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From the Editor

Freda Mishan, University of Limerick

For this issue of Folio, we have truly trawled the globe for language learning contexts, which range from China to Tibet, Nigeria, New Zealand, the USA and Oman, as well as European contexts including Spain and the Czech Republic. This issue is also diverse thematically– demonstrating the ever-broadening remit of materials development as a field. The first set of articles deal with language learning methodology and materials development. Starting with Brian Tomlinson's take on Task-Based Language Teaching using text-driven approaches, we go on to CLIL and ESP which includes English for electrical engineers (Eva Ellederová), medical English (Niu Junwei) and lastly EAP, in an article in which Averil Bolster and Peter Levrai take us 'under the hood' of materials development to describe the collaborative writing processes in their two courses, *Academic Presenting and Presentations* and *Develop EAP*. We then move on to the macro level of materials development, the syllabus, with the article 'covert syllabuses', in which Jill Hadfield suggests how this 'covert' influence can be positive rather than negative. By contrast, in the next article we shift to the 'micro' level, the design of training materials for ESP teachers, by Tony Waterman. Next, Folio is delighted to showcase a new research group whose interests intersect with those of MATSDA; MUSE International (Materials Use in Language Classrooms: An International Research Group). MUSE's 'Open Letter' introduces the group and their mission and invites contacts from fellow researchers. After thus presenting their credentials, the founding members of MUSE, Anne Marie Guerrettaz, Marcus Grandon, Siwon Lee, Corinne Mathieu, Adon Berwick, Adam Murray and Mostafa Pourhaji consolidate this with an article that articulates the synergy between materials use and materials development. Complementing this, a specific aspect of materials in use is examined in the next article, by Nuria Lopez, who looks at the design and use of animation as a teaching tool. Lastly, we move onto two geographical contexts that are new to Folio; Tibet, where Craig Meulen addresses the teaching of language concepts unique to Tibetan, and Nigeria, where Umar Muhammad Gombe and Clifford Irikefe Gbeyonron evaluate the materials used to teach the Hausa language of North-Eastern Nigeria. Our review spot is filled this issue by Naeema Hann, who reviews the latest book by Brian Tomlinson and Hitomi Masuhara, *The Complete Guide to the Theory and Practice of Materials Development for Language Learning.* I would like to close by expressing the gratitude of Folio and MATSDA to all our contributors who have sent submissions to Folio from across the globe. The journal – and, indeed, our field in general - depend critically on researchers sharing their expertise and experience. Finally, as mentioned in the President's greeting, MATSDA is working on changing the status of Folio to a peer-reviewed journal: so watch this space!

Freda Mishan, Editor
University of Limerick
September 2018

Greetings from the President

Brian Tomlinson, MATSDA President

Welcome again to *Folio*, a journal which is becoming increasingly popular as more and more writers and researchers focus on materials development for language learning. *Folio* started out as a newsletter mainly intended to provide stimulus and ideas for teachers and materials developers but now, as research in materials development becomes more widespread and important, we are considering turning *Folio* into a refereed journal with an advisory panel of internationally renowned experts. We would continue to publish stimulating ideas but we would also feature research reports on materials development studies.

Our June 2018 MATSDA Conference was held at the Shanghai International Studies University (SISU) from June 9th–10th. The theme was Materials Development for Teacher Development and the plenary speakers were Rod Ellis, Alan Maley, Hitomi Masuhara, Dingfang Shu, Brian Tomlinson and Wen Quifang. This was our biggest ever conference with over sixty presenters from twenty nine countries and very large attendances on both days. The feedback we've received has been very positive and as usual has highlighted the cheerful informality and stimulating discussion achieved by the Conference. A book of papers based on presentations at the Conference will be edited by Dingfang Shu and published in 2019 by the Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press. This will be our fifth publication of papers based on MATSDA conferences with the most recent one being based on the MATSDA Conference in Tilburg in 2017 and published as:

Bouckaert, M. (Ed.) (2018). *Meaning-focused materials for language learning*. Newcastle. Cambridge Scholars.

Our 2019 Conference will be in June at the University of Liverpool and the theme will be How Are Language Learning Materials Actually Used? We'll be advertising the Conference soon on our website https://www.matsda.org and we'll be inviting submissions for parallel and poster presentations as soon as we get confirmation of the date and venue of the Conference from the University of Liverpool. We'll also be running a MATSDA Learners Conference in Liverpool in 2018 at which the presenters will be learners of L2 languages and materials will be viewed from the perspective of the students who are using them. This Conference will be held at the Liverpool School of English and details will be announced on the MATSDA web soon.

Hope to see you at the MATSDA Conference in Liverpool in June 2019.

Brian Tomlinson
President of MATSDA

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Text-Driven Approaches to Task-Based Language Teaching

Brian Tomlinson

Introduction

Task-based language teaching is gaining in popularity not only in the literature on second language acquisition (SLA) but with teachers and students too. The strong version of task-based language teaching (TBLT) advocates setting students a meaning-based task with a non-linguistic outcome (e.g. making a paper airplane; inventing a device for saving water; devising and giving instructions for a game; recommending which sports should be taught in the school). Although the main objective of the students is to achieve the outcome of the task the teacher might have language learning objectives in mind (e.g. improving the students' ability to give clear instructions) and the teacher will typically help the students with language problems they encounter in performing the task as well as lead a reflection stage on the task performance of the students after task completion. Ideally there will also be language input (e.g. a stimulus text; spoken and/or written instructions for the task) and language output (e.g. student discussion during performance of the task; student written or spoken presentation of the task outcome). The main SLA principles on which this approach is based are student experience of contextualised and authentic use of language (i.e. to achieve a communicative outcome as opposed to focused practice of a structure), being stimulated and pushed by interaction, learning from doing, learning from a teacher when the learning is needed and wanted and being cognitively engaged. The weak task-based approach is similar but includes pre-teaching of the language required in the task and possibly post-teaching of language points too.

For information about TBLT see Long (2015), Mackey, Ziegler & Bryfonski (2016), Tomlinson (2015) and Van den Branden (2006) and for accounts of how TBLT approaches have been weakened by teachers in order to prepare their students for examinations see Thomas & Reinders (2015).

Text-driven approaches to materials development for language learning are those in which units of materials are driven by potentially engaging written spoken or visual texts rather than by pre-selected teaching points. The objective is to engage learners affectively and cognitively (i.e. to stimulate them to feel and think) through experiencing and responding personally to the text prior to using it to drive production activities and as a basis for discovery activities. The underlying principles include exposure to language in use, affective and cognitive engagement, use of language for communication and opportunities for learner discovery. For information about text-driven approaches see Tomlinson (2015) and Tomlinson & Masuhara (2018).

A Problem

One of the experts on TBLT referred to above is Michael Long, an applied linguist who has made a valuable contribution to the field of SLA and who I have respected for many years. Long (2015) not only summarises what has been said in the literature and done in the classroom with regards to TBLT but he also manages to apply theory to practice in feasible and potentially effective ways. I agree with and value just about everything he says in the book except for his rejection of the role of texts in TBLT in 2015, p. 305.

On p. 305 Long says, for example, 'Use task not text, as the unit of analysis'. In my view, if you rely on task as the unit of analysis and do not make use of engaging texts to stimulate responses and generate tasks, you can end up with an obvious but incomplete syllabus of asking for directions, ordering a meal, spotting the difference between two pictures, telling the story of a picture to a partner and other rather trivial speech events with some potential utility but little cognitive challenge or engagement. These are the sort of tasks which have been used by researchers to evaluate the effectiveness of tasks. They are ideal for research because they make it easy to control and to assess task performance but they are far from ideal for classroom use as their lack of stimulating content and of cognitive challenge can make them very unappealing to intelligent learners.

Long (2015, p. 305) also says, 'the focus in text-based courses [...] is language as object'. This might be true of some text-based courses but the focus in text-based courses obviously does not have to be on language as an object, it can be on the holistic meaning of the text, on the intentions of the writer or speaker or on the responses of the learners to the text. It can also be on the way that language is used to achieve intended effects and therefore on language as an affordance of communication rather than language as an object. In addition, Long does not differentiate between text-based approaches, which do ultimately focus on the language of texts, and text-driven approaches (Tomlinson, 2013) which make use of potentially engaging texts to drive receptive and productive tasks.

Another example of Long's attack on texts is his statement that, 'Texts are frozen records, often unrealistic records, of task accomplishment by others, i.e. a by-product of tasks' (2015, p. 35). Texts do not have to be frozen or unrealistic. They can be alive and authentic, even at lower levels, they can bring the target language to life by relating it to the real world, they can stimulate interaction between the producer of the text and its recipients as well as between the recipients, and they can lead to authentic communication by learners who experience the texts.

I find it quite remarkable that Long does not discuss the potentially positive roles of texts in TBLT and that he gives the impression on p. 305 that texts have no positive role to play in TBLT (even though there are some texts in his very useful examples of tasks at higher levels in his 2015 book). I have read numerous dissertations and theses in which students have said that Long disapproves of using texts in TBLT and therefore the students do not use texts in their often trivial tasks (usually the spot-the-difference or the picture story tasks which they have encountered in the books and articles they have read on TBLT). As a result the students they are conducting their research on (and those they subsequently teach) are denied the potential stimulus and the vital exposure to language in use which texts can provide.

A Proposal for a Text-Driven Task-Based Approach

To redress the balance I would like to propose and exemplify a text-driven (not text-based) approach to task-based teaching and to claim that using texts to drive tasks in units of material can:

- increase the students' affective engagement (by, for example, stimulating them to laugh, to cry, to feel exhilarated, disturbed, excited, sad, sympathetic or angry).
- increase the students' cognitive engagement (by, for example, stimulating them to think in order to connect the text to their lives, to comprehend the full significance of the text, to evaluate ideas put forward in the text or to solve a problem posed by the text).
- increase the content value of the unit (by adding information, ideas and experience to what otherwise might be a shallow experience of the target language).
- increase the educational value of the unit (by providing a new experience to connect to and possibly learn from).
- stimulate more 'authentic' tasks (which relate to what the learners are interested in and to what they want and need to do with the target language).
- stimulate valuable tasks which might not be included in a needs driven task syllabus.
- ensure the students receive a rich and meaningful exposure to language in use.

Simple examples of such text-driven tasks would be:

1. for groups of students to be given three comics in the L2 to look through before deciding which one they want the class library to subscribe to and then giving a short presentation to support their recommendation.
2. for the teacher to perform a dramatic reading of a poem or short story and for the students to then make a video film of it (as I once did in a language school where the students read and responded to the poem *The Schoolmaster* by Yevtushenko before making a video of their interpretation of it).
3. for students to read a harrowing text about the extreme effects of a water shortage and then to design a cheaply-made device for saving water and sell it to an international company in a letter and a presentation.

Here is an example of a unit of ESP materials in which a task is driven by a text. This task is unlikely to have emerged from an analysis of the needs of non-native speaking doctors, nurses and medical students who are the target learners for the unit.

Time to Listen

1. Please get into groups of three.
2. One of you is a doctor, one is a patient and one is an observer.
3. If you are the patient you are going to tell the doctor what is wrong with you.
4. If you are the observer do the task you are given (the teacher gives the observers the instruction, 'Time how long it takes before the doctor interrupts the patient.')
5. Listen to what happened when a doctor decided not to interrupt a patient (the teacher summarises what is reported in *A time to listen* (Barr, 2004), focuses on the problems caused by doctors prematurely interrupting patients and especially on the case of the old lady whose cancer was only

revealed because the doctor let her talk for 22 minutes and concludes by reading aloud a quote from the old lady, 'Oh, don't worry about all that. I've had a good life. But I just wanted you to know – this is the best doctor visit I've ever had. You're the only one who ever listened to me').

6. Read the text *'A time to listen'* and as you read it try think of a way of allowing patients enough time to talk about their problem without creating long queues of patients waiting to see the doctor.
7. Write a letter to your hospital authority telling them about your idea. You can do this individually, in pairs or in a small group.
8. Show your letter to another individual, pair or group and ask them for suggestions for improvement.
9. Compare your letter with the one your teacher gives you.
10. Revise your letter making use of the suggestions from 8 and what you've learned from the letter you looked at in 9.

This unit of material follows a flexible procedure for developing text-driven tasks for the classroom:

1. A **readiness activity** to activate the learners' minds in relation to the theme, topic or location of the text and task (e.g. a visualisation activity, a connecting to previous experience activity, a prediction activity, a mini-role play).
2. An **experience** of a potentially engaging text which focuses the students' minds on the meaning of the text rather than on the language it uses to express the meaning (e.g. a visualisation activity, a continuation of a connection readiness activity, a checking of predictions activity, an inner speech questioning of the author/speaker) .
3. A **personal response** to the experience of the text which helps the students to deepen and articulate their interpretation and reaction to the text (e.g. drawing what comes to mind when they think back to the text, saying what they like/dislike about the text, responding to a provocative statement about the text, summarising the essence of the text for someone who hasn't experienced it).
4. A **task** driven by the text (e.g. an oral presentation of views, a letter to the author/speaker of the text, a continuation of the text, a modified use of the text, the presentation of an invention inspired by the text, the presentation of a solution to a problem posed in the text).
5. **Peer monitoring** of the task performance by individuals or groups of students with a view to offering advice both on the content and the expression of the task performance.
6. **Comparison** with a proficient user of the L2's performance of the task – preferably focusing on a particularly salient lexical, structural or pragmatic feature of the text.
7. **Task revision** (or performance of a different but similar task).
8. **Research Task** (looking for 'texts' outside the classroom which provide further evidence of how language features investigated in 6 are typically used).

For more detail and examples of text-driven approaches see Tomlinson, 2013. Please note:

1. Not every stage of this framework needs to be used in a unit of material and stages 5-8 can be used in different sequences (for example, with the research task conducted before the task revision).
2. The teacher is encouraged to teach responsively in stage 4 by providing help and advice when invited.

Here is another example of a text-driven task-based unit of material, this time for General English students:

1. Listen to your teacher.

   T: 'Morning class. I was going to read you a very funny story but Sandy seems to have eaten it.

   What have I just done?'
2. Think about typical excuses in your culture.
3. Tell the people around you about typical excuses in your culture.
4. Listen to your teacher reading a poem about typical excuses in Myanmar (*'Can you let me pass the exam please?'* By Tan Bee Tin).
5. Some of the excuses used by the students in the Myanmar poem are common in UK schools too.

   Here are some excuses which an English schoolboy called Tom Gates wrote or gave to his teacher for not doing his homework or for being late for class.

   (T shows and reads aloud extracts from p. 46, p. 122, p. 180, p. 181 and p. 236 of: Pichon, (2011) *The brilliant world of Tom Gates*)
6. Either write:

1. a letter from Tom to his teacher explaining why he failed all his exams.
2. a letter from yourself to your teacher explaining why you didn't do your homework.
3. a letter from Tom's teacher, Mr Fullerman, to Tom's parents.
4. Tom's end of term report.

7. Form a group with students who've done the same task and then read what they have written.
8. Revise your letter or report making use of anything you've learned from other students.
9. Try to find other examples of excuses in English and bring them to the next English class.
10. Share your new examples of excuses with your group and then help each other to revise what you've written in 6.
11. Here's poem about another English schoolboy making excuses (*Excuses, Excuses* by Gareth Owen). Your teacher will read it to you. When he/she pauses shout out what you think the next word is.

Conclusion

Task-based approaches to language learning are not new. I have been using them since the 1970s and I even published a collection of tasks written by myself and a group of teachers (Tomlinson,1981) to be used in both the classroom and the examinations in primary schools in Vanuatu. What I found then and have found ever since in classrooms, for example, in Japan, Oman and the UK is that using potentially engaging texts to drive tasks is far more productive than simply setting students a task. I have seen students bored and off task doing spot-the-difference and picture story tasks and I have frequently seen students come alive in English when doing tasks whilst still stimulated by an engaging text. It would be interesting to compare the difference in attitude and performance of an experimental group doing a task driven by an engaging text and a control group doing the same task without the text to stimulate them first.

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Brian Tomlinson *has worked as a teacher, teacher trainer, curriculum developer,materials developer and university lecturer in nine countries around the world and has given conference presentations, run workshops and acted as an educational consultant in over seventy countries. He has also worked as a kitchen porter, a film extra and a professional football coach. He has published over a hundred articles, chapters and books (including fourteen books on materials development for language learning). His most recent publications are Tomlinson, B. (2018).Evaluating, adapting and developing materials for EIL learners. Malang: TEFLIN and Tomlinson, B. & Masuhara, H. (2018). The complete guide to the theory and practice of materials development for language learning. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.*

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English for Specific Purposes Materials Development: Design-Based Research Methodology

Eva Ellederová

Introduction

This article focuses on the design-based research of an ESP coursebook[1] which is currently being carried out in cooperation between the Department of Foreign Languages of the Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Communication at the University of Technology and the Institute for Research in School Education of the Faculty of Education at Masaryk University in Brno, in the Czech Republic. The main objective of this research is to establish a link between the design of a coursebook for English for specific purposes (hereinafter referred to as ESP) and its iterative testing for the purpose of evaluation and re-design so that the coursebook would be the most appropriate learning material for the target group of students.

Even though there is a large number of ESP coursebooks for different fields of study available on the market, it is still rare to find those meeting both the students' needs and the particular course requirements. It is obvious that every learning or teaching situation is unique and influenced by such factors as the constraints imposed by syllabuses, the dynamics of the classroom, the expectations and motivation of the learners. Some topics in the published coursebooks do not correspond to the particular ESP course or field of study and, moreover, it is difficult to cover a one-semester course with the exact number of coursebook units. Often teachers have to either adapt existing learning materials by means of adding, deleting, simplifying, reordering and replacing, or design their own materials. Therefore, the need arises to design a made-to-measure coursebook for the particular ESP course.

My aim here is to frame the concept of design-based research and to outline the methodology of 'design-based research' (see below for definition) for the design and development of the ESP coursebook, which may serve as an example of good practice for those who try to design and develop their own ESP learning materials.

Concept of Design-Based Research

Design-based research (hereinafter referred to as DBR) evolved near the beginning of the 21st century as a practical research methodology that could effectively bridge the gap between research and practice in formal education as it aims both at developing theories about domain-specific learning and the means designed to support that learning. In this paper a common label *design-based research* (Amiel & Reeves, 2008; Anderson & Shattuck, 2011; Bakker & Van Eerde, 2013; Barab & Squire, 2004; Pardo-Ballester & Rodríguez, 2009; Štemberger & Cencič, 2014) is used, however, it should be noted that there are also other labels to be found in literature, such as *design experiments* (Brown, 1992; Cobb, Confrey, Disessa & Lehrer, 2003; Collins, 1990), *formative research* (Newman, 1990), *developmental research* (Lijnse, 2010), *design-based research* and *educational design research* (Hogue, 2013; Plomp & Nieveen, 2013a, 2013b; Van der Akker, 2006). The variety of labels for this type of research reflects the fact that it is still a relatively new trend characterized by 'a proliferation of terminology and a lack of consensus on definitions' (Van der Akker, 2006, p. 4).

The terminology has not become established, however, DBR has a number of common features. Building on previous theoretical, methodological and empirical studies (Amiel & Reeves, 2008; Anderson & Shattuck, 2011; Bakker & Van Eerde, 2013; Barab & Squire, 2004; Hogue, 2013; Plomp & Nieveen, 2013a; Van der Akker, 2006), DBR can be characterised by:

- being situated in a real educational context
- focusing on the design and testing of a significant intervention[2]
- using mixed methods of data collection
- development of design principles
- involving a collaborative partnership
- having a practical impact on practice.

1. The coursebook *English for Information Technology* was designed by the author of this paper for the students of the Bachelor's study programme English in Electrical Engineering and Informatics at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Communication, Brno University of Technology, in the Czech Republic.
2. The term "intervention" refers to all entities that can be designed and developed.

It is often difficult for both researchers and practitioners to differentiate between DBR and action research. The focus on the development of design principles is the key factor that distinguishes DBR from action research since 'the design is conceived not just to meet local needs, but to advance a theoretical agenda, to uncover, explore, and confirm theoretical relationships' (Barab & Squire, 2004, p. 5). Moreover, action research is usually conducted by a practitioner alone, therefore it does not benefit from sharing experience and energy of a DBR team (Anderson & Shattuck, 2011; Plomp & Nieveen, 2013a).

According to Van der Akker (1999) and Plomp & Nieveen (2013a), DBR usually consists of three main stages throughout which a researcher does a systematic analysis, reflection and documentation to develop theories or produce design principles:

1. *Preliminary research* includes needs and context analysis, review of literature, development of a conceptual or theoretical framework for the study.
2. *Prototyping phase* is a repetitive design phase consisting of iterations, each being a micro-cycle of research with formative evaluation as the most important research activity aimed at improving and refining the intervention.
3. *Assessment phase* involves (semi-)summative evaluation to conclude whether the solution or intervention meets the pre-determined specifications. This phase often results in recommendations for improvement of the intervention, which is why it is also called semi-summative.

Every iteration represents a micro-cycle of research or a step in the process of conducting DBR. Hogue (2013) points out that 'the best that can be done is to enact the design either multiple times or in multiple settings in order to gain an understanding of which aspects of the design are reproducible or applicable across different settings'. As a result, DBR requires *multiple iterations* until the design is optimal. DBR is therefore *cyclical in character*: analysis, design, evaluation and revision activities are iterated until an appropriate balance between ideals and realization is achieved (see Figure 1).

An emphasis is placed on an iterative research process that evaluates an innovative product, in my case the ESP coursebook, and systematically attempts to refine the innovation while also producing design principles that can guide similar research and development endeavours.

Research Design

Research Objectives and Research Questions

The general objective of my DBR of the ESP coursebook is to *systematically develop and evaluate the coursebook* so that it would be the most appropriate teaching and learning tool for the target group of students, as well as *to produce the principles behind its design and development process.*

The intermediate objectives of my DBR are two:

1. evaluation of the coursebook with *the aim to collect information about its quality* by means of evaluation criteria checklists transformed into

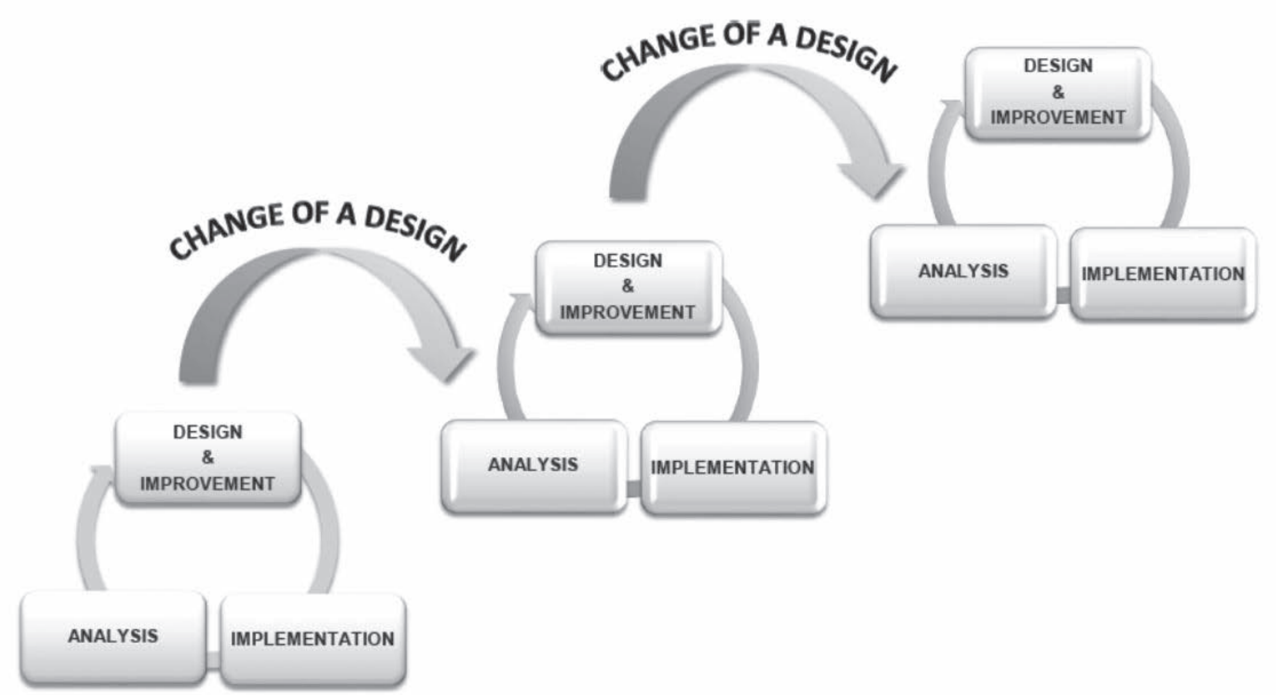

Figure 1. Continual iterations of design-based research. Adapted from Van der Akker (2006); Amiel & Reeves (2008); Plomp & Nieveen (2013a, 2013b).

questionnaire items, and didactic pre-testing and post-testing of students before and after the course where the coursebook is used;

2. developmental cycle of the coursebook with *the aim to optimise the coursebook* quality by means of the production of:

   a) substantive design principles (characteristics of the coursebook design itself);

   b) procedural design principles (characteristics of the processes involved in the coursebook design).

