



MONASH University

COURSE BOOKS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS: The perceptions of
teachers and course book writers.

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MA in Applied Linguistics

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Declaration

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at any university or equivalent institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

Signature:

Alison Rowan Don

May 29, 2017

Ethics Approval

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to examine the choices English Language teachers make when using course books in their classrooms and the choices course book writers make when designing course books. This study examines two of the most important roles of English language teaching in the classroom, the teacher and the course book. By examining the perceptions of teachers and course book writers, this study will outline the interdependent relationship of teacher and course book. The study drew on second language acquisition models and approaches to language teaching, and also outlined teachers' autonomy in order to demonstrate why teachers change, omit, and ultimately decide on how to use activities in course books.

This qualitative study used a constructivist framework from which to engage with the research. Data was collected using classroom observations with teachers, semi-structured teacher interviews and structured email interviews with course book writers. Data was collated and analysed thematically. The findings suggested that teachers and course book writers have different views and perspectives on what and how course books should be used in the classroom, particularly about using course books in sequence, perceptions of life skills, and utilizing the teacher's book which accompanies the course book. However, there was also a level of agreement among teachers and course book writers on the perceived use of course books, most significantly in the area of promoting learner autonomy and needing to move away from grammar instruction to more learner-oriented life skills.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will introduce the thesis by explaining the catalyst for the study, relevant contextual background information and the research aims and questions of this study. In order to discuss the reasons behind the study, the researcher profile will be addressed first. This profile is included to outline the researcher's experience with both teaching and course book writing – the subject of this study. The context section will then outline English language learning at the language center where the teacher participants were working, and then place that center within the wider Boston, Massachusetts context, and also a general context of English language learners. Following will be a description of English language teachers in Boston. The next section will outline English language course books. A table is offered to give as detailed a description as possible for commonly used course books. Lastly, the research aims and research questions will be given, as well as a brief description of the thesis structure.

Significance of the study

The significance of this study rests in the knowledge that English language course books are pervasive in English language colleges and language centers. A review of literature and recent second language acquisition research demonstrates a lack of study into how course books are used by English language teachers. Though there is much research into resources and materials for teachers, the design and implementation of course books by teachers remains relatively under researched. This research was significant in that findings from interviews with teachers informed subsequent interviews with course book writers, which allowed the researcher to focus course book writers on the concerns and/or issues raised by the teachers.

Profile of the researcher

This research study was years in the making. I have thought about how teachers used course books since I completed my MA in 2007. Watching teachers skip over course book activities that I had written in Brisbane, Australia was frustrating and disheartening. I wondered if I would have done the same, and I wanted to know why they were doing this.

I have been teaching English as an additional language (EAL) in English-as-a-foreign-language classrooms in English-speaking countries, such as Australia and the US, with brief periods in countries such as Japan for 18 years now. I have had a great deal of experience using course books, observing other teachers use course books, and also talking about course books. I've always been the teacher in the EAL college staff room who could provide advice about content, specific activities and valuable books to adopt. I have had management experience where I selected the course books for classes and teachers. In Brisbane, Australia, I was on the course book writing team where we produced reading, writing, speaking and listening, and grammar books for every level at the college. The basis for the curriculum, in this case, was Halliday's functional systemic linguistics. In my professional life, I have seen that teachers and course book writers can have very different perceptions around the use of course books. My interest in the frequently conflicting perceptions I was witnessing as a teacher, as a manager, and as a course book writer, underpins this research.

Context of the study

This section will provide the necessary background information required to understand the context of this research. In order to give some indication of who the students are and the learning context in which they find themselves, an overview of the EAL industry in America will be given, followed by a summary of the student market in Boston, Massachusetts. Subsequently, in order to give context to course book-related choices EAL teachers may make, EAL teachers' qualifications and a teacher's role in a college will be discussed. To understand what choices course book writers make when designing and writing materials, a general description of EAL course books, including ideas of cultural values, will be given.

In 2014, the then President of the United States, Barack Obama, stated that “English language acquisition allows new Americans to attain employment or career advancement and be more active civic participants” (Presidential Memorandum, 2014). Through Executive Orders, memoranda, and speeches, President Obama brought the language issues of non-native English speaking residents of the US into the foreground. His assertions of “linguistic integration of new Americans” (ibid) trickled down to the state level and encouraged the provision of adult language programs. Such programs were often state funded and are provided free of charge to many adult language learners who were new to the United States. Non-profit organizations such as the YMCA International Learning Center (ILC) and English for New Bostonians offered free or near-free English language instruction for new American citizens who required English for college entrance or employment. This type of intensive language center for adults was the context of the English language teaching discussed in this thesis.

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EAL colleges in Boston – an overview

Across the United States, Boston has the reputation of being an education city. There are many franchise English language providers such as English Language Center, English First and Kaplan. Most universities have an adjunct English language college: Boston College, Harvard University, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, and Northeastern University all offer English language classes and university pathways. Competition for students is high, and numbers fluctuate according to season. Boston sees a dramatic decrease in student numbers in the winter months, December through to April. As such, schools and language centers promote their courses and programs vigorously.

Many franchise, adjunct colleges and for-profit schools are registered with ACCET – the Accrediting Council for Continued Education and Training, a governing body overseeing curriculum, school administration, and quality assurance. ACCET membership allows colleges to administer and offer I-20 student visas. Boston also offers many non-profit English language providers. Schools such as the YMCA International Learning Center, Jewish Vocational Services and English for New Bostonians-supported schools cater for non-student visa holders; tourist visas, resident card holders, spousal visas and non-documented residents. Both types of schools administer and manage English language classes similarly. Students are placed in proficiency levels and class sizes are comparable.

As English has become the global language of tourism, trade, and business, more and more English language learners are emerging. Though language learners have different goals and objectives for learning English, students are placed in classes according to English proficiency. Learners' needs and goals for language acquisition are not generally used for assessing class placement, except in the case of learners enrolling in test preparation classes or business

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English. A typical EAL class is approximately 12 – 16 students, comprising learners with a general, but similar, range of reading, writing, listening, speaking, and grammar abilities. Learners also have different levels of language learning strategies (Oxford 1990), which can affect their overall success in the classes.

The YMCA of Greater Boston International Learning Center (ILC)

Boston's ILC has been serving English language learners since 1975 through tuition classes and also free classes. In addition to off-site classes which mainly offer English for the worksite, business classes or citizenship classes, the ILC has approximately five programs operating from its downtown location. At the time of this study, there were 10 classes of tuition paying learners, six Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE)-funded classes, one Transitions to College class that was funded by the Smith Family Foundation, and an English for New Bostonians-funded Bridge to Opportunity class. In total, there were approximately 200 students coming into the center daily. The teacher participants were teaching in the DESE program at the time of this study. As the DESE program requirements differed from other EAL classes and programs at the ILC, an outline will be given.

The DESE program at the ILC was a state government funded program that was offered through application to English language centers in Massachusetts. The state contributed 80% of the total running costs of the program at the ILC, with the fee based tuitions program contributing the remaining 20%. This resulted in the ILC tuition program being pressured to compete in the larger English language college environment in Boston. The program was free to all students who qualified. To qualify for the program, students had to have been in the US for approximately two years, have already been granted permanent resident status or citizenship, and preferably have been low-income. These types of programs in Boston were in

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very high demand and most centers, including the ILC had a wait-list of students wanting to join the classes. Due to this waitlist, students were placed in the classes when other students dropped out or gained full-time employment. Under the Massachusetts policy, each DESE class had a minimum student number of 13 students (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2015), which was to enable both collaborative peer learning but also individualized attention from the teacher.

The classes were divided into three levels, roughly representing Beginner, Intermediate and Advanced. Students were placed in the classes using the center's grammar test, interview session with a teacher or administrator, and the state-wide TABE CLASS-E reading exam, which every prospective DESE student around Massachusetts had to sit. Students studied in the classes for nine months, from September to June. As per DESE policy rules, students were only permitted to study at one class level for two concurrent years, though students could have possibly done each class twice if they began at the beginner level, thus allowing them to study at the center for a maximum of six years. Massachusetts' policy stated that the center must provide enough language classes for learners to advance to the next level in one year. The ILC offered nine hours of English language classes in three days, which is in line with policy requirements of 150 hours annually (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2015).

