Shopfront to Western Front

INFORMATION FOR TEACHERS
Schedule for the day

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session</th>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Location</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Session 1</td>
<td>Time line activity</td>
<td>Classroom 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 2</td>
<td>Archaeological dig site tour</td>
<td>Big Dig Archaeological site</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 3</td>
<td>Artefact analysis activity</td>
<td>Classroom 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bathroom facilities and bag storage are available at the education centre.
‘The Big Dig’ was the popular name used for the Cumberland and Gloucester Streets archaeological excavation that took place in 1994. It is Australia’s largest urban archaeological site and plays an on-going historical and educational role. Over a million artefacts have been recovered from the site, revealing the style and manner in which people lived in colonial Australia in the 18th and 19th centuries.

The Big Dig site, between Cumberland and Gloucester Streets in The Rocks, is an area of land containing archaeological remains from the late 18th century, the time of Australia’s first European settlement.

Archaeological excavations began in 1994 and attracted enormous media and public attention. A dedicated team of 20 archaeologists, assisted by over 400 volunteers, worked on what was known as ‘The Big Dig’. It remains one of the largest urban archaeological excavations in Australia. The team uncovered the foundations of over 30 homes and shops, the earliest built in around 1795, and over 750,000 artefacts. The site provides a rare insight into early urban life in Sydney.
The pre-European landscape and the Gadigal people

The Rocks, as its name suggests, is a rocky peninsula jutting out into Sydney Harbour. The area was known as Tallawoladah by the Gadigal people (of the Eora Nation). No remnants of the Gadigals’ presence were found on The Big Dig site, perhaps because the ruggedness of the sandstone would have made it a fairly harsh and exposed area. However, not far up Cumberland Street, a campfire dating to almost 300 years before the arrival of the Europeans was uncovered during the construction of the ANA Hotel (now the Shangri-La Hotel). Among the ashes of the fire were the bones of bream, snapper, oysters and other seafood.

Arrival of the Europeans

The Rocks became home to many of the convicts who arrived in 1788 with the First Fleet. The ridges, known as “the lines”, were named after the lines of tents and huts that housed the new arrivals. These people set about transforming the rugged area by cutting, terracing and draining the landscape. Tracks leading up from Sydney Cove were cut into the rocks, including Cribbs Lane, The Big Dig site’s first lane-way.

Early residents on The Big Dig site

The names of the earliest European occupants of the area are unknown. In 1795 two convicts, George Legg and Ann Armsden, built a slab hut on the site. George drowned in a boating accident in 1807, and Ann married a local baker, George Talbot, in 1810. Together they rebuilt on the site, constructing a small two room cottage with an addition room behind that had a large fireplace and deep water cistern, so may have been used as a small bakery.
Irish rebel, Richard Byrne, lived on the site from around 1805. Richard was a stonemason and appears to have quarried parts of the site for stone to build the foundations for his weatherboard cottage. It appears many of the earlier houses on the site were constructed from the very same stone they were being built upon. Richard, his convict wife Margaret and their family of seven children lived in this house until the 1850s. Their descendants continue to live in Sydney today.

Horns and bones, 1994 (GML Heritage)

From 1809 to the late 1820s, George Cribb lived on the site, building a handsome two storied Georgian house on the southeast side of Cribbs Lane. George was typical of many early convicts who prospered from the opportunities of the new colony. Though a convict on a 14 year sentence, he ran his own butchering business, slaughtering cattle, sheep and pigs to sell as meat to the colony and to the ships leaving Sydney. As Cribb’s fortune grew, he built a row of four tenements, which he rented out to other convicts and settlers. His slaughterhouse was in the centre of his property and took up the majority of land on the southern end of the site. It was here that he buried the discarded skulls, horns and bones of the slaughtered animals, poisoning his first water well in the process. Around 1818 a number of household items were discarded down his disused water well, including fine hand-painted Chinese porcelain, a sharp butcher’s filleting knife and a small alcohol still. George had been under surveillance on suspicion of dealing in illegally produced alcohol, which was effectively used as currency. He was arrested, but no evidence could be found to convict him – until the archaeologists found his still 180 years later! By the late 1820s George was in financial difficulties and was declared bankrupt. His property was purchased by land speculators ‘Raine & Ramsay’, who created Carahers Lane and sold the land off in smaller subdivided lots. In 1830 George’s former home was re-developed into a larger building with stables behind, later known as the Whalers Arms Hotel.
Subdivision and Development

Albert John Nicholas bought the land on Cumberland Street front of the site, building five cottages over the former quarry. On Carahers Lane six two storey terraces were built, and by 1850 three more were built on Cribbs Lane. Over the next 70 years, these and other houses on the site were occupied by immigrant families from England, Ireland and from across Europe.

