties are in agreement, to summarise and to repeat what has been said before (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 822).

An indirect report usually includes two parts: a reporting clause and a reported clause (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 804). Reported clauses function as the object of the reporting verb, and they are not separated by any punctuation marks (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 804). The reporting clause includes an attributed speaker, a verb of saying and a conjunction (Yule 1998: 272). Rather often the conjunction *that* is employed in indirect speech (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 688; Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1025) to report statements (Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1025). Nowadays, *that* is often optional (Huang 1993 referred to in Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 705; Carter & McCarthy 2006: 813; Swan 2005: 248, 578), especially in informal English (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 813) after common reporting verbs such as *say* and *think* (Swan 2005: 248). There are also instances where *that* cannot be omitted, for example, after intransitive verbs, such as *reply*, *email*, *shout* (Swan 2005: 578).

Although the *that*-clause is considered the most common construction to introduce indirect reporting (Parrott 2000: 219), other construction, such as *wh*-clauses, infinitive clauses, *wh* infinitive clauses, *-ing* clauses, preposition+*-ing* clauses, subjunctive clauses (Parrott 2000: 219-220) and clauses with *if/whether* (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 804), can be employed after reporting verbs. The choice of a particular construction depends on the reporting verb and the structure/sentence being reported, i.e. statement, request, order, question. A noun phrase can also be used in the reported part, as in the case of (1) and (2) (Coulmas 1986: 20).

(1) She denied the existence of God.

(2) He asked for permission.

Not only statements and question can be reported in indirect speech, most of imperative sentences can be also transformed into reported speech with the help of the subjunctive or ordinary *that*-clause, as in the case of (3).

(3) He asked/insisted that I (should) go away,

or infinitival complements after such verbs as *tell*, *order*, *ask*, as in (4).

(4) He told me to go away (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 691-692).

In sum, indirect reported speech is used for various purposes, for instance, to report what has been said, written, believed, thought or even imagined, to summarise, to repeat real, hypothetical, past, present or future events. A typical sentence with indirect speech consists of a reporting clause and a reported clause, which are usually connected by a conjunction *that* and are not separated by any punctuation marks. A number of other conjunctions can be used instead of *that*, for example, *if*, *what*, *when*, which are followed by a variety of constructions, depending on what is being reported.

4.3. Alterations in indirect reported speech

Alterations in reported speech are caused by deictic elements of the language, which refer to time, location, and people and involve tense forms of verbs, various time references (*yesterday*, *next Monday*, *last week*), place references (*here*), personal pronouns (*I*, *you*), demonstrative pronouns (*this*, *that*), and possessive pronouns and adjectives (*my*, *mine*) (Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1025; Yule 1998: 273; Huddleston & Pullum 2002: 1023).

4.3.1. Backshifting

As has been mentioned before, reported speech is a slightly changed version of the utterance in direct speech. The changes that take place in reported speech depend on the context of reporting (Parrott 2000: 216) and the perspective adopted by the reporter (Yule 1998: 272). One of the most common grammar rules applicable to reported speech is ‘sequence of tenses’, or ‘backshifting’ (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 688). Backshifting is an interesting phenomenon, which occupies the place on the border between grammar and pragmatics: its use depends on not only linguistic, but also extralinguistic factors (Charkova & Halliday 2011: 2, 6) and may cause additional difficulties for L2 learners.

Charkova and Halliday (2011: 6) point out that pedagogical and linguistic grammars have different approaches to backshifting. In pedagogical grammars it is “an obligatory structural transformation” (Charkova & Halliday 2011: 6) that takes place when the reporting verb in the main clause is used in the past tense (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 688; Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1026; Charkova & Halliday 2011: 6), although there are some exceptions (Charkova & Halliday 2011: 6-7). However, if the reporting verb is used in the future or present tense, the verb in the subordinate reported clause

does not change its tense (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 689; Swan 2005: 249).

In linguistic grammars, the sequencing of tenses is explained by pragmatic, semantic, structural, and contextual reasons but not by the mechanical shifting of tenses (Charkova & Halliday 2011: 7). This difference in the approaches can be explained by the fact that although pedagogical grammars are based on linguistic grammars, pedagogical grammars are simplified to make them more comprehensible for L2 learners. However, Parrott (2000: 220) suggests that, even within the pedagogical perspective, it might be useful to draw students' attention to the fact that the transformation of direct speech into reported speech is not mechanical, but it depends on establishing a definite "anchoring time reference" and allocating other actions around it. Both of these approaches can be used in grammar teaching as they allow students with different cognitive skills to understand the usage of the tenses in reported speech better.

Although the rule of backshifting is rather simple and presupposes a shift "back into the past wherever this is possible" (Coulmas 1986: 16), it can cause difficulties for students as this rule is not found in all languages (Coulmas 1986: 14; Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 690), and thus should be carefully addressed by L2 teachers. In addition, in spite of the fact that English rules of sequence of tenses are rather "rigid" (Coulmas 1986: 16), there are a number of cases where backshifting does not occur: if state-events remain true, if the reported clause includes a perceived general truth, and if an immediate report is provided (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 690-691). Moreover, Parrott (2000: 221) argues that, in some situations the sequence of events might be so clear from the context, that there is no need to change tenses and backshifting is a "possible but unnecessary alternative". Quirk *et al.* (1985: 1030-1031) also state that there is no backshifting for the optative and mandative subjunctives, and the sequencing of tenses is optional for the past subjunctive and depends on the verb form and time-reference.

Another issue in backshifting relates to modal verbs (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 812). The modal verb *must* is usually replaced by *had to* regardless of whether the obligation was fulfilled or not (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 812). However, *must* may also be preserved (Swan 2005: 252; Carter & McCarthy 2006: 812) or changed into *would have to*, if the obligation was unfulfilled (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 812). *Shall* is replaced by *would* if a statement is reported, but it is changed into *should* if a question is reported (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 812) due to the change of the person (Swan 2005: 252).

Moreover, questions that begin with *Shall I...?* can be reported in a number of ways depending on whether an offer or a question follows after them (Swan 2005: 252). *Can* is replaced by *could*, while *could*, *might*, *should*, *would*, *ought to* and *used to* are retained (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 812). Swan (2005: 252) also adds that *needn't* and *had better* are usually left unchanged in indirect speech.

Overall, backshifting is an aspect of indirect reported speech that requires particular attention on behalf of teachers and students. Teachers should make students aware of the fact that backshifting of active and modal verbs is not a purely mechanical alteration in indirect reporting, but that it depends on extralinguistic reasons.

4.3.2. Deictic shifts

Backshifting is usually accompanied by deictic shifts, i.e. shifts in pronouns, personal and demonstrative, adverbs of time and place (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 690, 696; Parrott 2000: 222; Quirk 1985: 1025-1026), and possessive adjectives and pronouns (Parrott 2000: 222). These shifts happen due to different locations of the original speaker and the reporter in space and time (Coulmas 1986: 16) and their different viewpoints (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 810).

The choice whether to change adverbs of time or not depends on how the time of the initial utterance relates to the time when it is reported (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 696; Parrott 2000: 222). A similar rule of shifting applies to place deictics: the shift does not take place if the original sentence and its reported variant are uttered in the same location (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 698; Parrott 2000: 222). In all other cases adverbial backshifting needs to happen without any exceptions (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 697).

The shift in pronouns and personal adjectives depends on whether the original speaker of the utterance, the reporter of this utterance and whom they are addressing stay the same or change their roles (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 813). A rather common deictic shift in pronouns and corresponding possessive adjectives is from 1st and 2nd person to 3rd person (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 698; Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1028). Nevertheless, other transformations are also possible: 3rd person into 1st and 2nd person, or 1st person into 2nd person and vice versa (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 698). This type of shifts is usually rather easy for English learners, while adverbial shifts might cause problems due to the differences in the representations of time and

place relations in students' L1s and English (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 698).

Therefore, not only verbs may change in indirect reporting, but also pronouns, personal adjectives, and adverbs of time and space shift. However, if backshifting is to some degree mechanical and usually presupposes just one possible option, deictic shifts do not imply one to one correspondence and largely depend on context.

4.4. Reporting verbs

The term "reporting verb" can be used with reference to any verb which can be employed "in a context where someone else's statements or thoughts are being commented on", even though there is no "inherent verbal semantics" of reporting in it (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 702), for example, *believe*, *wonder*, *notice*. Some verbs can not only introduce indirect speech but simultaneously perform a particular speech act, for instance, such verbs as *add*, *order*, *state*, *maintain*, *confess*, *argue* (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 817).

All the verbs that can be used in reporting can be subdivided into various groups according to semantical, structural and other principles. For example, Parrott (2000: 217-219), bases his classification on a purely semantic principle and distinguishes neutral verbs, topic verbs, non-attitude verbs, attitude and interpretation verbs, and other verbs and expressions. *Say* and *tell* are neutral verbs as they are not coloured in terms of their meaning and quite common in reporting (Parrott 2000: 217). Topic verbs, for instance, *discuss*, *talk*, are used to provide a summary of a conversation, not its details (Parrott 2000: 218). Non-attitude verbs, for example, *ask*, *explain*, *reply*, *mention*, do not convey any judgements but relate to the function of the reported utterance (Parrott 2000: 218). Unlike non-attitude verbs, attitude and interpretation verbs involve some kind of judgement about what is being reported (Parrott 2000: 219). This group of verbs includes, for instance, *blame*, *claim*, *deny*, *insist*, *beg*, *insinuate* (Parrott 2000: 219). Other verbs and expressions in Parrott's (2000: 219) classification include those verbs that are rather rarely used for reporting, for example, *want*, *know*.

Moreover, several principles can be used within one classification. For instance, classifications by Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999) and Quirk *et al.* (1985) employ both semantic and structural principles since meaning and form are closely interrelated. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 702-703) subdivide all reporting

verbs into simple declarative (factive and non-factive), emotional-state and interrogative. Explaining their classification, they use the structural principle and write that declarative verbs are followed by *that*-clauses and interrogative verbs introduce indirect questions. However, in terms of emotional-state verb, Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman adhere to the semantic principle and say that these verbs reflect emotional states. The semantic principle is also employed in the further division of declarative verbs into factive and non-factive.

Applying the structural principle and considering the complementation of verbs, i.e. what types of clauses they take, Quirk *et al.* (1985: 1170) classify all reporting verbs into the verbs that are followed by *that*-clauses and the verbs that require *wh*-clauses. Expanding their classification, they also employ the semantic principle and subdivide the verbs that take *that*-clauses into the following groups: factual, suasive, emotive, and hypothesis.

However, L2 learners of English do not need to know how reporting verbs can be classified. They should be able to use these verbs in their speech. Nevertheless, teachers should be aware of different ways to classify reporting verbs. The knowledge of various classifications might help them to prevent students from making mistakes and to guide their students to a successful acquisition of indirect reported verbs. The description of the classifications provided above illustrates how reporting verbs might differ in terms of semantics and grammar. Attention to various types of reporting verbs might help students to expand their vocabulary and may make them aware of the fact that different verbs take different complements (Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman 1999: 700). For instance, the verb *say* should be followed by a *that*-clause, the verb *wonder* requires an indirect question, and *order* usually precedes an infinitive (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 700). Some verbs can even be followed by complements of different types (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 700-701). Therefore, each reporting verb has to be learnt separately, as there seem to be no general rules about what type of complement, complementiser, or object to use after what verb and why (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 700-701). Thus, even advanced learners tend to make such mistakes (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 701).

Among all the verbs that can be used in reporting, the verbs *ask*, *say* and *tell* are more common than any other (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 805, 806). If the usage of the verb *ask* does not usually lead to any problems, the choice between *say* and *tell* may cause difficulties to English learners (Parrott 2000: 217-218). *Say* cannot be used with an

indirect object, while *tell* cannot be used without one (Parrott 2000: 218; Carter & McCarthy 2006: 806-807). *Tell* is usually used at the onset of reporting to clarify to whom the utterance in direct speech was addressed, but later it can be replaced by *say* as there is no need to repeat who the addressee is (Parrott 2000: 218).

One other issue in reporting speech is the usage of reporting verbs in the present or past tense since this choice influences what changes happen in the reporting clause. The reporting verb is usually used in the past simple form (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 809), but Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 706-707) and Quirk *et al.* (1985: 1026) provide a number of situations when the present simple is used. First, the present tense is employed if the speaker wishes to convey her own stance or her “sense of immediacy and vividness” (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 706). Moreover, a reporting verb can be used in the present tense to signal that what is being said is still relevant (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 706-707), or if the reported utterance is from a written source (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 706-707). In addition, the usage of reporting in the present tense is often employed for politeness (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 707). Furthermore, the reporting verb might be used in the present tense if reporting happens right after the moment when the original speech is uttered (Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1026). Finally, verbs of cognition, for example, *know*, *think*, *believe*, are usually used in the present tense in the reporting clause (Quirk *et al.* 1985: 1026).

Moreover, the reporting verb can take the form of the present or past continuous depending on the situation (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 809-810). The present continuous is employed if somebody’s current opinion is reported (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 809). The past continuous is quite often used in spoken language to introduce a new topic, to draw attention to important information or to report on what the speaker has read (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 810).

Finally, it is necessary to point out that besides verbs predicated adjectives (for instance, *insistent*), phrases (for example, *according to*, *in X’s view*), and nouns related to reporting verbs (such as *belief*, *complaint*) can be used to report (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 699-700; Carter & McCarthy 2006: 815-816). Nouns in this case are normally followed by *that*, which can sometimes be omitted, especially in a very informal context (Carter & McCarthy 2006: 813).

In sum, although nouns, adjectives, and phrases can be used to introduce indirect speech, verbs comprise the biggest group of words that are used to report. Reporting

verbs may be classified according to various principles. One of the most important principles of classification seems to be the pattern that follows the reporting verb. The usage of the correct construction after the reporting verb is one of the problematic issues for students, and thus it should be addressed by teachers with particular attention.

4.5. Questions in indirect reported speech

Questions in reported speech are usually referred to as indirect, or embedded, questions as they do not ask a question but report the question that has been already asked (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 692). One of the main differences between direct and indirect questions is that questions in reported speech follow the regular word order of positive sentences in English, i.e. subject-verb-object (Celce-Murcia & Larsen Freeman 1999: 692; Parrott 2000: 223; Swan 2005: 249). In addition, there is no question mark at the end of indirect questions (Swan 2005: 250; Carter & McCarthy 2006: 808). In speaking, indirect reported questions have no special intonation and follow the intonation pattern of complex sentences: low-rise intonation in the first clause and falling intonation in the second one (Kane 2000: 385).

Indirect general and alternative questions are introduced by *whether* or *if* (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 693). The choice between *if* and *whether* may depend on the register: *whether* is more formal than *if* (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 701; Swan 2005: 610). In addition, the usage of *if/whether* in indirect questions in written speech also depends on the genre, the semantic category of the reporting verb (Brown Ssensalo 1991 referred to in Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 702), and on the structure of the question (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 702; Swan 2005: 610; Carter and McCarthy 2006: 814). Moreover, Bolinger (1975 referred to in Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 701) argues that *if* is employed to introduce general indirect questions, while *whether* suggests that there is an alternative.