The DESE funded program also stipulated that there must be a full-time student advisor on location. This advisor assisted students with academic concerns, emergency accommodation recommendations, work-related issues, and also social problems of a personal nature. The advisor was also charged with the mandatory orientation session about the English language program, which outlined attendance requirements, rules of the center, and contact information.

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In addition to language goals, the advisor also worked with students setting workplace or further education goals. The Massachusetts policy stated that students should work with the center to “identify, monitor, and achieve goals” (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2015, p. 21).

The Massachusetts state funded DESE programs must have met guidelines and frameworks administered by the Department. Annual site visits were conducted by the state to ensure administrators, management, teachers, and students were following regulations. During the monitoring visit, the center had to demonstrate compliance with the state’s Indicators of Program Quality, which included “curriculum development, implementation and instructional methods, educational progress, instructional support services, community linkages, program continuous improvement planning, professional development, and program management, leadership and accountability (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2015). The ILC had achieved a top tier scoring from the monitoring sessions, and in fact, much of their program documentation was used as a benchmark for other centers.

The EAL student market in Massachusetts

This section will outline the greater context in which the ILC is operating. In order to gain an understanding of non-profit centers, and also the student population who study at centers like the ILC, this section will detail the general context of Massachusetts and Boston.

The EAL student population in Boston is divided into two separate groups: new Americans and immigrants, and International students. The majority of the new American cohort was

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Latin American and Asian (48.4% and 25.5% respectively) (City of Boston, n.d.). It has been estimated that the percentage of foreign-born Boston residents was as high as 27.1% (City of Boston, n.d.), which was twice as high as the Massachusetts percentage. Though there was no data on the English level of new Americans entering the US, most immigrants were arriving from non-English speaking countries. 53% of immigrants were from Latin America, mainly the Dominican Republic, Haiti and El Salvador. These countries do not have high standards of English language education (such as what can be seen in North Asian and South American countries), and many immigrants were fleeing poverty, gang-related crime and the after effects of civil war and national disaster; as such many of these immigrants were low level language learners.

The lack of English has negative consequences on lifestyle in the US – particularly jobs and salaries. It has been asserted that approximately 75% of all employment opportunities in the Boston area required “medium-level English skills” (English for New Bostonians, n.d.). This results in immigrants, with little or no English, having a smaller number of job opportunities available to them compounded by higher competition for those jobs. Further, native English speaking Boston residents earned 2.5 times more than residents who did not have proficient English. Though these statistics and the immigrant situation was not unique to Boston, and could be found in cities across the US, it offered a starting point for examining the need for and importance of English Language courses for adult Boston residents. In spite of these statistics of overwhelming need for language classes in Greater Boston, there was a much higher need for classes than there were available (English for New Bostonians, n.d.). This also put pressure on English language providers and stake-holders to incorporate career-readiness and workplace English skills into the classroom, sometimes at the expense of basic English communicative competency. This shift had been seen that year in the Department of Elementary and Secondary

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Education Adult Basic Education scope and sequence guidelines (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2005). Up to half of all classes must have incorporated job-readiness. Though the needs and situations of this group of students differed greatly from the international student market, the two groups often find themselves sitting side-by-side in the language classroom.

The global international student market for English language students was concentrated in the US, the UK, Canada and Australia. In the case of the US, Massachusetts had the fourth largest international student population across the states, behind California, New York and Texas (Krantz, 2015), with approximately 55,447 students coming to Massachusetts in the 2014-2015 academic year. In 2014, the international student market contributed \$2.2 billion (USD) to the Massachusetts economy (Krantz, 2015). The International Learning Center tuition based program was competing in this market for fee-paying students. The tuition program was the only program at the ILC which was fee based, and financially supported the non-fee based programs, such as the one which was the context for this research.

EAL teachers in the ILC

An EAL teacher's role at the ILC was multi-faceted and required professional knowledge on a range of pedagogical topics. Richards, Li and Tang (1995) stated that an English language teacher's knowledge was two-fold; they possess pedagogical content knowledge and pedagogical reasoning skills. Content knowledge referred to the knowledge of grammar rules, morphology, and pronunciation. Reasoning skills referred to the ability of teachers to make choices before and during EAL lessons (Richards, et. al., 1995). However, a teacher's role can be even more diverse and complex. Farrell (2013) discovered through ongoing discussion groups with three EAL teachers that teachers, as well as being educators, often saw themselves

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as vendors and promoters, entertainers and story/joke tellers, socializers, social workers, collaborators and learners of professional knowledge. With all that teachers must do in and out of the classroom, educational qualifications, professional experience, and professional development were vital for ongoing success of the teacher, the learners and the college.

Teachers at the ILC were hired on a basic minimum requirement of a Bachelor's degree and some teaching experience. Unlike in other countries, such as Australia, teachers in the US and in Boston did not have minimum requirements, nor federal or state standards for employment. At the ILC, teachers were paid according to tenure, rather than qualifications and education. The hourly wages for a teacher at the ILC was between \$21 - \$24. According to the Bureau of Labor (Bureau of Labor Statistics, n.d.), the average hourly wage in Massachusetts is \$29.25 and comparatively lower than in countries such as Australia.

Under the Massachusetts policy for DESE teachers, all programs must have included preparation time and paid professional development. Preparation time was allocated for teachers to write lesson plans, complete marking, photocopy lesson materials, find supplementary resources, and oversee administrative tasks such as attendance. For the teachers in the DESE program, the state required that teachers were paid one hour of preparation time for every two hours of teaching time. The teacher participants in this study taught nine hours per week in the program, and were allocated four and a half hours paid preparation time. In terms of professional development, DESE teachers were required to complete 12 hours annually (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2015). Professional Development (PD) took the form of online certificates, conferences, workshops, and seminars directed and scheduled by the state specific for DESE English language teachers.

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All sessions attended by the teachers were to be recorded and registered with the department for verification. In fact, under the state policy, all teachers employed in the DESE system must; “assess his/her need for PD, work with the ... director to set and prioritize goals, create an individual PD plan, engage in the selected staff development activities, and document and evaluate staff development effort and activity” (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2015, p. 17). This rigorous professional development schedule ensured that teachers were thinking about their PD goals and next steps.

The Center for Applied Linguistics (CAL) (2010) asserted that language teachers, as many are unprepared for the rigor of second language teaching in the United States, would greatly benefit from a more regulated industry that provided uniform professional development and certifications. The lack of regular teacher training may lead to more teacher adaptations without holistic consideration of concerns course book writers address.

Professional development sessions and further teacher training need to be focused on both content knowledge and classroom methods in order to meet the increasing need for qualified teachers (CAL, 2010). CAL (2010) also stated that English language teachers need to be encouraged to meet certain criteria in terms of credentials and training in order to better serve English language learners, particularly the new American immigrant population in adult language centers. CAL (2010) compared the research needs of EAL teachers to the professional standards that are met by K-12 teachers. In Massachusetts, K-12 teachers must take at least two certification examinations in order to be considered a qualified teacher. This includes teaching English as an additional language within the school system.

English language course books

To understand the context of this study, an outline of what English language course books will be given. Richards (n.d.) argued that course books are a necessary component of an EAL course. English language course books frequently include particular teaching activities tied to the four macro skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking. Vocabulary and grammar also featured in most modules in a course book. Natural conversation gambits, pronunciation activities or multi-media based tasks were likewise included. Course books were commonly offered in a series from Elementary to Advanced. In order to show the common features of course books, table 1 examines five course books used in EAL classrooms worldwide.

The structure of course books is similar, with each unit or module of each book containing grammar points presented around a conversation theme or lifestyle topic. Ellis and Shintani (2014) stated that the grammar contents of course books follow the same pattern across different titles, such that a Pre-intermediate title in one series will contain similar grammar structures and linguistic input as any other Pre-intermediate title. Most course books offer additional teaching materials such as workbooks, teachers' manuals and online materials.