In many of these houses, rubbish was disposed of under the floorboards. It is this rubbish (roughly 40 centimetres deep, built up over 50-80 years) that tells us much about the daily lives of the people that lived on the site. They ate well, serving their food on fine china; beef, lamb, oysters, fish, chicken and duck, and they dressed their salads and vegetables with oils, pickles and chutneys. Their houses were decorated with figurines and vases of flowers and sometimes with cowry shells and colourful coral. They sewed their own clothes, wore fashionable jewelry and smoked clay pipes. Their children played with dolls, miniature tea sets, marbles, toy soldiers, chess and dominoes.

The Byrne family had also sold off their land bit by bit in the 1840s and 50s. At the top of Cribbs Lane, Robert Berry established a bakery in 1844. Families in the neighbourhood often took their Sunday roast dinners to Berry’s Bakery to be cooked in the large ovens. On the other side of the lane, Robert’s sister Jane, and her husband Thomas Share, operated a pub called the Plymouth Inn, later called The Australian. When it was demolished in 1913 a new Australian Hotel was built nearby, and this remains next to The Big Dig site today.
1900 – Bubonic Plague

When bubonic plague arrived in Sydney in 1900, it was thought the densely occupied area of The Rocks would be hit hard. After the 1850s, Sydney was spreading out into the suburbs and many people no longer considered the old parts of the city to be healthy. The Rocks became known as a “slum”. While piped water and sewerage had been connected to the site since the 1850s, negligent landlords had allowed the systems to fall into disrepair. Some of the houses were 70-100 years old and had been poorly maintained.
The total number of deaths from plague in NSW was just over a hundred, and of these only three people died in The Rocks. However one of those was a 15 year old boy called James Foy, who lived with his family on The Big Dig site in a terrace on Cribbs Lane. He most likely contracted bubonic plague on the waterfront, where he worked as a paperboy. Large areas of The Rocks were condemned to demolition and, after being bought out by the New South Wales State Government in 1901, the site was gradually cleared. Some people who lived on the site stayed on in The Rocks, whilst other moved out to the suburbs.

![Carpark, 1980s (Property NSW)](image)

**1917-1994**

Large scale corrugated iron engineering sheds stood on the site from 1917 to the 1930s, the heavy concrete footings visible around the site. In the 1950s the site was cleared, covered with bitumen and used as a bus depot, and later as a car-park. The bitumen effectively sealed and protected the archaeological remains below, providing an extraordinary opportunity to examine this record of the past when the site was excavated in 1994.

**1994 till today**

The site was closed to the general public from 1994 to 2009. Further archaeological excavations were undertaken on sections of the site in 2005, 2006 and 2008. In September 2008 construction of Sydney Harbour YHA and The Big Dig Archaeology Education Centre began, with first guests staying at the hostel on the 31st October 2009. The hostel and The Big Dig Archaeology Education Centre were officially opened on the 7th April 2010.
The Foy Family

The Foy family lived in The Rocks for over twenty years. During that time they occupied three different houses within the area that is now known as the Big Dig Archaeological site.

TIMELINE

1883
17 April 1833 - Marriage of James Foy to Margaret McCann (in Brisbane)

1884
Birth of Margaret Foy (daughter)

1886
Birth of James Foy (son)

1889
Birth of Hugh Foy (son)

1892
Birth of Marion Foy (daughter)

1895
Birth of William John Foy (son)

1896
18th April - James Foy (son) involved in gunpowder accident. If this is our James he would have been 10 years old.