Specific indirect questions start with *wh*-words or expressions (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 693). However, there are other verbs that can be followed by clauses or infinitival constructions with *wh*-words, but they are not indirect questions (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 693) as, for instance in case of (7) and (8):

- (5) We found out where to look for eagles.
- (6) We discovered what the cause of the leak was.

Among those verbs are *discover, know, teach, tell, show* (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 693).

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 696) underline that indirect questions might cause difficulties for English learners, as students forget to use the inverted word order and to insert *if/whether* while reporting general or alternative questions. Moreover, some learners tend to use two adjacent complementisers in indirect general questions or a complementiser with a question word in indirect specific questions as in (9) and (10) (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 696):

(9) *My friend asked me whether that I really believed the story.

(10) *The woman asked us that how we could fix the flat tire.

Both variants are wrong as the usage of double complementisers is impossible in English (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 696).

In sum, not only statements, requests or orders can be reported, but questions can also be used in indirect reported speech. In addition to backshifting and deictic shifts, in indirect questions the word order is changed into the one of a positive sentence and no auxiliary verb is required. Moreover, the question mark is replaced by a full stop. While specific indirect questions are introduced with the help of question words, which act as complementisers, general and alternative indirect questions require *if* or *whether*. These specificities of indirect questions can be challenging for learners, and that is why teachers need to draw students' attention to them.

4.6. Recommendations for teaching indirect speech

As has been mentioned in Section 3.2, indirect reported speech is a rather complex linguistic and pedagogical phenomenon as it represents an integration of various rules. Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 709) name the following aspects of indirect reported speech that might cause problems in terms of form, meaning, and use: what complement is more appropriate, whether to apply backshifting or not to convey the right time reference, and, at advanced levels of English learning, how to embed reporting in writing. Parrott (2000: 225-227) adds such possible difficulties as the comprehension of sequences of events and pronoun-person substitutions, the usage of reporting verbs of different types, the over-use of reporting verbs *say* and *tell*, and the word order in indirect questions.

Swan (2005: 247) points out that all the alterations in indirect reported speech are “mostly natural and logical, and it is not necessary to learn complicated rules about [them]”. However, it seems that it is important to make students aware of the changes that happen in indirect speech but not in direct speech. Attempting to help students and teachers with various alterations in indirect speech, Harman (1990) suggests the usage of three deictic variables (person, place and time), which he presents in the form of a cycle. According to this deictic cycle, the choice whether to change the deictic item in indirect speech or not and if yes, then to what, depends on “the proximity or remoteness of referents to the speaker” on the coordinates of time, space and person (Harman 1990: 234). Harman (1990: 234) concludes that the distinction of proximal, medial, and distal is less conventional but more appropriate than the traditional dichotomy that is usually applied to shifting in textbooks. Such a depiction allows for a graphical representation of the rules of shifting and can be rather appealing to many students (Harman 1990: 237). However, this approach to deictic shifts seems to be suitable only for rather advanced students since the deictic circle can be complicated and confusing at the early stages of language learning (Harman 1990: 234, 237). As ways of using his cycle, Harman (1990: 238) suggests transforming direct speech into indirect speech, applying various parameters of the deictic cycle. In addition, students can also analyse ready-made reported sentences in terms of proximity/remoteness.

Trying to find an explanation for the fact that students quite often use a combination of direct and indirect speech while reporting, Goodell (1987: 305-306) suggests that one of the reasons for that may lie in EFL textbooks, which follow the pedagogical approach to teaching indirect speech. The solution, according to Goodell (1987: 313), would be to draw students' attention to the semantic and pragmatic nature of backshifting and other types of shifts. Thus, she offers to apply the linguistic perspective to teaching indirect speech. Goodell (1987: 319) suggests her own four-cycle presentation of indirect speech. In cycle one prosodic features of direct and indirect speech are introduced since reported speech is more common in spoken speech when it is first presented to students (Goodell 1987: 320). Also in this cycle shifts in pronouns and adverbials are discussed, and immediate reporting, where no backshifting is necessary, is explained (Goodell 1987: 320). This information, according to Goodell (1987: 320), might help students to understand the semantic reasons for shifting.

In cycle two, the deictic alterations in pronouns and adverbials are revised and, in addition, the semantics of the verb backshifting is introduced without explaining it

through mechanical rules (Goodell 1987: 321). Moreover, the usage of the complementiser *that* in indirect, but not in direct, speech is paid attention to in this cycle (Goodell 1987: 321).

In the third cycle, indirect *yes/no* questions and *wh*-questions are introduced (Goodell 1987: 321). The teacher should draw students' attention to the use of the complementisers *if* and *whether* and *wh*-words in this function and to the declarative word order in indirect questions (Goodell 1987: 321). At this stage, it is also necessary to revise punctuation in indirect statements and discuss the absence of the question mark in indirect questions, thus reviewing the differences between indirect and direct speech (Goodell 1987: 322). Moreover, deictic changes and immediate reporting may be taken again, and, in addition, reporting of general and eternal truths may be discussed (Goodell 1987: 322).

In the final cycle, students are presented with the stylistic specificities of indirect speech and how commands in the form of imperatives and sentences with *must* and *should* are reported (Goodell 1987: 322). At this level, students can be asked to report not single sentences but dialogues, practicing different reporting verbs and various situations where reporting may be of use (Goodell 1987: 322). After the fourth cycle, it is important, according to Goodell (1987: 323), to review all the cycles using more difficult vocabulary and structures.

One of the advantages of Goodell's approach to indirect speech is that she employs the spiral principle. Moreover, she tries to make students aware of the fact that backshifting is not mechanical, but has pragmatic reasons. Unfortunately, there are no data available about whether this method of teaching indirect speech has been tested in a real classroom. Thus, it is impossible to say how successful and appropriate it is. In addition, Goodell does not mention with what frequency the cycles take place, and her ideas are purely theoretical, she does not suggest any activities to practice indirect speech.

Celce-Murcia and Larsen-Freeman (1999: 709) argue that reported speech is one of the easiest aspects of grammar to teach and practice as there are many spoken and written activities for different levels. They provide several examples of exercises that are aimed at practicing form and meaning separately and form, meaning and use together (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 709-711). To practice form, students can be asked to transform sentences from direct speech into indirect speech (Yule 1998: 292; Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 709-710; Parrott 2000: 216). Yule (1998: 291-292) suggests including utterances where backshifting does and does not occur to make

students aware of both possibilities. However, Parrott (200: 216-21) points out that these exercises provide no context and do not draw students' attention to the fact that direct and indirect speech are not used interchangeably: direct speech is used when the speaker wants to convey verbatim what has been said, while reported speech is employed to communicate the main idea of the utterance and not necessarily in the same wording.

To work on meaning, students may be asked to report on a monologue or dialogue of various types, presented to them in the form of listening or reading (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 710; Yule 1998: 293-294). Finally, to practice form, meaning and use in combination and to develop critical skills in terms of reporting, tasks that are more difficult can be given to students, for example, to take a particular cognitive stance, choosing a more appropriate reporting verb, and to convey an absurd or impossible idea (Celce-Murcia & Larsen-Freeman 1999: 710-711).

One other issue that needs to be addressed in teaching indirect speech is that students quite often use only *say* and *tell* to introduce reporting (Martin 1978: 157-158) while other reporting verbs are usually neglected (Martin 1978: 158). To practice reporting verbs, Martin (1978: 159) suggests three types of activities. First, students can be asked to react to an utterance repeating it in indirect speech and using an appropriate reporting verb. Next activities can include the transformation of a dialogue into indirect speech using different reporting verbs. Finally, students can summarise or characterise an entire written or spoken speech act. These activities should allow students to work on not only reporting verbs but on various types of complements these reporting verbs take (Martin 1978: 159).

In sum, although it might seem that indirect reported speech is easy to practice, it can cause many problems for students. To help students to understand and master indirect speech better, scholars suggest different approaches. In addition, many researchers appear to agree that the treatment of indirect reported speech should not be purely pedagogical. It should also include the linguistic perspective in order to draw students' attention to the fact that backshifting is not purely mechanical, but it depends on context.

4.7. Summary and implications

Indirect reported speech is a rather complex grammatical construction. It includes a number of different rules, which should be addressed in its teaching. Thus, the treatment of indirect speech might benefit from the spiral approach, which will allow for starting with basic rules at the first level and slowly introducing more complex ones at the following levels.

Two issues make the use of indirect speech even more difficult. First, in different languages indirect reporting has its own specificities. That is why students with different L1s might have different problems learning this grammatical item. Second, the rules of indirect reported speech are based on not only grammar, but also pragmatics, and require higher cognitive skills. Therefore, reported speech requires practice, which should be focused on form, meaning and use in meaningful and communicative activities.

In the examination of the course book series, it will be interesting to investigate how indirect reported speech is presented in contemporary course books that are aimed at adults and are based on the communicative approach, regarding the questions raised in Section 3.7. It is also necessary to examine how many and what rules of indirect reported speech are presented in the textbooks. Finally, whether the selected course books employ the linguistic or pedagogical approach to backshifting is worth investigating.

5. Evaluation of the textbooks

After consulting literature and establishing the specificities of grammar teaching and indirect reported speech, it is possible to go to the evaluation of how this grammar item is presented in contemporary EFL textbooks. This chapter includes information about the aims of the study, an explanation of the methodology and procedure, a description of the selected textbooks, and their evaluation.

5.1. Aims of the study

As has been mentioned before, the research questions of this thesis are:

- How is indirect reported speech taught in the selected contemporary textbooks that adhere to the communicative approach and have adults as the target audience?
- What similarities and differences do the selected course books have in their approaches to teaching indirect reported speech?
- Which of the course books take(s) into account the specificities of teaching grammar in general and indirect speech in particular, the needs of the target audience, i.e. adults, and the principles of the communicative approach?
- Which series might be more appropriate for teaching indirect speech to adults in the framework of the communicative approach?

To answer these research questions, the following set of sub-question need to be considered:

1. At what level(s) indirect reported speech is first introduced;
2. Whether the cyclical approach is employed in the treatment of indirect reported speech;
3. What rules of indirect reported speech are introduced;
4. Whether the linguistic or pedagogical approach to backshifting is employed;
5. Whether indirect speech is taught implicitly or explicitly;
6. Whether CR or practice activities are used in the treatment of indirect speech;
7. What types of CR and practice activities are employed;
8. What model is used in teaching indirect reported speech;
9. Whether indirect speech is treated inductively or deductively.

5.2. Methodology and procedure

Before proceeding to the description of the study, it is important to clarify what methods were employed. Research methodology includes two terms that are closely related and often used together: ‘evaluation’ and ‘analysis’. According to Byrd (2001: 418, 422), “evaluation is about making a judgement call”, while analysis aims at finding what is present in the book and providing an objective description of it. The same point of view is shared by McGrath (2002: 22), who gives a rather basic distinction and says that “analysis is a process [that] leads to an objective, verifiable description”, while “evaluation [...] involves the making of judgement”. Littlejohn (2011) also differentiates analysis and evaluation but defines them in a slightly different way. According to him, analysis is an in-depth examination of the nature of the textbooks (Littlejohn 2011: 181), and it includes three levels: objective description, i.e. ‘what is there’, subjective analysis, i.e. ‘what is required of users’, and subjective inference, i.e. ‘what is implied’ (Littlejohn 2011: 185). An objective description involves looking at “the explicit nature of the materials”, for example, their date of publication, target audience, or structure (Littlejohn 2011: 186). A subjective analysis presupposes a more thorough examination of the material, which aims at discovering “what exactly teachers and learners using the material will have to do” (Littlejohn 2011: 188). And the level of subjective inference requires drawing “some general conclusions about the apparent underlying principles of the material”, such as the aim of the material, the teacher and learner roles and the role of the materials (Littlejohn 2011: 197). This description of the levels of analysis shows that Littlejohn broadens the notion of analysis employed by McGrath and Byrd and argues that analysis is not always objective, but at later stages it allows for subjectivity, inference, deduction and making conclusions (McGrath 2002: 22-23), and thus it might be very similar to what McGrath and Byrd consider evaluation. According to Littlejohn (2011: 181), evaluation does not only involve making “general, impressionistic judgements”, it also establishes materials “worth for specified purposes and contexts”. He rightfully claims that while examining teaching materials, teachers should be aware about not only their own preferences, but also their students’ needs, classroom settings and other contextual factors.

Although Littlejohn proposes a rather detailed framework for analysis and evaluation, the fact that the second and third levels of analysis in his framework presuppose some degree of subjectivity makes it difficult to draw a line between analysis and evaluation. To avoid this ambiguity, the following definitions of analysis and evaluation are used in

this thesis: analysis is an objective description of what is there in the course books, i.e. a description of facts, and evaluation is making judgements based on this description, for example whether grammar is presented inductively or deductively, implicitly or explicitly, and establishing materials appropriateness for a particular purpose or context.

Since the aims of this thesis involve making judgements about how indirect speech is taught, what similarities and difference in the treatment of indirect speech contemporary course books have and whether this treatment suits the needs of adults in the framework of the communicative approach, the main method used in this thesis is evaluation. However, evaluation is impossible without analysis since a detailed analysis provides data for a successful evaluation (Cunningsworth 1995: 9).

The evaluation in this thesis is mostly based on a qualitative analysis, which aims at “describing a phenomenon in a deep comprehensive manner” (Rhodes 2014). A basic quantitative analysis, which is usually used to describe a higher number of participants (Rhodes 2014), was employed only once to count how many rules of indirect speech are introduced in each of the series.

Evaluation and analysis of two types were used in this thesis: first-glance and in-depth (McGrath 2002: 27-29). The first-glance method includes an initial selection of materials for closer examination. In this thesis, this method was employed twice in a row. First, it was used to select contemporary EFL series that are aimed at adults and follow the principles of the communicative approach. After this, the first-glance methods were employed one more time to choose those units in the selected course books that focus on indirect reported speech.

After the first-glance analysis and evaluation, the selected units were subjected to an in-depth analysis and an in-depth evaluation, which presuppose a focus on particular aspects or features (Cunningsworth 1995 referred to in McGrath 2002: 28), an examination of one or several extracts (Hutchinson 1987 referred to in McGrath 2002: 28) or units in selected materials (Johnson 1986 referred to in McGrath 2002: 28). While the in-depth methods ensure a thorough examination of the targeted aspect, extract or unit, they have certain limitations (McGrath 2002: 28). The samples used for analysis and evaluation might not be representative of the whole material, but only of its parts, and may lead to a distorted conclusion (McGrath 2002: 28). In addition, the in-depth analysis and evaluation are time-consuming and might require expert knowledge. In spite of these limitations, the in-depth methods are applicable in this thesis since it focuses on a particular grammatical item, namely, indirect reported speech. Thus, the

empirical part of this thesis does not include analysis and evaluation of all units in the selected course books, but concentrates on those parts where indirect reported speech is presented. During the in-depth stage of the study, the selected units were examined to obtain data and to make judgements answering the sub-questions given in Section 5.1. Then these judgments were used in another round of evaluation to compare the course book series and answer the research questions.