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Table 1

Popular course books for English language learners available in Boston ILCs

TITLE	Which English?	Module Organization	Self-assessments	CALL Extras	Book Extras
NEW CUTTING EDGE INTERMEDIATE Starter to Advanced	American English dominates	12 Modules organized by theme 2-3 grammar points in each module	Mini-checks and progress tests	CD-ROM Videos Website Class audio Student audio	Mini – dictionary included for students Teachers’ book Workbook
FACE TO FACE INTERMEDIATE Beginner to Advanced	British English dominates	12 Units organized by a natural expression (“How did it go?” or “I wish!”)	Self-study DVD E-portfolio	Audio CD CD-ROM Video based lessons	Teachers’ book Workbook
NEW TOTAL ENGLISH INTERMEDIATE Starter to Advanced	British English dominates	10 Units organized by single unit themes (“lifestyle”, “jobs”)	MyEnglishLab Self-study review and practice pages for each unit	Learning management system Online vocabulary DVD lessons	Workbook Teachers’ book Active teach DVD resources
ENGLISH FILE INTERMEDIATE Beginner to Advanced (including 2 levels of Intermediate)	Mix of British and American Englishes	12 units organized into 3 sub-units with single word themes (“culture”, “lifestyle”) 1 grammar point per sub-unit	iTutor self - review site ebooks self-progress checks	iTutor pronunciation app ebooks/itools online skills practice	Workbook Teachers’ book Teachers’ website

Course books are specifically designed for English language classrooms. Though books may be produced using American or British English, they are designed to be used throughout the world. In some cases, such as the American Headway (Soars, 2002) series, a culturally

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appropriate course book was produced, such as the American Headway Middle East edition. However, most course books were designed with the purpose of English language learning for a general student population and class room environment. The Ventures 2 course book (Bitterlin, Johnson, Price, Ramirez & Savage, 2013, p. viii) asserted that “it is flexible enough to be used in open enrolment, managed enrolment, and traditional programs”. Whether a teacher had an established group of learners, newer learners, or a mixture of the two, the course book could be used in that classroom. However, American Headway 4 (Soars, 2002) stated that each course book in the series builds upon the “foundation laid in the previous levels” (cover), thus implying that a learner must have completed the entire series in the levels before their level to fully benefit from the course book.

American Headway also stated that the course book series has adopted an approach based on the fundamental aspects of second language acquisition, with contemporary language input. The course book was designed for a general English class, and for learners whose goal was to communicate in English. This learner was perhaps traveling abroad, or living abroad and needed to perform everyday tasks. The American Headway (Soars, 2002) book was focused on conversation and vocabulary building. Also, grammar was an objective of the course books, with units providing in-depth grammar presentations and practice exercises. Learners were encouraged to “use [language] both accurately and fluently” (backcover). The American Headway (Soars, 2012) book was designed for adolescent learners, with topics catering to their tastes and styles, such as music, movies, and asking people out.

The books also differed in their approach to language learning, in terms of context offered, language presented and overall philosophy. The Stand Out 2 (Jenkins & Johnson, 2016. p. v) course book stated that its approach was to “facilitate active learning within life-skill settings”,

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and within the book, “skills are introduced as they might be in real language use ... in context”. Jenkins and Johnson (2016) asserted that their course books are designed so that the class room reflects real-life situations, conversations, and language as much as possible. This includes incorporating decision making, and negotiating into lesson activities. This type of activity is grounded in Nunan’s (1995) approach of Task-Based Language learning. Nunan (1995) asserted that language learning is optimized when learners work in groups and skills such as negotiating, coming to conclusions, deciding, and working together to achieve a common goal are included in activities. This particular book catered to adult learners who were learning English to enter or re-enter the workforce, or to continue with further vocational education in the United States. The series provided real life situations to which adult learners can relate, including visuals which catered to the adult market, such as employment application forms and photographs of adults in their late 30s and 40s.

Downtown 3 (McBride, 2006, p. xv) asserted a similar approach, stating that “students are introduced to vocabulary, grammar, and real-world skills”. These skills were introduced “to facilitate student-centered learning in order to lead students to real communicative competence” (p. xiv). McBride, by specifically mentioning the language acquisition approach of communicative competence, established the course book as a theory driven resource for teachers based on the language acquisition model asserted by Canale (1988). The Downtown series stated that one of its goals was to make English language learning a fun and enjoyable experience, which resulted in a book which appeared cartoonish in design. This book was geared towards a young adult student.

Research Aims, Purpose and Questions

The aim of the study was to investigate course book writers' and teachers' perceptions on the use of course books in TESOL classes in an attempt to understand potential areas of congruence and also of conflict, or tension. The overall purpose of the study was (1) to seek to inform both course book writers of the positioning of teachers when using course books and teachers of the positioning of course book writers and (2) the theoretical approaches underlying different kinds of positioning. The study has two research questions:

1. What are EAL teachers' perceptions on the use of course books when planning and implementing their lessons in a state-funded English language program to migrants?
2. What are course book writers' perceptions on the use of the course books they write by teachers in a state-funded English language program to migrants?

Structure of the thesis

This thesis is composed of five chapters. Following this introductory chapter is the literature review. This review contains relevant literature about language learning and teachers' autonomy. Chapter 3 details the qualitative research methodology used in this study and an explanation for the approach. Chapter 4 outlines the findings from the data in relation to the research aims and questions. Finally, chapter 5 presents the discussion section, which details the findings section in light of the literature review.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will outline the major theories and research connected both to course book design and English language teaching approaches. The literature review will be divided into two main sections. The first will examine theories of language development, such as Universal Grammar (UG) then move on to social influences on language acquisition, such as communicative competence and communicative language teaching. These shifts in language learning are reflected in language teaching and course book design. The notion of Englishes and Global English will also be addressed given that English is a *lingua franca*. This section will explain the fundamental theories and ideas that influence course book design and provide background to the research questions. The final section will examine the ideas of choices and decisions: an outline of agency and teachers' autonomy will be given, which then blends into an examination of reflective practice.

The literature chosen in this project has been presented to provide both a historical background into the ideas of second language acquisition that influence teaching and learning and offer a theoretical orientation of popular course books. Starting with Universal Grammar and Interlanguage, then moving on to the social aspects of language development, the theories show how understandings of language learning has been shaped and constructed in the theoretical literature exploring second language acquisition. This construction can be seen in course book design and materials in terms of how language is offered, what language is offered, and what design course books take to maximize language learning, specifically the notion of sequencing and building upon previous learned linguistic items. Classroom language teaching and EAL

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materials and course books also all draw on the ideas of learning and teaching present in these theories.

Following this, the cultural aspects of course books will be presented in order to show what influence real world settings have on EAL materials, and how both teachers and course books writers are working within cultural constructs. These constructs may be artificially constructed by the course book, or by the teachers' choices fulfilling a real life situation. The final section of this chapter focusses on teachers' decision making through the lens of autonomy and reflective practice.

Language Development

This first section will focus on theories of second language acquisition that highlight how language is learned and in what sequence. The first subsection below discusses cognitivist perspectives on language development and the next subsection moves on to sociocultural perspectives on this development. These theoretical approaches to language development underpin the study, in relation both to the choices course book writers make when designing course books and the choices teachers make when determining how they will use a particular course book. From a cognitivist perspective, two major theories will be discussed: UG leading to interlanguage and comprehensible input/output – this latter with a particular focus on Krashen. This will then lead to an examination of communicative competency and communicative language teaching.

Universal Grammar and Interlanguage.

Chomsky's linguistic theory of language acquisition, Universal Grammar (UG), has been one of the most influential on subsequent Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theories (Mitchell

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and Myles, 1998). Chomsky (1975) maintained that all organically formed language possesses common threads in its syntactical structure and components. These common grammar elements within a given language are regulated by principles and parameters. The guiding principle of UG is structure dependence, which Chomsky referred to as “the rules of grammar [which] apply to strings of words analyzed into abstract phrases” (1975, p. 79). All languages are made up of noun phrases and verb phrases placed into the correct order in that language. These phrases, or grammatically correct chunks, must be mastered in order to achieve competency (Chomsky, 1975). Learners need to be aware of how to apply the rules of “grammatical transformation” (Chomsky, 1975, p. 80), switching phrases in and out to make correct clauses and sentences.

Stated another way, English language learners are presented with small grammatical chunks that are cognitively relatable to their first language. UG as a theory relied on the idea of language transfer; that is the rules of one language can be applied to others. Although Chomsky did not address second language acquisition directly, his theory of transfer was extremely influential on SLA research (Myles, 2010). In fact, most theories of second language acquisition espoused that the L2 was learnt through transfer from one’s L1 (Tarone, 2006). This theory was upheld until Selinker introduced the idea of Interlanguage (Selinker, 1972). Interlanguage stated that language learners develop a constantly evolving and progressing language between their L1 and the target language. With each new grammar structure that is mastered, learners’ interlanguage moves further away from the L1 and closer to the target language. Ellis (2006) stated that “how learners develop their interlanguage” (p. 86) dictates how quickly or accurately they will acquire language internally.