The research question related to the first aim:

RQ1: *What is the quality of the evaluated ESP coursebook?*

The research question related to the substantive design principles:

RQ2: *What are the optimal characteristics of the evaluated ESP coursebook?*

The research questions related to the procedural design principles are the following:

RQ3: *What is the optimal strategy of the ESP coursebook design process?*

RQ4: *What are the optimal strategies for the ESP coursebook evaluation?*

RQ5: *What changes resulting from the questionnaire survey for teachers were necessary to make to the design of the ESP coursebook pilot version?*

RQ6: *What changes resulting from the questionnaire survey for students were necessary to make to the design of the ESP coursebook pilot version?*

RQ7: *What changes resulting from the students' pre-testing and post-testing were necessary to make to the design of the ESP coursebook pilot version?*

On the one hand, my research is closely connected to the application sphere (i.e. partial research results are put to immediate use in the particular ESP course) and, on the other hand, it includes the evolutionary production of specific procedures and tools, which may result in reflection upon the production of design principles. Thus DBR will enable me not only to generate evidence-based claims about ESP learning and teaching that address the contemporary theoretical concepts, but also to further the theoretical knowledge of the ESP learning materials design and evaluation.

Research Stages

My research design is divided into one preparation phase and three realization phases. The *preparation phase* focuses on gaining an insight into the present state of scientific knowledge of DBR of learning materials for ESP. Based on the literature research and establishing the conceptual framework, a research problem and research questions were formulated (see above), and research samples (including the coursebook, teachers and students) and data collection methods selected.

The aim of the *preparation phase* is to design data collection tools, which includes:

1. identification and elaboration of a checklist for evaluating the coursebook;
2. transformation of the checklist into questionnaire items;
3. piloting and modification of the questionnnaire;
4. design of didactic pre-tests and post-tests to verify knowledge and skills acquired by the students before and after using the coursebook;
5. piloting and modification of didactic pre-tests and post-tests.

The *first realization phase* involves implementation of the coursebook, which includes these steps:

1. evaluation of the coursebook by teachers by means of a questionnaire survey;
2. pre-testing of students at the beginning of the course *English for Information Technology*;
3. students' evaluation of the coursebook by means of a questionnaire survey at the end of the course;
4. post-testing of students after they finish the course.

The research requires iterative cycles of the stages as illustrated in Figure 2, which will provide the opportunity to reflect and establish what dimensions of each intervention were 'non-negotiable' or what were the essential components at the core of each intervention that could not be changed.

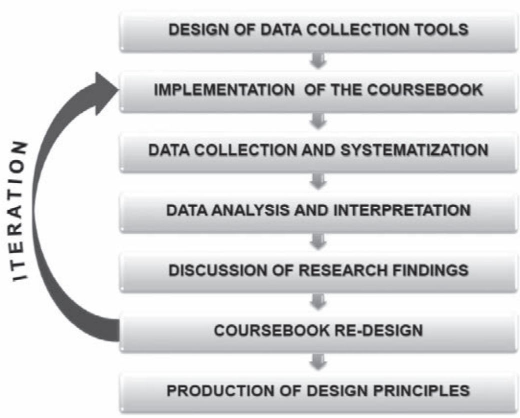

Figure 2. The realization phase of DBR of an ESP coursebook.

The *second realization phase* involves repeated implementation of the coursebook, its redesign, redesign of research tools, data collection and analysis, results evaluation and discussion. The aim of this phase is the second data analysis and interpretation.

The *third realization phase* consists of two parts – the production of substantive and procedural design principles. The aim of this last phase is to characterize the optimal coursebook design, optimal research design and to draw up recommendations designed to improve educational practice.

Research Samples

The four research samples, which were selected by means of purposive sampling, include the coursebook *English for Information Technology*; students of the first year of the Bachelor's study programme English in Electrical Engineering and Informatics at the Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Communication, Brno University of Technology (hereinafter referred to as FEEC BUT); English language teachers of the Department of Foreign Languages who teach the target group of students; and teachers of electrical engineering and information technology courses who teach the target group of students in English.

Research sample 1: Coursebook *English for Information Technology*

The coursebook is aimed at the intermediate level learners who study information and communication technology at universities and wish to further their careers in this field. Its aim is to equip the university students with both receptive and productive skills in professional English language at the level B2 according to the *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages* (CEFR) and to enable them to read a wide range of texts including technical documentation, scientific articles and textbooks, write academic assignments and research papers, listen to lectures, give presentations and actively participate in seminars, workshops, meetings and conferences as well as effectively communicate with teachers, colleagues and business partners in a diverse and multicultural environment.

The coursebook consists of fourteen units covering a wide range of topics dealing with information and communication technology and the revision unit. The units deal with the current development and careers in information technology, computer history, hardware, types of computers, software, Windows basics, history of the Internet, computer networks, the World Wide Web, networking hardware and Internet safety. Each unit consists of the main topic, vocabulary practice, reading, listening, speaking and language functions, such as predicting, giving advice and instructions, classifying, qualifying, and describing features and functions. All tasks for reading, listening and use of English are designed according to the Cambridge English exams format including multiple matching, gap filling, multiple-choice cloze, multiple choice, sentence completion and true/false tasks. Speaking tasks require pairwork, group discussions, role plays and giving individual presentations. An English-Czech wordlist of the specialized terminology as well as answer key accompany each unit.

Research sample 2: Students of the first year of the Bachelor's study programme English in Electrical Engineering and Informatics at FEEC BUT.

There are 150 students corresponding to the number of students in the first year of the summer semester when the coursebook will be implemented. All students attend the compulsory course *English for IT*. A gradual construction of the research sample is assumed as a result of an iterative cycle, i.e. the size of the sample will increase since more and more students will be using the coursebook due to its repeated implementation in the course.

Professional profile of the students (graduates of the Bachelor's study programme):

- their output English language level is C1 according to the *CEFR* standard focused on English language usage in electrical engineering and information technology;
- they need to acquire and develop receptive and productive skills in the field of professional discourse as a special communication tool, which is used by a global discourse community;
- they have to demonstrate knowledge in English linguistics, professional English, cultural studies of English-speaking countries as well as in the fundamentals of electrical engineering, information technologies and management.

Research sample 3: English language teachers of the Department of Foreign Languages, FEEC BUT.

This research sample consists of ten teachers who teach academic and professional English to the target group of students, i.e. students of the Bachelor's study programme English in Electrical Engineering and Informatics.

Research sample 4: Teachers of information technology and communication courses from different departments of FEEC BUT.

This research sample contains four teachers who teach courses specialised in information technology and communication in English. To meet an initial criterion for the intentional selection of this research sample, all teachers have to teach the target group of students.

Data Collection Tools

Two kinds of *data collection tools* were designed: questionnaires (based on the evaluation criteria checklist) and didactic tests.

To have the coursebook evaluated by teachers and students, an *evaluation criteria checklist* was developed based on the checklists created by Cunningsworth (1995), Sikorová (2007), Mol & Tin (2008), McDonough *et al.* (2013) and Danaye Tous & Haghigi (2014). Some of the criteria were developed according to my own design. Twenty-four criteria were clustered into the following seven categories:

1. General aims of the coursebook
2. Clear arrangement
3. Adequacy
4. Learning guidance
5. Motivational characteristics
6. Language content
7. Language skills.

The evaluation criteria checklist was transformed into the *questionnaire* items presenting the respondents with a five-level Likert scale (from strongly agree to strongly disagree).

Didactic tests for the course *English for IT* were designed for pre-testing and post-testing students' knowledge and skills acquired before and after using the coursebook. The designed tests are criterion-referenced involving a cut-off score, where the student passes if their score exceeds the cut-off score and fails if it does not. The criterion is the domain of subject matter that the test is designed to assess. The tests also include the elements of proficiency tests consisting of reading, listening and use of English, and their output level is B2 according to the CEFR standard.

Conclusion

The presented paper attempts to contribute to the research in the field of the development of ESP learning materials. It frames the concept of a relatively new research methodology – DBR. The project of the DBR of the coursebook *English for Information Technology* is outlined; research objectives and research questions are formulated; research stages, research samples and data collection tools are described. Taking into account the longitudinal character of DBR, it must be admitted, however, that there is still a long way to go before my research is concluded and a series of design principles in their final form can be published.

DBR of learning materials might represent a challenge for all researchers and practitioners who seek to bridge the gap between research and practice by means of advancing knowledge systematically acquired in practice. The main arguments for this research stem from the effort to increase reliability and relevance of research for educational policy and practice, as well as the development of empirically-grounded theories through the analysis of the educational process and means that support this process. The important factors arising from this type of research are the useful yield of interventions, importance of learners' participation on the development of learning materials (in this case, learners assess the ESP coursebook quality by means of the questionnaire survey) and collaboration between researchers and practitioners resulting in the optimal design of learning materials and the production of design principles.

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FOLIO 18/2

Use of an Enriched Corpus-Based English Supplement for Medical Students

Junwei Niu and Mogana Dhamotharan

Introduction

From the 1970s there was, not surprisingly, a great boom in the publication of teaching materials designed according to 'communicative' principles (Farr, 2010; Hwang, 2011; McDonough & Shaw, 2003). In some contexts, students appear to be able to complete assignments or quizzes well in College English classrooms or pass College English Tests (CET), but they struggle when reading or listening to scientific and technical English, or express specialized knowledge or skills accurately and fluently. This is the case for medical students at Xinxiang Medical University (XXMU), Mainland China who have provided the case study for this research.

Despite the common use of corpora and corpus-based materials in the field of research, few studies have focused on how to develop corpus-based supplement for Medical English (ME) courses. In the research reported in this article, an Enriched Corpus-Based English Supplement (ECBES) was developed based on a selected unit of the textbook used with third-year medical students in their fifth semester at Xinxiang Medical University (XXMU), in Mainland China. The supplementary materials were developed from some established online corpora such as Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), British National Corpus (BNC), Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MiCASE), and MedAca (Medical English discourse of Academia) Corpus. (see **Development of the ECBES**, below)

The reasons for using the Enriched Corpus-Based English Supplement (ECBES) in the Medical English (ME) course

One basic justification for why we need supplementary materials is that teachers and learners generally expect them and find them useful (Anti´c, 2010; Mishan & Timmis, 2015; Walsh, 2010). The use of the ECBES for ME course was in fact well-justified by the findings of the research as reported in this paper. The objectives of developing the ECBES were to: arouse the third-year medical students' interest; provide more challenge; make the students feel that they are having a properly planned class; supplement and guide both the students and the teacher and provide structure and progression (even if it is implicit); provide a variety of experience in terms of corpus-based texts; be a resource that introduces and/or reinforces areas of lexis or grammar; teach new skills and strategies that the students need; provide knowledge about corpora, corpus-based materials as well as related tools and resources; be a springboard that stimulates teachers and students to engage in corpus-based language teaching and learning; stimulate interest in the integration of linguistic and professional (medical) issues; guide the students to be more independent in English for specific purposes (ESP) learning; and provide teachers with sound teaching principles in both the language and profession.

The most important reason for using the ECBES in the ME course is the supplementary function for the units' texts of the textbooks in use. There is a high contextual demand of understanding medical terminology and of the related written or spoken terms that are used with high frequency in medicine. Those terms may have specific or academic meaning with the features of medical contextualization and the denotative meaning such as 'attachment', 'vulnerability', 'resilience' (Richards & Pilcher, 2016), which is crucial for 'medical freshmen'. In Mainland China, medical students usually study ME courses in their third-year in the medical colleges or universities at the beginning of their professional courses. As for mastering the professional and academic contents of ME course, the ECBES can supplement the traditional ME course in a number of ways: One is the mastery of ME high-frequency and specialized patterns of language use. Another is focusing on the function of the language medium by which medical science is taught. The third one is providing corpus-based activities for the ME course. Last but not least, the ECBES is a facilitator of students' proficiency of ME. Language teachers and students can be informed of the potential advantages of the ECBES activities (such as work-shops and additional classes) and corpus tools (for example, related corpus techniques or skills) with the aim of motivating them to use the ECBES as a self-learning instrument inside and outside the classroom.

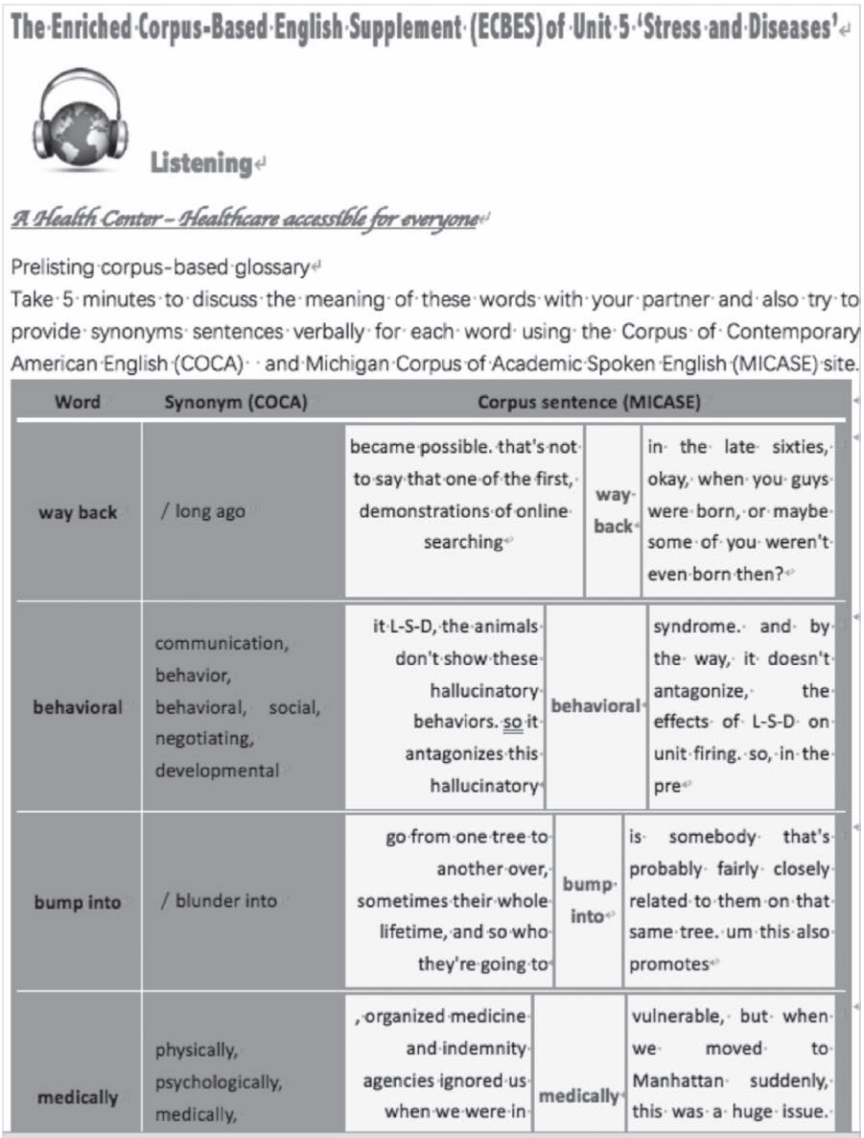
The study

Development of the ECBES

From January to April 2017, the development of the ECBES included three stages: Analysis, design and development. The analysis work was based on participants' current capabilities, needs, ME course tasks, and so on. Then the design of the ECBES included the elements of enriching objectives, process, product and delivery format. The last stage was development, which involved several steps such as reviewing, evaluating, developing, pilot session.

The path of the development of the corpus-based activities had several steps (Willis, 2011, pp. 55-56): 1 Observing and evaluating the supplementary medical texts (both spoken and written) from the ECBES, especially the teachers' or students' own pedagogic corpus-based supplementary materials that they were currently using or had already used for activities. 2 Identifying the words that appear with some frequency in the texts, then selecting one or two of them to study the form and meaning in depth based on an appropriate word frequency list. 3 As the word frequency of medical terminology is often not so high, it is necessary to find the academic medical words (both spoken and written) in the corpus-based search results, to explore and analyze the patterns in assembled concordance lines such as senses of words, typical collocations, grammar patterns, pragmatics as well as phraseology. Figure 1 below is a screenshot of an ECBES activity in practice.

During the development of the ECBES, some of the established online corpua and corpus tools were used.



The Enriched Corpus-Based English Supplement (ECBES) of Unit 5 'Stress and Diseases'

Listening

A Health Center – Healthcare accessible for everyone

Prelisting corpus-based glossary

Take 5 minutes to discuss the meaning of these words with your partner and also try to provide synonyms sentences verbally for each word using the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) site.

Word	Synonym (COCA)	Corpus sentence (MICASE)		
way back	/ long ago	became possible. that's not to say that one of the first, demonstrations of online searching	way back	in the late sixties, okay, when you guys were born, or maybe some of you weren't even born then?
behavioral	communication, behavior, behavioral, social, negotiating, developmental	it L-S-D, the animals don't show these hallucinatory behaviors. so it antagonizes this hallucinatory	behavioral	syndrome. and by the way, it doesn't antagonize, the effects of L-S-D on unit firing. so, in the pre
bump into	/ blunder into	go from one tree to another over, sometimes their whole lifetime, and so who they're going to	bump into	is somebody that's probably fairly closely related to them on that same tree. um this also promotes
medically	physically, psychologically, medically,	, organized medicine and indemnity agencies ignored us when we were in	medically	vulnerable, but when we moved to Manhattan suddenly, this was a huge issue.

Figure 1: A screenshot of an Enriched Corpus-Based English Supplement (ECBES) activity

The websites of online corpora and corpora tools we used in this study are:

http://111.200.194.212/cqp/medaca/
https://quod.lib.umich.edu/m/micase/
https://corpus.byu.edu/coca/
https://corpus.byu.edu/bnc/
https://corpus.byu.edu
http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software.html

At the same time, the materials for the ECBES instructional outlines and checklists suitable for students and teachers were developed. As the materials writer, the researcher worked together with the participant teachers and students in the process of developing the ECBES.

Research questions

As the aim of this research is to develop, implement, evaluate as well as to revise and recommend the ECBES for use with medical students, in this study the research question is: What are the practical implications of the ECBES according to teachers' and students' feedback?

Pilot study

The pilot study was conducted to test the ECBES genuinely in a real classroom 'with a view to adapting it based on the piloting findings' (Amrani, 2011, p. 274) from May to July 2017. During the period of piloting, the ECBES was evaluated based on the participants' feedback, which included the collected data from feedback questionnaires and observation checklists as well as pre- and post-test papers. As a 'product' suitable for the third-year medical students, it was then revised and enriched with the cooperation of the re-searcher, participant teachers and students.

Materials and activities

The ECBES, including both supplementary materials and activities, was implemented through additional classes and workshops including lectures and hands-on activities from August to December 2017.

Methods and instruments

Mixed methods were used to investigate the implementation of/and garner feedback on the use of the ECBES among the third-year medical students at XXMU. The instruments used to collect data consisted of feedback questionnaires (for both the teachers and students), tests (both pre-tests and post-tests), observations and interviews. There were three stages (each stage lasted one week) for implementing the corpus-based selected unit of the ME course textbook. The pre-tests and post-tests were done before and after each stage of the ECBES implementation. Different evaluating contents were emphasized as Medical Terminology (the first week), Reading and Writing practice (the second week), Medical Conversation (the third week). Teacher interviews were carried out one-by-one each week. Focus group interviews with the students were conducted with the experimental group. The sampling was based on their weekly test results and the size of the focus group was: 14 students in the first week; 14 students in the second week; 11 students in the third week.

Participants

The samples comprised four participant faculty or academics (two ME language teachers, one medical teacher, as well as the researcher as a language teacher), and 180 third-year medical students (three standard classes (a total of 90 students) constituted the experimental group while the other three classes (90 students) were the control group). The differences between the treatments of the experimental and control groups were that the former had to attend all of the teaching activities such as the traditional ME course, the additional classes of the ECBES practice inside and outside of the classroom, while the latter only attended the traditional ME course.

Implementation of the ECBES

As to the practice of the ECBES, traditional P-P-P (presentation-practice-production) was replaced by I-I-I (illustration-interaction-induction) alternatives (Willis, 2011, p. 91). There were several steps adopted to implementing the ECBES with the medical students, following Creswell's (2016) stages: firstly, selection of the ME course classroom as the research site; secondly, use of the enriched corpus-based ME materials and activities as the observational protocol, which included both descriptive and reflective notes done by the participant teachers and the researcher; thirdly, observation of the use of the ECBES inside and outside the classroom; fourthly, determination of the researcher's dual role as complete observer or participant-observer; fifthly, record all of the data.

Findings and discussion

Quantitative data

As discussed above, the treatments of the experimental and control groups were different. The performance of the experiental group was reflected in the test scores of each week. The results of Pretest 1 and Posttest 1 (focusing on the content of medcial terminology) had the value of $p < 0.05$ (Pretest 1 was p.020, and Posttest 1 was p.013), which indicates that both of them had significant differences and there was an improvement (p.020 – p.013 = p.007) in the ECBES medical terminology learning after the additional class for the first week. As to the second and third test, both of the Posttests 2 and 3 had significant differences ($p < 0.05$, Posttest 2 was p.015, and Posttest 3 was p.034), while the Pretest 2 (focusing on the contents of ME reading and speaking skills) and Pretest 3 (focusing on the contents of ME listening and writing skills) did not have significant differences ($p > 0.05$, Pretest 2 was p.863, Pretest 3 was p.625), which implies that to some extent the ECBES practice of four skills was effective and useful. All in all, there were significant differences in all of the three-week posttests indicating significant differences after the practice of the ECBES. The results attest to the effectiveness and usefulness of the ECBES.

Qualitative data

From the analysis of the qualitative data, the degree to which the designed exercises and tasks 'somehow meet the need' (Jolly & Bolitho, 2011, p. 109) of the teachers' teaching and learners' learning, can be seen in the following feedback from two of the participant teachers:

> So sometimes what you have seen maybe are not the native-speakers' (expression). What you have not seen also may not be wrong or don't work. So those specific-purpose corpora, or general-purpose corpora (if its subcorpus is medicine) include medical English corpus, the monolingual corpus can be used. If you can use it properly, it can also help you to complete a good translation such as translating the phrase of 'advanced gastric cancer'. I have searched four kinds of its translating versions on the websites, finally I got a conclusion based on the corpus-based approach, that is, the use of the 'advanced gastric cancer' is better, which has the highest frequency in the native-speakers' contexts. Other expressions like 'newest gastric cancer', or 'newest Capecitabine tumor' also can be used, but the one with the highest frequency is the 'advanced gastric cancer'. I think if we teach students to do such corpus-based translation as their medical English learning supplement, or when we translate a certain medical term, this monolingual corpus can help them to solve some problems. (A Teacher's interview 2017-10-11)

> Students can accept this teaching method. They are also willing to learn this corpus-based exercises and tasks. Because students are now learn-ing the relevant contents, and not only willing to accept you for what you have taught in the classroom, but also learn more extracurricular knowledge after class. (B Teacher's interview 2017-10-25)

Subliminal learning in Medical English (ME) context

The benefits of the ECBES for the students are represented in the following quote:

> I think it benefits me a lot after the learning of the 'ECBES' based on corpus. We are learning the Medical English course this semester, maybe there are some difficult words, sentences that we don't understand. If we use the search engines (online corpora) such as MedAca to search the words, there are something (material) not even found in the book, which may be a kind of surprise harvest that higher than the texts in the textbook. This is an advantage to improve our medical English (level) in the present stage. On the other hand, if you study through this software Ant-Conc, you know how to use it to (retrieve information), let's say you by prefix suffix (to retrieve the query language), it also provides us a method of learning, in the future study, for example, not English learning, but other languages, (through) analogical reasoning, you may recall such learning the ECBES experience of medical English, which can help me to learn other things. (Students's focus group interview 2017-10-12)

The third-year medical student above benefited a lot in the process of learning and practicing the ECBES: for example, the ECBES instructions in the key components of contextual awareness, medical terminology, vocabulary and text comprehension. The student thus used the ECBES as a useful addition to the textbook.