Overall, this thesis employs the in-depth evaluation as the primary method since the answers to the sub-questions and research questions presuppose making critical judgements of various degrees. Nevertheless, this evaluation is impossible without other methods such as first-glance analysis, first-glance evaluation and in-depth analysis. The results of the two-stage first-glance evaluation and analysis are provided in Section 5.3-5.4. The discussion of each sub-question in Sections 5.5-5.9 includes in-depth analysis and evaluation of appropriate parts of the selected course books. After each of the sub-questions is answered, the final judgements regarding the research questions are made in Section 5.10.

5.3. Introduction of the textbooks

Before proceeding to the analysis and evaluation of the course books, it is necessary to distinguish how the following terms ‘series’, ‘textbook’, ‘course book’, and ‘student’s book’ are used in this thesis. ‘Series’ is the broadest term among four of them, for instance, the *New Headway* series includes all levels and all components of each level. ‘Course book’ and ‘textbook’ are used interchangeably and incorporate all the materials of a particular level, for example, *New Headway Intermediate*. Finally, ‘student’s book’ is one of the components of each course book or textbook, for instance, *New Headway Intermediate Student’s Book*. For the evaluation, the student’s book, the workbook, and the teacher’s book were chiefly used since these three components are present in each of the series and provide the data that is necessary for the analysis and evaluation. The teacher’s book and the student’s book largely determine and frame what happens in the classroom, while the workbook provides an additional practice at home. In addition, the use of these three components is not influenced by the availability of such gadgets as a CD player or a computer. Thus, the student’s book, the workbook and the teacher’s book can be employed in any classroom all over the world regardless of technological possibilities. Even when teachers have an opportunity to use CDs, DVDs or visit

websites in the classroom, they do not always use it due to various reasons from time-limitations to inability to use modern technologies.

As has been explained in Section 5.2, first, the first-glance analysis and evaluation were conducted to select contemporary EFL series that satisfy the aims of this thesis. After the first stage of the first-glance analysis and evaluation, three series of different publishers have been chosen: *New Headway* (Oxford University Press), *Face2face* (Cambridge University Press) and *Outcomes* (HEINLE CENGAGE Learning). Different publishing houses were selected to obtain a more comprehensive view of how indirect reported speech is treated in EFL textbooks. In addition, it is rather interesting to compare how indirect speech is approached in the course books by two well-known British publishing houses (Oxford University Press and Cambridge University Press) and a rather little known American publisher (HEINLE CENGAGE Learning). Although different publishers have published the selected course books, they all adhere to the communicative approach and are aimed at adults and young adults, not children. This is important since the aim of this thesis is to evaluate how indirect reported speech is presented in communicative textbooks targeting adults. In addition, the three selected series of course books cover a wide range of levels, from either beginner/starter (*Face2face* and *New Headway*) or elementary (*Outcomes*) to advanced. Thus, these series strive to provide learners with all the knowledge they need to achieve the advanced level in English starting from the very beginning, and, perhaps, doing it at approximately the same pace.

Face2face

For the examination, the second edition, published between 2012 and 2013 by Cambridge University Press, of the course book *Face2face* was chosen. This series covers levels from starter to advanced and has 6 levels in total. Each level includes 12 lessons. Only the starter level is 10 lessons. Every lesson is further subdivided into 4 units (A-D), except for the last lesson: in all levels it has only 3 units (A-C). Various writers worked on the books for different levels, the team of the authors comprises Chris Redston, Gillie Cunningham, Nicholas Tims, Theresa Clemenston, Jeremy Day, Jan Bell, Nick Robinson, Lindsay Warwick, Johanna Stirling, Craig Thaine and Helen Naylor. Each level of the second edition includes the following components: the student's book with the self-study DVD-ROM, the three class audio CDs, the workbook, the teacher's book with the teacher's DVD, and the website.

The teacher's book of each level begins with the same kind of general description of the course book. According to the authors of the series, *Face2face* combines the best features of traditional teaching methods with an innovative view to language teaching. The authors also point out that the *Face2face* textbooks are aimed at adults and young adults and are based on the communicative approach. In addition, the authors mention that this series uses a guided-discovery approach, i.e. students are encouraged to use the context and what they already know and to formulate the rules with the help of examples and questions. Moreover, the writers of the series underline that *Face2face* offers an equal focus on vocabulary and grammar and that all new language material is provided at the end of the student's books in the language summary and is easily accessible by students for recycling and revision. Finally, according to the description, the *Face2face* series follows all the requirements of the CEFR. (*Face2face Intermediate Teacher's book* 2013: 4)

In terms of grammar, the authors of the series believe in the importance of grammar (*Face2face Intermediate Teacher's book* 2013: 22) and support the introduction of new grammatical material in real life context (*Face2face Intermediate Teacher's book* 2013: 4) in the form of reading or listening exercises (*Face2face Intermediate Teacher's book* 2013: 4). The 'quick review' section at the beginning of each lesson allows students to revise what has been learnt earlier, while the 'help with grammar' section lets students formulate the rules themselves (*Face2face Intermediate Teacher's book* 2013: 6-7). Next, exercises and communicative practice activities are employed to check the comprehension of the meaning and form of the new rules and to work on accuracy (*Face2face Intermediate Teacher's book* 2013: 6-7, 22). Finally, the new material is practised in communicative tasks in order to develop not only accuracy, but also fluency (*Face2face Intermediate Teacher's book* 2013: 6-7).

The grammar section is present in each unit A and B of the *Face2face* series, starting from the starter level. At the back of the student's book, there is a language reference, which includes the grammar students need to know. In addition, there is an extra practice section at the end of each student's book. It includes several additional exercises to practice what has been covered in the unit. The teacher's book for each of the levels also includes some additional materials that require work in pairs or small groups in the form of a game or a role-play. The workbooks of the *Face2face* series provide more exercises for students to practice grammar at home.

New Headway

The latest, fourth, edition of the course books *New Headway* was used for the evaluation. This edition has been published by Oxford University Press since 2009. The group of authors of this series includes Liz Soars, John Soars, Amanda Maris, Caroline Krantz. The *New Headway* series incorporates six levels from beginner to advanced. The first level includes 14 units; the following levels are 12 units each. In the fourth edition, each level comprises the teacher's book with the teacher's resource disk and the teacher's resource book, the student's book, the class audio CDs, the workbook with the student's workbook CD, the interactive practice CD-ROM, and the website. In addition, such materials as the *New Headway* iTools, the pronunciation course pack (the student's practice book and the audio CD), and the *New Headway* video (the student's book, the teacher's book, the DVD) are available in this edition.

New Headway is also aimed at adults and young adults and is based on the communicative approach (*New Headway Intermediate Teacher's Book* 2009: 4). The *New Headway* series also offers a mixture of traditional and innovative methodologies, combining grammatical and functional/situational syllabi (*New Headway Intermediate Teacher's Book* 2009: 4).

The authors of the *New Headway* series name "the upfront, systematic and effective treatment of grammar" as "a hallmark" of these course books (*New Headway Intermediate Teacher's Book* 2009: 4). They point out that all new language material, including grammar, is introduced in context (*New Headway Intermediate Teacher's Book* 2009). The 'grammar spot' sections in each unit are aimed at drawing student's attention to new grammatical material with the help of questions, charts and short exercises. At the end of the student's book there is a grammar reference, which is mentioned in the grammar spot and which is there for students to consult (*New Headway Intermediate Teacher's Book* 2009: 4). The new grammatical material is practised in exercises of various types and communicative activities (*New Headway Intermediate Teacher's Book* 2009: 4). One of the advantages of this series is that in the teacher's books, there is a section with a list of problems students might face and common mistakes they are likely to make while learning the new grammar. The teacher's books also include photocopiable materials for additional practice. Similar to the workbooks in the *Face2face* series, the *New Headway* workbooks offer extra exercises, which students can do at home.

Outcomes

So far, there has been only one edition of the *Outcomes* course books, published between 2010 and 2012 by the American publishing house HEINLE CENGAGE Learning. The following group of authors worked on the series: Gerard McLoughlin, Peter Maggs, Catherine Smith, Hugh Dellar, Andrew Walkley, Barbara Garside, Amanda Maris, Carol Nuttall, David Evans, Amanda French. The series covers 5 levels: from elementary to advanced. Each course book is divided into 16 units. Every level includes the student's book, the workbook, the teacher's book, the class audio CDs, the examview test bank and the website.

The description of this series at the beginning of the teacher's books does not provide any information about its target audience. A brief examination of the topics covered in the series and the course books' general outlook lead to the conclusion that this series is also aimed at adults and young adults. In addition, there is no precise information about the approach employed in this series. However, the *Outcomes* series addresses the main goals of the CEFR (*Outcomes Intermediate Teacher's book* 2010: 5). Moreover, such phrases as "communication activity", "communicating thoughts and feelings", "business of everyday life", "the communicative outcomes", and "'naturalness' of usage" are used in the description of the course books (*Outcomes Intermediate Teacher's book* 2010: 4-6). Thus, this series seems to employ the communicative approach.

According to the authors of the *Outcomes* course books, the grammar section in each unit refers to the text from the exercise before this grammar section, i.e. new grammar items are introduced in context (*Outcomes Intermediate Teacher's book* 2010: 4). The authors of the *Outcomes* course books also claim that the spiral principle is employed in this series as grammar material is introduced in new contexts several times within one level and at different levels (*Outcomes Intermediate Teacher's book* 2010: 7). After the introduction, an explanation of the new grammatical material is provided, or guided questions are used to teach meaning (*Outcomes Intermediate Teacher's book* 2010: 4). After this, students practice new grammar items in exercises that are aimed at helping them to notice and to understand the rules better (*Outcomes Intermediate Teacher's book* 2010: 6). At the end of each student's book, there is a grammar reference, which provides additional explanation, examples and practice if students "need extra help" (*Outcomes Intermediate Teacher's book* 2010: 4). Various communicative activities are also given in the teacher's book to revise grammar from the student's book (*Outcomes Intermediate Teacher's book* 2010: 5). In addition, the *Outcome* teacher's books include

the teacher's notes section with the photocopiable communication activities that provide teachers with additional communicative tasks for their students and allow learners to work in pairs and in small groups. The workbooks of the *Outcomes* series also offer exercises for learners to do at home.

5.4. First introduction and spiral principle

The second stage of the first-glance examination included looking at the table of contents in the chosen course books in order to select the units where indirect speech is presented. The results of this stage can be seen in Table 1. This table illustrates at what level indirect reported speech is introduced for the first time and whether the spiral principle is employed in its treatment in the selected series.

Table 1. Units for the in-depth analysis and evaluation

Series	Level					
	Beginner/ Starter	Elementary	Pre- Intermediate	Intermediate	Upper- Intermediate	Advanced
Face2face	-	-	Reported speech (12A)	Reported speech: sentences (11A) Reported speech: questions. Reported speech: requests and imperatives (11B) Verb patterns (2): reporting verbs (11C)	Reported speech (11B) Verb patterns (2): reporting verbs (11C)	-
New Headway	-	-	-	Reported speech. Reported thoughts. Reported questions. (12)	-	-
Outcomes	N/A	-	Reporting speech 1 (9) Reporting speech 2 (12)	Reported speech. Reporting verbs. (15)	Reporting verbs (15)	Reporting and verb patterns (13)

The data in the table show that in the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series indirect reported speech is first introduced at the pre-intermediate level, while in *New Headway* indirect speech is explained for the first time at the intermediate level. In the first and the second

editions, the pre-intermediate level of the *New Headway* series had 14 units, and then indirect reported speech was first introduced in the 14th unit of this level. However, with the change in the structure of the book “in response to feedback from teachers who said they did not have time to cover fourteen units in the academic year”, indirect speech started to be introduced later, at the intermediate level (*New Headway 3rd edition Teacher’s Book* 2007: 4). Thus, instead of restructuring the whole series to fit indirect reported speech into the pre-intermediate level, the authors of the *New Headway* course books decided to postpone this grammar item until the intermediate level.

That indirect reported speech is first introduced rather late, only at the pre-intermediate and intermediate levels, can be explained by the fact that it is a rather complex grammar item that presupposes the usage of other grammatical aspects and rules, such as the past tense and complex sentences with finite or non-finite subordinate clauses. The analysis of what other grammar items students need to know to comprehend the rules of indirect reported speech was not an aim of this thesis. Moreover, other units of the selected course books were not analysed to examine what grammar material is presented before indirect speech. Therefore, it is impossible to conclude whether this late first introduction is connected to the fact that only at the pre-intermediate level, or even at the intermediate level, do students have enough background grammar knowledge to start learning indirect speech. Another interesting point is that indirect reported speech is usually presented closer to the end of the course books. This may be explained by the fact that the authors of the examined course book see the need to take up and revise other items before presenting indirect speech. However, as has been mentioned above, no conclusions can be made without an additional analysis.

Table 1 also shows that the analysed textbooks have rather different views on the treatment of indirect reported speech in terms of the spiral principle. In the *New Headway* series, indirect speech is taken up only once, at the intermediate level, and is not revised at any of the following levels. Therefore, in respect to at least indirect reported speech, the authors of the *New Headway* series do not employ the spiral principle.

In contrast to *New Headway*, *Face2face* and *Outcomes* consider the spiral principle. In the *Face2face* series, after the introduction of indirect speech in one of the lessons of the pre-intermediate course book, it is taken up again at the intermediate and upper intermediate levels. In addition, at these two levels, different rules of indirect reporting are covered in several units within one lesson, for example, in *Face2face Upper*

Intermediate Unit 11B is dedicated to indirect speech in general, while Unit 11C deals with reporting verbs. It is also important to point out that in the *Face2face* series reporting verbs are considered a part of vocabulary, not grammar. Nevertheless, the units that introduce reporting verbs were also examined to get a comprehensive picture of how indirect reported speech is treated.

The authors of the *Outcomes* series also seem to favour the spiral principle. In this series, indirect speech is revised at every level after the pre-intermediate level where it is introduced for the first time. In addition, in the *Outcomes* course book of the pre-intermediate level, indirect reported speech is taken up twice: in the middle of the course (Unit 9), and three units later (Unit 12). This may be explained by the fact that when new material is first introduced it needs to be revised more often to be properly understood and memorized. Therefore, in the pre-intermediate course book, which introduces indirect reported speech for the first time, this grammar item is taken up twice. Later, the frequency of recycling decreases to once per level. This supports the claim of the authors of this series that the *Outcomes* course books introduce the same grammar aspects in new situations several times per level and at different levels (*Outcomes Intermediate Teacher's book* 2010: 7).

Overall, the examination of the spiral principle in the selected course books leads to the conclusion that it is used only in the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series. Even in these two sets of course books, it is employed to various degrees. It is also important to point out that if in the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series indirect reported speech is introduced for the first time at the pre-intermediate level, in the *New Headway* series it is taken up only at the intermediate level, and it is not revised later.

5.5. Rules of indirect reported speech introduced

The next step of the study was to investigate what rules of indirect reported speech are introduced in the selected series. This examination of the rules was aimed at answering the following questions: which of the series offers a fuller coverage of the rules of indirect reported speech, whether the grammar rules in the series follow the rules of linguistic grammars and which approach to backshifting is employed, linguistic or pedagogical. In addition, the analysis and evaluation of what rules are introduced in the selected series and at what levels might give more insight into the spiral approach in the teaching of indirect speech.