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However, unlike UG, the theory of interlanguage does not require chunks of language to be learnt in any form of sequence. Larson-Freeman (1995) pointed out that interlanguage theory is evidence that grammar learning does not occur in an easy to difficult sequence. It does in fact rely more on grammar error awareness (Tarone, 2006). The development of learners' interlanguage can hinder the acquisition of the structural dependency necessary to maintain the components of UG. Though there is a conflict between the theories of UG and interlanguage, the necessary component of both theories of acquisition is linguistic input. Larson-Freeman (1995) asserted that input in "form focused instruction", that is explicit grammar teaching, "makes a positive impact on the interlanguage development of students" (p. 138). Whereas White (1995) found that input for language learners in fact does not result in correct production of the target language. What could account for these differences in research findings between Larson-Freeman and White is how Richards (2014) summed up the difference between "grammatical knowledge and grammatical ability" (p. 6). Grammatical knowledge referred to the rules and form learners know through direct input, while grammatical ability was the learner's accurate production of structures in discourse. A learner may have a higher grammatical knowledge than they do ability.

The theories of UG and interlanguage have been influential in language learning and second language acquisition theories. This has trickled down to English language learning materials and course books. Cognitive theories of language learning resulted in the rise of error awareness activities, those which improve a learner's interlanguage. Ellis and Shintani (2014) asserted that the focus on form and grammar instruction, in combination with a focus on context and meaningful language, will lead to language learning. Elsewhere, Ellis professed the development of interlanguage aids language learning.

Comprehensible Input and Output.

Another influential theory of second language acquisition is Krashen's Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1989). Krashen asserted that "more comprehensible input, aural and written, results in more language acquisition" (1989, p. 441). He proposed the equation $i + 1$ (Krashen, 1989). The i refers to a second language learner's current level of interlanguage. The $+ 1$ is exposing the learner to language "just beyond their current developmental level" (Myles, 2010, p. 326). Krashen stated that if the conditions of his hypothesis of $i + 1$ were met, that would be "in itself sufficient to trigger acquisition" (Richards, 1999, p. 5). The Input Hypothesis theory relies on knowledge of the learner's interlanguage in order to provide input that is slightly higher. Input could be in the form of a teacher speaking, course book material, or a written text. Krashen's theory, however, has been debated due to it being "untested and circular" (Myles, 2010, p. 326). It is also difficult to ascertain exactly what is meant by $+ 1$, particularly considering that interlanguage is constantly evolving and developing in language learners.

Swain (1998) expanded on Krashen's Input Hypothesis theory with the idea that learners not only need input, but need to produce comprehensible output in order to achieve high mastery of a second language (Myles, 2010). Unlike Krashen's Input Hypothesis, Swain's theory of comprehensible output was tested with Canadian learners studying French. However, as Richards (1999) pointed out, Swain's learners never achieved a native like linguistic structure to their language, though the learners were communicative. Richards (1999) argued that learners need to be forced to use the correct form or "required to reshape their utterances" (p. 6) during the comprehensible output. Elsewhere, Richards aimed at renaming Swain's theory as "structured output" (2014, p. 16). He asserted that language acquisition can occur if the learner is faced with "increased communicative demands [which] stress the learner's language

knowledge” (Richards, 2014, p. 16). This idea is in line with Nunan (1995), who asserted that both input and output is necessary for language acquisition and advancement, but also “learners need opportunities to interact” (p. 149).

Communicative Competency.

Through an understanding of comprehensible input and output, the ideas of communicative competency began to permeate second language research. Canale (1988) stated that much of his work in devising the approach of communicative competency was driven by the ideas of Halliday’s functional linguistics, a theory addressed further into the chapter. Communicative competency stated that four areas—linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competency—are all necessary to develop for language acquisition (Canale, 1988). Linguistic competency referred to a learner’s ability to produce and understand grammar and lexical structures. Sociolinguistic, or pragmatic competency was a student’s ability to use the appropriate register of language depending on the interaction. Discourse competency referred to a learner’s ability to understand genre of text and interaction, and strategic competency meant a language learner’s ability to “compensate for any weaknesses” (Celce-Murcia, 1991, p. 496). Canale (1988) stated that communicative competency has become “one of the most productive, influential, and complex” (p. 67) approaches in the field of language acquisition. As Celce-Murcia (1991) pointed out, only one of the competency areas in the communicative competency model, linguistic competency, focuses on grammar knowledge and input. The other areas were focused on the social interaction and communicativeness of language learning.

One approach that focuses on communicative competency is Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The CLT approach to language learning is very much in favor as a method

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for learning language (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). CLT focuses on the communicative aspects of language, rather than the correct grammatical structures and input. Richards (2013) outlined how CLT has affected the design and contents of syllabus design, asserting that no longer is syllabus designed around linguistic input, but functional and communicative units now dictate the syllabus. This shift from linguistic focus, that is, learning target grammar structures to achieve a language acquisition as dictated by cognitive theories of SLA, allowed language learning to become more interactive and dynamic. This approach to language learning influenced course books, particularly in the style of activity that is used to practice and produce language. An emphasis on pair work, group work and task-based language teaching (Nunan, 1995) could be seen in course books. These activities focus on the communicative aspects of interaction in language learning, rather than on correct form and grammatical accuracy.

This chapter will now turn to an examination of contextual and sociocultural theories of language learning, including an analysis of the two major contributors to this approach to language: Halliday's Functional Systemic Linguistics, and Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory. This section will show how these two intertwined approaches have shifted language learning and thinking about language learning from cognitive to context. The influence of these approaches on course book design will then be described in terms of choice of activities in the course book and the contents of the course book itself.

Functional Systemic Linguistics – Halliday's theory of language.

First, Halliday (2004) placed the notion of context to the forefront of language and language learning. All language choices that speakers or writers make are dictated by context (Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks & Yallop, 2003). Halliday (2004) distinguished between two related ideas

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of context: context of culture and context of situation. Context of culture directs what language to use based on the cultural and/or ethnic surrounding where the spoken or written text is taking place. Wells (1999) stated that Halliday's approach highlighted the "reciprocal relationship between language and culture" (p. 7), where there exists a mutual influence. Context of situation tells the speakers or writers the circumstances of the text, be it in a grocery store or a courthouse (Butt et al., 2003). Within these two contexts, language choices are directed by the field, the topic of the interaction, tenor, the relationships between those in the interaction, and mode, what kind of interaction is occurring (Butt et al., 2003).

Within Halliday's functional approach to context and language, human experiences and prior experience of the language user was a central idea. Butt et al. (2003) stated that all English speakers have a knowledge of how the language is used in different contexts and can use that knowledge to "discriminate and classify" (p. 2) different language components. Wells (1999) asserted that Halliday's theory allows language users to make meaning through "their linguistic resources" (p. 6). These resources are the language components that have been learnt and collected over time through experiencing context of cultures and contexts of situations. Halliday's thinking about context is complemented by Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory, which will be discussed below.

A Shift into Sociocultural Approaches to SLA

Halliday (2004) positioned his theory of linguistics and language within context, which aligns with how Vygotsky understood mediation in sociocultural theory. Vygotsky's sociocultural theory played a major role in shifting the language learning process from the cognitive to the

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social (Ortega, 2012). Sociocultural theory posited that the human mind and the social context in which that mind is placed is the foundation of human development (Swain & Deters, 2007). The social situation and the interactions and dialogue that occur in those situations lead to human development (Johnson, 2006), including in the area of language acquisition. Lantolf and Poehner (2014) stated that human development is based on the culturally influenced activities and the mediation that occurred within those settings.