Summary of findings

After the practice of the ECBES, there are several practical implications of including the ECBES in the teaching and learning ME course:

1. Meeting the participants' needs. Through texts, topics and tasks, the ECBES has provided motivation for the third-year students, and it can be used in the practice of improving ESP (English for Specific Purposes) language proficiency. Meanwhile, the sets of corpus-based supplementary materials have given the participant students and teachers 'at least a sense of ordered progression and, indeed, meet their expectation' (Mishan & Timmis, 2015, pp. 5-6). While some of the participants (both teachers and students) provided evidence that the ECBES pedagogic practice was not 'steady and systematic' (Mishan & Timmis, 2015, pp. 5-6), they had strongly-held beliefs about the fact that they made steady progress in the process of enriching, implementing, revising, and recommending the corpus-based supplementary materials and activities.

2. Providing more exposure to medical English. The ECBES can provide the 'range' of exposure (e.g. different spoken and written genres and styles, and even different accents of native-speakers in

the real context of medical conversation), which can be achieved through carefully selected suitable corpus-based texts and activities. In contrast, the language teachers in the traditional ME course can only offer some limited exposure of these to the medical students.

3. Training: the ECBES has provided corpus related training in the use of corpus tools, skills and strategies such as using Key Word in Contexts (KWICs) to establish frequency of medical terminology.
4. Offering a stimulus for other teaching and learning activities. The practice of the ECBES has elicited an oral discussion between the researcher and participant teachers, as well as responses from the students, which may be in the form of an immediate reaction to the process of the ECBES enrichment and implementation, a more extended discussion, interview, or even debate about the description and reflection of the pedagogic practice.
5. Providing the target language (TL) culture and educational value. The practice of the ECBES has provided the TL culture of ME, which will help the third-year medical students understand ESP and English for academic purposes (EAP) information more accurately and comprehensively. Furthermore, the ECBES has served a function of 'broader educational value' (Mishan & Timmis, 2015, pp. 5-6) in expanding the students' experience and fostering their more independent learning.
6. Teacher professional development (TPD) education: the practice of the ECBES has stimulated the participant teachers (both language and professional teachers participating in the research) to rethink their teaching methods or approaches. The ECBES, particularly based on the co-work among teachers, students and the researchers, has provided a good ADDIE model (Morrison, Ross, Kemp, & Kalman, 2011) (analysis, design, development, implementation, and evaluation) of the ECBES practice for ME course teachers, especially if the teacher usually reflects critically on his/her ESP/EAP pedagogy. The implications of this ADDIE model are not only linguistic, but also can address the problem of appropriate 'contextual realization' (Tomlinson, 2003, p. 108) for the ECBES materials. In the view of TPD, an analysis of the ECBES practice has offered considerable insights into exploring how medical English corpus-based supplementary materials teaching and learning gets done. Meanwhile, a detailed analysis of the participant teachers' ECBES practice can facilitate their deep understanding of what has been involved in the teaching-learning relationship, and why some ECBES 'succeed' whilst others may 'fail' in the ME course class.
7. Raising the participants' language awareness and consciousness. From an SLA (Second Language Acquisition) perspective, the use of the Enriched Corpus-Based English Supplement pointed to some advantages in procedures which will raise the third-year medical learners' consciousness of particular grammatical forms such as some medical construction grammars. A detailed analysis of the ECBES itself has also aided the participant teachers and students in understanding their own teaching and learning style, and why they may feel particularly comfortable or uncomfortable with the way of working with the ECBES for the next stage of revision.

It is clear that the ECBES can thus empower the participant teachers and students to become independent thinkers and even help them become materials designers themselves.

Conclusion

Mastering excellent professional English is an essential pedagogical focus in Mainland China if the medical students there want to pursue advanced academic studies. However, there are many difficulties in mastering medical Eng-lish from the traditional pedagogical methodologies, which may lead to confidence lost in learning in the school settings. It is necessary to investigate the language context, educational context, effective teaching and learning needs and analyze the development of ESP skills and this can be effected via use of the ECBES as this study has shown. The use of the ECBES can help the participants comprehend both authentic and large-scale dimensions of corpus-based pedagogical materials through the classroom activities. This is a major pedagogic advantage for medical students of using the ECBES over using publicly accessible online corpora.

In the process of implementing the ECBES, language analysis activities on texts they have already read or listened to for some communicative learning objectives are familiar to the third-year medical students. Comparing the form and meaning of certain texts with large numbers of medical terminology, students who have already processed the texts' meaning can stand to gain. In such conditions, the students need further supplementary teaching materials to help them understand the communicative learning objectives. So essentially the practice of the ECBES is a motivation to engage in some corpus-based exploration materials that facilitating active teaching and leaning.

To sum up, thanks to the variable corpus tools and convenient on-line corpora (both general and special), opportunities for the ECBES practice of ME have multiplied and far exceeded what have been done traditionally in an EFL context in Mainland China. Yet, despite the constant use of corpora and corpus-based materials in the field of research, few studies have focused on how to enrich, implement, evaluate as well as to revise and recommend corpus-based supplements for ME courses. Most of the participants in this study (both teachers and students) argue that the ECBES deserves more attention in the English language teaching (ELT) field. The participants' comments on the usefulness of a range of corpus-based supplementary materials and activities for the supplementation of the prescribed textbook and acquisition of ESP language skills are analyzed and juxtaposed with the observation of their behaviors in the practice of the ECBES. Results indicate a clear preference for the well-arranged, concise and convenient ECBES in class and in self-regulated environments, as well as the subliminal pedagogical implications of presenting some diverging opinions on the use of the ECBES in and out of classroom settings.

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Writing Together: Storming to Success

Averil Bolster and Peter Levrai[1]

Writing language training materials is challenging. Writing language training materials with someone else is a different kind of challenge and writing materials with a group of people poses a different kind of challenge again. When we wrote *Develop EAP: A Sustainable Academic Skills Course* in 2017, we built a framework to support students through a collaborative essay writing assignment and it encouraged us to reflect on how we work and what it is like to develop materials with other people. Based on our experiences in various materials development teams across different contexts, there are some steps or strategies recommended in this paper to help lead to a successful collaboration, where the sum of the parts is greater than anything an individual could achieve alone. The particular focus is on advice for the earliest stage of team development, the storming stage, which sets the course for the whole materials development project.

Perhaps the first thing to stress is that materials development is always, arguably, a collaboration - a collaboration between the materials developer, the training context and students and the teacher who operationalises the materials. As argued by Harwood (2005) and demonstrated in Bolster (2015), materials are not a fixed script. They are rarely used as designed by the materials developer but rather undergo a process of adaptation by the teacher. Materials development is an ongoing, fluid process and the materials developer plays an important role, but a role as part of a larger whole. Materials development does not stop when the materials developer stops writing, it continues through every time the materials are used.

Some materials development collaborations we have worked on together and with others include:

- working with technical trainers in Azerbaijan to develop English language courses to support engineers in the petrochemical industry.
- working with academics to produce support courses for specific cohorts of EMI (English-medium instruction) university students in China.
- working with other EAP tutors to develop reading and writing courses, lectures, academic skill and employability workshops in China.
- developing a blended EAP course in Macau as part of a curriculum working group.
- developing online training materials for IELTS with experienced examiners.
- developing training materials for Saudi educators in a project in Finland with four other ELT tutors in three different institutions and cities, with input from content specialists.

Later in this paper we will be discussing the importance of collaborators developing a shared understanding of terminology at the outset of a project and so too is it important at the start of this paper to define what we mean by 'collaboration'. Storch (2013) articulates the difference between 'cooperation' and 'collaboration' in relation to L2 writing. Cooperation is a process where students work together to a common goal but may have distinct roles and responsibilities. Collaboration describes a closer working relationship where there is a shared responsibility and ownership throughout the process. In *Develop EAP* we draw the analogy between three chefs preparing a three-course menu. In the cooperative kitchen, each chef takes responsibility for one course and prepares it by themselves. In the collaborative kitchen, the chefs discuss the menu and work together on each of the dishes. Applying this to materials development, during a MaWSIG (Materials Writing Special Interest Group) workshop we attended at an IATEFL conference, there was a lot of discussion about working with publishers and working to their brief. Some of the anecdotes shared showed that writers on a project may be working to the same brief but are writing very independently of each other, illustrative of cooperation, each writer serving up their own dish with little or no contact with the other writers on the team. The focus of this paper is collaboration, which happens in language training organisations and projects around the world when teachers and materials developers are working together, developing new course materials or revising old ones.

The rationale for developing a framework for student collaborative writing in *Develop EAP* was the potential of additional learning gains from the collaborative process. Collaborative writing has been shown to improve the quality of writing, both in terms of ideas (Mulligan & Garofalo, 2011; Talib & Cheung, 2017) and

1. Averil Bolster and Peter Levrai were finalists in the British Council ELTons Awards in 2016 for their coursebook Academic Presenting & Presentations and won the ELTons Award for Innovation in Learner Resources for their blended course Develop EAP: A Sustainable Academic Skills Course in 2017.

language accuracy and complexity (Shehadeh, 2011; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). Aside from benefits for writing, group writing helps foster collaboration skills (Thomas, 2016; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009) which are invaluable in the modern world. However, collaboration is a complex issue and does not just happen. Teacher support is needed (Zheng & Warschauer, 2017) and so we developed a framework which made use of a variety of e-tools and online collaborative spaces to support students through the different stages of the essay writing process - brainstorming, outlining, drafting, editing and proofreading (Levrai & Bolster, in press). The resulting multi-modal, multi-platform framework is reflective of how modern teams work and how modern materials developers may work.

The benefits for students when writing collaboratively are also benefits for materials developers, especially in terms of generating better ideas. Different developers have diverse approaches or may favour different methods. While this could potentially lead to confusion in the training materials, there is space for more than one approach to language training and diverse views should not be seen as a source of disagreement but as opportunities for discussion. Schumann reflected in reference to the opposing theories of Krashen (that language acquisition is an unconscious act) and McLaughlin (that language learning is a conscious one) that, 'Neither position is correct; they are simply alternate representations of reality' (Schumann as cited in Jordan, 2004, p.101). While Jordan then goes on to argue that both theories cannot be correct, we would hold that both can be, at different times, for different learners, for different language points.

Oxford and Anderson argue that materials have to cater to the varieties of ways that students learn (in Tomlinson, 2007) and, following from this, different learners will benefit from different approaches, so competing approaches can be simultaneously valid and integrated into the same materials. Consider two materials developers, one preferring an inductive approach to grammar teaching and the other a deductive approach. These approaches could be interwoven through a course, providing variation and choice for both teachers and learners. As argued by Levrai (2013), training materials need to offer choice to expand teachers' practices and provide flexibility. Materials developers working in collaboration and considering multiple perspectives is one means to achieve this.

Coursebooks have been criticised for being methodologically unsound and for failing to embrace the implications of the most up-to-date research (Harwood, 2005, Saraceni, 2007). Given that a materials developer should bring together expertise of researchers and classroom practitioners (Swales, cited in Harwood, 2005), collaboration can be an excellent way to draw on different proficiencies and competencies. As an individual, it can be daunting to keep up with the latest research and stay active in the classroom (both in terms of teaching and observing others teach) and seeing how materials are utilised and the students' response to them. Bringing together a team with disparate but complementary skills and individuals with different experiences enriches the materials development process. Expanding the collaboration beyond language experts to content experts can result in more effective training materials.

As a practical illustration, when we write materials we favour 'backward design' (Wiggins & McTighe, 2005), a three-step process of

- identifying desired results
- developing the assessment tools to evaluate the learning of the desired results
- writing the course materials to help students attain the results.

In the vital first step, we discuss what we are aiming for, who the materials are for and what we want them to achieve. Both our courses, *Academic Presenting & Presentations* (2015a) and *Develop EAP* (2017), were developed after researching what particular skills and competencies students would need in their degree studies. Talking to content lecturers about their expectations and looking at the materials and activities students would need to do as part of their degree studies helped focus the language training materials we developed. To demonstrate the way we work (as tried and tested in developing the above courses), once we have a clear conception of the aims of the course/materials, one of us will start to develop something and when it is in a rough draft, the other one will take a look and start working it into shape. Materials usually pass between us a few times as we each take a run through them, tweaking activities or adding new ones. This process has become much more fluid thanks to online word processors, such as Google Docs, which means that texts no longer have to be emailed or stored on drives with ever-increasing complex names to indicate which version it is. Writing collaborators can now edit a document online (a)synchronously and without worrying about saving it every few minutes. Throughout the process we seek each other's perspectives, getting feedback from other teachers when possible, and by the end it is almost impossible to point to a specific set of materials and claim individual ownership. However, it is clear to see how ideas and materials were strengthened through the process.

After collaborating on developing different training materials for so long, we work together smoothly, although no materials development is without its tensions. Reflecting on our experiences in various writing teams, we have drawn up some suggestions for helping a materials development collaboration run successfully, be it collaborating face-to-face, online, with ELT colleagues and/or content experts. At the outset of any collaboration it is essential to spend time moving through what Tuckman identified as the 'storming' and 'norming' phases of team development (Bonebright, 2010). Even if you know someone well as a teacher or a colleague, you need to spend time discovering who they are as a materials developer and how you can best work together. In the same way student collaborative teams benefit from team-building activities in the storming stage (Burns, 2016) so too do materials development teams. Outlined below are various strategies that can help early stage materials development teams work together effectively.

Test the technology

There are a range of tools available to facilitate online collaboration, allowing people who would never otherwise meet to work together in a shared online space or acting as an active workspace to complement face-to-face meetings. The options are growing, with Google Docs and Microsoft Office 365 being joined by other collaborative tools like Dropbox Paper, Ether Pad, Zoho or Thinkfree. Files can be shared in an increasingly wide range of spaces, including free platforms like Mediafire, Hightail, Box and Amazon Drive in addition to the better-known Google Drive, Dropbox and OneDrive. However, before starting a project it is recommended to find which tools collaborators use most often, are most familiar with and, crucially, can all access. Technical hitches at the beginning can throw off the entire collaboration as people can move out of sync on the project.

Establish communication channels

As there are a wide range of collaborative tools available there are even more ways to communicate. Is the project going to have a Whatsapp group, a Trello board, Skype meetings, Adobe Connect meetings, a Slack workspace, a Twitter group or a Flock channel? Will selected channels of communication have particular uses? As well as how you are going to communicate, it is also important to establish early on when you are going to communicate.

Your time is not your own

Working with others takes longer than working alone and it usually takes even longer than you anticipate. If you need the pressure of the deadline to get the creative juices going, your team needs to know that and plan accordingly. When you have deadlines in a collaborative group, try to complete what you have to do and leave enough time for peer review and additional changes. Not everything can be anticipated but some discussion about expectations can greatly help reduce issues later. What is your expected turnaround time for feedback and what form should that feedback take? Our preference is to provide feedback directly in the materials by leaving comments, notes and questions. In word processing documents we also use 'track changes' if we edit something so any changes can be reviewed and approved. However, it is important that any written feedback is consolidated with a discussion about the materials as well. It is also worth remembering the importance of positive feedback – if something works really well, say so.

Develop a shared language

Terminology can be a slippery thing. When we were working on a curriculum review with a group of colleagues this came into sharp relief. During a lengthy discussion of assessment types, it eventually became clear that when the group was discussing 'rubrics' we were talking about very different things. For some, 'rubrics' were the assignment instructions for students whereas for others they were the assessment grading criteria. Do not assume your colleague understands the same thing from the same term and spend the time to develop a shared understanding. For example, decide if you are going to talk about 'objectives' or 'outcomes', know why and be consistent.

Conduct a critique

A good way to understand someone's approach to materials is to see their critique of a set of materials. Tomlinson (2007) advocates a criteria-driven approach to materials evaluation, which involves developing criteria at different levels, such as

- universal criteria, which reflect your general beliefs about materials e.g. 'Do the materials provide clearly stated aims?'
- content-specific criteria, which focus on the particular requirements of the content e.g. 'Reading texts demonstrate citing from sources.'
- local criteria, which are relevant to a particular training context e.g. 'Activities support student collaboration.'

When we were developing *Academic Presenting & Presentations* (2015a), we had the opportunity to interview faculty lecturers about their expectations of student oral presentations which enabled us to develop criteria. This meant that when considering potential content, we could ensure it would fit with the expectations lecturers had for their students and so genuinely help students deliver more academic sound and appropriate presentations. For a full review of the development of the course and criteria used, see Levrai & Bolster (2015b).

While a criteria-driven approach encourages an objective and rational evaluation of material, in the first instance it would be advisable to conduct an impressionistic evaluation. Look at the materials separately and then discuss them together. This can throw light on different aspects of materials that interest you and help you understand points of congruence and of differentiation in your attitude to materials. Following this impressionistic evaluation, developing criteria together as Tomlinson suggests, is an excellent way to build a shared vision of what you want in the materials you are developing. Developing universal (general criteria for all training materials), content-specific (criteria specific to the particular materials being developed) and local criteria (criteria context specific for a particular learning situation and set of learners) also gives you a tool to fall back on if/when you reach a disagreement about some materials later in the process, as you can go back to the criteria and see how well they fit with your original shared conception of the course.

Write something together

Early in the collaboration process it is important to write something together. This is the best way to see how your individual approaches fit together and can best complement each other. It does not have to be something connected to the project you are working on as the purpose is not to see what you come out with in terms of materials but rather how you develop them. An easy way to generate a target for some 'trial materials' is to develop a table similar to the one below. Randomly choose one item from each column and have a tight timeframe to develop a relevant lesson.

Content	Skill	Focus	Mode
Business	Integrated	Word formation	Paper-based
Environment	Speaking	Conditionals	Blended
Relationships	Reading	Expressing ideas	Digital
Culture	Writing	Developing autonomy	
	Listening		

Another useful materials development challenge is taking an input (a recent news article, an interesting photo, a piece of music), developing as many different activities possible connected to it and then whittling those down to the most effective materials. Better still, take two separate inputs, generate as many activities as possible and then determine which activities could be used together as a purposeful lesson with a concrete learning aim for a specific set of learners. The process of selecting and eliminating activities is very enlightening and good practice for later in the materials development project when something you have put work into has to be dropped as it is not considered fit for this particular purpose or an alternative is better.

Drop the ego

One of the hardest aspects of collaborating is giving up ownership and control of ideas. It can be a challenge to put effort and time into a piece of material and have someone else change and amend it. This is where the clear communication channels and initial agreement on the scope and focus of the materials becomes invaluable. No materials are perfect and there is always space for a constructively critical voice. Through dialogue and discussion materials are strengthened. Another useful strategy at the start of a collaboration would be to critique materials written by each member of the teaching team, including a self-critique. Discussing what you have written before, what you would change, and listening to feedback from others can set the scene for later discussions about materials you develop together.

Conclusion

The early stages of a collaboration are vital. It is possible to overcome a rocky start but it is preferable to get an understanding of who you are working with and how you can work together effectively from the beginning. The activities and suggestions in this paper are means and methods to try and establish positive working patterns and clear expectations during the storming stage of team development. Through collaboration with others, we can develop better training materials and make better contributions to our communities of teachers and students.

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Covert Syllabuses

Jill Hadfield

The term covert syllabus: 'the unwritten, unofficial, and often unintended lessons, values, and perspectives that students learn in school' (edglossary.org/hidden-curriculum/) usually has a negative connotation. According to Ornstein & Hunkins (2004), for example, a hidden curriculum is often to be found in the gender and racial roles that are conveyed in textbooks and sometimes in classroom behaviour. This extract from the 1964 *Ladybird* Peter and Jane books, whose overt aim is to teach reading, clearly has such a hidden curriculum:

> Jane likes to help Mummy. She wants to make cakes like Mummy.
>
> 'Let me help you Mummy,' she says, 'Will you let me help please? I can make cakes like you.'
>
> 'Yes,' says Mummy, 'I will let you help me. You are a good girl.'
>
> 'We will make some cakes for Peter and Daddy,' says Jane,' They like the cakes we make.'
>
> (Book 6b, p.4)

There are in fact two layers of covert syllabus operating here. The first, probably intentional, is to teach the values of 'helping' and 'giving'. The second unintentionally coveys messages about the roles of women – the kitchen is their realm and they make food to serve to men.

Some older ELT textbooks contain many stereotypes of the roles of men and women, such as;

> Mrs. James: You've been drinking whisky.
> Mr. James: Only one, dear.
> Mrs. James: You've been smoking cigars.
> Mr. James: Only one, dear.
> Mrs. James: You've been kissing girls.
> Mr. James: Only one, dear.
>
> (Hicks & Granger, 1978, p.18)

Nowadays a conscious effort is made by authors and publishers to avoid race or gender bias – and indeed to avoid anything that could give offence: the acronym PARSNIP defining topics that are taboo in coursebooks (politics, alcohol, religion, sex, narcotics, isms (eg. atheism), and pork). However other unintentional messages may be conveyed by coursebooks. At my presentation at IATEFL, participants from many different countries discussed more modern covert agendas in textbook and suggested: a middle-class cast of characters, an emphasis on travel and holidays which their students were unable to afford, an emphasis on competition, materialism or glorification of the celebrity culture.

Covert syllabuses may thus stem from a lack of inclusion – a lack of women, a lack of cultural diversity etc. - this type of covert syllabus has been called the 'null curriculum' (Eisner, 1979) - but sometimes they may spring from over-inclusion: too many units centred on celebrities for example. Of course over-inclusion may also imply under-representation and vice versa: a lack of representation of female role models implies over-inclusion of male role models, a focus on celebrity culture implies a devaluation of normal life.

So far we have looked at covert agendas presented through choice of topic, but Richards & Rogers (2001) suggest that it is also possible to have a covert syllabus presented through language items: 'All methods involve overt or covert decisions concerning the selection of language items (words, sentence patterns, tenses, constructions, functions and topics)[...] to be used within a course' (p.25). The decision of a PARSNIP publisher to omit the words pork, bacon, wine, beer from a unit on food is a covert agenda based on non–inclusion or 'null curriculum' (Eisner, 1979). This example from a 1982 Lithuanian textbook is another example of an agenda being realized through omission of language items:

> What political party do you belong to?
> I am a Communist.
> I don't belong to any political party.
>
> (Svecevicius, 1982, p. 41)

I would argue that a covert agenda can also be realized through selection of activity types, again either by exclusion or over-inclusion. In an article, 'Materials writing principles and processes: What can we learn for teacher development', in *The European Journal of Applied Linguistics and TEFL*, 2014, I discussed 'Core Energies': my term for the deep-seated preferences and particular forces that drive a writer and give colour to their writing but also mean that their writing shows a bias towards certain types of activity (Hadfield, 2014). One writer may have a predilection towards writing analytic and logical-argumentative activities, for example, another may have a preference for playful and imaginative activities. These energies can, of course, be positive in themselves, leading the writer to design creative and engaging activities, but the writer should be careful that their own bias does not lead to an over-reliance on one kind of activity. It could be argued, for example, that online courses which depend on a limited range of mechanical exercises with only one right answer, such as drag and drop, matching and gap fill, have the covert agenda that creativity, experimentation and affect have nothing to do with language learning, whereas research shows that they have a positive effect.

So far we have looked at covert syllabuses in the sense in which they are usually viewed, as both unintentional and undesirable. But covert syllabuses can be built into materials in a way that is both intentional and desirable. Schools, for example, play important roles in socializing children, inculcating a sense of social responsibility and duty and developing social skills in a way that is not overt or planned but resulting from everyday interaction and organizational patterns. In the rest of this article I would like to describe three kinds of positive covert syllabuses that can be built into course design.

I first used the term covert syllabus in a positive sense when writing the book *Classroom Dynamics* (Hadfield,1993). In that book I divided activities into cognitive activities and affective activities. The cognitive activities had an overt group dynamics aim: to make some aspect of the group dynamic process explicit to the learners, for example, the need to listen to others or to actively help each other learn. The affective activities, on the other hand, had an overt *language learning* aim but a kind of 'secret' group dynamic aim tucked inside the language learning aim: that is, invisible to the student and thus non-overt. In such activities the teacher does not say to the students, 'Now we are going to do an activity which will help you empathize with other group members', but instead does an activity which overtly practises, say, the present simple, but in a way that encourages empathy by asking students to complete a questionnaire as if they were their partner (see 'I Am You' from *Classroom Dynamics*). To take another example, if a teacher wishes to practise the past simple, setting a homework task called 'Last Weekend' will achieve this object, but will not encourage group cohesion. An activity like 'Group History' where learners find out what happened in the lives of the group every year from the year the oldest was born to the present year and compile this information to write a history of the group, will both practise the past simple and reinforce the learners' sense of belonging to a group. Other examples of such activities are language practice activities that encourage empathy, provide opportunities for exchange of personal information, bridge gaps between people, foster a sense of group identity, maintain fluidity and interaction between all participants, provide a sense of belonging to the group, encourage positive feelings and give the group a sense of shared achievement.