1897
July - James Foy (father) charged with trying to commit suicide - cited as 'family troubles'.

1899
Birth of Iris Foy

1902
Death of James Foy (son) - dies of bubonic plague at Little Bay Hospital

1905
Birth of James Foy (baby)

1907
Death of James Foy (baby)

1915
12th Feb – Hugh Foy joins up

25th June – Private Hugh Foy leaves Melbourne on HMAT Ceramic with 19 Infantry Battalion. On the nominal roll he gives his trade as ‘Labourer’, his marital status as single, his religion Church of England, date of joining 12th Feb 1915, and his address same as his father – 92 Millers Point, Sydney.
1916

25th January – Hugh Foy promoted to Corporal

1st June - Private William Foy, Age 22, Labourer, Roman Catholic, enlists. Gives his father, James Foy, 92 Princess-street, Miller’s Point, NSW as next of kin.


1917

24th January - William John Foy leaves Sydney on HMAT Anchises with 34 Infantry Battalion – 7 and 8 Reinforcements

20th February – Hugh Foy embarks on ship returning him to Australia

16th October – Hugh Foy discharged from service

1918

30th May - Private William John Foy is killed in action, aged 24.

1924

4th July - Death of James Foy (father) at 69 years.

1928

1 Oct 1928 – Marriage of Elizabeth Marion Foy (28) to John Henry Jackson (43) in Melbourne, Victoria

1947

17 June 1947 - Death of Margaret Foy, aged 80 (born 1867), mother of 'late James Foy and dearly loved mother of Hugh, Bess (Mrs J. Jackson), Iris and Nell.'

1961

Hugh Foy applies for war wounded repatriation pension benefits.

1964

24th August 1964 - Death of Hugh Foy aged 74 years.

1969

Death of a Helen Margaret Foy

1974

9th Oct 1974 - Death of Elizabeth Marion Jackson (nee Foy) aged 79 years.
The Industrial Revolution occurred between the late 1700s and the early 1900s. Originating in Britain, it was characterised by the introduction of machines for laborious work, the replacement of animal labour with human labour and the widespread use of mineral resources. Broader changes involved the concentration of workers into factories, mills and mines, access to fast transport and the emergence of the middle class.

The First Industrial Revolution, which occurred in Britain in the late 1700s and later spread to Europe, was prompted by mechanisation (as cottage industries gave way to factories and mills), technology (as the steam engine came to replace human, wind and water power) and minerals (as iron became widespread and coal overtook wood as the favoured fuel source).

The Second Industrial Revolution, which began in the 1860s in Europe, the US and Japan, saw great strides in the production of steel, railroads, electricity and chemicals, and was characterised by the mass-production and mass-consumption of goods.

The Industrial Revolution was closely tied with the Agricultural Revolution that began in the early 1700s. Traditionally Britain had a series of small local economies rather than a single economic system. Advances in agriculture – including the enclosure movement that divided common fields into private plots – combined with new farming technologies and efficiencies resulted in an increased supply of food and raw materials for exchange. Farmers in Britain became the most productive in Europe, with the possible exception of the Netherlands, and farming for subsistence gave way to large-scale output for the purposes of trade.

Due to the availability of food, prices went down and living standards went up, with farmers able to exchange their surplus goods for new farming equipment, thus supporting manufacturers and further increasing production.

Millions of people migrated during the Industrial Revolution. Most travelled to find work, but some were transported for their crimes or migrated to escape Britain's poor living conditions. About a million Irish labourers fled the famine of the 1840s for England or North America. From 1701 to 1751 Britain's population went from 6.5 to 7.5 million, and by 1901 it was just under 40 million.

Australia was settled by Europeans during the Industrial Revolution. Convicts in the First Fleet benefited from the knowledge of navigation and diet that had emerged during the Scientific Revolution of the late 1800s. The first steam mill began operating beside Sydney's Darling Harbour in 1813 and steamships were to be found in New South Wales waters as early as 1830. In other Australian colonies ports operated from the early days of settlement and railways emerged during the 1850s.

The Industrial Revolution was closely associated with the development of capitalism, a system in which individuals own the means of production and attempt to maximise personal profit. Before then the economy was a combination of local industry and mercantilism (control of foreign trade by governments).