A central aspect of sociocultural theory is the notion of mediation, which in the case of SLA, is the language itself in the social setting, the context. However, mediation refers to all aspects of context, situation, and interaction; in essence, mediation is everything. Zuengler and Miller (2006) stated that when language learners use language “these learners gain control over their own mental activity” (p. 39). It is at this stage when language learners are not only acquiring language, but producing language and becoming independent learners in authentic social situations (Zuengler and Miller, 2006). Returning to Halliday, language learners access previously used language they experienced in contexts of cultures and contexts of situations to have meaningful interactions (Butt et al., 2003), which in turn offers language independence. Language users know what they know through the field, tenor, and mode of language experience which has already been contextually set. Any language that is produced is directed by what language resources the user can access. If the interlocutors do not follow the set context, miscommunication occurs, and the interaction, the mediation breaks down. Wells (1999) stated that Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory rested on the idea that “the present state can be understood only by studying the stages that preceded it” (p. 5). It is these two areas, context and experience of context, in which Halliday and Vygotsky exhibit similarities. Wells (1999) pointed out the parallels, stating that Halliday and Vygotsky’s theories are “inherently social and functional in orientation” (p. 6). In terms of language development, Cross (2010) asserted

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that the shift to a sociocultural theory perspective on language led to “an increased awareness of the situated and socially distributed nature of language learning” (p. 434). And within this awareness is the “need to better understand the complexities of the context of learning” (Cross, 2010, p. 434). The real world situations in which language is used, the classroom, the interactions between learners and teachers, and the English speaking world in general has become the area of second language acquisition.

The theories of second language acquisition which focus on output and interaction shifted the ideas of language learning from the cognitive to the sociocultural. The requirement of other learners or speakers of the target language to be present, rather than language learning occurring as an individual, cognitive activity, became the focus of research on language learning. The shift from the assumption that language acquisition occurred as a cognitive process devoid of outside influence took place in the mid 1980's (Zuengler and Miller, 2006). Ortega (2012) outlined the shift from cognitive approaches to language learning, what she called “learner-internal and learner-external variables” (p. 207), to acquisition being influenced by sociocultural theorists in a “fast paced epistemological expansion” (p. 207). It was also at this time that a focus on designing and creating commercially produced course books for the English language market was taking place (Richards, 1994). In place of error awareness and gap fill activities (for example where students fill in the correct verb structure), course books have adopted activities and tasks that promote sections such as natural expressions or conversation gambits. These allowed students to learn particular linguistic expressions within their context of culture, for example natural expressions to use at a coffee shop. Course books began to implement a functional design to their chapters, rather than using language sequencing based on acquiring language structures to build upon. Further, learners can opt for course

books that focus specifically on one context or situation, such as Academic English or Business English.

Englishes and English as lingua franca.

This literature review will now shift to an examination of English as the lingua franca and the idea of many Englishes. This is an important element to this study as, alongside cognitive and sociocultural theories which influence language teaching and materials, the ideas of 'Englishes' and the commercialization of English have also affected teaching and materials. To understand the "language use in real-world situations" (Zuengler and Miller, 2006, p. 37), it is necessary to examine the language and context presented in English language teaching materials.

Birch and Liyanage (2004) reminded readers that there are more non-native English speakers in the world than there are native speakers. The idea of English as the global language (Crystal, 1997) has led to more language learners around the world. Kachru's (2006) diagram of English language speakers showed the extent to which non-native speakers, the outer and expanding circles, outnumbered native speakers of English, the inner circle. This has given rise to other Englishes, in the form of English varieties, which have contributed different lexicon, phonology and grammar structures (Kachru, 2006). Ellis and Shintani (2014) pointed out that English language learners will use a variety of English specific to their social setting and interaction group, rather than that language used by native speakers. The sociocultural context of English language learners plays a major role in which English they choose to adopt. Kramsch, Cain and Murphy-Lejeune (1996) asserted that understanding the cultural context of the language being learnt was vital to being understood and understanding in the second language. They maintained that, without cultural knowledge, language acquisition does not

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effectively take place. However, this then raises the issue of the representation of culture within the English language learning context.

Wette (2011) stated that English language course books are “constructed cultural artefacts” (p. 61), in that course books select which culture to represent, and also how to represent it. Richards (n.d.) asserted that EAL course books, through the use of glossy pictures and layout, are designed to emulate magazines, which in turn offers the impression of cultural authenticity and believability. Birch and Liyanage (2004) went further, stating that English language course books carry a cultural representation of “attractiveness and superiority” (p. 100). Santoro (1999) argued that English language course books obfuscated reality by depicting and presenting unreal situations and contexts, and this poses a problem for teachers who “may not be the best judges” (Santoro, 1999, p. 15) of what is representative of both his/her culture and the cultural learning wants of the students. It was these attitudes and representations that led Birch and Liyanage (2004) to state that English language teaching has become “a vehicle for cultural invasion” (p. 100). These ideas of misrepresenting cultural norms and almost exoticizing language learning in course books leads to the assumption that course books do not contain real life situations for teachers to use effectively in the classrooms. Richards (1994) argued that many course books are lacking in local content, thus allowing the assumption that teachers are compelled to change, replace, or omit pages or activities from course books in order to use resources that are more appropriate to their cultural and linguistic setting.

A further aspect of varieties that much be considered is which English is the best variety of instruction in a particular context. Matsuda and Friedrich (2011) asserted that a common variety of English must be used for language learning instruction, however, the introduction of other varieties of English should be acknowledged as part of classroom activities. They further

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stated that the English for instruction does not need be American or British English, but stated that American English or one of the expanding circle (Kachru, 2006) varieties of English is acceptable (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011). Recently, course books have been including varieties of world Englishes into their materials, most notably, the listening texts are incorporating more varieties of English phonology and variation in accents.

Teachers' Decision Making

This section will focus on two aspects of teachers' decision making that can impact the eventual use of course books and materials in the ESL classroom. First, the notion of autonomy—that is, of teachers wanting to exercise their own ideas in decision making rather than implementing the ideas proposed by another ESL professional—formed an important part of this project. As the research questions of this project pertained to teachers' perceptions of their own course book use as well as how teachers were actually implementing course book materials in the classroom, notions of autonomy provided a background for understanding the framework for the decisions as made by teachers, both before and during a lesson. This project sought to examine the disjuncture between course book writers' intentions and teachers' implementation of those intentions, and notions of autonomy undergird the way in which teachers separate from course book writers' provisions.

Another pivotal influence on teachers' decision making was reflective practice—that is, the way in which intentional choices made by teachers are influenced by their background knowledge in the ESL field as well as their practical classroom experiences and then applied in a real classroom setting. To begin, the ways in which teachers think about their own teaching will have significant implications for the initiatives and changes (or lack thereof) made in the classroom. In addition, the positive, negative, or other reflective reaction teachers have to their

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classroom experiences will impact their decisions on current and future lesson planning and lesson implementation. This project has thus focussed the ideas of teachers' decision making around the two themes of autonomy and reflective practice.

Autonomy

For language teachers to make decisions about their practice, they need to have a certain level of autonomy and agency. Fleming (1998), citing Paris, distinguished between teacher autonomy and agency thusly: autonomy is making decisions about a curriculum, whereas agency is about "creation ...critique...and alternatives" (p. 18) to curriculum. More simply, autonomy is about independence, and agency is about asserting one's individuality and opinions. In this section, autonomy will be addressed from two perspectives related to English language teaching. The first is teachers' autonomy, and the second is learners' autonomy. Central to the language classroom is teachers having decision making powers over their professional work, and also the promotion and encouragement of learner autonomy and independence.

Teachers have a certain level of autonomy in six areas of their profession; "curriculum, pedagogy, assessment, student behaviours, classroom environment, and professional development" (Strong and Yoshida, 2014, p. 124). In these areas, teachers can apply their professional knowledge and decision making based on their learners and classes. Canagarajah (2006) stated that as second language classrooms have shifted into the social construct of language learning, and thus the social individual of the learner, teachers must find a place of agency and autonomy where they are learning from students, and the students' contexts, but also engaging in agency. Negotiating resources, learners and the professional situation is a

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difficult task for teachers (Canagarajah, 2006). In his study of expert and novice EAL teachers, Farrell (2013) maintained that one aspect that defined an expert teacher was exercising decision-making autonomy based on knowledge of the class and the learners. Friedman (1999), in his study of school teachers, asserted that by empowering teachers with levels of autonomy in their daily professional lives, the school system and learning environment is improved. This improvement is for teachers and learners alike.

Autonomy is also a central concept for students to attain. Being independent and seeking out linguistic input allows learners to take charge of their language progression. Richards et al. (1995) stated that one of the characteristics of an expert teacher is their ability to prioritize learner autonomy and tasks that promote learner autonomy. Activities and tasks that allow learners to examine and understand their pedagogical requirements ensure continued progress in the target language. These activities are often included in course books.