Why is this a positive covert syllabus and why is it covert? Firstly, the inclusion of such activities is not just to provide a feel-good atmosphere. Several studies have shown that a cohesive group is more productive. Argyle (1989) comments that 'cohesiveness increases output when the work requires interaction because it is socially motivated and a source of social satisfaction.' (p.6), Douglas (1983) supports this: 'A group is a resource pool that is greater in any given area than the resources possessed by any single member' (p.189) while Stevick (1980) comments; 'In a language course success depends less on materials, techniques and linguistic analyses and more on 'what goes on inside and between the people in the classroom' (p.4).

Dornyei & Malderez (1997) see successful groups as encouraging motivation and learning: 'the way learners feel in their L2 classes will influence their learning effort considerably[...] groups can directly facilitate L2 learning' (p.67).

Senior (2002) observes that 'learning takes place most effectively when language classes pull together as unified groups' (p.402) and Dornyei & Murphey (2003) echo this when they conclude that:

If group development goes astray, it can become a serious obstacle to learning and can 'punish' its members by making group life miserable. However, when positive group development processes are attended to, they can reward the group's members and can provide the necessary driving force to pursue group learning goals beyond our expectations (p. 4).

An attention to developing and maintaining a cohesive and harmonious group can thus significantly benefit learning. Such an agenda has to be covert or subordinated to another aim for two reasons. Firstly many teachers cannot afford the apparent luxury of overt group dynamic activities since they have a language syllabus to adhere to. Giving such activities a dual aim: a primary language learning aim and a covert group dynamic aim, can thus twin progression through a language syllabus with an affective group-building syllabus. Secondly, since group-building works in a non-explicit way through unconscious affect rather than conscious cognition, it would rather undermine the activity if it were made overt, for example if the teacher introduced it by saying, 'This activity will get you all to bond with each other'.

Since then I have expanded my use of positive covert syllabuses in materials written for *Motivating Learning* (Hadfield & Dornyei, 2013). I also deliberately included a group building syllabus in this book: since Dornyei's theory of the Ideal L2 Self, on which the book is based, is based on individual vision, I wanted to balance activities based on creating and realizing an individual vision with activities that fostered group cohesion, to prevent possible fragmentation of the group.

I also wanted to include a 'hidden' L2 identity-building syllabus which could co-exist with the overt syllabus throughout the course. My rationale was to reinforce the learners' sense of their L2 Self in affective ways as well as through cognitive activities. This was in part achieved by the emphasis on visualizing the Ideal Future L2 Self implicit in the theory, but I wanted to include more, and different, activities to develop a learner's sense of L2 Identity, and chose to do this through including activities which required creativity on the learners part. This is based on research by Bonny Norton (1995), Tan Bee Tin (2007) and others showing that creative activities increase student sense of empowerment and contribute to L2 identity.

Murugiah, (2013) citing Craik & Lockhart (1972), states that 'as learners manipulate the language in interesting and demanding ways, attempting to express uniquely personal meanings (as they do in creative writing), they necessarily engage with the language at a deeper level of processing' (p.8). Such engagement constitutes 'investment' of the self in Bonny Norton's terms, which contributes to the learners' sense of identity. Tan Bee Tin (2007) states this explicitly, finding that through creativity learners 'become themselves' in the foreign language.

Alan Maley (2012) echoes this, finding that it is the playful element in creative writing that fosters a sense of L2 identity.

> In some ways, the tsunami of the Communicative Approach has done a disservice to language teaching by its insistence on the purely communicative functions of language. Proponents of 'play' point out, rightly, that in L1 acquisition, much of the language encountered by and used by children is in the form of rhythmical chants and rhymes, word games, jokes and the like. Furthermore, such playfulness survives into adulthood, so that many social encounters are characterized by language play (punning, spontaneous jokes, 'funny voices', metathesis).
>
> (Maley, 2012, p.6)

Cook (2000) and Crystal (1998) have also emphasized this vital role of play:

> 'Reading and writing do not have to be a prison house. Release is possible. And maybe language play can provide the key'
> (Crystal, 1998, p.217).

In creative writing learners are encouraged to play with language. This playful element encourages learners to take risks with the language, to explore it without fear of reproof. By manipulating the language in this way, they also begin to discover things not only about the language but about themselves. They effectively begin to develop a 'second language personality'.

Finally, Hadfield & Hadfield (1990) explain that, 'By thinking up new ideas of their own in the foreign language, students begin to make a personal investment in the language and culture. In a way they begin to 'own' part of it, so they are no longer 'foreigners' and 'outsiders' (p.viii).

I would argue therefore that inclusion of creative activities such as writing and drama should be part of a positive covert syllabus, written in by the author. For example in *Motivating Learning* (Hadfield & Dornyei, 2013), I designed activities to heighten awareness of language learning strategies and possible obstacles to learning as a rap creation and a film scene creation respectively, rather than analytic or discussion activities, in order to build a sense of L2 identity through creativity. As with a group dynamics syllabus, such identity building works through affect, not explicit cognition, and therefore is best when used as a secret aim operating parallel to and in conjunction with an overt aim such as language practice, or, in the case of *Motivating Learning*, study skills and strategies.

My final covert syllabus is a learner preference syllabus.

In an article in *RELC Journal* (Hadfield, 2006), I proposed a framework for task design:

	Thinking	Feeling	Creating	Organizing/ Factual
Modality visual auditory kinaesthetic tactile				
Grouping self/ interpersonal others/ intrapersonal				
Structure Single-minded / competitive cooperative				
Reaction Time immediate reflective				
Mood serious playful				
Outcome open-ended closed task				

(p.389)

Any of the vertical parameters can be combined with any of the horizontal parameters to create a wide variety of tasks.

A discussion, for example on the advantages and disadvantages of living in the country or town, would tick the following boxes in the 'Thinking' column:

- auditory
- interpersonal
- cooperative (unless a formal debate in which case it would be competitive)
- immediate
- serious
- open-ended.

If the activity were changed to, for example, 'write a letter from the point of view of someone who has recently moved from the town to the country, expressing your feelings about the move', the activity would change to:

Feeling/Creating

- visual
- intrapersonal
- single-minded
- reflective
- serious
- closed task.

Including activities on courses that involve different combinations of task design parameters can thus result in a richer variety of activities and appeal to different learner preferences. The framework can be used as a checklist during writing to ensure a sufficient variety of activity types. As well as being a positive covert syllabus, ensuring appeal to individual difference, use of the framework can also act as a counterbalance to a writer's core energies, to ensure that unconscious bias does not result in imbalance of activity types.

It is thus important for the materials writer not only to be vigilant in order to avoid various types of negative covert syllabus, whether present through over- or under-inclusion, topic, language item or activity type, but to be aware of positive covert syllabuses that could be actively built into materials to foster positive affect and enhance learning.

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Exploiting model lesson plans with trainees

Tony Waterman

Introduction

These materials come from an induction course for academically-trained Omani teachers who had had little practical experience in the classroom. Working with input materials detailing lesson plans, being 'taught' by the trainer, doing lesson observations and micro-teaching are all standard training tools (Harmer, 2007; Scrivener, 2011; Ur, 1996) yet they need to be underpinned by sound theory and pedagogic practice and they need to be carefully planned and well-designed to provide meaningful training experiences for novice teachers. They also need to take into account local realities, in this case working with adult learners in the Royal Air Force of Oman (RAFO). I produced the materials presented here using my locally-situated pedagogic knowledge to ensure a principled eclecticism (Lewis, 1997) in terms of methodology, pedagogy and materials for novice teachers. This was to take into account the local context of working in the Omani military with both learners and teachers having experienced didactic, teacher-fronted, product-oriented methodology which they are both comfortable with and believe represents an effective approach to language learning. However, producing similar training materials focusing on more detailed aspects of teaching and learning to those presented here can also offer valuable professional development to experienced and even expert teachers in any context by reinvigorating teachers' practice using current, innovative classroom practices (Day & Sachs, 2004).

Need for an initial training course for new teachers

As ESP course designer and teacher development officer, I was tasked with preparing two newly-appointed English language teachers, both Omani with Arabic as their first language, for their teaching duties in RAFO. I was given one week to help these teachers transition from being newly-qualified teachers to beginning their careers in RAFO. One had graduated from a higher education college and the other from a public university education faculty. With no prior training material and no warning of the teachers' arrival, I delivered the week of sessions on an ad hoc basis informed by initial and on-going needs analysis investigation. This consisted of an initial interview with each teacher to collect details of their higher education input and teaching practice followed by a detailed questionnaire of their perceived strengths and weaknesses regarding their classroom teaching experiences.

From analysis of the interview and questionnaire data, it was apparent that while both teachers had extensive knowledge of English language training (ELT) concepts and practices, they had had little time in the classroom doing teaching practice and therefore lacked practical experience of putting their knowledge into practice. From these data and from on-going brainstorming sessions to address trainees' personal requirements, wants, purposes and abilities (Dewey, 1938), I formed a provisional list of training sessions akin to aspects of teaching and learning as cover ed by the CELTA course (Thornbury & Watkins, 2007) but at a less detailed level of input / output.

This list then informed my construction of a detailed syllabus covering key aspects required according to the trainees' future situation and needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987): the teaching and learning context; language and awareness; language skills; planning and resources for the classroom; and developing teaching skills and professionalism. This syllabus resembled the CELTA syllabus (Thornbury & Watkins, 2007) with detailed sub-sections of each key aspect together with outcomes and materials for each training session. This was in keeping with Tudor's (2001) frameworks of control when 'the use of a given set of teaching-learning procedures can lead to a specifiable set of learning outcomes' (2001, p.106) the better to ensure valuable training time was used effectively. From this syllabus, I produced dedicated materials in relation to the requirements of teaching in RAFO. These materials needed to reflect the disparity between the trainees' learning background where pedagogic traditions such as didactic, teacher-fronted, product-oriented methodology might be at odds with inductive, collaborative, process-oriented, task-based, communicative methodology (Holliday, 1994). In RAFO, the in-house materials pay lip-service to communicative pedagogy but are often delivered using a form of Koranic pedagogy through the use of teacher-focused, deductive lessons with a reliance on repetition and rote learning. Therefore, it was incumbent on myself as the trainer to be aware of this reality and support a localized form of communicative pedagogy which attempts to bridge the disparity outlined above.

At the end of the week of training, I received positive feedback from the trainees and then produced a detailed report for my RAFO department head in the Directorate of Education. This report outlined the significant progress made by the teachers but also highlighted the future need for a more structured, bespoke course and I subsequently produced both a one-week and two-week version of a newly-written course for varying time-contingencies. With these courses I hoped to ensure Cochrane-Smith and Lytle's (1999) three concepts of knowledge would be covered: knowledge-for-practice; knowledge-of-practice; and knowledge-in-practice.

Trainee's and trainer's books were produced for both versions of the course. The trainee's book included multiple worksheets covering: lesson observation of experienced RAFO teachers; YouTube 'model' lesson observation sheets; lesson planning; setting up tasks; trainee micro-teaching; peer observation sheets for micro-teaching; and reflective feedback on micro-teaching. The trainer's book included both answer keys or potential training outcomes for all training tasks together with suggested procedures for setting up and delivering each task thereby going some way to fulfil Nicol and Crespo's (2006) call for teacher education and teacher's guides to be more closely linked, and for greater clarification of the teaching methodology being presented and practiced in training sessions (Coleman, 1986).

Inclusion of model lesson plans

While planning and then producing training material I adhered to Stern's means-ends view (1983) to ensure the outcomes as detailed in the training syllabus matched the future needs of the teachers. This resulted in much of the input and micro-teaching material using lesson plans exemplifying lesson scenarios which teachers could draw on in their daily teaching in RAFO after the end of the training course. For trainee teachers and teachers with little or no classroom experience, the inclusion of model lesson plans on a training course gives detailed models which can then be flexibly used. Such model lesson plans can be studied for their own sake to exemplify effective planning and pedagogy. Then they can be used by trainees to replicate similar lesson-types to ensure effective learning is promoted in micro-teaching and teaching-practice classrooms. Trainees can also compare model plans against their observations of experienced teachers and/or YouTube model lessons to see how closely the lesson plan was adhered to and how well lesson aims were fulfilled. These plans can also be referred to throughout the training course and beyond.

Initial use of model lesson plans

The worksheet shown (Figure 1) fulfils a number of training outcomes as detailed in the training syllabus. First, it presents a task with clearly-written instructions providing trainees with all the information they need to embark on the task in simple, unambiguous instructions thereby exemplifying how tasks should be prepared to enable learners to understand what is required. Second, this task requires trainees to scan model lesson plans and so re-introduces the sub-skill of scanning which they have covered in a theoretical way during their higher education studies but now requires them to actually do scan reading themselves. Third, the task covers a wide range of lesson types as an introduction to the training course in terms of keeping the focus on what teachers and learners do in the classroom to fulfil course outcomes as detailed in whichever course and syllabus they are following. Fourth, the interaction key introduces a wide range of interaction patterns, some of which may be unfamiliar or as-yet untried by the teachers themselves. This applies particularly if they come from educational backgrounds where communicative methodology is unusual, such as teachers in Oman who may have received a lot of their education following Koranic pedagogy which will influence the way in which they tend to prepare and deliver lessons (McGrath, 2002). Fifth, the model lesson plan with the example answer, *listening skills work* (in Figure 1), not only acts as an example of how to complete the scanning task but also acts as an example of the nine other lesson plans making up the task with three aspects of lesson planning included: time; interaction pattern and procedures. The time information is a key element on training courses to encourage trainee teachers to use precious class time effectively and balance time allotted to parts of a lesson against the pace of these different parts. The interaction information encourages trainees to appreciate the range of options available to them when planning lessons and the importance of using a variety of foci within a single lesson to enhance learner engagement by providing learning opportunities (van Lier, 1996). The procedures information re-enforces and promotes effective classroom management and pedagogy and can act as useful support for inexperienced teachers when planning and delivering lessons themselves.

The trainer adopts the role of trainer-as-teacher to give greater authenticity to the trainees' experience of being a learner. Once trainees have completed the task, the trainer reverts to his/her role as course trainer and trainees discuss this task with him/her. Then they have a range of lesson plans to which they can refer and from which they can copy or adapt to produce subsequent lesson plans for their own micro-teaching and future teaching in RAFO.

Lesson planning / aims

Working individually, use *some* of the different aims in the table below and write them with the matching parts of lessons. You only have 15 minutes to complete this task so you will need to scan the four pages quickly. You have the first aim written in as an example.

Lesson aims:

- To focus on one aspect of pronunciation
- To focus on word order in sentences
- To introduce a study skill
- To practice functional language
- To practice grammar language
- To practice vocabulary
- To prepare learner homework
- To present new functional language
- To present new grammar language
- To present new vocabulary
- To provide listening skills work
- To provide reading skills work
- To provide speaking skills work
- To provide writing skills work
- To review language from the last unit
- To set up a communication game

Interaction Key:

T > Ss	= teacher talking to the learners
T < Ss	= learners talking to the teacher
T < > Ss	= teacher and learners talking to each other
T < > S_a	= teacher with one learner
S_a < > S_b	= learners working in pairs
S_a < > S_b < > S_c	= learners working in groups
Sh < > Sc < > Sg	= learners standing up and mingling
Ss < > Bk	= learners using the coursebook or material
Ss < > Rec	= learners listening to material

Example:

Lesson aim: **To provide listening skills work**

Time	**Interaction**	**Procedures**
00-05	T < Ss	Get learners to suggest some sports. Write them up on the board.
05-10	Ss < > bk	Tell learners to read the questions. Deal with any questions, problems, doubts.
11-12	T > Ss	Tell learners to follow the instructions for the task. Concept check what they have to do.
13-17	Ss < > Rec	Play the conversations and learners write down answers.
18-20	S_a < > S_b	Pairs check answers.
21-25	Ss < > Rec	Play the conversations.
26-30	T < > Ss	Check in open class.

Figure 1: Trainee worksheet covering a wide range of lesson types

Trainer Notes: Reading Skills

With trainees in the position of being learners, they should gain a better understanding of the challenges that reading tasks set learners and therefore better appreciate the scaffolding that learners need to be successful. You act as teacher working with learners (the trainees) to cover the four tasks.

Suggested procedures:

1. Use the pre-reading task to sensitize the trainees to the topic of the text.
2. Use the scanning task to give trainees experience of having a time limit to complete this reading scanning task. Trainees must work individually to scan and note down answers before they check with a partner in the same way as teachers would do this type of task with their learners.
3. Use the intensive reading task to give trainees experience of close study of a text including checking in pairs.
4. Use the post-reading task to exemplify an extension activity.
5. Revert to trainer + trainee mode and discuss the various reading activities. This review focuses their minds on how to implement these elements and should link to their observations of RAFO teachers and their up-coming micro-teaching practice with the trainer.

Figure 2: Trainer notes for reading skills session

Trainer notes for delivery of lesson plans

The trainer's book includes training notes for every element of the course and I have written these notes with a view to having the course being run in the future not by myself but by Omani trainers.

The suggested procedures follow a typically-communicative pedagogy, as used by both the published and in-house produced coursebooks used in RAFO not only in the college where the course took place but also at other units / bases countrywide. Hence the training sessions closely mirror procedures used in a RAFO classroom so trainees experience the pedagogy they are being encouraged to adopt with their future RAFO learners, the better to understand the importance of clarity and scaffolding to enable successful learning. Sessions often put the trainees in the position of learners with the trainer acting initially as teacher, or trainer-as-teacher, before reverting to the role of trainer to initiate discussion of what the trainees have just experienced and how this can inform their lesson planning.

Similarly, if a trainer is able to deliver a language lesson in a language the trainees do not know, this provides them with an authentic language learning experience. Then, with the lesson plan (Figure 3) being made available, their perception of the teaching / learning paradigm in respect of the methodology used is reinforced. In this way, trainees can combine their learning with the pedagogy detailed in the lesson plan, thereby making the plan more real and more memorable. Moreover, although the methodology used in Figure 3 is Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) as being closer to Koranic pedagogy, foreign language lessons can be delivered using whichever form of methodology is relevant to the teaching and learning context in focus for the trainees.

From lesson plans to worksheets

Whether trainees are working with and from a single lesson plan or referring to a range of such model plans, other types of worksheet can be linked seamlessly with such work. Lesson observation sheets can be designed to repeat or build on what trainees have already covered. For example, Figure 4 shows a simple observation sheet used when trainees observe an experienced RAFO colleague. Such sheets can be tailor-made to re-visit, re-enforce or expand on what trainees have previously covered in terms of theory, pedagogy, classroom management or materials.

Time:	Interaction:	Procedures:
00-02	T > Ss	Greeting in the 'foreign language' Present x4 cards of different colours (other cards on the walls)
03-04	T < > Ss	Choral repetition
05-06	T < > S_g, T < > S_c	Individual repetition
07-09	T < > S_m, T < > S_d	Drilling: using prompts given to individual learners at random to produce target structures
10-12	T > Ss	Present target structure (This is red. / That is blue.)
13-15	T < > Ss	Choral repetition
16-18	T < > S_e, T < > S_k	Individual repetition
19-22	T < > S_b, T < > S_h	Drilling as above
23-24	T > Ss	Guided practice example + coloured cards for pairs
25-28	S_a < > S_b	Guided practice: pair work using cards in each pair
29-30	T < > Ss	Feedback

Figure 3: Trainer notes for a foreign language lesson

RAFO Teacher Observation Sheet

While you are observing other RAFO teachers, *make notes* of what you see and hear in the table below.

Aspects of teaching	Observer notes
Aims of the lesson:	
Classroom management:	
Setting up tasks:	

Figure 4: Lesson observation sheet

Observation Sheet for a video grammar lesson

While you are watching the video, *make notes* in the table below.

Aspects of teaching:	**Observer notes:**
Introducing the target language (TL structure):	
Presenting the TL structure:	
Meaning / Form / Function:	
Phonology:	
Learners practising the TL structure with the teacher	
Learners practising the TL structure with other learners:	
Error correction:	

Figure 5: YouTube video observation sheet

Instruction sheet for grammar presentation lesson

3	**Micro-teaching Task Three**
Verb form:	'used to'
Example exponents:	*My brother used to work in a bank.* *My father didn't use to have a lot of money.*
Meaning:	An action repeated many times in the past but never happening now (a change)
Form:	Subj. + used to + main verb infinitive Subj. + didn't + use to + main verb infinitive
Function:	To describe an action repeated many times but after a change does not happen now [or vice versa]
Context:	You choose a suitable context.

Figure 6: Micro-teaching preparation sheet

As each trainee finishes their micro-teaching lesson, make notes below.

Aspects of teaching:	**Your reflections on your peer's performance:**
Introduction to the topic:	
Presentation of lexis:	
Meaning + form + phonology:	
Practice:	
Production:	
Other comments:	

Figure 7: Micro-teaching observation sheet

Likewise, other types of observation sheet can be prepared to focus on whatever is relevant during a YouTube video observation (Figure 5) when an experienced teacher is using effective pedagogy. Sheets can also cover micro-teaching preparation (Figure 6) or micro-teaching sessions (Figure 7) when the trainees may observe their peers using either more or less effective pedagogy and classroom management.

Figure 6 to the left is one of several pre-prepared sheets included in the trainer's book for photocopying to focus trainees on differing aspects of the area under study, here grammar presentation planning and delivery. Mirroring a more complex lesson plan presented during the input session and used to prepare trainees for micro-teaching, this sheet requires trainees to come up with a suitable context within which to set the grammar item under study and hence provides further challenge mirroring the input session.

Again, the sheet to the left (Figure 7) requires trainees to link input sessions to previous observations and to focus on particular aspects of lessons, the better to then give constructive feedback to colleagues after micro-teaching. Such sheets can also be easily adapted as reflection sheets for trainees to complete about their own micro-teaching and later on, teaching performance.

Conclusion

Producing materials for newly-recruited teachers requires a range of skills and expert knowledge. Writers of training material must be aware of the influence these materials and training experiences can exert on novice teachers. Writers need to aim for excellence in content, pedagogy and design as they produce such materials which should then set a standard for the trainees-as-teachers to follow as they embark on a career in the classroom. Moreover, trainers-as-writers need to keep abreast of developments in ELT and include whatever is most essential, relevant and appropriate for their own local context, be it updated methodology, changes in theory and practice of initial teacher training or technological advances (Ferguson & Dunno, 2003).

Furthermore, there is no reason why these versatile educational tools cannot be exploited beyond pre-service or initial training courses to provide more experienced, highly-experienced and even expert teachers the opportunity to re-examine their teaching and their learners' learning, the better to increase the effectiveness of classroom lessons.

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FOLIO 18/2

Open letter from MUSE International

Anne Marie Guerrettaz (USA/Mexico), Marcus Grandon (Japan/UK), Adon Berwick (Australia), Corinne Mathieu (USA), Siwon Lee (USA), Adam Murray (Japan), Mostafa Pourhaji (Iran)

This letter, in tandem with the article; 'Materials use and development: Synergetic processes and research prospects' which follows it, is the first joint publication of a burgeoning research group known as MUSE International (Materials Use in Language Classrooms: An International Research Group). In this letter, we introduce MUSE International to MATSDA and the Folio readership with the goal of building intellectual and professional bridges between these two organizations that are dedicated to understanding one of the most essential elements of language classrooms, materials.

While the past two decades have yielded a wealth of research on the content of language teaching materials and their development, materials use in language classrooms is less well understood. Language teaching materials use refers to the ways that language teachers and learners deploy and interact with professionally produced and teacher created materials (e.g., textbooks, physical and digital resources) in classrooms. Our mission is to understand how materials are actually used in classrooms by addressing this critical gap in the research literature.

WHO ARE WE?

MUSE International members include researchers, language teachers, and materials writers interested in the intended and unintended impacts of instructional materials on classroom language teaching and learning. MUSE International was founded in 2014 to support the work of novice and experienced researchers. We currently have twelve members and three distinguished advisors working or studying in six different countries.

WHAT DO WE DO?

The ongoing activities of MUSE International include:

- Presentations of/conversations about members' research projects
- Collaboration on conference presentations, group publications, and multi-researcher grants
- Reading group discussions about publications related to language classroom materials use
- Networking
- Video conference meetings every one to two months to facilitate these activities

We are honored to work with three advisory board members who are leading scholars in the fields of applied linguistics and language education: Professor Heidi Byrnes, Professor Elaine Tarone, and Professor Brian Tomlinson.

INVITATION

MUSE International fosters academic community and is expanding the network of scholars researching language teaching materials use. We have grown a great deal over the past two years, and our impact on the field is also increasing. We hope that this letter and the article that follows it serve not only as a public introduction of our group but as a heartfelt welcome to other researchers to join us in our quest to better understand one of the most crucial elements of language classrooms worldwide.