Textile manufacture changed dramatically in the 1700s. Key inventions such as Hargreaves' spinning jenny (1764), Arkwright's water frame (1769), Crompton's spinning mule (1779) and Cartwright's power loom (1784) reduced human labour by up to a third. Early models of these machines tended to be unreliable, and some looms were ruined by machine breakers as a statement against the replacement of human labour with machines.
The main centres of textile production in England became Greater Manchester, Lancashire and West Yorkshire. Leeds, for example, boasted around 170 'scribbling machines' (which prepare wool for spinning) by 1786; this had unfortunate consequences for workers, who signed a petition in that year stating that 'twelve men are thrown out of employ for every single machine used in scribbling'.

By 1830, over half of British exports consisted of cotton textiles. People began to favour the novelty and affordability of British garments over the high-quality Italian textiles that once dominated; France, too, struggled to keep up with British adaptability and ingenuity. India, which previously had the world's largest cotton industry, faced stiff competition from Britain until the early 1900s.

In the 1750s, stage coaches achieved an average speed of 5 miles per hour; by the 1790s this had risen to almost 7 miles per hour. By the 1780s there were 16 coach services going from London to Bath per week. A 1754 advertisement boasted: 'However incredible it may appear, this coach will actually arrive in London four days after leaving Manchester'. Consumer transport allowed city-dwellers to go to the countryside on weekends, partly making up for the pollution and stress of daily life.

By 1810 Britain had the world's most well-developed transport system, with 30,000 miles of navigable river, 1500 miles of horse-drawn railways (iron railways emerged in the 1730s) and 2000 miles of canals. Tar roads allowed people to travel readily between centres (as John Wesley did extensively in the late 1700s to spread his new religion of Methodism).

Australia developed its transport systems relatively quickly, as it was settled at the time of the Industrial Revolution and tended to adopt new approaches readily.

In the Industrial Revolution, coal replaced wood as the dominant form of fuel. This was partly because wood was becoming very expensive and hard to obtain on account of its overuse; Britain was beginning to rely on imports from Sweden and Russia.

In the mid-1700s, bar iron became available for small forges and by 1770 there were 6.5 million tons of coal mined every year. In 1783, a furnace was invented for producing wrought iron economically – it was used in train tracks, pipes and ships.

Between 1788 and 1806 there was a 200% increase in production of crude iron, or pig iron (so named because of the shape of the moulds used).

During the Industrial Revolution in Britain there was high unemployment – up to 75% in some trades. For many of those that did work, life was extremely arduous. There are countless examples available of harsh working conditions, particularly in coal mines.
Glass manufacturing

How is glass made?
Glass is made from liquid sand. You can make glass by heating ordinary sand (which is mostly made of silicon dioxide) until it melts and turns into a liquid. You won’t find that happening on your local beach: sand melts at the incredibly high temperature of 1700°C (3090°F).

When molten sand cools, it doesn’t turn back into the gritty yellow stuff you started out with: it undergoes a complete transformation and gains an entirely different inner structure. But it doesn’t matter how much you cool the sand, it never quite sets into a solid. Instead, it becomes a kind of frozen liquid or what materials scientists refer to as an amorphous solid. It's like a cross between a solid and a liquid with some of the crystalline order of a solid and some of the molecular randomness of a liquid.

Glass is such a popular material in our homes because it has all kinds of really useful properties. Apart from being transparent, it’s inexpensive to make, easy to shape when it’s molten, reasonably resistant to heat when it’s set, chemically inert (so a glass jar doesn't react with the things you put inside it), and it can be recycled any number of times.

In a commercial glass plant, sand is mixed with waste glass (from recycling collections), soda ash (sodium carbonate), and limestone (calcium carbonate) and heated in a furnace. The soda reduces the sand’s melting point, which helps to save energy during manufacture, but it has an unfortunate drawback: it produces a kind of glass that would dissolve in water! The limestone is added to stop that happening. The end-product is called soda-lime-silica glass. It's the ordinary glass we can see all around us.

Once the sand is melted, it is either poured into moulds to make bottles, glasses, and other containers, or "floated" (poured on top of a big vat of molten tin metal) to make perfectly flat sheets of glass for windows. Unusual glass containers are still sometimes made by "blowing" them. A "gob" (lump) of molten glass is wrapped around an open pipe, which is slowly rotated. Air is blown through the pipe's open end, causing the glass to blow up like a balloon. With skilful blowing and turning, all kinds of amazing shapes can be made.