Crawford (1995) stated that due to the contextual variety of language classrooms, course books and resources are unable to meet the demands of all learners. As such, course books must encourage students' independent study and learner autonomy; this way, learners are able to seek out the language for their individualized needs. Nunan (1995) agreed, stating that learners' autonomy exists on a continuum, or sliding scale, based on the context of the language setting and the learners' culture. Crawford (1995) maintained that learners also need access to self-assessment tools which can offer a reflective device for learners to judge their own language progress and abilities. These tools can be in the form of specific self-assessment tasks, or additional activities provided by the teacher (Crawford, 1995).

Reflective Practice

The practices and choices teachers make in the classroom and during lesson planning are linked to their thinking about their teaching and knowledge. To better understand how teachers are using course books, and how they view course books, an understanding of how they perceive their practice is required. This will be achieved through an examination of reflective practice. Reflective practice in education was initially pioneered by the idea of reflective thinking by Dewey, who stated “it’s not the doing that matters, it’s the thinking about the doing” (Hall and Simeral, 2015, p. 14). Farrell (2012) asserted that Dewey’s notions of reflective thinking did not refer to “mulling things over that interest us” (p. 9). It must be a deliberate, conscious, and ongoing action. Richards and Lockhart (1994) stated that through reflective practice, teachers can explore any holes that might exist between what they did in the classroom, and what the students actually learnt. Freeman and Johnson (1998) pointed out that reflective practice for a teacher is the “drive to understand oneself” (p. 412). Teachers must make an effort to be aware of what they do in the classroom and the effects of the choices that they make, both on themselves and on their learners.

One of the leading theorists on reflective practice, Schön (1987), asserted that reflective practice is difficult as problems with one’s practice do not present themselves in clear ways, but rather as “messy, indeterminate situations” (p. 4). Schön (1987) posited further that through understanding the problem and being able to identify it, one can begin to find solutions to it through reflection. Farrell (2012) argued that teachers’ reflective practice must be based on evidence and information that teachers collect about their classroom actions and decisions. In order to achieve this, teachers require different skills and abilities from what they exhibit in the classroom (Schön, 1987). Hall and Simeral (2015) stated that reflective practice must be worked on as a skill and it “does not come naturally” (p. 15) to teachers. Teachers’ choices of

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course books, course book materials, and other resources apply the process of reflective practice because their knowledge-in-action is constantly evolving to make better decisions about what will and will not work in the classroom and with learners.

Schön (1987) distinguished between reflection-on-action and reflection-in-action. On-action referred to looking back on an action or situation that has already passed and considering how the application of knowledge could have been applied differently. In-action stated that people are able to execute a task or job without consciously thinking about what is involved in that task as they have previous knowledge to draw from. Schön (1987) used the analogy of the baseball pitcher switching out his speed and curve of the baseball pitch. The pitcher used on the spot decision making to alter his thinking and knowledge based on the situation at hand. Similarly, a professional musician is able to adapt to variations in other players and in sheet music, making situational decisions to improve the composition (Schön, 1987). These analogies can be likened to an English language teacher making decisions about classroom management, which students to have work together, task organization, how to present and carry out an activity, and timing and pacing of a lesson. The reflection-in-action process serves to improve elements in the present situation of on the spot choices, but also to change people's knowledge of the situation to be able to make adjustments easily and more clearly in similar future tasks.

In order to make sense of the process of reflective practice, Hall and Simeral (2015) created a continuum of reflection. The continuum was both for improving reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action and contained four stages through which teachers pass on their way to becoming reflective practitioners. The four stages were “unaware, conscious, action and finally the refinement stage” (Hall and Simeral, 2015, p. 36). Every practicing teacher can be placed

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along the continuum according to their skills and problem solving capabilities in five areas of teaching. These areas are “awareness of instructional reality, intentionality of actions, ability to accurately assess, capability to adjust actions, and frequency of reflection” (Hall and Simeral, 2015, p. 38). As teachers develop skills and abilities in their practice, they move along the continuum. However, reflective practice and reflection requires a deliberate decision by the teacher to move along the continuum, it does not occur organically through classroom hours, experience, or qualifications. As Hall and Simeral (2015) pointed out in designing their continuum, teachers must make the decision to be reflective as teachers are “in charge of [their] own thinking” (p. 18). Being in charge of their own thinking related directly to how course book are used or not used in the classroom. Teachers often have the autonomy and reflective practice to understand when and how course books are best used in their classrooms for their learners.

Summary

This literature review has examined issues surrounding language development in terms of the cognitive to sociocultural shift of second language acquisition research. An understanding of the concepts of language chosen, most notably with grammar and lexical items, the order in which they are placed, and the style of activities to encourage social interaction are important in understanding course book creation and design. In addition, the shift into social aspects of language learning with communicative competency and communicative language teaching represent significant contributions to materials development in English language teaching. Both research questions of this project require an examination of second language acquisition as it relates to course books.

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Further, this literature review has addressed some of the theories and concepts that influence and affect teachers' pedagogical decisions. The ideas of world English and localized English is important for teachers when choosing to provide context for learners in the classroom. Notions of autonomy and agency allow teachers to make those decisions based on their evaluations of the curriculum, program, and their learners. Reflection-in-action directs teachers' situational decision making and choices in the classroom and lesson planning. Reflective practice in the teaching arena represents a teacher's ability to make effective choices and decisions in materials.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This study focuses on teachers' and course book writers' perceptions of the use of course books in English-as-a-foreign-language classrooms. Strauss and Corbin asserted that a qualitative framework is best used to research "lived experiences, behaviours...and feelings" (1990, p. 11). In line with Ortega's (2012) view that knowledge of language acquisition and research cannot be "neutral and objective" (p. 210), the decision to take a qualitative approach in the study allowed the values and experience of each teacher and writer to have a voice. It is this axiological assumption (Cresswell, 2013) that has underpinned the research process in this project. Cresswell (2013) also stated that the first step in the process of designing a research project is to examine what views, values, experience, and history the researcher brings to it. Complementary to qualitative design, constructivism most aligns with the researcher's epistemological approach to the study, and this will now be discussed.

Constructivism

Constructivism relies on the interpretation of situations to create meaning and knowledge. This knowledge is not to be found, rather to be constructed through these situations. It is an approach that "denies the existence of objective reality [rather]... the world consists of multiple realities influenced by context" (Mills, Bonner & Francis, 2006, p. 26). Conversations, observations, opinions and experiences constitute knowledge. When knowledge is created in this way, it supersedes notions of class, culture, race and cultural background (Hayes & Oppenheim, 1997), only the experience of the situation or conversation is used to create a

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reality. This allows a certain honesty of reality to come through; each situation stands alone to create something new.

Constructivism focusses on, and is embedded in, the human experience of the world. This experience in the world is something that is “lived, felt, undergone” (Schwandt, 1998, p. 236). As such, knowledge can be constructed through creating or recreating the world in which such experience and interaction occurs. The constructivist researcher is one that is part of the phenomena being studied and creates the knowledge of his/her surroundings. The researcher’s lived experience becomes a part of the research, and it “assumes we cannot separate ourselves from what we know...the world is a central part of how we understand ourselves, others and the world (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011, p. 104). It is in this paradigm of understanding that this study is placed. The researcher, as a member of the teaching group and a former course book writer, interpreted the pedagogical environment through interviews. Through this lens, this study created a dialogue interpreted by the researcher in order to make sense of perceptions around course book design and teachers’ lesson planning and implementation. Adopting the constructivist paradigm, the course book in the classroom and in the hands of the teachers is the everyday social event that is “brought into being” (Holstein & Gubrium, 2011, p. 341).

Settings and Participants

Setting

The setting for the study was a state-funded English language teaching program for adults in Boston, Massachusetts. This program aimed to teach English and workplace skills to newly arrived immigrants to the USA. There are strict guidelines set out by the Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (DESE), including a scope and sequence of topics and skills which every classroom must meet. All lesson plans written by teachers for

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the program can be subject to annual review by the Department, as can the school's curricula and management of the program. In order to better understand the program in which the teachers were working, Table 2 below presents an outline of the DESE program.

Table 2
The English language program (DESE)

Program Objectives	The Department of Elementary and Secondary Education provides funding to non-profit and community based language schools to teach English language programs to new Americans, permanent residents and American citizens. The aim of the program is to acculturate immigrants. The program runs on the American school year schedule, from September through to June the following year (approximately 9 months)
Program Summary	The program focused heavily on three themes within the scope and sequence: workplace environment and job seeking, college and career readiness, and civic engagement. These three topics were the themes of the English classroom. Grammar, writing, reading, listening and speaking were incorporated into the classrooms under each theme.
Student body	The students in the program ranged in age from 18 – 80. These classes were popular around the state and there is a waitlist to enter the classes. The students came from a wide variety of countries. When the research took place, there were a large number of students from Central and South America, North Africa and mainland China. The students were required to maintain a level of attendance and to be present at meetings with advisors. The program and all materials were offered free of charge to the students.