CONTACT INFORMATION

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FOLIO 18/2

Materials use and development: Synergetic processes and research prospects

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Introduction

Materials are a crucial element of nearly all language classrooms worldwide, and research on materials development and use is central to understanding and enhancing language pedagogy. While the topic of principled materials development for language teaching and learning has produced a robust body of publications, inquiry into materials use in actual learning environments is less well developed. As members of a burgeoning research group known as MUSE International (Materials Use in Language Classrooms: An International Research Group), we are deeply interested and invested in understanding how teachers and students actually use materials in language classrooms.

The purpose of the present article by MUSE International is twofold: we call attention to this emerging area of inquiry on language classroom materials use and seek to articulate the synergy between materials use and materials development. Regarding the first goal, while there is a long-standing and well-established literature on language teaching materials development and evaluation, very few scholars have conducted empirical research on how teachers and students actually use materials (although exceptions include, Canagarajah, 1993; Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Jakonen, 2015; Opoku-Amankwa, 2010). This small yet growing body of research on materials use has been conducted within the tradition of classroom-based, discourse analytic research. Most notably, in 2014, Dr. Elaine Tarone edited a special perspectives column on the role of classroom materials in *The Modern Language Journal* which included contributions from other leading scholars of language education and applied linguistics and called for inquiry on the topic of language classroom materials use[1]. Garton and Graves (2014) in particular identified several topics for further research, such as student engagement with teacher-adapted or teacher-created materials, the relationships between technology and language materials, and materials' roles in the co-construction of classroom discourse.

In this article, we present our working definitions of language teaching/learning materials and materials use before reviewing the nascent body of literature on the latter. We then describe our understandings of the interrelationships between materials use and materials development through four vignettes that draw from our research or teaching contexts. Across diverse contexts of foreign, dual language and immersion, and heritage language education, we discuss the intersection of materials use and materials development by exploring issues of teacher knowledge, student perspectives, and context. These vignettes highlight the synergy between materials development and materials use and demonstrate current and future avenues for research.

Working Definitions: Language Teaching/Learning Materials and Materials Use

Defining language teaching/learning materials can be problematic due to the varying purposes to which the term is applied. In the broadest sense, materials are 'anything that can be used by language learners to facilitate their learning of the target language' (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 2). The term *materials* has been used in the field to demonstrate the complexity of this 'anything', but more concrete definitions have been offered by those involved in materials research.

Materials have been defined in a number of different ways. An early distinction is as *content* materials (sources of data and information) and *process* materials (guidelines and frameworks to facilitate learners' use of particular content) (Breen, Candlin, & Waters, 1979). Alternatively, others use the term materials to mean both *texts* (in the broadest sense of the term) and language-learning *tasks* (Brown, 1995; Harwood,

1. Tarone, E. (2014). Issue on: Research on Materials and their role in classroom discourse and SLA. *The Modern Language Journal, 98*(2), 652-653.

2010). In the field of Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL), learning environments are also considered materials (Levy & Stockwell, 2008). The inclusion of tasks and environments as materials is indicative of the broad understandings in the field, and the pragmatic concerns of practitioners defining materials in a manner suited to their own purposes.

In other ways, the importance of the learner has influenced the definition of materials with a focus on language teaching materials shifting to language learning materials (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018). For example, taxonomies have evolved to indicate the function of materials in relation to the learner (Tomlinson, 2001; 2012), or in an even wider vision of materials, including all use of the target language by learners and the teacher in a variety of visual and auditory forms (McGrath, 2013). Whatever the source of materials, it has been suggested that the defining characteristic that typifies materials used for language learning is the deliberate incorporation of a pedagogic purpose (Mishan & Timmis, 2015). What is apparent amid these conceptual complexities is that any definition of materials depends on the purposes and contexts of their use, as illustrated in the vignettes below.

Previous research broadly refers to materials use in relation to materials development and evaluation, though does not provide a precise definition or explicit focus on this concept. We use the term *material use* differently in this paper and aim to flesh out this concept. In our perspective, materials use most simply refers to the ways that participants in language learning environments actually employ and interact with materials. Typically, materials development occurs outside of the classroom. In contrast, materials use occurs in the moment that language teachers and/or learners engage with the materials themselves within the context of a learning environment such as the classroom. 'Broadly speaking at the root of materials use lies action associated with and influenced by materials in some way' (Grandon, 2018, p. 42). Continued research and analytic refinement of both of these key concepts—language teaching/learning materials and materials use—will help researchers, writers, and teachers better understand the complexity of materials and their use.

Literature on Materials Use

Scholars working in the area of materials development recognize the need for studies on materials use in learning settings to understand ways in which participants deploy materials. While research on materials development has been under way for over two decades, exploration into materials use has only just started to receive attention. So far, one area of attention for materials use research focuses on the adaptation of materials in language classrooms; that is, what happens when teachers make changes to the materials (e.g. McGrath, 2013, 2016). As examples, this line of inquiry has investigated use of teaching strategies in relation to approaches to curriculum (Shawer, 2010), use of multi-level materials for a mixed-level group of learners (Nuangpolmak, 2014), and use of specific adaptation techniques by teachers (Bosompem, 2014; Miguel, 2015). The latter two studies rely on a framework of adaptation techniques proposed by McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013) in literature from materials development, thus demonstrating the close relationship between materials development and materials use. Most adaptation studies highlight the use of materials from the teacher perspective, and place an emphasis on classroom participation through observational and action research. Overall, these studies have shown that teachers adapt materials not only to meet the needs of learners but also in response to factors such as instructional time constraints and their own beliefs about language teaching/learning. As such, McDonough *et al.* (2013) explain that adaptation is linked to evaluation of materials through use.

In the field of literacies, materials use has also received particular attention in recent research initiatives, including New Literacies Studies (Barton, Hamilton, & Ivanic, 2000; Street, 1998), Multiliteracies (New London Group, 1996), and multimodality studies (Kress, Jewitt, Ogborn, & Tsatsarelis, 2001; Kress & van Leeuwen, 2001). In a departure from the prevalent focus on verbal communication in the field, these research strands highlight the affordances that arise from use of various semiotic resources available in classrooms, such as texts, images, sounds, gestures, movements, and new technological tools (Flewitt, 2006; Kenner, 2004; Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996). In other areas where materials use has been studied, some CALL researchers have analyzed classroom data as related to computer software and/or videos (e.g. Cross, 2009; Gruba, 2006; Herron, York, Corrie, & Cole, 2006). Such studies often emphasize the impact of technology usage on listening skills.

In addition, in the field of TESOL and applied linguistics, there has also been an emerging interest in the role of classroom materials from an ecological perspective (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Thoms, 2014; Jakonen, 2015). This line of studies conceptualizes the classroom as an ecological system consisting of complex and interrelated sets of participants and elements ranging from learners, teachers, classroom discourse, materials, and other artifacts such as digital and online resources, shedding light upon the relationships between classroom materials and other elements in the classroom ecology.

Building on the wealth of research on materials development and the small but growing body of research on language classroom materials use, the members of MUSE International are engaged in inquiry in diverse language teaching contexts. In the next section, four members of MUSE share brief vignettes from their research and teaching contexts that highlight the important synergy between processes of materials development and materials use.

MUSE International Vignettes

In this section, we draw on the experiences of some of our MUSE International group members. Marcus Grandon, Siwon Lee, Corinne Mathieu, and Anne Marie Guerrettaz present four brief vignettes from their experiences in English as a foreign language (EFL), Korean heritage language education, one-way Spanish immersion, and French as a foreign language education, respectively. The first vignette is drawn from Marcus's experiences of teaching English in Japan, and the latter three emerged from Siwon's, Corinne's, and Anne Marie's research sites across the United States. Salient themes related to materials development and use that arise within and across these scenarios will be explored in the analysis section.

Marcus: Montage Videos into the Classroom

I (Marcus) became interested in the use of materials for practical reasons. As an EFL teacher in Japanese higher education, the majority of the courses that I teach focus on oral communication skills. Typically, these are compulsory courses with upwards of 30 learners, and I am always looking for ways to maximize student-talking time. As a videographer, I like to shoot videos of my travels, and make short montage videos accompanied by instrumental music. These have been well-received by friends and media professionals. What I really like about the videos is that people from multiple countries can watch them together because no language is used. However, I never considered them to be language teaching materials.

Then, one day in the final lesson of a semester, I shared one of these videos with my students, which they seemed to enjoy. Two years after showing that video, I happened to meet one of those students while out shopping. With enthusiasm, she then made several comments about how the video had been a positive and memorable part of her classroom experience. That chance meeting got me thinking about how I could design lessons around these videos to nurture constructive pair-work experiences. So, I created and pilot-tested lessons built around these videos. Although different from traditional instructional methods in Japan, I firmly believe that pair work has benefits for language learners. In addition to a lively classroom atmosphere, many pair-work activities offer practical language use. Several colleagues became interested in my video materials and before I knew it, I had produced two local textbooks (Grandon, 2005, 2008) that were being used at seven universities.

I really wanted to better understand how my video-based materials functioned in class. Furthermore, I wanted to learn how other types of videos were used. As a result, I started to investigate how different kinds of videos are used in classrooms. Imagine my surprise when I discovered a lack of published research on the actual use of materials. As a language teacher, I just assumed that use of materials in classrooms had been well-researched. How else could effective materials be created if we did not know how they are used? I started to look for others who are interested in researching the use of materials. I continue to ask questions about video-based lessons: How do learners use video materials? How do teachers use videos? How do different genres of video function in classrooms?

Siwon: Teacher and Student Interpretation of Materials

My (Siwon's) research context is a community-based Korean heritage language (HL) school in the United States, which is the focal site of my dissertation research. The semester I began fieldwork, the school decided to adopt secondary school Korean language arts textbooks from South Korea, as it received regular support from the Korean government. This is not a unique case in that many community-based HL programs are reported to suffer from a lack of materials, and a prevailing practice has been to adopt foreign language textbooks or language arts textbooks from the home countries (Kagan & Dillon, 2008; Lee, 2002; Sohn, 1995). However, there is still little empirical research on how these textbooks are used in HL classrooms, which in turn should inform the development of materials for HL learners. This was the reason why I became interested in exploring how teachers and students in the school interpreted and utilized the Korean language arts textbooks that suddenly became available to them with the support from South Korea.

As I observed classroom interactions, I found that the new textbooks engendered various interpretations and responses from teachers and students in the classroom, which led to interesting discussions and learning opportunities. The teachers and students were clearly aware of the fact that the textbook was written in the South Korean context, and this awareness often led to the discussion of 'we' and 'they'—that is, intercultural differences between Korea and the United States and between Korean Americans and Koreans. At the same time, they empathized with the stories and characters in the textbook drawing on their common identities as 'Koreans,' 'students,' 'friends,' 'daughters' and 'sons'. Also, although the textbook was written in Korean, the students and teachers often discussed the textbook contents and vocabulary through translanguaging practices and dramatizations, drawing on their own communicative repertoires, which also led to further language learning opportunities.

These findings reveal the complex classroom ecology (van Lier, 2004), where the textbook, students, and teachers interact with one another and engender new learning opportunities by presenting certain cultural perspectives, identity positionings, and communicative repertoires, in ways that would never have been intended by the textbook authors or (in this case) the South Korean government. In my dissertation, one of my goals is to provide practical suggestions for developing materials suited for the needs of HL learners by closely analyzing how these interactions happen in the classroom ecology.

Corinne: Materials Use in Secondary Spanish Dual Language and Immersion Classrooms

Dual language and immersion (DLI) programs in the United States are a form of content-based instruction in which the target language is the vehicle through which the subject matter (e.g., math, science, history) is learned, rather than a separate focus of study. In the European context, the term content-and-language integrated learning (CLIL) is used for content-based language programs, and the CLIL approach has many similarities to DLI (Cenoz, Genesee & Gorter, 2014). In both contexts, curricular materials used in the classroom are designed to support content teaching and function differently than those used in traditional EFL or World Language classrooms. I (Corinne) am interested in materials use research in the DLI context because DLI educators consistently cite a lack of appropriate materials as a challenge to integrating content and language effectively (e.g., Cammarata & Tedick, 2012; Walker & Tedick, 2000).

To explore the roles of materials in a DLI classroom ecology, I observed and collected data over the course of one unit in a seventh-grade Spanish immersion social studies class. I found that because the materials were very much social studies materials that happened to be translated into Spanish, their designs did not engender opportunities for language instruction or content and language integration. For example, the textbook was text-heavy and fact-based, with only limited pictures and bolded key vocabulary words providing linguistic scaffolds. Moreover, the teacher mobilized the materials in ways that not only privileged content but also privileged a one-correct-answer paradigm (Tanner, Olin-Scheller & Tengberg, 2017; Zwiers, O'Hara & Pritchard, 2014), which further limited the type and amount of discourse that students produced. When looking for correct answers in the textbook, students nearly exclusively produced short utterances and communicative rather than academic language functions. Because they produced very little academic discourse when engaging with the materials, students rarely participated in language-related episodes, possibly constraining opportunities for language development (Swain & Lapkin, 1998). The teacher's mobilization of the materials was influenced by two compounding factors: the teacher's main objective that students be prepared for the fact-based unit exam, and the design of the materials, which mainly represented display comprehension questions or cued cloze activities to support learning.

While the findings that materials' designs can engender certain discourse or instructional processes is not new (see, for example, Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013), I was intrigued by the complexity of the DLI space where, given their centrality, materials really must support both subject matter learning and second language development (see Morton, 2013 for a similar discussion of CLIL materials). This study has led me to further hypothesize that in content-based instructional contexts in which teacher identities and practices are often strongly oriented toward subject matter (Fortune, Tedick, & Walker, 2008), the design of materials might serve an integral role in shifting attention back towards language. This exploratory materials use study, therefore, will inform my future research on materials development and design. I intend to continue with this research agenda by incorporating language-focused design elements into DLI materials with the hopes of supporting DLI teachers' efforts in integrating content and language in their classrooms.

Anne Marie: French Professor as Materials Creator and Classroom Orchestrator

In 2015, I (Anne Marie) conducted a semester long case study of a French as a foreign language class in a large public university in the United States. In this beginning level language course, the French instructor, Sophie (a pseudonym), developed almost all of her materials herself. While many teachers develop some or many of their materials, it was striking to see an instructor completely set aside the prescribed textbook and create such an overwhelming portion of the course materials. The department required the class to purchase the book, which Sophie rarely used and students came to view as a reference text.

The teacher had made her own materials because she believed the activities and tasks in the commercially produced textbook to be inadequate and monotonous. While the teacher-created materials were innovative in many respects, my research quickly revealed that in reality they followed patterns of grammar-translation language pedagogy embedded in the pages of the textbook by, for example, focusing heavily on written activities such as fill-in-the-blank and matching tasks concerned with grammar and vocabulary.

Interestingly, Sophie reported that as a scholar of French literature, she had limited training in second language pedagogy and had not anticipated teaching rudimentary French language classes in the United States. She had several years of language teaching experience and her expertise in language pedagogy came predominantly from her on-the-job learning. She reported that the commercial textbook prescribed for this beginning French class was similar to other grammar-translation focused texts she had used in the past. Sophie's materials development patterns and professional history suggest that her knowledge of language teaching was largely derived from her experience with grammar–translation oriented textbooks. This was a strong reminder of how central language teacher expertise is to the synergy between processes of materials use and materials development (see also Tsui, 2003).

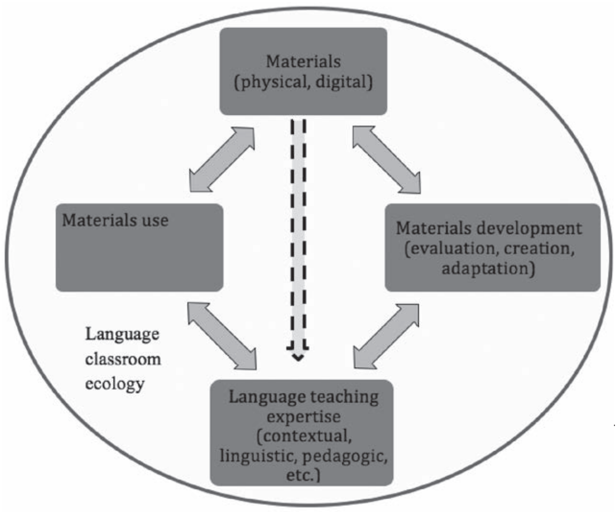
This dedicated teacher believed that her created materials departed significantly from the pedagogy embedded in the textbook, yet my observational data painted a different picture. This dissonance between her beliefs and my observations about her materials highlights the importance of longitudinal classroom-based research on materials use. This mismatch between her and my perspectives also pushed me to dig deeper in order to better understand her pedagogy. I initially saw only the 'grammar–translation' orientation of Sophie's materials. Yet I eventually came to understand this teacher, the students, the materials, the students' tools (e.g., reference texts, notebooks), the classroom environment (e.g., physical space, chalkboard), and classroom language as a highly complex multimodal system (see Canagarajah, 2018), and Sophie as its head engineer. She was constantly orchestrating meaning-making within and across the material objects (e.g., the board, notebooks, pedagogical materials) and people of the classroom. I gained a deep appreciation for the expertise that this requires and wondered what more Sophie and other foreign language teachers, myself included, could learn about language teaching by studying materials in classroom interaction.

Reflections on Vignettes and Future Research

These four vignettes from Marcus's teaching context and Siwon's, Corinne's, and Anne Marie's research contexts provided brief glimpses into ways that materials development and materials use intersect, in both teaching practice and classroom-based research. They demonstrate the potential and need for investigation of how materials provide or inhibit language learning opportunities, how actors in the classroom utilize such resources, and how materials affect various elements of the classroom ecology.

As illustrated in the vignettes, one frequent consideration in our research on language classroom materials use is the critical role of the teacher in mediating the impacts of materials on the classroom (for example, on student learning and classroom discourse). Marcus's vignette demonstrates how a teacher can leverage newly-developed materials—personal videos—to support his pedagogical beliefs about language learning, such as the benefits of pair work. In contrast, Anne Marie's and Corinne's vignettes illustrate some obstacles vis-à-vis the creation of effective language learning materials, including widespread contextual difficulties in the case of scarce DLI materials and individual challenges as they relate to pedagogical training and teacher beliefs. These complex interrelationships between materials use, materials development, and teacher expertise are illustrated in Figure 1. This conceptualization shows a reciprocal relationship between materials use and materials development that is mediated by language teacher expertise. The actual processes of developing and using materials in the classroom also affect language teacher knowledge.

In thinking about the relationship between materials use and teacher expertise, it is also important to consider how processes of materials development affect teacher knowledge, materials use, and the classroom more broadly. Investigating materials use is a key way for teachers to participate in the research process. Teachers and classroom-based researchers are best positioned to conduct such studies and enable voices from classrooms to inform theory.



In addition to the role of teacher expertise, student agency and experience is another factor that needs to be considered in research on materials use and development. Siwon's research in Korean heritage language education in the United States shows how bilingual immigrant youth perform their own identities and communicative repertoires in response to the monolingual textbook imposed as a top-down language policy. This is one of several examples of how materials and how they are used might interact with student identity in the language classroom (see also Canagarajah, 1993; Chun, 2016; Helmer, 2014; Yakhontova, 2001).

Future research on language teaching materials use must raise a range of research questions by placing students at the center. For example, what is the relationship between language classroom materials use and questions of identity as they relate to language learners? Moreover, how do particular types of materials and teachers' deployment of classroom artifacts (i.e., materials) optimize student agency? Another critical question that must take into account students' experiences is the interrelationship between materials use and classroom interaction and discourse.

These vignettes also illustrate the importance of contextual considerations in researching materials use since context critically shapes language classrooms. The ways that materials are used are also informed by forces seemingly external to the classroom such as language policy and politics, as illustrated in Siwon's and Corinne's vignettes. For example, Corinne's research in Spanish immersion education in the United States highlights the problem of the lack of adequate materials for DLI classrooms and shows the need for the development of context-appropriate materials that then foster effective materials use. While there is globally an abundance of English language teaching/learning materials, Marcus's vignette regarding his montage videos clearly shows that even in the teaching of dominant international languages, teacher innovation is an invaluable resource that powerfully affects student experiences.

Conclusion

It would not be an overstatement to again emphasize that materials are key actors in language classrooms and essential elements in language teaching and learning processes. Our four vignettes across diverse learning and research contexts illustrate how language teaching materials interact with various other actors, such as teachers and students, which in turn can lead to the adaptation and development of future materials. The vignettes also demonstrate the range of disciplinary approaches from which materials use research can draw, such as language teacher education and expertise, second language learning, multimodality studies, and analysis of classroom interaction, to name but a few. In this way, classroom-based materials use research is innovative and contributes important understanding to the symbiotic and iterative relationship between materials development and materials use in language instruction. This paper serves as an introduction to the synergy between materials development and materials use research, and we hope that it will foster future dialogue as the two branches of language education support and engage with one another.

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FOLIO 18/2

Research-informed Pedagogical Considerations for the Design and Use of Animation as a Teaching Tool

Nuria Lopez

Introduction

Animation can be defined as 'a simulated motion picture depicting movement of drawn (or simulated) objects' (Mayer & Moreno, 2002, p. 88). Although most people would primarily associate animation with entertainment, animated representations are frequently used as educational tools and are currently a prominent feature of multimedia learning environments. In contexts where animation is used for teaching and/or learning purposes, it is referred to as instructional or educational animation. The first applications of animation for educational purposes were animated graphics used in science to illustrate processes which are difficult to visualize, such as molecular bonding, heat transfer and storm formation. Having the capacity to show a more realistic portrayal of these phenomena through movement, animated graphics were keenly adopted as a supposedly superior alternative to the static images and texts previously used to teach these concepts (Schnotz & Rasch, 2008). Animations were also perceived as a successful way of incorporating technology in teaching and learning, thus enhancing traditional teaching methods and making them more relevant for the first generations of digital natives.

The use of animation in educational contexts has been further encouraged by the arrival of animation-design tools which, by not requiring high technical training, have made it possible for teachers and educators to create their own animations. Before this development, this type of learning material was created almost exclusively by people who had the technical knowledge to design it but who were not necessarily trained to predict its effects on learning (Kirby, 2008). User-friendly software such as PowToon and Vyond has made animation design accessible and nowadays animated videos are used in virtually every academic subject and in all educational levels ranging from primary to postgraduate education.

The popularity of educational animation has been based to a large extent on the assumption that 'animation is more interesting, aesthetically appealing, and therefore more motivating' (Kim, Yoon, Whang, Tversky & Morrison, 2007, p. 261) than other instructional tools. This belief among many educators and teachers has hindered an honest review of the role of animation in the learning process. Despite very influential research concluding that animation is not 'a magical panacea that automatically creates understanding' (Mayer & Moreno, 2002, p. 97), many practitioners still believe that generating motivation and interest might be enough to achieve learning objectives. Given the frequency and extent to which animation is being used as a teaching tool, this seems to be a timely moment to reflect on how we are designing and implementing it. The purpose of this article is to revisit the research on the effects of animation in learning, to discuss its pedagogical implications and to provide teachers and material designers with a series of practical guidelines for the design and use of educational animation.

Cognitive psychology research

John A. Kirby points out that it is not uncommon for educational innovations to be assessed long after they are implemented (Kirby, 2008); that was precisely the case with animation, which had already been in use for more than two decades when its effects on learning started to be assessed in the early 1990s. To begin with, researchers tried to determine the effectiveness of animation in comparison to text or static graphics. The results were inconclusive and at times contradictory: in some cases animation seemed to be superior to text or static graphics, in other cases it did not prove to make any difference and in a few cases animation seemed to be detrimental to learning. These diverse results lead researchers to conclude that 'animation may or may not promote learning, depending on how it is used' and that research should focus on 'how animation can be used in ways that are consistent with how people learn' (Mayer & Moreno, 2002, p. 88). Nowadays the consensus among researchers is that animation has great potential as a teaching tool if it is designed and used with a series of features and conditions which have been proved to facilitate learning (Lowe & Boucheix, 2017).

Cognitive psychologists have analysed the human learning process in general and the learning process with animation in particular. Furthermore, they have been able to provide clear recommendations regarding the design of educational animation in order to ensure that learning is enhanced as much as possible (Hegarty & Kriz, 2008). The 'Cognitive Load Theory' developed by John Sweller in the late 1980s laid the basis for the most specific research on animation developed later. Sweller identified three types of memory at play in the learning process: the sensory memory, which through a verbal/auditory channel and a visual/pictorial channel collects information from the environment; the working memory, which is used to think and process information and has a limited capacity; and the long-term memory, which is the final destination of what we learn and has unlimited capacity (Brame, 2015).