It is important to point out that since in the rest of the paper the in-depth analysis and evaluation of only the selected units is described, when a series, a course book or its component is referred to, the units in the corresponding series/book selected during the first-glance analysis and evaluation are meant. Thus, for example, the phrase “In *Face2face Intermediate* and *Outcomes Upper Intermediate* indirect speech is presented implicitly” does not mean the whole course books, but only those units that were selected during the first-glance analysis and evaluation. This is done to avoid long sentences and to make the text more reader-friendly and easy to follow.

To conduct this step of the evaluation and analysis, the rules of reported speech discussed in Chapter 4 were examined. In total, 59 rules were singled out and put into a table, which is available in Appendix 1. Then, the selected units were examined to find out which of the rules are presented in them. First, only those rules that are explicitly stated in the grammar sections within units or/and in the grammar reference sections at the end of the student’s books were marked in the table. Next, the activities used in these units, both in the student’s books and the workbooks and also additional activities in the teacher’s books, were examined to find out what other rules of reported speech students might need to complete the activities. This examination of activities was aimed at establishing the rules of indirect speech that are presented implicitly in the selected series, i.e. in context without any focus on form (more about the explicit and implicit teaching of indirect reported speech in Section 5.6). These rules were also marked in the table in Appendix 1. The data in the table was used for a qualitative and basic quantitative analysis. A basic quantitative approach was employed to investigate which of the series offers a fuller coverage of the rules of indirect reported speech and how these rules are distributed over levels. The data in the table was also evaluated in order to see how the spiral principle is employed regarding different rules of indirect speech, whether the selected course books adhere to the linguistic rules of indirect speech and which approach to backshifting they use.

After the rules introduced in each of the series were marked in the table, a total number of the rules in every course book and series was counted. The table in Appendix 1 shows that the *Face2face*, *New Headway* and *Outcomes* series present 43, 35 and 37 rules of indirect reported speech respectively. Therefore, the *Face2face* series seems to offer the fullest coverage of indirect reported speech out of the three sets of course books, 43 out of 59 rules. These 43 rules are taken up over three levels: 12 rules at the

pre-intermediate level, 40 rules at the intermediate level, and 41 rules at the upper-intermediate level.

Although the number of the rules presented in the *New Headway* and *Outcomes* series is almost identical, the rules in the *Outcomes* course books are distributed over four levels, while in the *New Headway* course books all 35 rules are presented at once at the intermediate level. This relatively high number of rules within one level might be difficult for students to comprehend and remember, especially, if students have not encountered these rules before and will not revise them later. In comparison to *New Headway Intermediate*, the number of the rules introduced in *Face2face Intermediate* is even higher, 40, but prior to this course book, some rules of indirect reporting, namely 12, have been introduced at the pre-intermediate level. Therefore, not 40 but 28 rules are new to the students, who already have some knowledge of this grammar item.

This information might shed more light on the spiral approach and how it is used in the chosen series. As has been concluded in Section 5.4, the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series employ the spiral principle in teaching indirect reported speech but to various degrees. However, there seem to be other differences as well. First, the *Face2face* series starts with a very basic and brief introduction of indirect reported speech, 12 out of 59 rules, at the pre-intermediate level. In *Face2face Intermediate* the number of rules discussed rapidly increases and equals 40, almost all of which are later revised one more time at the upper intermediate level. The *Outcomes* series, in its turn, starts with 28 rules introduced in two units of the pre-intermediate level. At the intermediate level the number of rules, which are partly revised and partly new, stays almost the same, 23, but decreases almost twice at the upper intermediate and advanced levels and equals 13 and 15 respectively. The reason for this drop becomes clear after looking at what rules of indirect reported speech are introduced at these two levels: various reporting verbs that take not only *that*-clauses, but, for instance, infinitive and *-ing* clauses. Since these clauses do not have finite forms of the verb, backshifting, which presupposes many rules, is not revised at these two levels. In addition, indirect reporting questions (8 rules) are introduced only in *Outcomes Pre-intermediate* and are not taken up in the following units. Hence, the *Outcomes* series seems to concentrate on the finite reported clauses at the pre-intermediate and intermediate levels and on the non-finite ones at the upper intermediate and advanced levels. The *Face2face* series starts with the finite subordinate clauses at the pre-intermediate level, takes them up again and introduces the non-finite clauses at the intermediate level, and then revises both types of subordinate clauses at

the upper intermediate level. This treatment of subordinate clauses in the *Face2face* series seems to be more useful as it illustrates language variation and provides an integrated revision of finite and non-finite reported clauses, which, unfortunately, is missing in the *Outcomes* series.

It is also interesting that in the *Outcomes* and *Face2face* series, the treatment of indirect reporting starts with reporting statements at the pre-intermediate level. However, because in *Outcomes Pre-intermediate* two units are dedicated to indirect reporting, indirect questions are already introduced at the pre-intermediate level, while in the *Face2face* series students encounter indirect questions only at the intermediate level. Nevertheless, both series seem to share the view that only after students are familiar with reporting statements, can the rules of reporting questions be introduced. This may be explained by the fact that reporting statements is easier than reporting questions since it does not presuppose any changes in the word order. Therefore, the *Outcomes* and *Face2face* series seem to follow the idea discussed in Section 3.1 that the teaching of grammar should start with simpler constructions and gradually address more complex ones.

The next step of the analysis and evaluation was to examine the data in the table in Appendix 1 and to compare the rules of reported speech given in Chapter 4 to the rules in the selected series. First, it is important to point out that the authors of the selected series have different views on some of the rules, nevertheless, staying in line with linguistic grammars. For instance, in the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* course books it is stated that the modal verb *must* should be changed into *had to* in indirect speech, but the authors of *New Headway* claim that this shift is optional: *must* can either be kept or changed into *had to*. Both of these variants are found in linguistic grammars. It seems that the choice of either of the options is a matter of personal taste; however, the change of *must* into *had to* is more common.

Although, in general, the *Face2face*, *New Headway* and *Outcomes* series follow the rules found in linguistic grammars, there are few deviations. For example, according to linguistic grammars the past simple should be changed into the past perfect. While the *New Headway* and *Outcomes* series follow the same rule, in *Face2face* the change of the past simple into the past perfect is considered optional. An explanation for this might be a wish of the *Face2face* authors to present the material in an easier and more comprehensible manner and avoid making students use complicated sentences with the past perfect.

Another difference of opinions was found regarding the facts that are still true at the moment of reporting. Linguists believe that in this case no backshifting is needed, and *New Headway* follows this rule. However, the *Outcomes* series states that this change is optional and does not give any other details, providing students with the freedom to choose whether to change the tense or not. The *Face2face* series does not mention this rule at all perhaps implying that the regular rules of backshifting are applicable in this case. This example illustrates that the three series might employ slightly different approaches to backshifting. Although, in general, the selected textbooks employ the pedagogical approach, presenting changes in indirect reported speech as mechanical shifts without explaining why they happen, each of the series mentions some of the cases where shifting does not occur. The series focus students' attention on the fact that whether the information being reported is still true or denotes a general fact may influence the backshifting in the reported clause. However, only *New Headway* follows the rules of a linguistic grammar and states that there is no shift if the fact is still true, employing a purely linguistic perspective to this rule. The other two series claim the optionality of the shifts if the fact is still true, relates to the future or denotes a general fact, as if trying to combine the pedagogical and linguistic perspectives.

Overall, the analysis and evaluation of the rules presented in the selected series showed that the *Face2face* series provides a fuller coverage of the rules of indirect speech than the *Outcomes* and *New Headway* series. Nevertheless, the three series introduce a majority of the rules. In general, with few exceptions, each of the examined series follows the rules of linguistic grammars in presenting indirect reported speech. In addition, the three series seem to adhere to the pedagogical approach regarding backshifting. However, each of the series names one or two instances where backshifting does not happen or is optional due to some pragmatic or contextual reasons. Therefore, the selected series try, at least partly, to provide the linguistic perspective. Finally, this section provided more insight into what other difference, in addition to the ones discussed in Section 5.4, the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series have regarding the application of the spiral approach. The main differences that were established in this section concern the introduction of reported questions and finite and non-finite reported clauses. Nevertheless, these two series start with simpler rules of indirect speech, such as reporting statements, and then proceed to more complex ones, for example, reporting questions.

5.6. Implicit or explicit teaching

Another aspect that needs to be investigated is whether indirect speech is taught explicitly, i.e. with focus on form and rules, or implicitly, i.e. without any focus on form or formal presentation of rules. The fact that all the selected units include a grammar section and each of the course books has a grammar reference at the end may lead to the conclusion that grammar is treated explicitly in the units and in the textbook. However, it is necessary to remember that although the selected course books provide explicit rules and explanations, some rules might be left for implicit learning. Unfortunately, the teacher's books of the examined series do not provide a list of the rules of indirect reported speech that students are supposed to know after covering the related units. A comparison of such a list to the rules given in the grammar sections of the selected student's books would help to establish what rules are taught explicitly and what rules are taught implicitly.

To investigate what rules of indirect reported speech are presented explicitly and what implicitly, all grammar sections, grammar references and activities in the selected units were examined and compared. This examination, which has already been briefly mentioned in Section 5.5, aimed at finding out what rules of indirect reported speech students need to know to complete the activities successfully and whether these rules are explicitly stated or focused on in the grammar sections or grammar references. For example, to complete the exercise in Figure 3 students need to know that indirect reported speech can be used to report words and thoughts and to be aware of the rules of backshifting of *am going to*/the present continuous, *will*, *can*, the present simple, the present perfect, and the past simple. In addition, students need to know the specificities of punctuation in indirect reported speech, about the optional usage of the conjunction *that* and about the deictic shifts of pronouns.

3 Reporting words and thoughts

1 Report the statements.

- 1 'I'll miss you very much,' he said to her.
He told her he would miss her very much.
- 2 'I'm going to Berlin soon.'
She said _____.
- 3 'This film will be interesting.'
I thought _____.
- 4 'I can't help you because I have too much to do.'
She said _____.
- 5 'Daniel has bought the tickets.'
I was told _____.
- 6 'It's a stupid idea, and it won't work.'
She thought _____.
- 7 'We had terrible weather on holiday.'
He complained _____.
- 8 'We've never been to Croatia,' they said to me.
They told _____.
- 9 'But we want to go some day,' they said.
They added that _____.

Figure 3. Application of the rules of indirect speech in an exercise (*New Headway Intermediate Workbook* 2012: 80)

The grammar reference in the *New Headway Intermediate* student's book includes the explicit presentation of all the rules students need to know to do this exercise, except for the rules about punctuation and the deictic shifts of pronouns. Thus, this comparison leads to the conclusion that the rules of punctuation and of the deictic shifts in indirect reported speech are presented implicitly in *New Headway Intermediate*.

This comparison helped to establish what rules of indirect reporting are taught implicitly, i.e. with no formulation of rules or focus on form. The results of this step of the investigation can be found in Appendix 2. The table in Appendix 2 shows that most of the rules of indirect reported speech in the selected units are presented explicitly. However, there are some exceptions. First, the rules of punctuation of positive sentences and the rules of intonation in indirect reported questions are presented implicitly in all of the analysed and evaluated units. The implicit approach to the teaching of punctuation and intonation in indirect reporting might be explained by the fact that the authors of the selected series believe that while looking at indirect reported sentences in the course books and listening to the teacher or to the exercises on the course book CDs, students will be able to acquire these rules without any specific focus on them.

Three other rules that are presented implicitly in the *New Headway* and *Outcomes* series are when to use indirect reported questions, and punctuation and backshifting in reporting questions. The implicit presentation of these rules might be explained by the fact that the writers of these series think that students are capable of transferring these rules from statements to questions, or that they can acquire them through examples and exercises without any explicit formulation or specific attention. Only in the *Face2face* series, is the rule of backshifting in reported questions presented explicitly. Thus, the authors of this series seem to try to draw students' attention to the fact that backshifting happens in not only reporting statements, but also reporting questions.

The implicit approach is also employed regarding the rules of the deictic shifts of pronouns in *New Headway Intermediate* and the deictic shifts of possessive adjectives in *New Headway Intermediate* and all course books of the *Outcomes* series. It is also interesting to point out that in *Face2face Pre-intermediate* and *Intermediate* and *Outcomes Pre-intermediate*, the rule of the deictic shift of pronouns is presented explicitly, while in the course books of the later levels, it is treated implicitly. In addition, the rule of the deictic shifts of possessive adjective is stated explicitly in the examined units in *Face2face Pre-intermediate* and *Intermediate*, but in *Face2face Upper Intermediate* it is treated implicitly. Finally, the rules of when to use indirect reported questions and punctuation in them are treated explicitly in *Face2face Intermediate* but implicitly in *Face2face Upper Intermediate*.

A reason behind this transition from explicit to implicit presentation might be that the authors of the *Face2face* series assume that learners are capable of learning these rules if they are stated explicitly only at the beginning. Thus, at (a) later level(s), there is no need to formulate the rules again, but it is still important to revise them. Therefore, although the rules are not provided explicitly at more advanced levels, the knowledge of these rules is necessary for completing the activities.

In general, the table in Appendix 2 shows that the analysed series favour explicit teaching in the presentation of indirect reported speech. A possible explanation for this might be that the target audience of the analysed and evaluated series is adults, who, as have been stated in Section 3.3, benefit more from explicit teaching. Very few rules of indirect speech are presented implicitly, and the selected series seem to be mostly unanimous in their choice of the rules that are presented implicitly. These rules include the ones that are employed very often and are rather basic, for instance, punctuation, intonation, the deictic shifts of pronouns and possessive adjectives. Due to their frequent

use, students might be able to acquire these rules without any explicit formulation but employing their knowledge of the language and logics.

5.7. Consciousness-raising or practice

As has been discussed in section 3.5, all activities in course books can be divided into consciousness-raising (CR) and practice. CR includes interpretation and grammar consciousness-raising tasks; and practice incorporates mechanical, meaningful, and communicative practice. This section provides the results of the analysis and evaluation of the types of activities that are used in the course books in teaching indirect reported speech. To conduct this investigation, first, all the activities provided in the selected units of the student's books, workbooks and teacher's books were examined to establish whether each of them focuses on CR or production. Then, all the CR activities were further divided into interpretation task and grammar consciousness-raising tasks, while the production activities were classified as mechanical, meaningful, and communicative. The activities found in the selected units were marked in tables, which will be discussed later in this section. The number of activities of each type was not counted as it would have involved a detailed quantitative and statistical analysis, but this was not the aim of this thesis. The aim of this thesis is to investigate whether practice or consciousness-raising activities are used in the course books in the treatment of indirect speech.

Before proceeding to the results of this stage of the study and their interpretation, it is necessary to explain what activities from the selected units were included in the examination and how they were classified into the five types of activities mentioned above. Each of the activities included in the study aims at the development of either explicit or implicit knowledge of the rules of indirect speech through consciousness-raising or practice. The activities in the selected units that focus on the knowledge of other rules and do not involve the rules of indirect speech were not taken into account. For example, the 'Help with listening' exercise in Figure 4 from the *Face2face* student's book was not taken into account.