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Level and level placement	The program consisted of three English levels (referred to as Levels 1, 2, and 3). Level 1 was beginner (A1), Level 2 was Pre-intermediate (A2-B1) and Level 3 was intermediate – upper intermediate (B2). The students were placed in levels and moved up in level based on the National TABE CLASS-E language test. This test was a reading and writing test.
Class Information	The students studied 12 hours a week (Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday from 1:00pm – 4:00pm). There was a maximum of 16 in each class and a minimum of 12. Students sat at desks, usually laid out in a U or horseshoe shape, facing the whiteboard. Students were encouraged to sit with students of a different language group and languages other than English were strongly discouraged in the classroom.

Participants

The research consists of three groups of participants: EAL teachers, their students and course book writers. EAL teachers and students will be discussed together because the teachers were the main point of focus for these two groups, and course book writers will be discussed separately.

EAL teachers and students.

Two teachers were selected by the researcher through purposive sampling: they were both working at the Boston International Learning Center. Natalie (all names used in the study are pseudonyms) was using the Futures series (2010) and Sally was using the Ventures (2013) series. Both teachers had chosen their course books from a list provided to them by the English

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language center. The course book was used in conjunction with supplementary materials taken from other resource books and created by the teacher. Table 3 outlines the components of the course books Natalie and Sally were using. They have been updated to reflect the standards for the common core and include in the contents page which standard is being met in each unit.

Table 3

Course books regularly used at the ILC in the DESE program

TITLE	Which English?	Module Organization	Self-assessments	CALL Extras	Book Extras
VENTURES Beginner to Advanced, Transitions to College, Business	American	10 units based on broad themes (“time”, “work”) 1-3 grammar points per unit	Self-study audio materials Self-study exams	Student support website	Correlations for state common core codes Lesson planners for each unit Teacher’s book
FUTURES Beginner to Advanced	American	10 units organized by lifestyle themes (“knowing the law”, “technology”) No grammar points 1-3 life skills points per unit	Practice Test CD ROM	CD ROM	Teachers’s book with lesson planners Professional Development DVD for teachers Correlations for state common core codes

Sally taught a DESE Level 2 class in the afternoon with approximately 15 adult learners, running at the same time as Natalie’s class. DESE Level 2 had a higher number of mainland Chinese students and Vietnamese students than Level 3, and in fact Chinese learners dominated

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the class. This resulted in some Chinese language use in the classroom. Level 2 were a high beginner to pre- intermediate class, most of whom found reading and computer skills particularly challenging. As with the DESE Level 3 class, this class had low levels of literacy in their native language and many had interrupted education.

Natalie taught DESE Level 3 in the afternoons. This class consisted of approximately 14 high intermediate adult learners from Iran, Colombia, China, Morocco, and El Salvador. Though they were in a class together, there were varying degrees of intermediate language proficiency in terms of reading, writing, speaking, and grammar production. They had been in this class for about eight months before the study took place. The students in the DESE Level 3 class had low levels of literacy in their native language and many had interrupted education. Table 4 outlines the characteristics of Natalie and Sally, including their teaching experience, and demographical data.

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Table 4
Participant Information about the Teachers

Participant	Age, gender	Experience	Qualifications/ Education background	Teaching hours/week	Additional information
Natalie	50-55, female	Has been in the current role for 6 years. In total has 15 years English as a Second Language teaching experience. Approximately 1 year teaching EFL in Colombia.	Bachelor of Arts	29	Nil
Sally	30-35, female	Has been in the current role teaching for 2 years. This was her first ESL teaching role after moving over from the public school system.	Bachelor of Arts MA Education - Massachusetts teacher licensure	12	Teacher

Course book writers.

The other main participant group in the study was the course book writers. These participants were chosen through online research to locate writers and attain their contact information. Prospective course book writer participants were initially found via the publishing websites of Pearson/Longman, Cengage Publishing and Cambridge University Press. The writers' names were then typed into Google and located through an Internet search.

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Table 5
Participant Information about Course book writers

Participant	Gender	Experience	Qualifications/Education background	Course books written/co-written
Betty	Female	Has been teaching ESL for over 30 years, including the role of district supervisor for Miami-Dade Public Schools Adults ESL program	MA in TESOL and Doctorate in Education	<i>Futures Series (Intro to Level 5)</i>
Amanda	Female	Has been teaching ESL for San Diego Community College since 1971, including as trainer and chair for TESOL Task Force on Adult Education Program Standards	Unknown	<i>Ventures Series (Basic to Level 4, including Citizenship edition and Transitions edition) English for Adult Competency Grammar Matters: Teaching Grammar in Adult ESL Programs</i>

Data Collection

Classroom observations.

Data for the project was collected over a period of approximately one year from June 2015 until August 2016. The first phase of data collection was to observe the two teacher participants in their respective classrooms. Prior to the observation, both teachers and all student members had read and understood an information sheet outlining the objective and purpose of the study.

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Teachers and students had also signed a consent form acknowledging the observation and project. Each classroom observation lasted approximately 1.5 – 2 hours. The observation was conducted in order to provide the stimulus for the questions of the interview; to see exactly how the teacher was using the course book and what parts. Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver and Thwaite (2001) found that teachers struggled with talking about and adequately describing their pedagogical reasoning and decision making, and as such used a pre-interview observation to guide and direct the interview questions. They found this resulted in a “genuine dialogue between researcher and teacher” (Breen et al., 2001, p. 476). Similarly, in this research, the observation of the teacher and note taking played a vital role in what interview questions to ask. The researcher sat in a corner of the classroom and remained completely uninvolved in the classroom or teaching. There was no interaction at all between researcher and either the teacher or any of the students.

During the observation, the researcher had prepared a copy of the course book materials that the teacher was using during the class. The teacher also gave the researcher a lesson plan, or lesson run sheet, to aid the researcher in following the overall flow and placement of the lesson within the curriculum. During the observation, the researcher made notes on what, and how, the teacher was using the course book materials. The researcher also wrote questions to ask the teacher in the interview phase.

Interviews with teachers and course book writers.

The interviews form the findings of the research under the constructivist framework of building interactions and knowledge (Cresswell, 2013). The teacher interviews took place immediately after the teacher had completed the observed class. This timing was chosen so that the activities and decisions made in class would be easily recalled by the interviewee. Sally’s and Natalie’s

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interviews were conducted on different days. Neither teacher was aware that the other was a participant in the study. The interviews lasted approximately one hour in an empty classroom in the English language center. The interview was audio recorded by the researcher and the researcher also made brief notes about follow up/clarification questions. Following the semi-structured face to face interviews with teachers, email interviews were set up with two course book writers. Eight emails were sent to different course book writers, and two responses were received. The writers were sent ten questions via email, along with the information sheet for participants and a consent form to sign. Both course book writer participants responded via email.

The questions asked of the course book writers were generated from the initial findings in the teacher interviews. An example of this approach is given below. Natalie and Sally stated that they did not use the teacher's books for their course books:

Sally: I haven't looked at it...I think it does have notes to the teacher, suggestions, hints, things like that. I think I saw some of that in there ... but I'm not sure. It is not my inclination to go to those books...I almost never read teacher's notes...a lot of the ideas I came up with on my own were the same...and it just takes more time, and I just think of the ideas on my own.

Natalie: I just don't use it...I don't use teacher's books...I almost feel like we can do the activities without it.

These quotations informed one of the questions emailed to the course book writers:

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What do you see to be the role of the teacher's book? Can you see any situation where the teacher would not need the teacher's book?

All questions asked to the course book writers were devised in such a way that the writers were able to respond to the teachers' comments. This technique was used in an effort to emulate an interaction between the teachers and course book writers through the researcher. After all interview data was collected, it was coded according to the process of thematic analysis (Braun, Clarke and Terry, 2015).