Glass makers use a slightly different process depending on the type of glass they want to make. Usually, other chemicals are added to change the appearance or properties of the finished glass. For example, iron and chromium based chemicals are added to the molten sand to make green-tinted glass. Oven-proof borosilicate glass (widely sold under the trademark PYREX®) is made by adding boron oxide to the molten mixture. Adding lead oxide makes a fine crystal glass that can be cut more easily; highly prized cut lead crystal sparkles with colour as it refracts (bends) the light passing through it. Some special types of glass are made by a different manufacturing process. Bulletproof glass is made from a sandwich or laminate of multiple layers of glass and plastic bonded together. Toughened glass used in car windshields is made by cooling molten glass very quickly to make it much harder. Stained (coloured) glass is made by adding metallic compounds to glass while it is molten; different metals give the separate segments of glass their different colours.
Australia's involvement in the First World War began when Britain and Germany went to war on 4 August 1914, and both Prime Minister Joseph Cook and then Opposition Leader Andrew Fisher, who were in the midst of an election campaign, pledged full support for Britain. The outbreak of war was greeted in Australia, as in many other places, with great enthusiasm.

The first significant Australian action of the war was the Australian Naval and Military Expeditionary Force's landing at Rabaul on 11 September 1914. It took possession of German New Guinea at Toma on 17 September 1914 and of the neighbouring islands of the Bismarck Archipelago in October 1914. On 9 November 1914 the Royal Australian Navy made a major contribution when HMAS Sydney destroyed the German raider SMS Emden.

On 25 April 1915 members of the Australian Imperial Force (AIF) landed on Gallipoli with troops from New Zealand, Britain, and France. This began a campaign that ended with the evacuation of troops on 19 and 20 December 1915. Following Gallipoli, Australian forces fought campaigns on the Western Front and in the Middle East.

Throughout 1916 and 1917 losses on the Western Front were heavy and gains were small. In 1918 the Australians reached the peak of their fighting performance in the battle of Hamel on 4 July. From 8 August they then took part in a series of decisive advances until Germany surrendered on 11 November.

The Middle East campaign began in 1916 with Australian troops participating in the defence of the Suez Canal and the allied reconquest of the Sinai peninsula. In the following year Australian and other allied troops advanced into Palestine and captured Gaza and Jerusalem; by 1918 they had occupied Lebanon and Syria. On 30 October 1918 Turkey sued for peace.

For Australia, as for many nations, the First World War remains the most costly conflict in terms of deaths and casualties. From a population of fewer than five million, 416,809 men enlisted, of which over 60,000 were killed and 156,000 wounded, gassed, or taken prisoner.

The outbreak of war was greeted in Australia, as in many other places, with great public enthusiasm. In response to the overwhelming number of volunteers, the authorities set exacting physical standards for recruits. Yet, most of the men accepted into the army in August 1914 were sent first to Egypt, not Europe, to meet the threat which a new belligerent, the Ottoman Empire (Turkey), posed to British interests in the Middle East and the Suez Canal.

After four and a half months of training near Cairo, the Australians departed by ship for the Gallipoli peninsula, with troops from New Zealand, Britain, and France. The Australians landed at what became known as Anzac Cove on 25 April 1915 and established a tenuous foothold on the steep slopes above the beach. During the early days of the campaign, the allies tried to break through Turkish lines, while the Turks tried to drive the allied troops off the peninsula. Attempts on both sides ended in failure and the ensuing stalemate continued for the remainder of 1915. The most successful operation of the campaign was the evacuation of troops on 19 and 20 December, under cover of a comprehensive deception operation. As a result, the Turks were unable to inflict more than a very few casualties on the retreating forces.
Troops of 53rd Battalion wait to don equipment for the attack at Fromelles, 19 July 1916. Only three of these men survived.

After Gallipoli the AIF was reorganised and expanded from two to five infantry divisions, all of which were progressively transferred to France, beginning in March 1916. The AIF mounted division that had served as additional infantry during the campaign remained in the Middle East. When the other AIF divisions arrived in France, the war on the Western Front had long been settled in a stalemate, with the opposing armies facing each other from trench systems that extended across Belgium and north-east France, from the English Channel to the Swiss border. The development of machine-guns and artillery favoured defence over attack and compounded the impasse, which lasted until the final months of the war.