HELP WITH LISTENING
 /h/ at the beginning of words

- Sometimes we don't say /h/ at the beginning of words.

7 a **CD3** **41** Listen to these sentences. Notice when we don't say /h/.

YOU EXPECT TO HEAR	YOU OFTEN HEAR
He said his flight was six hundred pounds.	He said [h]is flight was six [h]undred pounds.

b Read these rules.

- We usually say /h/ after a vowel sound: Yes, I *heard* that.
- We don't usually say /h/ after a consonant sound: We can lend [h]im the money.

c Look at Audio Script **CD3** **40** p166. Listen to Mike and Angela's conversation again. Notice when they say and when they don't say /h/ at the beginning of words.

Figure 4. Listening section (*Face2face Pre-intermediate Student's Book* 2012: 94)

Although this exercise uses sentences with indirect reported speech, the correct pronunciation of the sound /h/ is the main focus of this activity. This exercise does not require any repetition of the sentences by students, and hence does not presuppose any production. It does not draw students' attention to the rules of reporting, and it does not facilitate intake either. Therefore, it cannot be considered an example of either CR or practice of the rules of indirect reported speech.

Such exercises as Part A in Figure 5 that require students to complete sentences in direct speech were not considered in the analysis and evaluation either. Only the second part, Part B, of such activities, where students are to report the sentences from Part A, was taken into account.

a Joel is talking to his colleague, Tia. Fill in the gaps in the conversation with the correct form of the verbs in brackets.

JOEL Are you OK, Tia? You don't look very happy.

TIA ¹I _____ (be) a bit fed up. Ellie got promoted last week. ²I'm never going to _____ (get) promoted now!

JOEL Ellie got promoted? I don't believe it!

TIA Neither do I. ³I'm _____ (work) really hard at the moment.

JOEL Yes, me too. It's not fair, is it?

TIA ⁴Every month I _____ (spend) all my money on rent and food. ⁵And I can't _____ (save) anything.


JOEL Yes, it's really expensive here.

TIA ⁶We're going to _____ (move) offices next month. ⁷My journey to work will _____ (be) a lot longer. Why are you so happy?

JOEL Well, I haven't told you the news yet.

TIA ⁸I'm _____ (leave) next month.

JOEL What? Now I won't have anyone to talk to!



b Write sentences 1–8 in **5a** in reported speech.

1 Tia said that she _____.

2 She told Joel that she was never _____.

3 She said that she _____.

4 She said that every month _____.

5 She told _____.

6 She said that they _____.

7 She told Joel that _____.

8 Joel told _____.

Figure 5. Practice of direct speech (Face2face Pre-intermediate Workbook 2012: 61)

Another example of the activities that were not included in the analysis and evaluation is provided in Figure 6 under letter C.

B Choose the correct verb in brackets and report the sentences.

1 'It's your fault that the burgers were burnt.' (deny / blame)
Jane

2 'Why don't you send it back if it's overcooked?' (advise / complain)
Mum

3 'Let's order the set menu to be delivered.' (urge / suggest)
Ellie

4 'Don't worry. I won't forget to take it out of the oven.' (promise / persuade)
Dad

5 'We don't use any products that have been genetically altered in any of our products.' (deny / refuse)
The managing director

6 'Don't forget to ask Meena about her secret ingredient.' (admit / remind)
Mark

7 'I'm sorry we didn't make it on Saturday.' (apologise for / invite)
Lili

8 'All the affected premises have been closed.' (threaten / declare)
The health minister

C Match the sentences in exercise B (1–8) to the situations (a–h).

a cases of food poisoning
b a problem in a restaurant
c having a takeaway meal
d asking for help with a recipe
e cooking on a barbecue
f a scandal about GM foods
g missing a party
h baking a cake

Figure 6. Matching exercise (Outcomes Upper Intermediate Workbook 2010: 92)

If Exercise B in this example requires the knowledge of the rules of indirect speech, these rules are not necessary to complete Exercise C. Therefore, Exercise C was not included in the analysis and evaluation.

After it has been clarified what activities were included in the analysis and evaluation, it is necessary to explain how the selected activities were classified as practice or consciousness-raising and then further subdivided into the five types. As has been mentioned in Section 3.5, CR presupposes little or no production at all and includes two types of activities: interpretation tasks, which focus on intake facilitation, and grammar

consciousness-raising tasks, which aim at constructing an explicit knowledge of the rule. Examples of interpretation tasks are ‘Listen and check your answers’, ‘Put sentences with indirect speech in the order you hear them’. And such exercises as ‘Match sentences in indirect and direct speech’ and ‘Match reporting verbs and patterns they take’ are examples of grammar consciousness-raising tasks.

Practice, in its turn, aims at various types of production and encompasses exercises focused on form, i.e. mechanical practice, meaning and form, i.e. meaningful practice, and communication, i.e. communicative practice. A typical example of mechanical practice is ‘Put these verbs in the correct form’. Meaningful practice includes such exercises as ‘Report these sentences’ or ‘Complete the sentences with your own ideas’. And communicative practice encourages students to have a conversation in pairs and then retell other students what they have talked about using indirect speech.

Some of the activities in the units were rather difficult to define. One of such activities is, for instance, the exercise in Figure 7 from the *Face2face* workbook of the pre-intermediate level.

Reported speech GRAMMAR 12.1

2 a Match sentence beginnings 1–5 to endings a–e.

1 When I was young, my father told me	a the hardest thing in the world to understand was tax!
2 In their fourth hit song, the Beatles said that	b I was working as hard as I could!
3 Albert Einstein was very intelligent, but he said that	c money couldn't buy you love.
4 His email said that	d money would be important one day.
5 I told them that	e he was going to be a millionaire before he was 30!

Figure 7. Interpretation task (*Face2face Pre-Intermediate Workbook 2012: 60*)

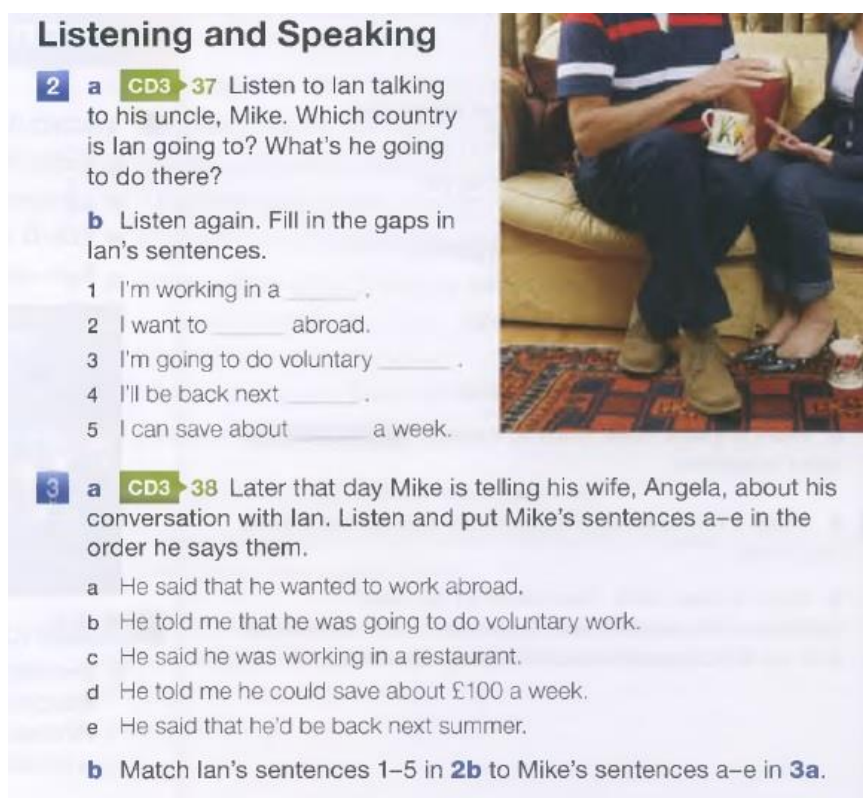
This exercise does not presuppose any production on behalf of students, and it does not aim at consciousness-raising either since it does not involve any emphasis on indirect reported speech in context. Students are offered rather short sentences that are not connected, and this exercise does not require students to formulate or to apply any rules. It seems that the most appropriate option is to treat this activity as an interpretation task. In spite of the absence of context, this task is aimed at the receptive grammar skills and provides a basis for a following exercise where students are asked to transform the sentences from the discussed exercise into direct reported speech.

Another ambiguous type of exercises is correcting mistakes. In Section 3.5, finding mistakes was given as an example of a grammar consciousness-raising task. However,

the exercises that presuppose a correction of mistakes include both finding the mistakes, i.e. CR, and providing the right variant, i.e. practice. Therefore, this type of activities was considered a grammar consciousness-raising task and either mechanical or meaningful practice depending on what needs to be corrected.

The exercises where students need to transform sentences from direct speech into indirect speech were considered meaningful as students do not only have to apply the mechanical rules of backshifting, but they also have to remember about deictic shifts, which depend on context and pragmatics. However, the transformation from indirect into direct speech was treated as an instance of a grammar consciousness-raising task as it does not presuppose any production that involves indirect reporting but aims at the revision of the shifts.

In addition, it is necessary to explain how different listening exercises were classified. Figure 8 includes two listening exercises.



Listening and Speaking

2 a **CD3** **37** Listen to Ian talking to his uncle, Mike. Which country is Ian going to? What's he going to do there?

b Listen again. Fill in the gaps in Ian's sentences.

- 1 I'm working in a _____.
- 2 I want to _____ abroad.
- 3 I'm going to do voluntary _____.
- 4 I'll be back next _____.
- 5 I can save about _____ a week.

3 a **CD3** **38** Later that day Mike is telling his wife, Angela, about his conversation with Ian. Listen and put Mike's sentences a–e in the order he says them.

- a He said that he wanted to work abroad.
- b He told me that he was going to do voluntary work.
- c He said he was working in a restaurant.
- d He told me he could save about £100 a week.
- e He said that he'd be back next summer.

b Match Ian's sentences 1–5 in **2b** to Mike's sentences a–e in **3a**.

Figure 8. Listening and speaking exercise (*Face2face Pre-intermediate Student's Book* 2012: 94)

In Exercise 2 (a-b) in Figure 8 indirect reported speech is not used, what has been checked in the transcript. Therefore, this task was not included in the analysis and evaluation. However, Exercise 3 (a) includes the lines with indirect speech and asks students to put them in the correct order. This may lead to the conclusion that Exercise 3 (a) is an interpretation task as it facilitates oral intake and does not require any production. Exercise 3 (b) draws students' attention to the difference between sentences

in indirect and direct speech and thus can be classified as a grammar consciousness-raising task.

All other listening activities from the selected units were classified as either mechanical practice or interpretation tasks. Mechanical practice involves a repetition of the sentences after the recording and does not presuppose any attention to meaning only to form. Interpretation tasks require students to listen to the recording and to compare it to their own answer, hence these tasks include oral input but no production.

After the clarification of the issues encountered while classifying the activities, it is possible to proceed to the results of the analysis and their evaluation. As has been mentioned before, first, all the activities found in the selected units were divided into the tasks that are aimed at CR and the ones that involve production. The types of the tasks that were found in the selected units of the course books were marked in a table. The data in the table were analysed and evaluated. The aim of this stage of the analysis and evaluation was to see what activities are used, but not how many activities of each type are present. Therefore, the quantitative analysis was not conducted. The results of the first step of the examination of the activities in the selected course books can be seen in Table 2.

Table 2. CR and practice activities in the textbooks

	Face2face						New Headway	Outcomes				
	Pre-intermediate	Intermediate			Upper-Intermediate		Intermediate	Pre-intermediate		Intermediate	Upper-Intermediate	Advanced
		11A	11B	11C	11B	11C		9	12			
CR	+	+	+		+		+	+	+	+	+	+
Practice	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+

Table 2 shows that almost each of the analysed units includes consciousness-raising, and all of them involve practice. The only exceptions are Units 11C in *Face2face Intermediate* and *Upper Intermediate*. It is interesting that these two units introduce reporting verbs, which in the *Face2face* series are included in vocabulary, not grammar. This may be an explanation why the authors of the *Face2face* series do not offer any CR activities in these units. Vocabulary, as opposed to grammar, does not usually include rules, and thus there is no need to draw students' attention to them through consciousness-raising activities.

The next step of the analysis and evaluation was to look in more detail at the types of CR and practice activities used in the course books. What types of activities were found in them can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3. Types of CR and practice activities in the textbooks

		Face2face						New Headway	Outcomes				
		Pre-Intermediate	Intermediate			Upper-Intermediate		Intermediate	Pre-Intermediate		Intermediate	Upper-Intermediate	Advanced
			11A	11B	11C	11B	11C		9	12			
CR	Interpret. tasks	+	+	+		+		+					+
	Grammar CR task	+	+	+		+		+	+	+	+	+	+
Practice	Mechanical practice	+	+		+			+		+	+	+	
	Meaningful practice	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	Communicative practice	+	+	+		+	+	+		+	+	+	+

First, Table 3 shows that all the tasks can be found in each of the series; however, not all the activities are included in each of the analysed units. Meaningful practice is present in each unit. In addition, communicative practice was found almost in every unit, and there is at least one unit with a communicative practice task in every course book. This common presence of meaningful and communicative practice tasks can be explained by the fact that the analysed series adhere to the communicative approach, which, as has been mentioned in Section 2.3, presupposes frequent usage of meaning-focused and communicative activities as they develop fluency and accuracy simultaneously. Grammar consciousness-raising tasks were found in as many units as communicative practice tasks. The only exceptions are the units in the *Face2face* series where reporting verbs are treated as a part of vocabulary, not grammar. That grammar consciousness-raising activities are used in all the series and each level can be explained by the fact that the target audience of the selected series is adults, and, as has been stated in Section 3.3, adults benefit from explicit teaching, and grammar consciousness-raising tasks are a suitable way of drawing students' attention to form and rules. Interpretation tasks are not present in each of the examined units of the *Face2face* series but at every level. Interpretation tasks were also found in Unit 12 in *New Headway Intermediate*. And in the *Outcomes* series, interpretation tasks were found only in the unit of the advanced

course book. This might be explained by the fact that the authors of this series are more focused on output than on intake. Mechanical practice tasks were found in each series, however, not in each unit. It is interesting that there are no mechanical practice activities in the units of the levels where indirect speech is taken up for the last time in the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series. An explanation for a rare use of mechanical practice might be twofold. First, the majority of the exercises aimed at the practice of indirect reporting requires the knowledge of backshifting and deictic shifts, and, therefore, involves the attention to form and pragmatic or contextual meaning simultaneously. There are very few activities where students only need to employ the rules of backshifting, mechanically changing the tenses of the reporting verbs, or where students need to repeat mechanically the sentences with indirect reported speech after the recording. Second, as has been stated in Section 2.3, the communicative approach, which all the selected textbooks adhere to, advocates meaningful-focused activities, which develop accuracy and fluency, but not form-focused exercises, which facilitate only accuracy.