The limited capacity of the working memory has important implications for the design of educational material. When materials are poorly designed (e.g. unclear instructions, too much extra information, level of difficulty inappropriate to the learner's previous knowledge, confusing layout), they will use too much working memory, not leaving enough to do the necessary processing of information to achieve the learning objective. Any cognitive effort which is imposed by a poor design of the instructional material and is not directly related to the achievement of the learning objective is defined by Sweller as 'extraneous cognitive load' (Sweller, 1994, p.302). Thus, Cognitive Load Theory points at the importance of designing learning materials which involve as little extraneous cognitive load as possible so that working memory has enough capacity left to carry out the necessary processing leading to understanding.

Cognitive Load Theory had implications for the design of educational learning materials in general. Mayer and Moreno built on these ideas to explain how people learn in multimedia contexts specifically. They developed the 'Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning', which maintains that humans have two separate channels to process visual/pictorial information and auditory/verbal information respectively, that the amount of information we are able to process in each of these channels is limited, and that deep learning only takes place when we engage in processes such as selecting the relevant information, organising it in a general cognitive structure and relating it to existing knowledge (2002). Mayer and Moreno maintain that animation can be an efficient instructional medium if it is designed in consistency with multimedia learning, which they define as 'learning from words and pictures [...] the words can be printed (e.g., on-screen text) or spoken (e.g., narration) [...] the pictures can be static (e.g., illustrations, graphs, charts, photos, or maps) or dynamic (e.g., animation, video, or interactive illustrations)' (2003, p. 43).

Research-based animation design

Like Sweller, Mayer and Moreno emphasize the importance of designing material which causes as little extraneous cognitive load as possible, so that learners are left with enough capacity to 'engage in deep processing of the essential material in the lesson' (Mayer, 2008, p. 38). The first and most obvious recommendation for animation design is therefore 'weeding', which involves eliminating all elements which do not contribute to reaching learning goals or do not facilitate understanding. Examples of extraneous cognitive load caused by animation can be images not related to the theme of the lesson, distracting movement or complex backgrounds. A very strict approach to weeding would suggest eliminating even background music, whereas more lenient versions would only recommend reducing the amount of extra information provided about the topic. How much extra information to remove when designing an animation should be based on the learners' prior knowledge of the subject, since extra information which could make understanding overwhelming for a novice could actually be helpful and motivating for a more advanced learner (Brame, 2015).

Another way of reducing extraneous load is 'signalling' (also known as 'cueing'), which involves highlighting the most relevant pieces of information so that the learners know where to focus their attention. This guides learners and reduces the cognitive effort required to select the relevant elements (Amedieu, Mariné & Laimay, 2010). When used in combination with weeding, signalling can ensure that even if some non-essential elements have been left in the animation, the learners' attention can be directed to the most relevant aspects of the material. Signalling or cueing can be done by using arrows or other graphics to point at specific parts (as shown in Figure 1), choosing different text, size or colour to make some elements more prominent, zooming or highlighting. Signalling will be particularly relevant in the case of novice learners, who will have more difficulties to identify the most relevant content of the animation.

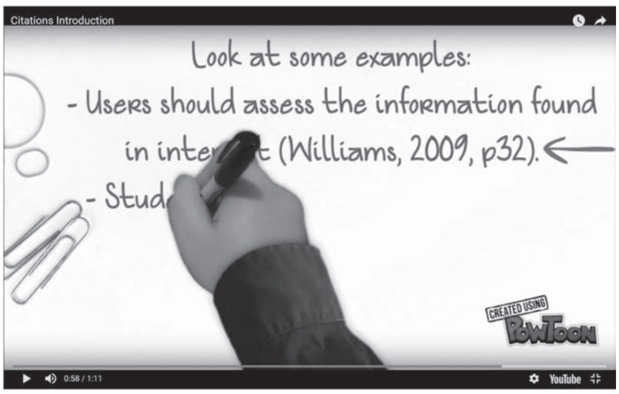

Figure 1. Animation where an arrow is used for signalling the most relevant part of the content (the citation).

A third design feature which can reduce extraneous load is to avoid using both narration and on-screen text. This is called the 'Redundancy Principle' and it is based on test results which showed that learners performed better 'after viewing a narrated animation rather than a narrated animation with concurrent on-screen text' (Mayer, 2008, p. 39). The reason why some animation designers opt for including both narration and on-text screen is their desire to accommodate both auditory and visual learners. If both narration and text are present in the animation, each learner would be able to choose whatever input they prefer depending on their learning styles. However, Mayer explains that this option can be problematic because whereas a narrated animation would have one element (i.e. images) processed through the visual/pictorial channel and another element (i.e. narration) processed through the auditory/verbal channel, a narrated animation with text would present two elements (i.e. images and text) which would have to be simultaneously processed through the visual/pictorial channel, potentially causing extraneous cognitive load in that channel and therefore hindering learning (2008). Furthermore, different studies have shown that when animation is accompanied only by narration, learners engage and remember more and their ability to transfer information increases (Brame, 2015).

It is important to clarify that the on-screen text discouraged by the Redundancy Principle would be a text reproducing what the narration is saying, which means that the animation would present identical printed and spoken words, hence making the printed words 'redundant'. The principle would not apply, however, to text consisting of key words that have the purpose of highlighting the most relevant parts for the content (Mayer & Johnson, 2008), which could also be taken as an example of signalling.

A further recommendation to reduce cognitive overload has been made in relation to the use of key words and highlighting text: to place text right next to the part of the animation it refers to. This has been called the 'Spatial Contiguity Principle', which maintains that 'people learn better when corresponding elements of the narration and on-screen text are presented near rather than far from each other on the screen' (Mayer, 2008, p. 40). When images and corresponding/explanatory text are placed apart from each other, learners are forced to scan the screen and find the connection between images and words, which adds a cognitive effort which can be avoided by placing the text closer to the image. This is particularly relevant if the learner is not given the possibility of pausing or replaying the animation and must make connections between text and image in a matter of seconds.

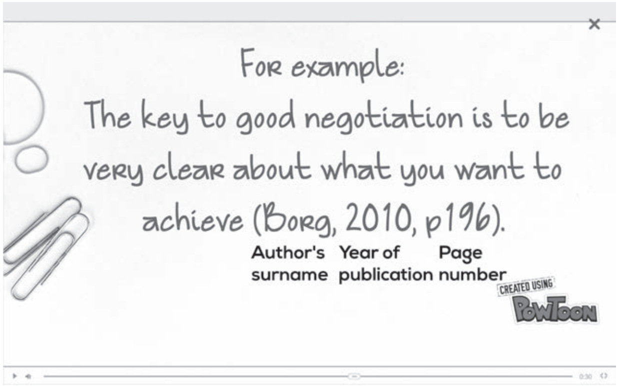

Figure 2. Animation where the text used to guide learners' attention to specific parts of the content (author's surname, etc.) is placed next to the elements it refers to.

Together with the recommendations mentioned above to reduce extraneous cognitive load in animation, cognitive research has also resulted in a series of principles directed at facilitating the processing of information. According to the Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning, the last step in the learning process would be 'generative processing' (Mayer, 2008, p. 43), which involves selecting and organising the relevant parts of the material and relating them to prior knowledge. This cognitive process is more likely to be achieved when on the one hand, the animation design helps manage the difficulty or complexity of the subject matter and on the other, it fosters engagement and deep understanding.

When the material to be learned is intrinsically complex and the processing needed to understand it is superior to the learners' cognitive capacity we talk about 'essential processing overload'. There are several animation design features that can help manage essential overload and therefore facilitate the selecting and organising of relevant information. One of these features is signalling or cueing, which has been previously mentioned as beneficial to reduce extraneous overload but which can also be useful to avoid essential processing overload, since it can make the organisation of the material and the relationship between its different parts clearer to the learner. An example of such cues could be an animation where the accompanying narration emphasizes the main ideas through intonation and signposting words such as 'first', 'second', 'as a consequence', etc. The role of these discourse markers would be to guide the attention of the learner to the most relevant parts of the animation, which has been proved to have positive effects on how much learners remember and on how difficult they perceive the subject matter to be (Jamet, Gavota & Quaireau, 2008).

'Segmenting' the animation into small units is another of the features which has proved to be efficient to reduce essential processing overload. When used in combination with signalling and weeding, segmenting can help learners organise content and integrate it with previous knowledge (Ibrahim, Antoneko, Greenwood & Wheeler, 2012). Segmenting can be done by introducing pauses after each main part of the animation, an option which can be optimized if the pause can be controlled by the learner. Another way of segmenting is to include tasks at different points of the animation and require students to complete them before they are allowed to continue (see Figures 3 and 4). Learners could be assessed on what the animation has shown previously and/or be asked to make predictions about what is going to be explained later.

Figure 3. Animation with integrated tasks. The numbers on the time line at the bottom of the screen indicate where tasks will have to be completed.

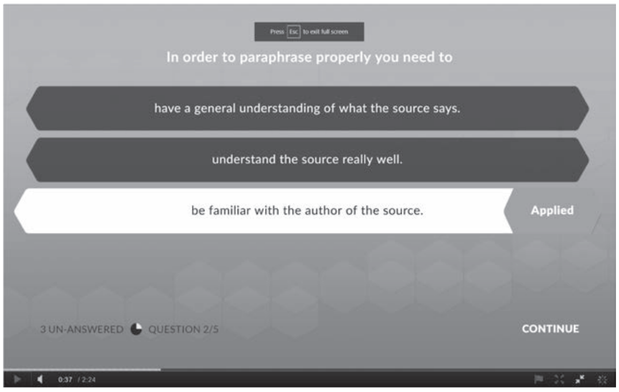

Figure 4. Quiz integrated within the animation shown in Figure 3. Learners are asked to complete the task before continuing watching the animation. The correct answers are provided at the end.

Giving learners the possibility of pausing the animation whenever they want or testing their understanding at different points of the animation are regarded as interactive features. Bétrancourt talks about the ‘interactivity principle’, which she defines as ‘the capability for learners to interact with the instructional material’ (2005, p. 287). When users have the choice of pausing the animation, rewinding and moving forward they are in control of how much content is presented to them at one time and how much they want to watch again; they are also in control of how much time to spend in each of the sections, which facilitates a progressive processing of the information. It seems that being able to interact and control the animation can enhance students’ motivation and enjoyment and has been linked to better performance (Kim *et al.*, 2007; Mayer & Chandler, 2001).

Segmenting may not be necessary if a lesson is broken into a series of short animations instead of the whole content being presented in a long one. A large study about the relationship between online educational videos and student engagement revealed that the length of the videos is the factor that influences engagement the most. Results showed that the shortest videos, no longer than three minutes, had the highest engagement and that students often watched less than halfway if the videos were longer than nine minutes (Guo, Kim & Robin, 2014). Some animated video software such as PowToon recommend 60-90 seconds as the most appropriate length for animations. It has also been observed that students are more likely to engage in assessment activities after watching short videos than after watching long ones. Furthermore, video producers have pointed at the possibility of shorter videos having higher quality content, ‘since it takes meticulous planning to explain a concept succinctly’, which means that shorter videos could be more engaging ‘not only due to length but also because they are better planned’ (Guo *et al.*, 2014).

Besides the design features which can contribute to manage the intrinsic difficulty of the material, generative processing can also be fostered by building a ‘sense of social partnership’ between the learner and the animation (Mayer, 2008). One of the design-related principles proposed to achieve this fostering is the ‘personalization principle’, which maintains that people learn better if the narration in the animation has an informal or conversational style rather than a formal one, for example by using ‘you’ to make the message more personal or by avoiding formal structures such as passive phrases. The feeling of social partnership is also more easily achieved if the narrator’s voice used in the animation is a human voice rather than a machine simulated voice (the ‘voice principle’). It seems that when the narrator’s voice comes from a human, ‘learners might be more likely to accept the lesson as a social conversation’ (Mayer, 2008, p. 44). Experimental tests carried out by Mayer and his colleagues showed that students scored higher after being instructed with animations where a conversational style (rather than formal style) and a human voice (rather than machine simulated voice) were used (Mayer, 2008). It has been suggested that informal style and human voices make learners feel that the narrator is conversing with them, which increases their engagement and effort to understand the message they are being conveyed.

The concept of social partnership is especially relevant when discussing the use of 'animated pedagogical agents' (APAs), computerized characters with human-like gestures, speech, etc. which fulfil the role of tutor or learning companion. APAs seem to contribute to learners perceiving the animation as a social exchange, therefore creating a closer connection (partnership) between them and the learning material. Some of the features of APAs that learners value the most are the verbal and non-verbal signals which resemble the ones we use in face-to-face conversation, such as gestures, facial expressions and intonation. The possibility of showing emotion on the part of APAs has proved to enhance students' learning experience in several ways. For example, an APA that seems to care about a student's progress may encourage the student to care more about his/her own progress and an enthusiastic APA may foster similar enthusiasm in the learner. It has been pointed out that 'by creating the illusion of life, dynamically animated agents have the potential to significantly increase the time that people seek to spend with educational software' (Johnson, Rickel & Lester, 2000, p. 60).

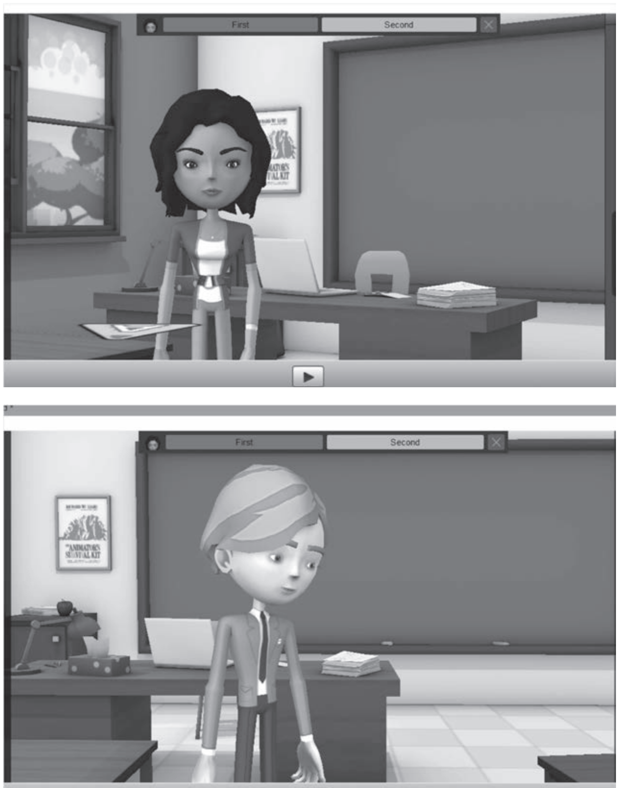

Figure 5. Two of the APAs available in the animation design software Nawmal.

Although the design features mentioned above can make a significant contribution to exploiting animation's potential as a teaching tool, they might not be sufficient. How the animations are used is equally relevant. A study carried out by Hwang, Tam, Lam & Lam (2012), where they tested animations designed following Mayer and Moreno's principles, revealed that learners had most frequently viewed the animations after reading their notes first and they suggested the addition of exercises related to the content of the animations. These reflections from students seem to indicate that the most efficient way of using animations is in combination with other teaching materials. Hegarty and Kriz also point out that in order to be efficient as a teaching tool animation must not only be designed in accordance with research-informed principles, but must also be used as just one component of a larger learning context (2008). Learning platforms such as Moodle make it possible to integrate animation with other teaching resources in a very effective way. Animations can for example be inserted in texts or be used in combination with a variety of quizzes. The combination of animation with other types of learning resources offers a varied learning experience and caters for diverse learning styles.

Conclusion

All the design-related recommendations mentioned above, regardless of whether they are meant to reduce the extraneous cognitive load or enhance generative processing, share the objective of creating animation which enhances active learning. Although it is true that achieving active learning is the purpose of *all* learning materials, not only those presented through animation, consulting research findings seems especially relevant when designing multimedia learning material. One of the main challenges of teaching with animation is avoiding overestimating the power of the attractiveness of this medium and to remember that 'learners can passively watch animations just as they can passively listen to lectures, read text, and look at diagrams' (Golding, 2008, p. 362).

Tversky's two aphorisms for animations: 'seeing isn't perceiving, perceiving isn't understanding' (Tversky, Heiser, Mackenzie, Lozano & Morrison, 2008, p. 266) clearly warn against over-relying on the supposedly intrinsic motivating factor of multimedia tools. With the technological means to create animation that we now have available and the research done so far, designers and teachers can ensure that animation is designed and used in such a way that contributes positively to learning. Future research will shed light on issues that need exploring, such as the effectiveness of specific types of cues and the role of pedagogical agents, and will surely result in new pedagogical guidelines that will allow us to exploit the educational potential of animation even further.

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Vyond, available at *https://vyond.com*

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FOLIO 18/2

How Do I Know 'Jack and Jill Went up the Hill'? Teaching pragmatics and modality to beginners needs context to bring it to life: insights drawn from consideration of obligatory evidential marking in Tibetan.

Craig Meulen

Introduction

The burgeoning interest in Tibetan Buddhism, in particular, has led people from around the world to start learning Tibetan. As yet, however, there is neither an established methodology nor a significant choice of modern textbooks for Tibetan as a Second or Foreign Language (TTSL/TTFL). Specific features of the spoken Tibetan language necessitate consideration of issues related to context, pragmatics and modality at a very early stage. So this paper should be of interest to all teachers of any foreign language wishing to bring forward the teaching of these very human aspects of a language.

Generally, Tibetan is taught using Mandarin Chinese or English as a medium of instruction. This paper, however, is based on considerations necessary for a target-language-only approach (corresponding to the standard ELT approach). In this paper, 'Tibetan' refers to modern spoken Tibetan in its semi-established standard variant - largely based on the spoken dialect of Central Tibet and commonly referred to as 'Lhasa Tibetan'.

One feature of spoken Tibetan is taken as the starting point for the considerations in this paper: obligatory grammatical evidential marking. What is this? In Tibetan, even the simplest statement has to include a grammatical tag (in the form of a verbal auxiliary) that is determined by the source of the speaker's knowledge. Without the correct tag the utterance can be misunderstood, and none of the tags can be considered a 'default'.

So, in order to utter their very first sentences, a beginner learner has to make a choice which is unfamiliar to speakers of most major languages. It is quite difficult to explain this even where another language is being used as a medium of instruction, but in a target-language-only approach in the beginner classroom there is no sophisticated or meta-language available for such explanations. Furthermore, the linguistic constraints governing the choice of auxiliary depend on the context of the utterance rather than its contents. Indicators for this context are often internal (speaker's intention) or prior to the utterance (events providing the speaker with their knowledge).

A teacher therefore has difficulties to present and practise this language feature. In order to help overcome these difficulties and devise potential teaching strategies, this paper briefly reviews similar language features in more major languages taught as a foreign language and also looks for inspiration from elicitation techniques used in the field by linguists researching languages with this feature. Recommendations for teaching and materials design are then presented in a way that highlights their more general relevance for teaching other languages.

Evidentiality - marking the source of knowledge

The reader of this journal is most probably unfamiliar with Tibetan, so there follows a brief description of the specific features of Tibetan being investigated.

Where does a speaker's knowledge come from?

Let us take an easy clause from a well-known English nursery rhyme: 'Jack and Jill went up the hill ...' ('... to fetch a pail of water'.) In English this is suitable for a beginner's lesson on the past simple, but in Tibetan we have a problem. In Tibetan 'you have to tag the end of every sentence - and you have a choice [of tags]' (Hill, personal communication). These tags are determined by the source of your knowledge - they are *evidential markers*.

Without the correct tag the utterance can be misunderstood and none of the sources of knowledge can be treated as the 'default', so which version of the sentence should the beginner utter first? Furthermore: The syntactic slot for these evidential markers is the same slot foreseen for the markers of time, aspect and epistemic modality, so a learner can easily become confused.

Table 1 presents our English nursery rhyme sentence and a different but comparable Tibetan sentence (in an approximate phonetic transcription). Four sources of knowledge are distinguished, elucidated in each cell by means of one possible context (in brackets). The reader will see how the Tibetan verb is followed by a different auxiliary (underlined in the Tibetan example) for each source of knowledge, whereas in English, the same verb construction remains valid.

The salient point here is that for English speakers it is *possible* to distinguish these sources or contexts by expanding on the basic verb construction (perhaps by means of modal verbs or 'it seems that'), whereas Tibetan speakers are *obliged* to provide this information through the auxiliary. From a curriculum planning perspective, therefore, for English these *possible* features can come later after the basic structure. But for Tibetan the *obligatory* features have to appear at a very early stage.

Source of knowledge is distinct from certainty

Observant readers will have noticed the '100%' in Table 1 in the contexts for the 'inferential' source of knowledge. This is criterion is necessary because we are bordering on the domain of epistemic modality: how a language enables its speakers to express the degree of certainty behind their statement. English commonly does this through the modal verbs ('might/ must have gone up the hill') or with adverbials ('possibly/probably went up the hill').

Tibetan has similar adverbials, but epistemic modality is most commonly expressed in the choice of auxiliary. The auxiliaries that express this degree of uncertainty occupy the same slot at the end of the sentence as the auxiliaries under consideration in this paper, as well as those used to indicate time/tense and aspect. So confusion for the learner is very likely, and it is particularly necessary for the teacher and language learning materials writer to maintain a distinction between situations where the speaker is clearly 100% sure of the cause of the conditions they are talking about, and situations where the speaker has some uncertainty.

L1 acquisition of evidentials

The relevance of L1 childhood acquisition to L2 (adult) learning is hotly debated, but a brief look at L1 acquisition of evidentiality may nonetheless provide some insights if we are to teach this feature in an authentic way.

Theory of mind

The 'theory of mind' is a term used to refer to the human ability 'to understand and articulate the difference between their own knowledge and another person's' (Gawne, 2013, pp. 94–95). Since the linguistic feature we are considering is directly dependent on the speaker's knowledge, and this knowledge will be different to that of the learner who is trying to understand or replicate the statement made by that speaker, it will surely be helpful if a language learning materials writer can draw explicit attention to the speaker's knowledge at the time of the utterance.

SOURCE OF KNOWLEDGE	ENGLISH EXAMPLE	TIBETAN EXAMPLE
common / factual	*Jack and Jill went up the hill.* (everyone knows their job is to fetch pails of water)	*sonam-gi thangka kel pa-re* Sonam hung up a thangka.[1] (I know; people know)
direct perception	*Jack and Jill went up the hill.* (I saw them going up the hill)	*sonam-gi thangka kel song* Sonam hung up a thangka. (I know; I saw Sonam doing it)
inferential	*Jack and Jill went up the hill.* (I see a full pail of water - evidence - I can be 100% sure it was Jack and Jill who fetched it)	*sonam-gi thangka kel zhag* Sonam hung up a thangka. (a new thangka is on the wall; circumstances mean I 100% know Sonam did it.)
personal	*Jack, Jill and I went up my hill.* (to fetch a pail of my wonderful spring water - I know)	*ng-e thangka kel pa-yin* I hung up a thangka. (I know; I did it)

Table 1 – Examples of sources of knowledge

(Tibetan column and contexts adapted from Hill (2017), although Hill actually disputes this commonly used four-way typology for Tibetan. Nonetheless, his presentation serves an illustrative purpose here. The reader wishing to know more about the variety of evidential systems in the world's minor languages is referred to: Aikhenvald (2018) or Aikhenvald (2004), and for Tibetic languages to Gawne & Hill (2017).)

1. A thangka is a traditional religious painting.

Direct evidentials are mastered before indirect

Research with native-speaker children of Tibetan, Turkish, Quechua (spoken in the Andes) and Korean (which all encode some evidentiality grammatically) has demonstrated that adult-like mastery is shown earliest for markers related to direct (sensory) sources of knowledge: Ozturk & Papafragou (2009), de Villiers, Garfield, Gernet-Girard, Roeper, & Speas (2009), Grzech (2017) and Aksu-Koç (1988, cited in Ozturk & Papafragou, 2009). In fact, it is similar in English, even though English encodes evidentiality lexically rather than grammatically. A construction such as 'John looks like he is sick' marks direct (visual) evidence for the statement 'John is sick'. Focussing on infants' understanding of this type of sentence - known as 'raised' constructions - Rett & Hyams (2014, p. 219) found: 'despite the nonobligatory, nongrammaticized nature of evidentiality in English, the children in our study show no production delay relative to children acquiring evidential languages. They use the raised construction [...] from age two'.

Grammar is not everything

Context influences source of knowledge

In a Quechua research study, two- and three-year-olds exhibit more sophisticated usage of their language's evidential markers during an exercise where they re-tell a story, compared to limited usage in spontaneous conversations. So it would appear the form of the exercise itself provides context which enhances their ability to 'capture the distinction between experienced (perceived) and non-experienced (unperceived) past' (Courtney, 2015, p. 138). This is surely a salient observation for the language learning materials writer. If the learner is being encouraged to speak, are they being put into a role or context which will influence the way they speak?