While the overall hostile stasis continued throughout 1916 and 1917, the Australians and other allied armies repeatedly attacked, preceded by massive artillery bombardments intended to cut barbed wire and destroy enemy defences. After these bombardments, waves of attacking infantry emerged from the trenches into no man's land and advanced towards enemy positions. The surviving Germans, protected by deep and heavily reinforced bunkers, were usually able to repel the attackers with machine-gun fire and artillery support from the rear. These attacks often resulted in limited territorial gains followed, in turn, by German counter-attacks. Although this style of warfare favoured the defence, both sides sustained heavy losses.
In July 1916 Australian infantry were introduced to this type of combat at Fromelles, where they suffered 5,533 casualties in 24 hours. By the end of the year about 40,000 Australians had been killed or wounded on the Western Front. In 1917 a further 76,836 Australians became casualties in battles, such Bullecourt, Messines, and the four-month campaign around Ypres, known as the battle of Passchendaele.

In March 1918 the German army launched its final offensive of the war, hoping for a decisive victory before the military and industrial strength of the United States could be fully mobilised in support of the allies. The Germans initially met with great success, advancing 64 kilometres past the region of the 1916 Somme battles, before the offensive lost momentum. Between April and November the stalemate of the preceding years began to give way, as the allies combined infantry, artillery, tanks, and aircraft more effectively, demonstrated in the Australian capture of Hamel spur on 4 July 1918. The allied offensive, beginning on 8 August at Amiens, also contributed to Australian successes at Mont St Quentin and Péronne and to the capture of the Hindenburg Line. In early October the Australian divisions withdrew from the front for rest and refitting; they were preparing to return when Germany surrendered on 11 November.

Unlike their counterparts in France and Belgium, the Australians in the Middle East fought a mobile war against the Ottoman Empire in conditions completely different from the mud and stagnation of the Western Front. The light horsemen and their mounts had to survive extreme heat, harsh terrain, and water shortages. Nevertheless, casualties were comparatively light, with 1,394 Australians killed or wounded in three years of war. This campaign began in 1916 with Australian troops participating in the defence of the
Suez Canal and the allied reconquest of the Sinai peninsula. In the following year Australian and other allied troops advanced into Palestine and captured Gaza and Jerusalem; by 1918 they had occupied Lebanon and Syria. On 30 October 1918 Turkey sued for peace.

Australians also served at sea and in the newly formed flying corps. The Royal Australian Navy (RAN), under the command of the Royal Navy, made a significant contribution early in the war, when HMAS Sydney destroyed the German raider *Emden* near the Cocos Islands in November 1914. The Great War was the first armed conflict in which aircraft were used; about 3,000 Australian airmen served in the Middle East and France with the Australian Flying Corps, mainly in observation capacities or providing infantry support.

Australian women volunteered for service in auxiliary roles, as cooks, nurses, drivers, interpreters, munitions workers, and skilled farm workers. While the government welcomed the service of nurses, it generally rejected offers from women in other professions to serve overseas. Australian nurses served in Egypt, France, Greece, and India, often in trying conditions or close to the front, where they were exposed to shelling and aerial bombardment.

The effect of the war was also felt at home. Families and communities grieved following the loss of so many men, and women increasingly assumed the physical and financial burden of caring for families. Anti-German feeling emerged with the outbreak of the war, and many Germans living in Australia were sent to internment camps. Censorship and surveillance, regarded by many as an excuse to silence political views that had no effect on the outcome of war, increased as the conflict continued. Social division also grew, reaching a climax in the bitterly contested (and unsuccessful) conscription referendums held in 1916 and 1917. When the war ended, thousands of ex-servicemen, many disabled with physical or emotional wounds, had to be re-integrated into a society keen to consign the war to the past and resume normal life.
Sydney Learning Adventures

Sydney Learning Adventures (SLA) is an initiative of Property NSW (formerly Sydney Harbour Foreshore Authority). The vision of Sydney Learning Adventures is to create quality educational experiences that are enriching, diverse, accessible and sustainable.

Since 2002, Sydney Learning Adventures has been bringing the histories of Sydney, New South Wales and Australia to life for thousands of students every year.

Designed for all stages of learning from kindergarten to year 12, SLA’s curriculum-linked programs provide an interactive, multi-layered learning experience. All programs are developed by teachers and implemented by SLA’s dynamic guide team.