Overall, all the analysed series use consciousness-raising and practice. Regarding practice activities, each of the series employs meaningful and communicative practice. In addition, grammar consciousness-raising tasks are rather common in the analysed course books. Thus, it can be concluded that the treatment of indirect speech in the examined course books satisfies the requirements of the communicative approach (meaningful and communicative practice) and cognitive specificities of adults (consciousness-raising).

5.8. Teaching models used in the textbooks

The next step of the examination was to analyse and evaluate what models of teaching are employed in the selected series regarding indirect reported speech. For this step of the analysis and evaluation, the student's books and the teacher's books were examined to understand the authors' ideas about how indirect speech should be treated in the classroom.

As has been discussed in Section 3.6, there are different sequences that can be used in teaching. However, many of them resemble the PPP model, which is very often used in EFL textbooks. The other models discussed in Section 3.6 basically have the same stages, but they are more flexible in arranging them or they focus on a particular stage. Thus, the analysis and evaluation of the selected units in the *Face2face*, *New Headway*

and *Outcomes* course books included singling out the three stages of the PPP model, i.e. presentation, practice and production, and deciding in what order they are used in the selected units. To single out these three stages, each of the selected units was studied to investigate the sequence of activities in the treatment of indirect reported speech. The results can be found in Appendix 3. It is important to point out that at the end of some of the selected units in the teacher's books of the *Outcomes* and *Face2face* series, the authors provide an additional activity, such as a board game or an interview. These activities were also included in the table and marked in Appendix 3 as 'TB'. Next, all the activities found in the units were classified as presentation, practice or production. Since the presentation stage presupposes an introduction of new material through examples and/or rules and no usage of these rules in productive activities, such activity as 'grammar/vocabulary section', 'an interpretation task' and 'a grammar consciousness-raising task' were classified as presentation. These three activities presuppose no production but focus on the targeted grammar item, i.e. indirect reported speech. Grammar/vocabulary sections include rules and examples, and interpretation and grammar consciousness-raising tasks draw students' attention to the targeted structure. The practice stage includes the use of indirect reported speech in rather controlled tasks. Thus, such activities as mechanical and meaningful practice were referred to this stage. The production stage aims at free communication and allows students to use the newly learnt grammar rules together with what they already know. Hence, communicative practice was included in this stage. The results of this step can be seen in the right column of the table in Appendix 3.

Let us now look in more detail at the sequences of the stages in each of the course books and evaluate what models of teaching are used in them. All the units in the *Face2face* series seem to follow almost the same sequence. Each of the units starts with the presentation of indirect reported speech. After some consciousness-raising activities and presentation of the rules, the treatment of the targeted grammar continues with some practice and ends with some production. This order of the stages signals that in the examined units of the *Face2face* series the traditional PPP model is used.

Before going to the analysis and evaluation of the teaching model in the *Outcomes* series it is important to point out that each of the selected units in the course books of this series has a reference to the grammar reference at the end of the student's books. This grammar reference includes rules, examples, and additional exercises. The use of the grammar reference seems to be optional since the teacher's books advise teachers to

use it if students seem unsure and need help. The activities from the grammar reference were marked as 'optional' in the table in Appendix 3. The sequencing of the stages in the selected units of the *Outcomes* course books was examined twice: once disregarding and once regarding the optional activities.

Let us start with the sequence that does not include the optional activities. The selected units in the *Outcomes* series also start with presentation of the targeted grammar item, i.e. indirect speech. The presentation stage is then followed by the practice stage, which is followed by some production. However, there are a few exceptions. For example, in the unit of the *Outcomes Advanced* course book, the presentation stage is followed by the production stage with no practice in between; and in Unit 9 in *Outcomes Pre-intermediate*, there is no production stage after the presentation and practice stages. In spite of these exceptions, a pattern similar to the one in the units of the *Face2face* course books can be seen in the selected units of the *Outcomes* series: presentation -> practice -> production. However, if in the *Face2face* series the sequence stops with the production stage, in the units of the *Outcomes* series it is usually followed by a presentation activity in the form of a grammar consciousness-raising task, which draws students' attention to the rules one more time. Therefore, the sequence of the stages in the analysed and evaluated units of the *Outcomes* series is the following: presentation -> practice -> production -> presentation. This order coincides with the order of Byrne's circular PPP model. Thus, it may be concluded that the selected units of the *Outcomes* course books use the circular PPP model for teaching indirect reported speech. However, this conclusion refers to the sequence where the optional grammar activities are omitted. If these extra activities are used, the sequence of the stages becomes more complex. Nevertheless, the order of the stages seems to stay almost the same: teaching starts with presentation, which might be followed by practice, as for example in Unit 15 in *Outcomes Intermediate*, or might be intertwined with practice, as for instance in Unit 9 in *Outcomes Pre-intermediate*. The presentation and practice stages are usually followed by the production stage, which is then followed by another round of presentation, where students do not formulate the rules but focus on them one more time in a grammar consciousness-raising activity. Therefore, it appears that regardless of whether the optional activities are used or not the analysed and evaluated units of the *Outcomes* series use the circular PPP model in teaching indirect reported speech.

A rather different model seems to be employed in unit 12 of *New Headway Intermediate*. The order of the stages in this unit appears to be quite chaotic. The unit

starts with presentation and practice activities used in rather random order. These presentation activities include only consciousness-raising, which draws students' attention to indirect reported speech. The grammar section with the rules and examples is provided only after approximately one third of the activities in the unit are completed. This is one of the main differences between the units in the other two series and the unit in *New Headway Intermediate*. If in the units in the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series the practice stage is always after the presentation stage, in Unit 12 in *New Headway Intermediate* several activities of the practice stage precede the presentation of the rules of indirect speech. Students need to do these practice activities using the cues from the grammar consciousness-raising and interpretation tasks. After the rules are finally introduced, some more presentation and practice activities are given. These activities are followed by one communicative practice task, which represents the production stage, and a set of other practice and presentation activities in random order. The sequence in *New Headway Intermediate* is rather complex and does not coincide with the sequence of the traditional PPP model, the circular PPP model or any other model that has a fixed order of stages. Two models discussed in Section 3.6 that are rather flexible in sequencing their components are the ARC (authentic use – restricted use – clarification) and ESA (engage – study – activate) models. Since the stages found in Unit 12 of *New Headway Intermediate* do not include the stage 'engage', it may be concluded that this unit uses Scrivener's ARC mode, which stages can be put in different sequences.

Overall, the analysis and evaluation of the models in the selected units showed that the course books use different models in the treatment of indirect speech. The units in the *Face2face* course books appear to employ the traditional PPP model. The units in the *Outcomes* textbooks seem to use Byrne's modified version of the PPP model – the circular PPP model. A different model is employed in the unit in *New Headway Intermediate*. In this unit, the ARC model is used. As has been discussed in Section 3.6, each of these three models includes communicative tasks and thus can be used in the framework of the communicative approach.

5.9.Deductive or inductive teaching

Another aim of this thesis was to investigate whether indirect reported speech is presented deductively or inductively in the selected units. As has been explained in Section 3.4, deductive teaching starts with rules provided by the teacher or in the course

book, and then continues with examples and practice of these rules. Inductive teaching starts with examples, and students are encouraged to discover and understand the rules with the help of these examples.

To investigate which of the approaches is/are used in the teaching of indirect reported speech in the selected course books, the grammar sections and grammar references of the units where indirect reported speech is attended to were examined. In addition, the activities that precede and follow the grammar sections were also looked at to get a better understanding of whether indirect reported speech is taught inductively or deductive.

In each of the analysed units of the *Face2face* series, indirect reported speech is introduced in a listening (in the form of a dialogue) or reading (for example, in the form of an e-mail) exercise, i.e. in context. Reporting verbs, which are considered to be a part of vocabulary but not grammar, and the verb patterns they take are introduced in reading exercises, which are followed by the ‘Help with vocabulary’ section. An example of this section is available in Figure 9.

HELP WITH VOCABULARY
Verb patterns (2): reporting verbs

a Look at the verbs in bold in the review and underline the verb form that follows them. Then write the infinitive form of the verbs in bold in the table.

<i>invite</i>	+ object + (<i>not</i>) + infinitive with <i>to</i>
<i>offer</i>	(+ <i>not</i>) + infinitive with <i>to</i>
<i>admit</i>	+ verb+ <i>ing</i>

b Check in **VOCABULARY 11.4** ➔ **p152**.

Figure 9. Vocabulary section (*Face2face Intermediate Student's Book 2013: 90*)

Otherwise, indirect reported speech is first introduced in listening exercises. The listening exercises are usually followed by one or two activities aimed at consciousness-raising and do not presuppose any explicit formulation of the rules. These activities are followed by the ‘Help with grammar’ section. An example of this section can be found in Figure 10.

HELP WITH GRAMMAR Reported speech: questions

a Look at the reported questions in **3a**. Choose the correct words/phrases in these rules.

- We *use/don't use* the auxiliaries *do, does* or *did* in reported questions.
- We use *if* or *whether* to report questions *with/without* a question word.
- We *always/sometimes/never* use an object (*me, him, etc.*) with *ask*.
- The changes in the verb forms in reported questions are *the same as/different from* reported sentences.

b Look again at the reported questions in **3a**. Then fill in the gaps with *asked, wanted, whether, question word, subject* or *verb*.

REPORTED WH- QUESTIONS

He/She _____ (me) | + _____ + subject + _____
He/She wanted to know

REPORTED YES/NO QUESTIONS

He/She asked (me) | + *if* or _____ + _____ + verb
He/She _____ to know

c Check in **GRAMMAR 11.2** p153.

Figure 10. Grammar section in *Face2face* (*Face2face Intermediate Student's Book* 2013: 88)

The 'Help with vocabulary/grammar' sections aim at the explicit formulation of the rules. These sections encourage students to employ the examples of the use of indirect reported speech from the listening or reading exercise, provide guiding questions and allow students to formulate the rules by themselves. At the end of each 'Help with vocabulary/grammar' section, there is a reference to the grammar/vocabulary reference at the end of the student's book, where students can check whether their formulations of the rules coincide with the actual rules. The grammar/vocabulary reference includes the same rules and examples as the 'Help with vocabulary/grammar' sections in the units. The 'Help with vocabulary/grammar' sections are usually followed by some practice activities.

The analysis of the grammar sections within the units in the *Face2face* series showed that they provide examples of the use of indirect speech and encourage students to formulate the rules by themselves with the help of these examples and some guiding questions. This can lead to the conclusion that the rules of indirect reported speech are presented inductively within the selected units. The grammar/vocabulary reference of the selected units given at the end of the student's books includes rules, which are followed by examples. Thus, in the grammar/vocabulary reference of the *Face2face* series, the rules of indirect speech are presented deductively. Overall, since the

grammar/vocabulary reference is used only to check whether the rules students have formulated by themselves are correct or not, it might be concluded that indirect reported speech is presented inductively in the selected units of the *Face2face* series.

In the *Outcomes* series, indirect reported speech is also initially introduced in listening exercises, but its further treatment differs from the one in the *Face2face* course books. The listening exercise is followed by a rather short grammar section, which includes one or two rules with or without examples. An example of the grammar section from one of the units in the *Outcomes* series can be found in Figure 11.

To report things people said, we often move 'one tense back'.

Present simple / continuous → Past simple / continuous

Present perfect → Past perfect

Past simple → Past perfect

Will → Would

Can → Could

Time expressions often change as well. For example:

This week → Last week / That week

Today → Yesterday / That day

'They entered England on June the 16th.'

→ The man I spoke to said my packages *had entered* England on June the 16th.

'They're going out this week.'

→ He said they *were going out* that week.

Figure 11. Grammar section in *Outcomes Pre-intermediate* Unit 12 (*Outcomes Pre-intermediate Student's Book* 2010: 86)

An only exception to this pattern was found in the grammar section in Unit 9 of *Outcomes Pre-intermediate*. In this section, students are asked to look at some examples from the listening exercise and to analyse what patterns are used after the verbs *to say*, *to tell*, and *to ask*. This grammar section can be found in Figure 12.

We use lots of different verbs to report what people say. The most common are *say*, *tell* and *ask*. Look at some of the patterns used with each verb:

The 'scientist' said (that) the experiment required them to continue. He then said (that) it was absolutely essential that they continued.

The 'scientist' told the 'teacher' to give the 'learner' an electric shock.

Milgram told them (that) the purpose of the experiments was to study memory and learning.

Many people asked to stop the experiment.

The 'teachers' asked the 'scientist' if he was sure.

Note that other patterns are also possible with these verbs.

Figure 12. Grammar section in *Outcomes Pre-intermediate* Unit 9 (*Outcomes Pre-intermediate Student's Book* 2010: 69)

The grammar sections in the *Outcomes* student's books are followed by a consciousness-raising or practice activity that is based on the listening exercises. After this activity, students are referred to the grammar section at the end of the student's book. The grammar section includes the rules provided in the grammar section within the unit, and some additional rules and examples. As has been already mentioned in Section 5.8, this reference to the grammar reference is optional. However, a brief overview of the activities showed that the rules and the examples in the grammar sections in the units might not always be enough to complete all activities. Thus, students might need to refer to the grammar reference at the end of the student's book.

Overall, the analysis of the grammar sections and grammar reference dedicated to the rules of indirect speech showed that although indirect reported speech is introduced in listening exercises, i.e. in context, the grammar sections do not refer to them, and usually include rules and sometimes examples but no guiding questions. The same pattern was found in the grammar reference. Therefore, it may be concluded that in the analysed and evaluated units of the *Outcomes* series indirect reported speech is taught deductively. An only exception was found in the grammar section of Unit 9 of the *Outcomes Pre-intermediate* course book, where students are encouraged to analyse some examples and formulate the rule by themselves employing the inductive approach.

As has been found out in Section 5.8, the treatment of indirect reported speech in Unit 12 of *New Headway Intermediate* is the only one among the analysed textbooks that requires students to use indirect reported speech before the rules are presented explicitly

in the student's book. Students are supposed to notice the rules without explicitly stating them in a grammar consciousness-raising activity, which provides separate sentences without any context, and to employ these rules in practice activities. These practice activities provide context as they include a coherent text instead of separate sentences. Only after some practice and consciousness-raising activities, is the grammar section provided. The grammar section is available in Figure 13.

GRAMMAR SPOT

1 When we report words or thoughts, we usually move the tense back.
 'I'm tired.' She said she **was** tired.
 Complete the reported speech.
 'I've seen the film before.' She told me _____.
 'You'll like it.' She was sure I _____.

2 What does *tell* mean in these two sentences?
 She **told me that** she loved me.
 She **told me to** go away.

3 When we report questions, there is no inversion, and no *do/does/did*.
 'Where do you live?' He **asked me where** I lived.
 Report these questions.
 'How long are you staying?' She **asked me** . . .
 'Do you know Mike?' She **wanted to know if** . . .