Prosody, lexis and gestures also convey evidentiality

Roseano, González, Borràs-Comes, & Prieto (2016) looked at multi-modal expression of epistemic certainty and evidentiality among speakers of Catalan. They found that the degree of certainty (epistemic stance) was sometimes communicated by means of language alone, but sometimes gesture and prosody was responsible - ignoring the latter would lead to missing half the instances. For evidentiality, some degree of lexis or grammar was always involved, but gestures were nonetheless very common and important: 'the speaker points to herself while saying "I've never tried it personally" (as a direct evidential)' and then 'points at an abstract referent when saying "Everybody around me has always taken aspirin" (as a mediated evidential)' (p. 156).The implication for the language learning textbook writer is obvious: enhancing the target language printed on the page with media that can provide or encourage gestures or prosody will surely be advantageous when it comes to helping the learner to fully grasp the speaker's communicative intentions. (This paper assumes applicability to other languages - although the author does not yet know of any research categorising which languages rely at least partially on gesture for evidential marking.)

L2 acquisition and teaching

CEFR: Pragmatics not for beginners?

Action-oriented approach

As we have seen above, Tibetan has features, including evidentiality, which fall within a broad definition of pragmatics and appear to necessitate providing the learner with information beyond that contained in the target language utterance printed on the page of the textbook. Since the 'methodological message of the CEFR is that language learning should be directed towards enabling learners to act in real-life situations' with an 'action-oriented approach [...] whose primary focus is not language' (Council of Europe, 2017, p. 27), adopting the CEFR approach should surely give rise to situations where pragmatic contexts are prominent. This will contribute to overcoming the difficulties presented by the issue at hand. However, there are other complicating factors.

Tangible to intangible

CEFR indicators generally progress from finite, tangible communication at early levels to more abstract, intangible language later. In English this also corresponds to an increase in the structural complexity of the language used for these types of communication. So, the learner of English can start with the simpler grammar of the tangible language ('John played football'), which is neutral regarding the pragmatic issues at hand, before moving on to the more complex grammar of the more intangible statements ('It seems John played football'). In Tibetan that is not the case - both equivalents would have the same syntactic complexity, with the only difference being the choice of final auxiliary. Perhaps the fact that both structures have the same degree of complexity is also a factor behind the native-speaker feeling that it is artificial and unnecessary to have any significant delay before introducing the more pragmatic, less tangible version of the statement to learners.

CEFR: Narrative and linking is not expected at early levels

Looking at various descriptors in the CEFR tables, it would appear that 'linked language' and 'narrative' only appear around level B1 or later, with a few qualified appearances at A2. Two selected examples include:

Listening as a member of a live audience:

A2: Can follow a very simple, well-structured

> presentation or demonstration, provided that it is illustrated with slides, concrete examples or diagrams, it is delivered slowly and clearly with repetition and the topic is familiar. (Council of Europe, 2017, p. 57)

Understanding conversation between others:

B2: Can follow chronological sequence in extended informal speech, e.g. in a story or anecdote. (Council of Europe, 2017, p. 56)

There is a question here when it comes to teaching through the target language: How can we make use of narrative to deliver the necessary context at lower levels if the ability to follow a language-based narrative is not expected until later levels? One possible answer is to use non-word-based narrative, such as picture/photo stories, or the 'slides' and 'diagrams' used to qualify the A2 indicator cited above.

Japanese: Distinguish between overlapping usages by means of helpful contexts

It is useful to look at the teaching of Japanese since it is a major world language that features some evidentiality and has a significant number of foreign learners. Yamaguchi (2014, p. 221) reports that 'evidential markers have not been researched actively for the purpose of Japanese pedagogy in comparison to topics such as discourse markers or modality markers', noting, however, Huang (2003) as an exception. In that review of three related Japanese evidential markers (*yooda, rashii, mitaida*) as presented in textbooks for Taiwanese learners, Huang analysed the frequency and context of the examples presented, as well as the contrasts between the different usages: hearsay, conjecture and euphemism. Two points seem especially relevant to our discussion of Tibetan.

Firstly, beginner and intermediate learners of Japanese were over-using *yooda* (in its 'I saw the evidence' form) in places where *rashii* would be the correct native usage to convey the 'hearsay' nature of utterances. This suggests initial over-usage of a form that is more readily graspable because it has a more direct sensory connection. This would concur with the observations on L1 acquisition above. In turn, this could be taken as an indication of which form to present first to learners.

Secondly, Huang advises careful consideration of when to present aspects or forms separately and when to present them together in order to contrast them. For this, clear and longer contexts are needed to present the manner in which particular utterances are made because of particular situational aspects.

Existing textbooks for Tibetan

The following informal review of some features of existing TTSL/TTFL textbooks is very brief, but a comprehensive review would exceed the scope of this article. (It is planned for the near future.) At Tibet University in Lhasa, Han Chinese students are required to take an elementary Tibetan course and use textbooks with Chinese as a medium of instruction. However, this author does not read Chinese, so they have not been considered for this paper. The other main textbooks used around the world for foreign learners are *Manual of Standard Tibetan* (Tournadre & Dorje, 2003), *Colloquial Tibetan* (Samuels, 2014), *Colloquial Tibetan* (Chonjore & Abinanti, 2003), *A Beginning Textbook for Lhasa Tibetan* (Bartee & Nyima Droma, 2000) and the textbooks by Franziska Oertle (2015, newly revised 2018).

These all use English as a language of explanation and instruction. In places, this leads to the books having more English on the page than Tibetan. It also often requires a fairly sophisticated knowledge of the terminology and subtleties of English grammar, an approach which is fraught with pitfalls since many learners are not sufficiently familiar with that, and anyway Tibetan grammar is quite different. The *Manual of Standard Tibetan* uses more Tibetic-specific linguistic terms but this can also be confusing, since the concepts involved are often not present in the major languages spoken by the learners.

Existing textbooks, with the notable exception of Oertle (2015, 2018), appear to prioritise 'familiarity' for the learner in two key ways. Firstly, they present the verbs and verbal auxiliaries of spoken Tibetan in terms of grammatical person, although there is compelling evidence that this is not the factor determining the choice of auxiliaries (see, for example, Oertle, 2011, or Hill, 2017). Secondly, with regard to the concept of sources of knowledge, the 'common/factual' source of knowledge is generally presented first, presumably since this appears to be the most similar to the 'neutral' sentences we find initially in coursebooks for English and other major languages. As we have seen above, however, there is evidence that the first evidential form mastered by both L1 children and L2 learners of languages is actually the direct sensory evidential and not the (more abstract) 'general, factual truth' form.

So, for Tibetan the 'familiarity-first' approach might lead to a false sense of security. It is also this author's anecdotal experience from talking to learners that any apparent initial ease then later turns out to be a disadvantage because these familiar concepts do not go on to explain the actual spoken Tibetan that the learners encounter.

For these reasons, a comprehensive survey of the acquisition and use of the different auxiliaries is needed to establish whether any pedagogical justification can be gained for a particular approach. This might be based on factors such as the 'native' order of acquisition, the frequencies of usage, the relative significance of everyday occurrences of the specific pragmatics involved, or the interactions between the various sentence-final auxiliaries (of time, aspect, epistemic modality and evidentiality).

From field linguistics research to pedagogy: perspective and contrast

Having identified some of the issues at hand, we now seek some inspiration for classroom solutions by considering the work of linguists. Precision and clarity are needed as they investigate undocumented aspects of languages by interacting with native speakers and eliciting specific linguistic phenomena. It is proposed here that we can adapt their materials and techniques for classroom use in order to ensure precision and clarity during the presentation and practice of evidential markers for Tibetan and related pragmatic features such as modality in lessons for any language.

A good place to start is with Gawne's (2013) investigation of Lamjung Yolmo, a Tibetic language spoken in Nepal. Her work makes use of an impressive set of tasks and activities that expand and develop resources and ideas from other linguists, which will also be specifically referenced where useful.

Family story

In this picture-based narrative, visual prompts are provided to a speaker who is then asked to use them to tell a story. Gawne explains: 'If they present the story in third person they are asked to repeat it in first person, assuming the role of one of the main characters. This provides narrative, but also provides specific point-of-view data' (2013, p. 71). (Useful details for language materials writers wishing to adapt this method can also be found in San Roque, Floyd, & Norcliffe, 2015.)

Jackal and crow story

Developed by language and social cognition researchers, this involves a sequence of nine images which tell the fable-style story of two animal characters (Gawne, 2013, p. 55). The crow takes a fish and flies to a tree, a jackal passes by, sees the crow and decides he wants the fish. The jackal devises a plot where he gets the crow to sing by complimenting him on his voice, thus making the crow drop the fish. The story is useful because it involves two perspectives (the jackal's and the crow's). Transferred into the language learning classroom, this natural switch between two distinct perspectives would allow the reader/learner to easily grasp why, for example, the jackal makes a similar utterance to the crow but uses different auxiliaries.

Hidden objects

Participants are faced with several everyday objects covered by cloth. Firstly, based purely on the visible shape, they are asked to guess the objects. Secondly, 'they are invited to feel the objects through the cloth and guess what they are. Finally, the cloth is removed and speakers are asked to say what the objects are while looking at them' (Gawne, 2013, p. 58). The purpose of this staged activity is 'to get controlled data on evidential and epistemic use by different speakers'.

The situation described here creates distinct yet related utterances where the key difference is in the sensory information available. Where realia are available, this could be reproduced directly as a language learning classroom task. Alternatively, language learning materials could portray similar situations, including utterances made at each of the steps of discovering the objects. The portrayals need to make it clear who is speaking and what sensory information is available to them at the time of their speaking.

Multiple reports

As in all of these elicitation exercises, the participant is a native speaker of the Tibetic language Gawne is investigating (which features evidential markers). A brief factual prompt is given to the participant about an event, and then they hear reports about that event from two different people. These reports have been authored to include conflicting evidential or modal information (due to the use of different auxiliaries). The participant then has to make a decision based on this reported information.

Gawne provides the English translation of an example (2013, p. 60):

The participant is first told: *'Your sister has a new skirt, you have not seen the skirt.'*

The participant then hears the speech of one reporting person, *'The skirt is red* (using a perceptual evidence marker)' and then the speech of a second reporting person saying, *'The skirt is green* (using an ego evidence marker)'

The participant is then asked, *'What colour do you think the skirt is?'*

Gawne: 'The intention in this activity was to access speaker intuitions about whether the modal or evidential information in the sentence influenced which of the reports they would believe' (ibid.). Taking these results and reversing them for use in the classroom, a narrative could portray a listener reacting to what they hear and subsequently choosing to believe one or other report. This provides the learner with context which would help them understand the authentic usage of the language structure.

Furthermore, Gawne points out that whereas the other experiments are designed to elicit the structures under investigation, this one 'was designed to access intuitions without necessarily asking people to create the utterances themselves' (ibid.). This is also a useful idea for the language classroom - perhaps for checking understanding of a new language structure without requiring the students to produce it.

Gawne does highlight one exercise-design risk, however, reflecting the pragmatic nature of the situation: if within the role-play scenario, one reporting role has more social authority than the other, this may override the effect of the language structures each role utters.

Controversy as a relevant context

As mentioned above, evidentiality is closely related to (or, some claim, a sub-set of) epistemic stance (relating to uncertainty). In a video-supported experiment looking at this feature in Catalan, (Roseano *et al.*, 2016) focused on 'prosodic and gestural patterns' (p. 136). The experiment was designed to elicit authentic reports differing in certainty and record these on video. It did this by recording oral opinions expressed by participants 'after reading two short articles on [...] a controversial issue (the properties and effects of acupuncture) and a less controversial issue (the properties and effects of aspirin)' (p. 135). This factor of controversy did indeed result in a natural context for clear expressions of relevant pragmatic language features: distancing, personal knowledge, and general knowledge. So once again, we have a convenient factor which can be incorporated into language learning materials.

Encompass the reader on the page

A beautifully illustrated children's book, *Anno's Hat Tricks* (Nozaki & Anno, 1995) has been used by linguists and cognitive scientists to explore the theory of mind and related language. Among others, de Villiers *et al.* (2009, p. 42) describe it as the 'most informative inference task we used'.

It is so useful because of the way it helps the reader make a close connection to the perspective behind an inferential statement: the drawings include the shadow of a child (Figure 1) and on its opening pages the narrator urges the reader, 'Please think of it as your own shadow. In this book, I will call you Shadowchild' (Nozaki & Anno, 1995, p.3). The reader is then led by the narrator through an increasingly complex sequence of logical inferences where each time they figure out the colour of the hat on their own head after processing the information they receive from looking at a picture (which their shadow is part of) and reading the corresponding statement from the narrator.

Figure 1: 'Shadowchild' (Nozaki & Anno, 1995)

Implications for pedagogy

Suggestions for materials design and classroom teaching within the Tibetan language teaching context are now presented.

Start early

This paper briefly explained why the obligatory nature of evidential markers in Tibetan appears to necessitate presenting this issue to beginner learners. However, some teachers may still consider this relatively intangible pragmatic feature as not necessary or even not suitable for beginners. Evidence to the contrary comes from a study on English (lexicalised) evidentiality by Rett & Hyams (2014), who demonstrated that infants from the age of two were **producing** sentences such as 'John looks like he is sick'. So surely this justifies seeking a pedagogically sound way to introduce these pragmatic structures to adult learners. Furthermore, perhaps even learners of major languages such as English would benefit from an earlier introduction to pragmatic language.

Pay attention to perspective

When we consider common (ELT or other) language learning materials, how often do they prompt utterances which are somewhat 'perspective-free' or even 'disconnected'? Perhaps it is more accurate to ask whether these classroom utterances are actually being made from **one very specific perspective**: one human is looking at a visual prompt in a book and making a statement about what they see. It would seem that the lack of evidential marking in beginner-level English allows us to ignore the fact that this is actually a specific perspective. Image-based approaches such as the *Jackal and Crow* and *Family Story* activities or the *Shadowchild* approach described above can be used in order to clearly convey perspective without the use of advanced language.

Context is all-important

Regarding the main research question of how to present the somewhat unfamiliar aspects of Tibetan to beginner learners in a target-language-only approach, the main conclusion to be drawn is perhaps the same as Huang's (2003) conclusion in his review of textbooks for Japanese learners in Taiwan: insufficient effort is being made by materials writers to clarify the unfamiliar context of any particular utterance presented - or the unfamiliar constraints resulting from that context which determine the choice of utterance.

Another way to state this conclusion can be found in Yamaguchi (2014, p.7): 'when we teach these markers, it is important to be aware of which type of information, i.e. evidence or knowledge, needs to be emphasized in contextualizing situations in which the markers are used'. In order to fulfil this requirement, writers of language materials can draw inspiration from the methods used by researchers as described in the various sections of this paper above, in order to clearly portray to the reader/learner the following elements which may be the crucial aspects of the context for a particular utterance:

- clear speaker identities
  - who is speaking
  - relationship between protagonists
  - what knowledge and/or sensory information is available to speaker or counterpart
  - speaker as witness of action described by verb
- speaker is expressing surprise / new information
- speaker is making or avoiding a controversial statement

It is also of vital importance that this input also comes in forms other than printed language (i.e. audio-visual). This avoids the use of meta-language or context-providing narrative which would necessitate language more complex than that available to the low-level learner. We have also seen that prosody, lexis and gesture are all involved in creating the space of knowledge which speakers generally share (and which this consideration of evidentiality has highlighted). So, if prosody, lexis and gesture are all present in a normal conversation, aiding the communication, logically the presentation of unfamiliar language will be clearer if the materials can include video, photo or other contextual clues.

The research study on Quechua mentioned above (Courtney, 2015) demonstrates how the nature of the exercise itself is also 'context': a story retelling exercise improves understanding of different evidential markers compared to spontaneous conversation. And Yamaguchi (2014, p. 226) suggests: 'stories with a visual context, such as manga, would be effective types of materials for introducing evidential expressions as rich sources of discourse contexts and situational/physical contexts'.

The following elements will be the particular focus of future classroom research from this author to give practical consideration to the issues raised from the research reviewed in this paper:

- three-step photo- or story sequences illustrating:
  - background – event – utterance from a witness to that event
  - event – evidence – utterance based on that evidence
- judicious use of comic-influenced elements to portray non-visible context, such as
  - thought bubbles
  - line of sight arrows
- a recurring observer or narrator character, who could appear 'out-of-story' in the margins of the textbook to deliver meta-knowledge or clarifications to the reader.

It is hoped that enriching language learning materials with these context-providing elements will benefit not only the teaching of evidential markers to beginner learners of Tibetan, but also the earlier introduction of pragmatic features in any language being taught as a foreign or second language.

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FOLIO 18/2

Hausa Language Teaching Materials: A review

Umar Muhammad Gombe and Clifford I Gbeyonron

Introduction

The primary aim of this work is to review the grammar section of three selected Hausa language teaching coursebooks developed for teaching secondary school learners of Hausa in Bama, Borno State of northeastern Nigeria. The coursebooks were developed by teachers of Hausa who have keen interest in material development. All three materials are among the texts recommended by Nigeria's national examination bodies such as the West African Examination Council (WAEC) and the National Examination Council (NECO). They are also among the books recommended by the Nigerian Educational Research and the Development Council (NERDC) of the Hausa language curriculum for secondary schools. In order to achieve the aim of the work therefore, five evaluation questions were developed by the reviewers. The questions were developed so as to help the reviewers establish the suitability of the materials in catering for the second language needs of Kanuri learners of Hausa. As readers will be aware, materials evaluation is the process used critically in judging the suitability of materials according to language learners' identified needs. It is 'a procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning materials. It involves making judgments about the effect of the materials on the people using them' (Tomlinson, 2003, p. 15).

Background To The Target Group

The target learners (users of the materials under evaluation) are Kanuri speakers learning the Hausa language in Bama, Borno State, Nigeria. Kanuri is a language of the Saharan branch of the Nilo-Saharan phylum of African languages (Greenberg, 1970). It is the language of the majority of people in Borno and Yobe in north-eastern Nigeria. Until today, Kanuri is the only language being used in some parts of the two above-mentioned states. There are some communities including Bama town, for instance, where Kanuri is the only language spoken. However, because of its official status in Nigeria, English is the medium of instruction in all the Nigerian public schools. Thus only students who attend western education are in contact with or taught English, especially in the north where Hausa is the dominant language (it is the largest northern Nigerian language) and the lingua franca among speakers of various minority languages. In addition to English, children and young adults often learn Hausa or are taught how to use the Hausa language in secondary schools. Hausa is the first language of the majority of northern Nigeria people and a second language for others. Apart from Hausa, there are many minority languages in northern Nigeria.

However, some communities do not use the Hausa language completely. Common examples of such places or areas are communities in the northern part of Yobe and Borno states of north-eastern, Nigeria. Such communities use Kanuri and other languages such as Fulfulde, and Shuwa Arab. Hausa has been taught in northern Nigerian secondary schools for decades. Kanuri teenagers learning Hausa in secondary schools often find it difficult to use the Hausa language effectively. In Bama (where only Kanuri is spoken, as noted above), the secondary school students are not in any way in contact with Hausa outside the class as no one in the community uses the language. However, it becomes necessary for them to be able to express themselves in Hausa because of its status as a lingua franca. The learners will need to associate with different people as long as they move out of their hometown (Bama) for whatever reason. This is true especially when they travel to any other state in the north apart from Borno and Yobe states of the north east; without Hausa, they would find it very difficult to express themselves and interact with people.

Consequently, it becomes a matter of necessity to provide the Kanuri students learning Hausa with materials that can equip and enable them to use the language effectively in class for future use in the real world. Hausa materials used in Bama and other Kanuri communities are similar to those used in Hausa speaking communities in other parts of northern Nigeria. Learners in cities like Kano, Bauchi, and Kaduna have the opportunity of being exposed to the language (Hausa language) as it is spoken in the classes by their Hausa speaking schoolmates and the environment at large. But learners in Bama lack such opportunities; only the material and the language teacher can provide them with the opportunity to use the language. Having discussed such needs, three published Hausa materials for teaching secondary schools have been selected for evaluation about their suitability and effectiveness in favour of the above-mentioned learners. The materials are:

Sani, M.A.Z. (2011). *Tsarin Sauti da Nahun Hausa*. (Phonological systems and Hausa Grammar)

Bello, A.M. Z.(1981). *Darusasn Hausa dan Manyan Makaratun Sakandare*. (Hausa lessons for Senior Secondary Schools)

Imam, A. (2003). *Nahawun Hausa*. (Hausa Grammar)

Criteria For Evaluating Grammar Materials

To what extent are the grammar materials context-based?

Contextualisation is of great significance in grammar teaching, because learners can learn grammar in the way it is used naturally outside language teaching classes. 'Grammar in context' materials are different from traditional grammar materials because many of the examples used originate from real grammar in use (Carter, Hughes & McCarthy, 2000). That is to say, the materials are contextualised and brought in to the teaching situation to engage the learners with what they will come across in real life situations. For grammar material to be effective, the context in which the grammar area is presented should reflect the interest of the learners (Tomlinson, 2003). 'Grammar in context encourages an inductive approach to grammatical rules rather than relying completely on the traditional grammar books' (Carter, Hughes & McCarthy, 2000).This criterion checks whether or not the grammar-teaching materials under review are contextualised for successful learning.

Do the materials involve grammar teaching aids such as pictures, realia, videos and recordings to encourage meaningful language use?

According to Harmer (2007, p.178) 'teachers have always used pictures or graphics either taken from books, newspapers and magazines or photographs to facilitate learning'. Meanings of words taught in class are often clarified through the use of teaching aids such as pictures and realia of what is being taught such as fruits and objects for nouns, people at events performing actions for verbs, colours for adjectives (Harmer, 2007). Any grammar materials will have to represent a realistic use of the language being taught and include activities that lead learners on their own to produce meaningful utterances outside the class (Tomlinson, 2003). Thus, materials that include teaching aids such as the above can have a positive effect on learning.

Are the materials presented in simple language according to the learners' level?

It is important for materials to be accessible to the level of learners they are aimed at. Allen (1986) argues that defining words through the use of other simple words in a language is a good teaching technique. Even though this review is not examining English teaching materials but Hausa teaching materials, this principle is relevant because whatever method is applied in English can also be applied to Hausa as far as second language learning is concerned. Thus, this criterion will check whether or not the materials are designed in simple Hausa language.

Do the materials have learning activities such as tasks, dialogues, information gap, play acting, role play and group work for learners to practice the grammar of the target language?

This criterion is significant in the review because the goal of second language learning is to be able to communicate in the target language not only to learn the rules, as emphasised in communicative language teaching. The processes of communication involve different roles for learners in which learners can interact with one another through pair and group work (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Such activities often help the learners to practice the new language items more and more. They also test the learner's comprehension of newly-taught items and provide the teacher with real information on whether or not learners do understand the new items. These activities offer targeted use of the language so they motivate learning.

Additionally, the task is essential in grammar teaching because it 'engages [the learner] with the target language items in a meaningful way' (Ur & Swan, 2009, p.11). Dialogues and role plays are also of great significance in engaging learners for extensive practice of the newly-learned language items otherwise they will easily forget what they have learnt especially in the environments where the target language is not used. The use of such activities (dialogue, information gap, play acting, role play and group work) would, therefore, offer the learners opportunity and instill confidence in using the target language outside the class (Richards & Renandya, 2002).

Are the materials engaging in the way that encourages learners' experience and background involvement in the learning of grammar?

Involving learners' backgrounds and experiences in grammar teaching are very important in the learning process. Learners are motivated to actively participate in their learning process if they are allowed to bring in their personal experiences to the class. According to Tomlinson (2003), learners need to develop self-confidence, self-esteem and should be allowed to bring in their experiences, feelings, views, attitudes and interests to the class in the course of learning. Engagement is invaluable and important for effective learning (Tomlinson, 2003), so language materials need to be 'humanistic' that is, to take into account learners' own experiences etc.

Evaluation of the Three Materials

The Hausa materials (sections of coursebooks) evaluated were:

Material 1: Sani, M.A.Z. (2011) *Tsarin Sauti da Nahun Hausa*. Ibadan: University Press PLC, (pages 60, 61,62, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69 and 70) (phonological systems and Hausa Grammar)

Material 2: Bello, A.M. Z. (1981) *Darusasn Hausa dan Manyan Makaratun Sakandare*. London: Butler and Tanner Limited, (pages 1 -4) (Hausa lessons for Senior Secondary Schools)

Material 3: Imam, A. (2003) *Nahawun Hausa*: unpublished, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria, (pages 12, 13 and 14) (Hausa Grammar)

(See Appendix 1 for a translation of the three materials – summary, and Appendices 2 and 3 for front covers/ samples of materials 1 and 2)

The teaching of four parts of speech in Hausa language (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs) in these coursebooks were evaluated using the five criteria discussed above.