▶▶ **Grammar Reference 12.1–12.3 p146**

Figure 13. Grammar section in *New Headway* (*New Headway Intermediate Student's Book* 2012: 95)

In this grammar section, which is rather short, there are two rules, each of which is followed by an example and two short sentences where students need to apply these rules (number 1 and 3). There is also a guiding question and two examples, which allow students to formulate one more rule by themselves (number 2). At the end of the grammar section, there is a reference to the grammar reference at the end of the student's book. The grammar reference includes more rules, which are presented in more detail and with more examples. The grammar section in the unit is then followed by some more practice and consciousness-raising activities. A brief overview of the activities in the unit shows that students might have no reason to refer to the grammar reference. Almost each of the practice activities is followed by an interpretation task in the form of a listening exercise. These listening exercises allow students to check their answers in the practice activities and to review whether the rules they have constructed are correct. The teacher's book suggests teachers to refer students to the grammar

reference, but teachers and students can decide themselves whether the grammar reference should be consulted or not.

The analysis of the unit of *New Headway Intermediate* where indirect speech is presented showed that at the beginning of the unit students construct the rules by themselves with the help of consciousness-raising activities and then use these rules in practice activities. Thus, the rules of indirect reported speech are presented inductively. The grammar section in the unit provides rules and examples, or a guiding question and examples encouraging students to formulate the rule. Therefore, in the grammar section, the deductive and inductive approaches are used. However, the grammar section is very short and includes very few rules. Finally, the grammar reference at the end of the course book includes rules and examples and follows the principles of the deductive approach. In general, the treatment of indirect reported speech in *New Headway Intermediate* seems to be rather similar to the one in the *Face2face* series. Students are encouraged to construct the rules themselves and then they can check whether their rules are correct in the grammar reference at the end of the student's book. An only difference is that in the *Face2face* series, all the rules are stated explicitly within the units, and in *New Headway Intermediate*, the rules are only focused on within the unit itself, but they are explicitly stated only in the grammar reference. In spite of this difference, it may be concluded that in *New Headway Intermediate* indirect reported speech is also presented inductively.

In sum, the analysis and evaluation of the units in the selected course books showed that the analysed series have different views on whether indirect speech should be presented inductively or deductively. The *Face2face* series and *New Headway Intermediate* use the inductive approach, taking into account the specificities of teaching adults, while the *Outcomes* series uses deductive grammar teaching.

5.10. Discussion of the results

After providing the result of the study, it is possible to address the research questions, which are:

- How is indirect reported speech taught in the selected contemporary textbooks that adhere to the communicative approach and have adults as the target audience?

- What similarities and differences do the selected course books have in their approaches to teaching indirect reported speech?
- Which of the course books take(s) into account the specificities of teaching grammar in general and indirect speech in particular, the needs of the target audience, i.e. adults, and the features of the communicative approach?
- Which series might be more appropriate for teaching indirect speech to adults in the framework of the communicative approach?

The analysis and evaluation of how indirect reported speech is presented in the selected course books, described in Sections 5.4-5.9, showed that there are some differences and similarities in the treatment of this grammar item. In addition, the examined series may be characterised by different levels of adherence to the principles of the communicative approach and the specificities of adult learners.

As has been discussed before, adults might benefit from closer attention to grammar, the use of explicit teaching and consciousness-raising as adults are characterised by having better-developed cognitive skills. Each of the selected series takes into account these qualities. All of the course books pay thorough attention to grammar: each unit has a grammar section and there is a grammar reference at the end of each student's book. In all of the examined course books, the rules of indirect speech are mainly presented explicitly, and very few rules are left for implicit learning. In addition, each of the selected course books employs consciousness-raising and practice. *New Headway Intermediate* and the *Face2face* series also employ the inductive approach, which facilitates the acquisition of grammar with adult learners. The *Outcomes* series uses the deductive approach in teaching indirect reporting and thus does not consider the fact that adults prefer the inductive approach to the deductive one.

The next question that needs to be addressed is the adherence of the selected course books to the communicative approach. As has been established in Section 2.3, grammar teaching in CLT presupposes meaningful and communicative practice, pays special attention to meaning and use, and requires context. In the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series indirect reported speech is always introduced in listening or reading exercises, which provide context. In *New Headway Intermediate*, first, students encounter indirect speech in short sentences without any context, but later they are asked to complete exercises that include a longer text. Overall, all of the selected series provide context to indirect reported speech allowing students to see how this grammar item is used in real life situations. In addition, all of the examined series use meaningful and

communicative activities, and mechanical practice is less common in the treatment of indirect speech. The fact that communicative activities are used in all of the selected series proves that each of them sees grammar as resource, as an entity with three facets: form, meaning and use, but not only as a set of rules or forms. This fact also proves that the investigated series aim at the development of communicative competence, which presupposes not only the knowledge of forms and rules, but also the ability to use them in meaningful communication. Therefore, it seems that in terms of grammar teaching, each of the analysed series adheres to the main requirements of the communicative approach. It is also worth mentioning that the series employ different models of teaching in the treatment of indirect speech: *Face2face* uses the traditional PPP model, *Outcomes* follows the circular PPP version, and *New Headway* employs the ARC model. Each of the models includes the attention to authentic use and communication and thus can be used in the communicative approach.

Regarding the principles of teaching grammar in general and the specificities of indirect reported speech, researchers recommend employing the cyclical approach and to start with simpler rules, gradually introducing more complex ones at later levels. The *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series use the cyclical principle and address indirect reported speech at several levels, starting with the pre-intermediate course books. Although there are a few differences in the application of the cyclical principle in these two series (for example, at how many levels indirect speech is revised, whether it is taken up once or several times at one level, what rules are presented at each level), the treatment of indirect speech in them starts with simpler rules, for example reporting statement, and gradually becomes more difficult, for instance reporting questions. Unfortunately, *New Headway* does not employ the cyclical principle. In this series, indirect reported speech is introduced only at the intermediate level and is not revised later. However, although in all of the analysed and evaluated series indirect reported speech is introduced in a different number of units and levels, each of the series introduces a majority of the rules of indirect reporting. Finally, each of the examined series primarily employs the pedagogical approach to backshifting and treats this phenomenon as a mechanical transformation. However, each of the course books also provides some exceptions that occur due to pragmatic or contextual reasons, perhaps trying to integrate the pedagogical and linguistic approaches and to suit different cognitive skills of students.

Overall, in spite of the fact that all of the selected series seem to be suitable for teaching indirect speech to adults in the framework of the communicative approach, the

Face2face series appears to be a more appropriate one. This series includes CR and such practice activities as communicative and meaningful practice. It also uses the explicit and inductive approaches in teaching indirect speech. Finally, it follows the spiral approach and introduces indirect speech in context several times within the series, starting with simple rules and gradually introducing the ones that are more difficult. The *New Headway* series might benefit from employing the spiral principle in the treatment of indirect speech as students forget grammar rather quickly if it is not revised. The *Outcomes* series should use the inductive approach, which is more suitable for adults.

6. Conclusion

Grammar appears to be a very controversial aspect of ELT. Even the definition of the term may vary, depending on what perspective, narrow or broad, one applies. In ELT grammar has been seen as a set of forms, a set of rules and resource for communication that includes such dimensions as form, meaning and use (Larsen-Freeman 2001: 252). This last approach to grammar seems to be rather popular nowadays, especially within the frame of the communicative approach, which considers grammatical competence an essential part of communicative competence (Council of Europe 2001: 109). In terms of teaching grammar, communicative language teaching addresses not only form, but also meaning and use, and underlines the importance of meaningful and communicative activities (Savignon 2005: 640; Whong 2011: 130). In addition, the communicative approach pays special attention to the introduction of grammar in context (Wajnryb 1990: 13 referred to in Summer 2011: 117).

The analysis of the literature showed that there are many controversial points in grammar teaching and there are still no clear answers to how grammar should be taught (Ellis 1997; Ellis 2006; Purpura 2004; Stern 1992). The choice of a particular method may depend on a variety of factors, such as who and what is being taught. For instance, adults benefit from more careful attention to grammar (Brown 2001), inductive and explicit teaching (Purpura 2004) and consciousness-raising (Ellis 2002a: 169) due to their cognitive specificities. In addition, since indirect reported speech is a complex grammar item that includes many rules, the rules should be introduced gradually and be revised at different levels (Martin 1978; Woods 1995).

In this thesis, the following aspects of grammar teaching were analysed and evaluated, taking into account the target audience, i.e. adults, the communicative approach and the targeted grammar item, i.e. indirect reported speech:

- At what level(s) indirect reported speech is first introduced;
- Whether the cyclical approach is employed in the treatment of indirect reported speech;
- What rules of indirect reported speech are introduced;
- Whether the linguistic or pedagogical approach to backshifting is employed;
- Whether indirect speech is taught implicitly or explicitly;
- Whether CR or practice activities are used in the treatment of indirect speech;
- What types of CR and practice activities are employed;
- What model is used in teaching indirect reported speech;

- Whether indirect speech is treated inductively or deductively.

For the evaluation, three textbook series were chosen: *Outcomes*, *Face2face* and *New Headway*. Each of these series adheres to the communicative approach and was designed to teach adults.

The mentioned aspects were examined in these series to answer the main research questions:

- How is indirect reported speech taught in the selected contemporary textbooks that adhere to the communicative approach and have adults as the target audience?
- What similarities and differences do the selected course books have in their approaches to teaching indirect reported speech?
- Which of the course books take(s) into account the specificities of teaching grammar in general and indirect speech in particular, the needs of the target audience, i.e. adults, and the principles of the communicative approach?
- Which series might be more appropriate for teaching indirect speech to adults in the framework of the communicative approach?

The analysis and evaluation showed that the indirect reported speech is taught rather differently in the selected course books. Nevertheless, all of the selected series seem to adhere to the main principles of the communicative approach. They provide context for the use of indirect speech and employ meaningful practice. In addition, the selected series uses the models of teaching that include communicative practice, and thus the *Face2face*, *Outcomes* and *New Headway* series treat grammar as a resource, but not as a set of rules or forms. The *Face2face* and *New Headway* series seem to consider the cognitive specificities of adult learners, using CR and explicit teaching. However, only the *Face2face* and *New Headway* course books employ the inductive approach, which is more suitable for adults. The *Outcomes* series follows the deductive approach. Finally, only the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series employ the spiral approach and gradually introduce the rules of indirect speech at three and four levels respectively. In the *New Headway* series, indirect reported speech is taken up only once, at the intermediate level, where all the rules are introduced at once. In spite of the fact that the analysed series address grammar at a different number of levels, they all cover a majority of the rules of indirect reporting. In addition, they all mainly use the pedagogical approach to backshifting, but also mention several exceptions based on the linguistic approach.

Among the three series, the *Face2face* textbooks may be considered a more appropriate for adults. This series takes into account the specificities of teaching grammar in general and indirect speech in particular, the cognitive processes of adults and the principles of the communicative approach.

In conclusion, it is important to point out that these findings concern only how indirect reported speech is presented in the three selected series. There might be other EFL series that offer even more effective approaches to teaching this grammar item. Finally, this thesis does not aim at establishing which of the series is more successful in terms of teaching indirect reported speech in the classroom. For this, an additional study is necessary.

7. References

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Course books

Face2face

Pre-Intermediate

- Redston, Chris. 2012. *Face2face. Pre-intermediate [B1]: Teacher's book [with DVD]*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Redston, Chris; Cunningham, Gillie. 2012. *Face2face. Pre-intermediate [B1]: Student's book [with DVD]*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tims, Nicholas. 2012. *Face2face. Pre-intermediate [B1]: Workbook with answer key*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Intermediate

- Redston, Chris. 2013. *Face2face. Intermediate [B1+]: Teacher's book [with DVD]*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Redston, Chris; Cunningham, Gillie. 2013. *Face2face. Intermediate [B1+]: Student's book [with DVD]*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tims, Nicholas. 2013. *Face2face. Intermediate [B1+]: Workbook with answer key*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Upper Intermediate

- Redston, Chris. 2013. *Face2face. Upper intermediate [B2]: Teacher's book [with DVD]*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Redston, Chris; Cunningham, Gillie. 2013. *Face2face. Upper intermediate [B2]: Student's book [with DVD]*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Tims, Nicholas; Bell, Jan. 2013. *Face2face. Upper intermediate [B2]: Workbook with answer key*. (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

New Headway

Intermediate

- Soars, Liz; Soars, John. 2012. *New headway. Intermediate: Student's book*. (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Soars, Liz; Soars, John. 2012. *New headway. Intermediate: Workbook*. (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Soars, Liz; Soars, John; Maris, Amanda. 2009. *New headway. Intermediate: Teacher's book*. (4th ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Outcomes

Pre-Intermediate

- Dellar, Hugh; Walkley, Andrew. 2010. *Outcomes. Pre-intermediate [B1]: Student's book*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- Garside, Barbara. 2011. *Outcomes. Pre-intermediate [B1]: Teacher's book*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- Nuttall, Carol; Evans, David. 2011. *Outcomes. Pre-intermediate [B1]: Workbook*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.

Intermediate

- Dellar, Hugh; Walkley, Andrew. 2010. *Outcomes. Intermediate [B1+]: Student's book*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- Garside, Barbara. 2010. *Outcomes. Intermediate [B1+]: Teacher's book*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- Maris, Amanda. 2010. *Outcomes. Pre-intermediate [B1+]: Workbook*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.

Upper Intermediate

- Dellar, Hugh; Walkley, Andrew. 2010. *Outcomes. Upper intermediate [B2]: Student's book*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- Maris, Amanda. 2010. *Outcomes. Upper intermediate [B2]: Workbook*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- Nuttall, Carol; Evans, David. 2010. *Outcomes. Upper intermediate [B2]: Teacher's book*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.

Advanced

- Dellar, Hugh; Walkley, Andrew. 2012. *Outcomes. Advanced [C1]: Student's book*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- Garside, Barbara. 2012. *Outcomes. Advanced [C1]: Teacher's book*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.
- Nuttall, Carol; French, Amanda. 2012. *Outcomes. Advanced [C1]: Workbook*. Andover: Heinle, Cengage Learning.

8. Appendices

Appendix 1. Rules of indirect speech introduced in the textbooks

			Face2face			New Headway	Outcomes			
			Pre-intermediate	Intermediate	Upper Intermediate	Intermediate	Pre-intermediate	Intermediate	Upper Intermediate	Advanced
Basic features										
When to use	To report what was said		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	To report what was written									
	To report thoughts/feelings					+				
	To report main idea			+		+		+	+	+
Punctuation			+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Intonation			+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Conjunction that	Optional		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	Cannot be omitted									
Structure	Statements	that-clause	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
		infinitive clause		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
		-ing clause		+	+			+	+	+
		noun/noun phrase							+	+
		one verb – several patterns		+	+	+	+	+	+	+
	Request	that-clause		+	+					
		infinitive clause		+	+	+	+			
	Orders			+	+	+	+			

Backshifting								
Present Simple -> Past Simple	+	+	+	+	+	+		
Present Continuous -> Past Continuous	+	+	+	+	+	+		
Present Perfect -> Past Perfect		+	+	+	+	+		
Past Simple -> Past Perfect		Optional	Optional	+	+			
Past Cont. -> Past Perfect Cont.			+					
Past Perfect			No shift					
Past Perfect Continuous			No shift					
will -> would	+	+	+	+	+	+		
would		No shift	No shift					
can -> could	+	+	+	+	+	+		
could		No shift	No shift					
may -> might		+		+				
might		No shift	No shift	No shift		No shift		
shall								
must		had to	had to	Optional		had to		
have to -> had to						+		
should		No shift	No shift	No shift		No shift		
ought to		No shift	No shift					
used to						No shift		
needn't								
had better								
Reporting verb in present tense				No shift				
No backshifting	Still true/relates to the future		Optional	Optional	No shift	Optional	Optional	Optional
	Immediate report							
	General fact		Optional	Optional				
Deictic shifts								
Personal pronouns	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Demonstrative pronouns								
Possessive adjective/pronouns	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+
Adverbs of time		+	+		+			
Adverbs of place								
Reporting verbs								
Say vs. tell	+	+	+	+	+			

Other reporting verbs		+	+	+		+	+	+
Nouns used for reporting								+
Predicated adjectives used for reporting								
Phrases used for reporting								
Reporting questions								
When to use: to report questions		+	+	+	+			
no auxiliary verbs do/does/did		+	+	+	+			
if/whether for yes/no questions		+	+	+	+ (only if)			
asked + (obj)		+	+	+	+			
Backshifting		+	+	+	+			
Direct word order		+	+	+	+			
Punctuation		+	+	+	+			
Intonation		+	+	+	+			
How many rules in a course book	12	40	41	35	28	23	13	15
How many rules in a series	43			35	37			

Appendix 2. Explicit and implicit approach to teaching the rules of indirect reported speech

			Face2face			New Headway	Outcomes			
			Pre-Intermediate	Intermediate	Upper-Intermediate	Intermediate	Pre-Intermediate	Intermediate	Upper-Intermediate	Advanced
Basic features										
When to use	To report what was said		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly
	To report what was written									
	To report thoughts/feelings					explicitly				
	To report main idea			explicitly		explicitly		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly
Punctuation			implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly
Intonation			implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly
Conjunction that		Optional	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly
		Cannot be omitted								
Structure	Statements	that-clause	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly
		infinitive clause		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly
		-ing clause		explicitly	explicitly			explicitly	explicitly	explicitly
		noun/noun phrase							explicitly	explicitly
		one verb – several patterns		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly
	Request	that-clause		explicitly	explicitly					
		infinitive clause		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly			
	Orders (infinitive clause)			explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly			
	Backshifting									
Present Simple -> Past Simple			explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly		
Present Continuous -> Past Continuous			explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly		
Present Perfect -> Past Perfect				explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly		
Past Simple -> Past Perfect				explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly			
Past Cont. -> Past Perfect Cont.					explicitly					
Past Perfect					explicitly					

Past Perfect Continuous			explicitly					
will -> would	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly		
would		explicitly	explicitly					
can -> could	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly		
could		explicitly	explicitly					
may -> might		explicitly		explicitly				
might		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly		explicitly		
shall								
must		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly		explicitly		
have to -> had to						explicitly		
should		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly		explicitly		
ought to		explicitly	explicitly					
used to						explicitly		
needn't								
had better								
Reporting verb in present tense				explicitly				
No backshifting	Still true/relates to the future		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly
	Immediate reports							
	General fact		explicitly	explicitly				
Deictic shifts								
Personal pronouns	explicitly	explicitly	implicitly	implicitly	explicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly
Demonstrative pronouns								
Possessive adjective/pronouns	explicitly	explicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly
Adverbs of time		explicitly	explicitly		explicitly			
Adverbs of place								
Reporting verbs								
Say vs. tell	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly			
Other reporting verbs		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly
Nouns used for reporting								explicitly
Predicated adjectives used for reporting								
Phrases used for reporting								
Reporting questions								
When to use: to report questions		explicitly	implicitly	explicitly	implicitly			
no auxiliary verbs <i>do/does/did</i>		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly			
<i>if/whether</i> for <i>yes/no</i> questions		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly			

asked + (obj)		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly			
Backshifting		explicitly	explicitly	implicitly	implicitly			
Direct word order		explicitly	explicitly	explicitly	explicitly			
Punctuation		explicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly			
Intonation		implicitly	implicitly	implicitly	implicitly			

Appendix 3. Stages of the treatment of indirect reported speech

Face2face		
Pre-intermediate		
	1. An interpretation task 2. A grammar consciousness-raising task 3. Grammar section 4. A mechanical practice activity 5. A meaningful practice activity 6. An interpretation task 7. A communicative practice activity 8. TB: a communicative practice activity	1. Presentation 2. Presentation 3. Presentation 4. Practice 5. Practice 6. Presentation 7. Production 8. Production
Intermediate		
11A	1. An interpretation task 2. A grammar consciousness-raising task 3. Grammar section 4. A mechanical practice activity 5. A meaningful practice activity 6. An interpretation task 7. A communicative practice activity	1. Presentation 2. Presentation 3. Presentation 4. Practice 5. Practice 6. Presentation 7. Production
11B	Questions 1. An interpretation task 2. A grammar consciousness-raising task 3. Grammar section 4. A mechanical practice activity 5. A meaningful practice activity Requests and imperatives 1. Grammar section 2. A meaningful practice activity 3. A communicative practice activity 4. TB: a communicative practice activity	Questions 1. Presentation 2. Presentation 3. Presentation 4. Practice 5. Practice Requests and imperatives 1. Presentation 2. Practice 3. Production 4. Production
11C	1. An interpretation task 2. Vocabulary section 3. A meaningful practice activity 4. TB: a meaningful practice activity	1. Presentation 2. Presentation 3. Practice 4. Practice
Upper Intermediate		
11B	1. An interpretation task 2. Grammar section 3. A meaningful practice activity 4. An interpretation task 5. A grammar consciousness-raising/meaningful task 6. A communicative practice activity 7. TB: a meaningful practice activity	1. Presentation 2. Presentation 3. Practice 4. Presentation 5. Presentation/ Practice 6. Production 7. Practice
11C	1. An interpretation task 2. Vocabulary section 3. A meaningful practice activity 4. TB: a communicative practice activity	1. Presentation 2. Presentation 3. Practice 4. Production
New Headway		
Intermediate		
	1. A grammar consciousness-raising task 2. A mechanical practice activity 3. An interpretation task 4. A grammar consciousness-raising task 5. A meaningful practice activity 6. An interpretation task	1. Presentation 2. Practice 3. Presentation 4. Presentation 5. Practice 6. Presentation

7. A mechanical practice activity		7. Practice
8. An interpretation activity		8. Presentation
9. A mechanical practice activity		9. Practice
10. Grammar section		10. Presentation
11. A meaningful practice activity		11. Practice
12. An interpretation task		12. Presentation
13. A mechanical practice activity		13. Practice
14. A meaningful practice activity		14. Practice
15. An interpretation task		15. Presentation
16. A communicative practice activity		16. Production
17. An interpretation task		17. Presentation
18. An interpretation task		18. Presentation
19. A meaningful practice activity		19. Practice
20. An interpretation task		20. Presentation
21. A meaningful practice activity		21. Practice
22. An interpretation task		22. Presentation
23. A grammar consciousness-raising/meaningful task		23. Presentation/Practice
Outcomes		
Pre-intermediate		
9	1. Grammar section 2. A meaningful practice activity Optional: Grammar section Optional: A meaningful practice activity Optional: A grammar consciousness-raising/meaningful task 3. A meaningful practice activity 4. TB: a meaningful practice activity	1. Presentation 2. Practice Optional: Presentation Optional: Practice Optional: Presentation/ Practice 3. Practice 4. Practice
12	1. Grammar section 2. A mechanical practice activity Optional: Grammar section Optional: A meaningful practice activity 3. A meaningful practice activity 4. A grammar consciousness-raising task 5. A communicative practice activity 6. A communicative practice activity 7. TB: a grammar consciousness-raising task	1. Presentation 2. Practice Optional: Presentation Optional: Practice 3. Practice 4. Presentation 5. Production 6. Production 7. Presentation
Intermediate		
Reported speech 1. Grammar section 2. A grammar consciousness-raising task Optional: Grammar section Optional: A meaningful practice activity 3. A mechanical practice activity 4. A communicative practice activity Reporting verbs 1. Grammar section 2. A grammar consciousness-raising task Optional: Grammar section Optional: A meaningful practice activity 3. A communicative practice activity 4. TB: a grammar consciousness-raising task		Reported speech 1. Presentation 2. Presentation Optional: Presentation Optional: Practice 3. Practice 4. Production Reporting verbs 1. Presentation 2. Presentation Optional: Presentation Optional: Practice 3. Production 4. Presentation
Upper Intermediate		
1. Grammar section 2. A meaningful practice activity Optional: Grammar section Optional: A grammar consciousness-raising/meaningful task 3. A mechanical practice activity 4. A communicative practice activity		1. Presentation 2. Practice Optional: Presentation Optional: Presentation/ Practice 3. Practice 4. Production

5. A communicative practice activity	5. Production
6. TB: A meaningful practice activity	6. Practice
Advanced	
1. Grammar section	1. Presentation
2. A grammar consciousness-raising task	2. Presentation
3. An interpretation task	3. Presentation
4. A communicative practice task	4. Production
Optional: Grammar section	Optional: Presentation
Optional: A meaningful practice activity	Optional: Practice
Optional: A meaningful practice activity	Optional: Practice
Optional: A meaningful practice activity	Optional: Practice
5. TB: A grammar consciousness-raising task	5. Presentation

9. Abstract

This thesis evaluates how indirect reported speech is treated in contemporary EFL textbooks that target adults and adhere to the communicative approach. The theoretical part includes three sections. The first section provides information on what grammar is and argues that it plays an important role in communicative competence, and thus it should be attended to in teaching. Consequently, in the second section of the theoretical part, main controversies in the teaching of grammar are discussed. The controversies are analysed taking into account the facts that the target audience of the evaluated textbooks is adults and that the selected textbooks comply with the communicative approach. On this basis, the principles of teaching grammar that are more appropriate for teaching adults in the framework of communicative language teaching are selected. The third section of the theoretical part is devoted to indirect reported speech and how it is treated in linguistics in general and in applied linguistics in particular.

The empirical part of the thesis includes an in-depth evaluation of the textbooks series *New Headway*, *Face2face* and *Outcomes* regarding the controversies and principles discussed in the theoretical part. The results of the evaluation show that, although the course books adhere to the communicative approach and target adult learners, there are some similarities and differences in the treatment of indirect reported speech in the three series. Each of the series follows the principles of the communicative approach and uses meaningful and communicative activities and provides context for the use of indirect speech. In addition, all the series take into account the cognitive specificities of adults and include explicit presentation of the rules of indirect speech and activities that aim at consciousness-raising and practice. However, only *New Headway* and *Face2face* employ the inductive approach to teaching indirect speech, while *Outcomes*, contrary to the recommendations, follows the deductive approach. Finally, if the *Face2face* and *Outcomes* series conform to the general principles of grammar teaching and follow the cyclical approach and start with simpler rules, in the *New Headway* series indirect speech is taken up only at one level and is not revised later. Overall, the *Face2face* series seems to employ a more appropriate approach to teaching indirect speech to adults in the framework of the communicative approach. However, these conclusions refer only to how indirect reported speech is presented in the textbooks. This thesis does not strive to investigate how these course books are used in the classroom settings or which of the series leads to better learning of indirect speech.

10. Zusammenfassung

Die vorliegende Masterarbeit versucht zu bewerten, wie indirekte Rede in zeitgenössischen englischen Lehrbüchern dargestellt wird, die für Erwachsene konzipiert sind und sich am kommunikativen Ansatz orientieren. Der Theorieteil besteht aus drei Abschnitten, wobei Abschnitt 1 erklärt, was Grammatik überhaupt ist. Darüberhinaus argumentiert er, dass Grammatik eine wichtige Rolle in kommunikativer Kompetenz spielt und ihr deshalb im Unterricht Raum geschenkt werden muss. Die Hauptkontroversen des Grammatikunterrichts werden im zweiten Abschnitt des Theorieteil diskutiert. Dabei kommen sowohl die oben erwähnte Erwachsenenorientierung als auch der kommunikative Ansatz der Lehrbücher zum Tragen. Auf Grundlage dieser Diskussion werden schließlich die geeignetsten Prinzipien des kommunikationsbasierten Grammatikunterrichts für Erwachsene selektiert. Der dritte Abschnitt des Theorieteils schließlich behandelt die Frage, wie die indirekte Rede in der Sprachwissenschaft und der angewandten Sprachwissenschaft diskutiert wird.

Der empirische Teil basiert auf einer Tiefenevaluation der zeitgenössischen Lehrbuchreihen *New Headway*, *Face2face* und *Outcomes* in Bezug auf die im Theorieteil erörterten Kontroversen und Prinzipien. Die Ergebnisse der Bewertung zeigen, dass, obwohl die analysierten Bücher am kommunikativen Ansatz festhalten, es einige Ähnlichkeiten und Unterschiede in der Behandlung der indirekten Rede zwischen den Lehrbüchern gibt. Jedes der untersuchten Lehrbücher folgt den Prinzipien des kommunikativen Ansatzes und nutzt sinnvolle sowie kommunikative Aktivitäten, die darüberhinaus auch einen Kontext für die Nutzung der indirekten Rede bieten. Außerdem berücksichtigen alle Lehrbuchreihen die kognitiven Besonderheiten der Erwachsenen und beinhalten eine explizite Darstellung der Regeln der indirekten Rede und Aktivitäten, die sowohl Bewusstseinsbildung als auch praktischen Nutzen anstreben. *New Headway* und *Face2face* Reihen verwenden dabei den induktiven Ansatz für die indirekte Rede. *Outcomes* jedoch folgt, entgegen der Empfehlungen, dem deduktiven Ansatz. Den allgemeinen Grundsätzen des Grammatikunterrichts hingegen entsprechen nur die Lehrbuchreihen *Face2face* und *Outcomes*. Diese folgen dem zyklischen Ansatz und beginnen mit einfachen Regeln, deren Komplexität sukzessive gesteigert wird. *New Headway* hingegen präsentiert alle Regeln als eine einzige Einheit, ohne diese später noch einmal zu wiederholen. Insgesamt scheint es

deshalb, als ob die *Face2face*-Reihe einen geeigneteren Umgang mit dem Unterricht der indirekten Rede für Erwachsene im Rahmen des kommunikativen Ansatzes verwendet.

Es ist jedoch wichtig darauf hinzuweisen, dass diese Schlussfolgerungen sich nur darauf beziehen, wie die indirekte Rede in den Lehrbüchern dargestellt wird. Die vorliegende Masterarbeit strebt dabei nicht an zu untersuchen, wie diese Lehrbücher in den Klassenzimmern verwendet werden oder welche Serie zum besseren Lernen der indirekten Rede führt.

11. Curriculum Vitae

Persönliche Daten

Name: Darya Shitova
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Ausbildung

Seit SS 2013 – MA English Language and Linguistics an der Universität Wien
SS 2011 Semester an der Universität Tromsø in Tromsø, Norwegen
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Berufserfahrung

Seit 2015 – Sprachtrainerin für Russisch (*Learn Personal*)
Seit 2012 – Sprachtrainerin für Englisch (*English-and-Skype*)

Besondere Kenntnisse

EDV-Kenntnisse MS Office, R
Sprachkenntnisse Russisch – Muttersprache
Englisch – C2
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