1. To what extent are the grammar materials context-based?

Material 1 presents and explains two of the four parts of speech out of context (nouns and adjectives). The verbs, however, are presented within sentences and the adverbs are within one sample sentence. As material 1, material 2 presents nouns and adjectives in isolation while verbs and adverbs are presented with examples at the sentence level. Material 3 only presents and explains verbs at the sentence level while all the other three parts of speech are presented in isolation. There is no evidence of using all the four parts of speech in context. As argued above, studying grammar out of context is not conducive for learning since it does not engage the learners with the real use of the language.

2. Do the materials involve grammar teaching aids such as pictures, realia, videos and recordings to encourage meaningful language use?

There is no attachment or inclusion of pictures in all the three materials teaching the four parts of speech. This will not facilitate understanding of the teaching and learning process or help learners imagine the real use of the language outside the learning class.

3. Are the materials presented in simple language according to the learners' level?

In defining and explaining the parts of speech, all three materials use simple words in explaining nouns, adjectives and adverbs while verbs are not explained in simple words according to the learners' level.

4. Do the materials have learning activities such as dialogues, information gap, play acting and role play for learners to practice the grammar of the target language?

In all three materials, there is no evidence of any learning activities such as writing (fill in the gaps) and speaking (dialogues or role plays).

5. Are the materials engaging in the way that encourages learners' experience and background involvement in the teaching of grammar?

Learners' backgrounds and experiences have not been considered as the materials only contain Hausa ethnic personal names in the examples of sentences. This does not engage learners because it does not consider their home experiences and backgrounds. Materials that use learners' ethnic or tribal personal names would have a positive impact in their learning process. This is because the learners will feel the material originally belongs to them. Kanuri ethnic names like Abdu for Audu, Bintu for Binta would have made it suitable, better and engaging because the Kanuri learners would feel at ease and that they are doing something related to their backgrounds or associated with them.

Conclusion

Having evaluated all three materials above based on the five criteria outlined, the materials have failed in four out of the five criteria. Only the third criterion which is the use of simple language (words) according to the learners' level in the presentation is considered in the material. As the target learners are not in any way in contact with the use of Hausa language in Bama town of Borno state, only well-designed and equipped communicative material can cater for the needs of the learners in acquiring it. It could be seen that the materials are based on deductive teaching using the grammar-translation method although even the grammar-translation method considers tasks and exercise for the learners to practice the language. Nevertheless, the materials can be made more communicative and cater for the needs of such groups of learners if the language is presented in context; that is if activities such as dialogues, flash cards, and gap filling are incorporated into the texts. For learners to be able to understand the grammar and achieve a functional command of the target language, they need to be exposed to it in its context of use, that is, in texts, not in isolated sentences (Thornbury, 1999).

Although the three materials reviewed are from different sources, they are very similar regarding design and method of presentation. For the materials to be suitably adapted for teaching the Kanuri learners in Bama, Borno State, the following need to be incorporated:

Communicative activities such as role play. Pictures of any words other than abstract words should be included in the materials to facilitate the learning process. Pictures of events demonstrating actions words (verbs) should also be included. The Kanuri personal ethnic names such as *Modu, Bintu, Fanna and Yaana* should be included in the materials so that the learners will feel comfortable and be more engaged to the materials because they consider their backgrounds and home experiences.

As earlier observed prior to embarking upon this review, it is worthy to state the relevance of English coursebooks such as the Pearson Longman series *New Total English* and the Oxford series *Oxford Practice Grammar* used for teaching English in the UK where various aspects of the language are presented in context purposely to engage the learners and expose them to real-world situations. Unlike what is obtainable in Nigeria, it may be interesting to argue that out-of-context grammar materials virtually do not exist in schools in the UK. This is not limited to English, but also applies to the teaching of other languages. Thus, any attempt to use the three materials for second language learners of Hausa in other parts of Nigeria where out-of-context grammar materials are not used, would jeopardize the absorption of the procedural knowledge of Hausa by the learners. It could be argued that what is obtainable in the teaching of certain languages could be applied to other languages; so it is invaluable for the materials or coursebook developers to adapt the current trend in developed nations and institutions towards developing their materials and coursebooks for the benefit of their target users. At present, such kinds of materials or coursebooks have quite a lot of dissimilarities with those found in the UK and other EU nations.

Having accessed and observed some of the UK's English Language Teaching (ELT) coursebooks such as the Pearson Longman series *New Total English*, the Oxford University Press series' *New English File* (Oxenden, Latham-Koenig, Seligson & Clandfield) and *Oxford Practice Grammar*, those coursebooks virtually comprise the three stages of presentation, practice and production which some believe are crucial for effective language learning. Activities such as play acting, free group discussions, role-play and reception with no overt response (showing learners the target structures within a written or spoken context) are very effective means of language teaching and learning (Ur, 2009) as context can easily be established at the presentation stage as well as the two other stages. Ur argues that it interests learners if they have a chance of being or acting as someone in imaginary situation, since it exposes learners to real language use. Such communicative techniques and activities if incorporated into the Hausa teaching materials and coursebooks could be more effective as observed in the UK. In order to discourage the use of the grammar-translation method in Nigeria, the material developers, coursebooks writers and relevant educational authorities have to review the present policies and adapt the best, realistic language teaching approach.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

Translation Of The Three Materials (Summary)

1. M.A.Z Sani, M.A.Z. (2011) *Tsarin Sauti da Nahun Hausa*. **Ibadan: University Press PLC**

(Sound system and Grammar of Hausa language Page 60-71)

HAUSA	GLOSS (ENGLISH)
SUNA	NOUN
Me ake nufi da suna?	What is a noun?
Abinda akenufi da suna shine sunan abu mai rai ko maras rai	a noun is a name of living or non-living thing
Wanda akegani da ido ko ba'a gani	which can be seen or cannot be seen
Don haka mutum,dabba ,kwaro ,dutse Kowanne sunane	That is a person, an animal or stone are all nouns
Sunairiiri ne	noun is of different kinds
Na yanka, gama gari, gagara-kirga, tattarau, dan aikatau	abstract noun, common noun, concrete noun, proper noun

AIKATAU	VERB
Me akenufi da aikatau	what is a verb
Aikatau kalmace dake kunshe da aikin da ke cikin jimla Misali Audu yawanke mota	a verb is a word that takes an action in a sentence for example: Audu washed a car
Binta ta dafaabinci	Binta cooked food
A wadannan jimlolin biyu, kalmomin Wanke da dafa aikataune	in the above two sentences, the words washed and cooked are verbs
Aikatau iri biyu ne	verb is of two types
Aikatau So- Karbau	Transitive verb
Wannan shine karbau keamsaraikin Dakedaukedashikokefadawakanshi	this is the one that an object receives the action it carries
A wadannanjimlolinbiyu, kalmomin Wanke da dafa aikataune	in the above two sentences, the words washed and cooked are verbs

Misali Yara sun deboruwa	for example: children fetched water

Aikataukikarbau	Transitive verb
Wannankumaakasinnafarkon ne, aikin Da ke cikin sa bai fadawa kan karbau. Misali Yarinyar ta mutu	This is an opposite of the first one. It does have an object for example: the girl died

SIFA	ADJECTIVE
Sifa kalmace dake bayyana suna Misali Yarodogo	an adjective is a word that describes a noun for example: tall boy
Kalmar dogoanansiface, sabida tananuni da ko wane irinyaro ne	here the word tall is an adjective because it tells the attributes of the boy.
Sifaita ma iriirice	adjective too is of different kinds
Sasauka	simple adjective
Nanatau	reduplicated adjective
Yaraikatau	adjectives derived from verbs

BAYANAU	ADVERBS
Ketabbatabayanikanaikatau a cikinjimla	this is a grammatical element which modifies a verb
Ketabbatabayanikanaikatau a cikinjimla	
Bayanauiriiri ne, sassauka da hardadde	adverbs is of different kinds: simple and complex
Sassaukarbayanau ta kasukashiuku Hadadde, nanatau da kumatsanantau Misali Can, jiyajiya, matuka	the simple adverbs is divided in to three single morpheme, reduplicated and degree adverbs for example: there, yesterday, very
Hardadden bayanau yakunshikalmafiyada guda Misali Gabarkogi Wajengari	complex adverb comprises more than one word for example: beach outside the town

2. Bello, A.M. Z .(1981) Darusasn Hausa dan Manyan Makaratun Sakandare. London: Butler and Tanner Limited (Hausa lessons for Senior Secondary Schools page 1-4)

SIFA	**ADJECTIVE**
Sifairiiricekamarhaka	adjective is of different kinds as follows
Sassaukakamardogo, doguwadogaye	simple like tall(male) tall (female) tall (plural)
Aiwataukkamarmaguji, magujiya, maguda	adjective derived from verbs like runner (male, female and plural)
Nanataukamarbuhububuhu, iriiri, huduhudu	Reduplicated like bag bag, four four, type type.

BAYANAU	ADVERB
Bayanauiririri ne	adverbs is of different kinds
Na wuri, nalokaci, nayanayi Misali Nan,can gobe, bara da sauri, da hankali	adverb of place, time and manner for example: here, there tomorrow, last year quickly, slowly

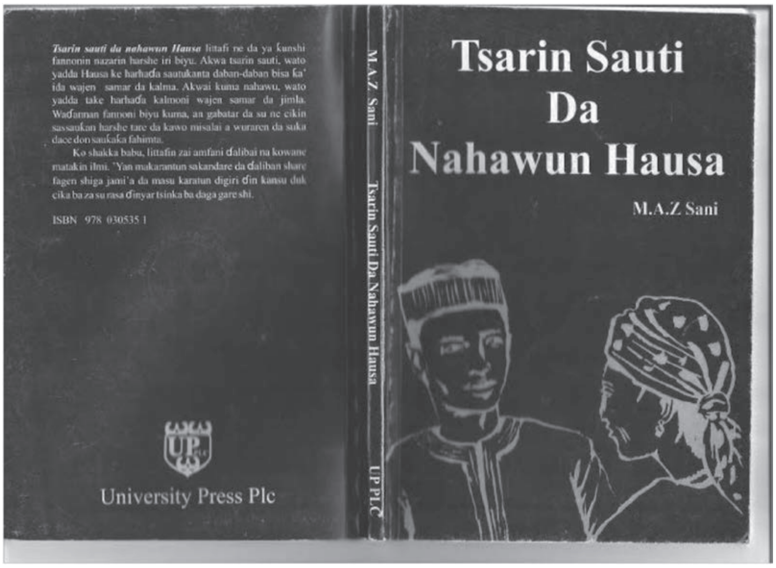
3. Imam, A. (2003) Nahun Hausa (Hausa Grammar page 12-17)

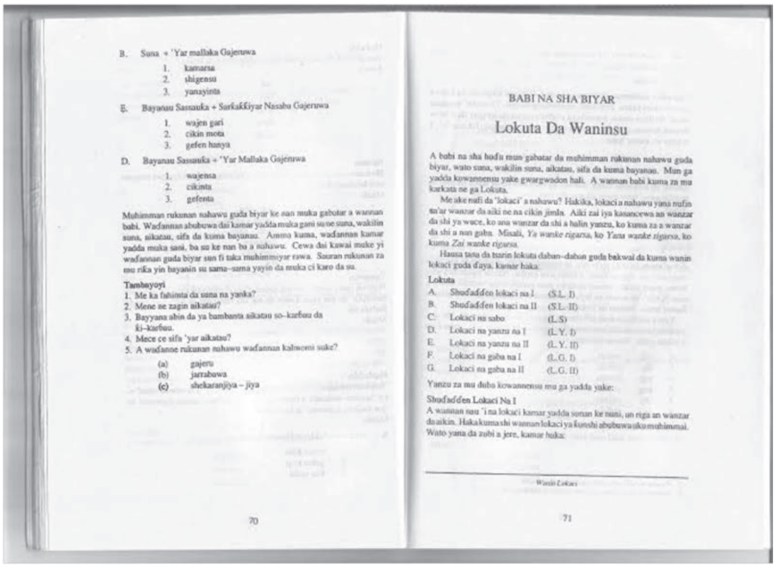
SIFA	ADJECTIVE
Sifa ta kasugida biyar	adjective is divided into five
Sassaukar sifa	simple adjective
Karkarfarsifa	strong adjective
A cikin wannan sifanne ake samun lugudenbaki Misali Rudadde, rudadduya rudaddu	sounds are repeated in this kind of adjective for example: confused person (male, female and plural)
Magorinsifa	
Itacewadda take farawada ha ma Misali Maaikaci, ma'aikaciyama'aikata	this is a kind of adjective that begins with 'ma' for example: a worker (male, female and plural)
Budaddiyar sifa	**open adjective**
Wannansifatana da sigogi da akeganetadasu kamarlugudenbaki a farkongaba Misali mummuna, munana karkarfa, karfafa	This kind of adjective is identified by repetition of first syllables for example: Ugly (singular & plural) strong (singular & plural)
Sarkakkiyar sifa	**complicated adjective**
Wannan sifar kumaana hadakalmomi biyu ne domin a tayar da ita Misali mai + hankali mai + hakuri	This adjective is derived from combination of two words. for example: sensible patient, tolerant

BAYANAU	ADVERB
Bayanau yakasu gida uku kamarhaka nawurinalokaci nay an yanayi	adverbs is divided into three kinds adverb of place, time and manner
Bayanau za'a sake kasashi zuwagida hudu	adverbs is further divided into four
Sassaukar bayanau kamar can	simple adverb like there
Hardaddiyan bayanau kamar gaban Alkali	complex adverb before the judge
Sarkakken bayanau	derived adverb
Wannan shine ake hadaburbushi da suna Misali amakaranta, dagayau, da safe	this is an adverb derived from combination of a noun and a preposition at school, from today, in the morning

APPENDIX 2

MATERIAL ONE: front cover and sample page





B. Suna + 'Yar mallaka Gajeruwa

1. kamarsa
2. shigensu
3. yanayinta

E. Bayanau Sassauka + Sarƙaƙƙiyar Nasaba Gajeruwa

1. wajen gari
2. cikin mota
3. gefen hanya

D. Bayanau Sassauka + 'Yar Malluka Gajeruwa

1. wajensa
2. cikinta
3. gefenta

Muhimman rukunan nahawu guda biyar ke nan muka gabatar a wannan babi. Waɗannan abubuwa dai kamar yadda muka gani su ne suna, wakilin suna, aikatau, sifa da kuma bayanau. Amma kuma, waɗannan kamar yadda muka sani, ba su ke nan ba a nahawu. Cewa dai kawai muke yi waɗannan guda biyar sun fi taka muhimmiyar rawa. Sauran rukunan za mu rika yin bayanin su sama-sama yayin da muka ci karo da su.

Tambayoyi

1. Me ka fahimta da suna na yanka?
2. Mene ne zagin aikatau?
3. Bayyana abin da ya bambanta aikatau so-karɓau da ki-karɓau.
4. Mece ce sifa 'yar aikatau?
5. A waɗanne rukunan nahawu waɗannan kalmomi suke?

   (a) gajeru
   (b) jarrabawa
   (c) shekaranjiya – jiya

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BABI NA SHA BIYAR

Lokuta Da Waninsu

A babi na sha huɗu mun gabatar da muhimman rukunan nahawu guda biyar, wato suna, wakilin suna, aikatau, sifa da kuma bayanau. Mun ga yadda kowannensu yake gwargwadon hali. A wannan babi kuma za mu karkata ne ga Lokuta.

Me ake nufi da "lokaci" a nahawu? Hakika, lokaci a nahawu yana nufin ta'ar wanzar da aiki ne na cikin *jimla*. Aiki zai iya kasancewa an wanzar da shi ya wuce, ko ana wanzar da shi a halin yanzu, ko kuma za a wanzar da shi a nan gaba. Misali, *Ya wanke rigarsa*, ko *Yana wanke rigarsa*, ko kuma *Zai wanke rigarsa*.

Hausa tana da tsarin lokuta daban-daban guda bakwai da kuma wanin lokaci guda ɗaya, kamar haka:

Lokuta

A.	Shuɗaɗɗen lokaci na I	(S.L. I)
B.	Shuɗaɗɗen lokaci na II	(S.L. II)
C.	Lokaci na sabo	(L.S)
D.	Lokaci na yanzu na I	(L.Y. I)
E.	Lokaci na yanzu na II	(L.Y. II)
F.	Lokaci na gaba na I	(L.G. I)
G.	Lokaci na gaba na II	(L.G. II)

Yanzu za mu duba kowannensu mu ga yadda yake:

Shuɗaɗɗen Lokaci Na I

A wannan nau'i na lokaci kamar yadda sunan ke nuni, un riga an wanzar da aikin. Haka kuma shi wannan lokaci ya kunshi abubuwa uku muhimmai. Wato yana da zubi a jere, kamar haka:

Wanin Lokaci

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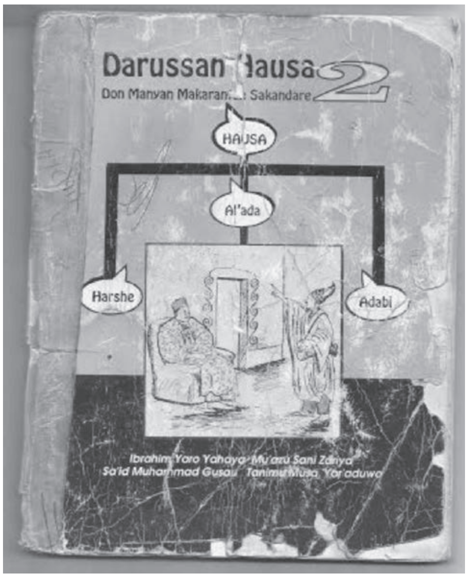
Appendix 3

Material Two: Front Cover



BOOK REVIEW

The Complete Guide to the Theory and Practice of Materials Development for Language Learning

By Brain Tomlinson and Hitomi Masuhara

Wiley Blackwell 2018, 404 pp.
ISBN 978-1-119-05477-1

BOOK REVIEW by Naeema B.Hann

In everyday life, ELT professionals make decisions about what students need to learn, how best they could learn and how students and teachers could check the quality of learning. Books about language teaching materials can help make these decisions and activate the decisions in the classroom. This book does what is says on the tin – it is a complete guide to making these decisions. The book brings together the authors' many years' combined experience in 15 chapters and is a welcome addition to publications in this area in that it addresses materials for language learning beyond ELT. The principles and procedures are firmly based on empirical research and well-established theories of language acquisition. In addition to materials development, the chapters deal with materials evaluation as well as adaptation. With the range of materials available in ELT, these last two are particularly useful for teachers. The chapters present principles and procedures for developing materials in different media and for different contexts and are a complete guide for developers of language learning materials as well as materials users.

The first two chapters introduce the concept of language learning materials in several ways including their function and design and remind us how user factors can nullify good design. For instance, teaching approaches familiar to teachers are not always represented in coursebooks. Rather than a criticism, this could be the role of coursebooks in teacher development, as suggested in previous publications by one of the authors (Tomlinson, 2003). We are also reminded of our role as locators, creators and adaptors of materials. While acknowledging the iconic status of coursebooks, a range of published materials, from coursebooks, to digital materials, to supplementary and self-access materials, is discussed. ELT professionals always want to maximise engagement with the target language and the sections on digital, supplementary and self-access materials are very informative about the potential of these sources.

The first two chapters on materials evaluation and adaptation help us understand the importance of principled materials evaluation and also outline procedures for how to go about evaluation. The list of questions for evaluation as well as questions to evaluate the evaluation, address language skills as well as the use and appearance of materials. Materials adaptation is an everyday activity in language classes but how many of us go about adapting in a principled manner? The chapter on adaptation raises awareness of the growth in adaptation, who adapts and why, for example, for language variety, activities or exam focus. The chapter draws on case studies of materials use and adaptation to present procedures for materials adaptation. This means the same adaptation can be reused or used by teachers who may not be the adaptors, saving time and energy in busy schools. The sections on resources for adaptation and the detailed example of an adaptation (on pp.108-110) are clear and usable.

Chapters five and six give a rationale and practical steps for writing and publishing materials, drawing on the text-driven framework (Tomlinson, 2003). The sections listing activity types and sequence for a particular methodology such as TPR (Total Physical Response) are particularly helpful as is the recommendation to begin by thinking about language acquisition. The chapter on publishing coursebooks begins by describing different types of coursebooks and gives the five key stages in coursebook production. The example given in Chapter six to illustrate these five stages is one of how global coursebooks are produced, useful equally for new publishers and teachers who have to use global coursebooks.

Chapter seven is a guide to using and preparing materials in digital formats. It begins with a summary of research about how useful digital resources are for language learning including a section on mapping second language acquisition principles to digital materials. The chapter goes on to evaluate digital materials in terms of usability and effectiveness and ends by recommending that use of digital materials needs to be context-sensitive.

The next five chapters focus on developing materials for language skills and for particular groups and contexts. Chapter eight focuses on developing materials for language acquisition mainly through very useful evaluations of a range of teaching methods from PPP to task-based approaches. Chapter nine unpacks what we need to know when writing materials for developing language skills and again, approaches this from a teaching point of view. The second half of this chapter brings together debates on the teaching of the four language skills. Teachers and teacher educators particularly will find this useful. Chapter ten is about developing materials for young learners, an ever-growing market and Chapter 11 gives principles and procedures for developing materials for teenagers and adults. Each chapter summarises and draws on relevant research to give an overview of issues and opportunities. The chapters then suggest principles and procedures with a focus on pedagogy and strategies, concluding with recommendations. Most chapters give examples of how principles are applied which is very useful for teachers and materials developers; it would have been good to see these in the chapter on skills too (Chapter nine), even if this meant it being longer than the rest. What is very helpful in this chapter is the focus on teaching strategies, this makes the chapter come to life.

The final three chapters (Chapters 13 – 15) deal with areas that we tend to forget as teachers – the layout of the materials, the importance of instructions and research in materials development. The chapter on layout discusses the functions and effects of visuals, layout and design with an example of how these operate in a set of materials. Issues when considering these three elements of language learning materials alert us to the importance of illustrations, where these are placed and the difference between illustration and imagination.

The chapter on instructions (Chapter 14) is a most welcome addition, for many of us, classroom instructions are an afterthought. While planning lessons carefully, many teachers run out of time to pay careful attention to how students will be given instructions for a task or activity or an exercise from the coursebook. The many examples in this chapter for good and bad instructions and tips such as separating instructions for each mini stage of a lesson make this an extremely useful chapter for an effective and efficient classroom.

My final comment is about the usability of this guide. I tend to skim through a book and then come back to it to read sections as questions come up in my working day. This book fits right in with this. There is excellent signposting to other relevant sections throughout the book. It is almost like reading an online source with tabs to take one to different sections of the resource. The questions and activities at the end of each chapter make this guide an ideal text for courses on materials development and teacher education in general. Each chapter ends with a set of 'What do you think' questions to stimulate thought and discussion. The questions are supplemented with tasks which ask users to evaluate materials, this encourages thinking in a practical manner about using and writing language learning materials. Each chapter ends with suggestions for further reading to help explore concepts discussed in the chapter. Listing references at the end of each chapter is helpful and especially useful when adding chapters to reading lists for MA programmes. This is a practical book with procedures for developing, adapting and evaluating materials. The step by step procedures and examples in the chapters along with a rationale for these makes this the go-to text for teachers, teacher trainers and trainees, materials writers and publishers, in fact anyone who makes decisions about language learning and teaching.

This book presents the distilled experience of the authors from the many workshops they have conducted for teachers, their trainers and materials writers, PhDs supervised and also the language learning materials they have written along with their first-hand experience of language teaching. As Tomlinson pointed out in 2003, language teaching materials not only develop language but also develop teachers. The process of using materials to teach language involves teachers reflecting on what they are teaching and how and if the 'what' and 'how' will serve the needs of the learners - in fact, if the needs and wants of the learners have been identified in a useful manner. Everyone in this profession needs a copy of this book at hand to consult in their everyday working lives, be they teachers, teacher trainers, directors of study or publishers. The language in the book is accessible and the book will prove useful for those new to materials development as well as those who have been developing and adapting materials for years but who perhaps have not thought about it concisely as a distinct activity. The book could be renamed 'All you wanted to know about materials for language teaching but were afraid to ask,' and has already helped me redesign an MA module on Teaching Methodology and Second Language Acquisition.

Reference:

Tomlinson, B. (Ed.) (2003). *Developing Materials for Language Teaching.* London: Bloomsbury.

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