Thematic analysis (TA)

Within a qualitative methodology, thematic analysis (TA) of data is a common approach to examining, coding, and reporting emerging themes in interview data (Braun, Clarke and Terry, 2015). Braun et al. (2015) distinguished between two approaches to TA: small q and big Q. As the data in this study was allowed to emerge from the interview transcripts through "discovering themes" (Braun et al., 2015, p. 96), rather than attempting to find them, this study is small q TA. Further, as prior assumptions or theories were minimised as much as possible, this study aimed for a more inductive kind of TA.

Data from the interviews was analyzed using Braun, Clarke and Terry's (2015) approach to TA. Though they were working within the field of health science, their six-phase guide provided the necessary framework for analyzing the qualitative data in this study (Braun et al., 2015, p. 100-107). This chapter will now outline the six phases as they were conducted during the data analysis time. A small number of these phases will be discussed in detail as they describe more rigorous work and are more critical to the TA process; the others will be discussed briefly.

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Phase 1 of TA was familiarization with the data. After each interview with the teachers, the interviews were listened to by the researcher. Then the interviews were transcribed. Braun et al. (2015) stated that the key to this phase is “reading, then re-reading” (p. 100) the data. As such, each interview was read several times prior to beginning the coding phase. The interviews from course book writers, as already written via email, were also read many times before coding.

In line with phase 2, the transcripts were coded in descriptive and interpretive ways (Braun et al., 2015). Descriptive coding involved coding the explicit comments from participants, whereas interpretive coding allowed the researcher to make assumptions and inferences from the data. Coding was done using colours to represent different labels in the data. Table 6 presents an example of the coding phase with one of the teacher participants, Sally.

Table 6
Phase 2 of Thematic Analysis: Coding the Data

Excerpt from transcript – Sally	Coding
If I'm given a curriculum by someone else, I will follow it mostly. I will supplement and be creative with the implementation of it, but whatever, for the most part, what is reasonable in the time allotted and all those things. When I design things myself and make my own decisions am I rarely devoted to one book and go in order. I guess, since I'm free from someone else giving me a curriculum, no. This is the book that I have like the most, but even so, I've looked	Assigned curriculum Making own resources Teacher's time Making own resources Making own decisions Order of book chapters, units Like/dislike current book Lesson planning

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<p>forward in the book and thought, that is why I choose the book and those skills is what I'm looking forward to, but everything leading up to that is also good. I didn't think of that on my own, but there is definitely a good reason for that, there's just not enough time in the day to do what I want. I think my plan right now is to do a lot more differentiation to doing some that is required and we review and leaving a lot more of the unit for independent work for those who have the time and want the extra practice but I won't necessarily go over all of those answers in class. The current unit for this week lended itself to that, I don't know if they all will, so I don't feel too bad letting them review and refresh those skills without having to go through all of it together.</p>	<p>Choosing the book</p> <p>Like/dislike current book</p> <p>Teacher's time</p> <p>Students' time</p> <p>Lesson planning</p> <p>Lesson planning</p> <p>Students working alone</p> <p>Lesson planning</p> <p>Students working alone</p> <p>Error checking</p>
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Following the coding of the four participant interviews, clear themes arose, which was phase 3. Braun et al. (2015) stated that when “codes are clustered together” (p. 102), themes can emerge. This process was lengthy and required re-reading the interview transcripts.

After coding, all themes were reviewed. Themes were examined firstly with the transcripts from the teachers, then with those of the course book writers. As the interviews from teachers were completed first, and were lengthier than the course book writers' interviews, more time was spent with this data. The themes were reviewed prior to applying them to the course book writers.

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Themes were named in phase 5 so as to be applicable to both the teachers' data and the course book writers' data. As each participant group was given different sets of interview questions, the themes that emerged from the data were quite broad in nature. The themes, which will be discussed at length in the findings chapter were:

1. Teachers and learner autonomy
2. Life skills
3. The teacher's books and other resources
4. Sequence of text books and lessons
5. Course book activities and linguistic aims

Phase 6 of TA involved the writing up of the data and also the answering of the research questions. In line with Braun et al.'s (2015) recommendations for this theme, much narrative writing was completed prior to the final report.

Trustworthiness

The concept of trustworthiness is important for examining the worth and value of this study. In assessing trustworthiness, this section will use Guba's (1981) criteria, which involves examining the truth value, applicability, consistency, and neutrality of the study. Krefting (1991) outlines Guba's criteria within the qualitative approach as credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

This research aimed to interpret teachers' and course book writers' decisions around the use of course books in EAL classrooms. One of the ways to maintain credibility (Krefting, 1991) is to conduct correct interviewing procedures, attain triangulation of data methods, and for the

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researcher to have sound experience in the field. As shown above in the data collection phase, the interviews were conducted in progressive steps, starting with the teachers' observations, the teachers' interviews, then the course book writers' interviews. Each step gave data and informed the next step, and offered a "complete understanding" of the issues (Krefting, 1991, p. 219). Guba (1981) stated that using different methods of inquiry established a triangulation of data which added to the credibility of the study. As mentioned in the preamble of the study, the researcher has both EAL teaching experience and course book experience. This relevant experience (Krefting, 1991) allowed the researcher insight into both participant groups. The experience also allowed for the mitigation of bias, as the researcher had been a member of both participant groups in the past.

A further gauge for measuring the trustworthiness of this research is through transferability. Guba (1981) asserted that one way of achieving transferability is to use participants who are generally representative of the population. In this study, the participant teacher was not chosen at random, but rather considered for a while prior to being approached to participate in the study. Sally and Natalie aptly represented EAL teachers, both within the context and location of the study and in the general. They both had similar general qualifications and experience levels of EAL teachers, and also had a work load that is typical of an EAL teacher. Further, both Sally and Natalie worked in a program that had strict guidelines for lesson planning, as described in the first chapter. This aspect of their work ensured that they were doing and thinking about lesson planning, which was a crucial component in the interview questions. The course book writers, though not chosen at random, represented their participant group as course books are not country-specific, nor context-specific. Nevertheless, in the interests of transferability, it is important to give background information about these teachers – this was given earlier in the chapter.

Dependability refers to the process and steps of the study (Guba, 1981) and the ability to recreate the study and attain the same or similar findings. This study used the familiar qualitative research methods of observation and interview. Further, dependability was a focus through the systematic steps of thematic analysis described by Braun, Clarke and Terry (2015). Through these methods, and following the process and steps outlined above, this research can be repeated in another context.

This component of trustworthiness refers to the bias and interference of the researcher's own subjectivity in the study. Guba (1981) stated that through triangulation and reflexivity, confirmability can be achieved. Triangulation for this study was in the form of using both teachers and course book writers as participants. This offered both perspectives on pedagogical decision making, and reduced the perspective of the researcher. The researchers' experience as both EAL teacher and course book writer also mitigated against bias for one group over another – or thinking that there was a right or wrong answer – when interpreting the data.

Summary

This chapter discussed the methodology used in the research study. It began with a rationale of the qualitative research approach as a suitable method for this type of study. Then, it outlined the constructivist approach to knowledge to demonstrate the thinking behind the study. The subsequent section described the settings and participants, including the DESE program in which the teachers were working, and also thorough participant information on the teachers and course book writers. Data collection methods were outlined, as was a description of data analysis, using the thematic analysis steps outlined by Braun, Clarke and Terry (2015). To conclude this chapter, trustworthiness of the research study was addressed. This section

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adopted Guba's (1981) guide to trustworthiness, which included discussing the four components of trustworthiness: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.

CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

This chapter will present the findings of the study. Thematic analysis was used to initially code the interview transcriptions and themes were drawn from the coding. The data was collected with the aim of discussing this project's research questions, which are:

1. What are EAL teachers' perceptions on the use of course books when planning and implementing their lessons in a state-funded English language program to migrants?
2. What are course book writers' perceptions on the use of the course books they write by teachers in a state-funded English language program to migrants?

As the interview responses from the two teachers prompted or influenced the course book writers' interview questions, the findings will be grouped under the same broad headings, or themes. This chapter will detail each of these themes, and offer support in the way of interview quotes to explain each theme. The themes from the data analysis phase are:

1. Teachers and learner autonomy
2. Life skills
3. The teacher's books and other resources
4. Sequence of text books and lessons
5. Course book activities and linguistic aims

Teachers autonomy

In this theme, autonomy in relation to course books was considered a two-fold concept. The first consideration was teacher autonomy. The second was how teachers promoted student

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autonomy through lesson activities, and how they perceived the role of course books in these activities.

In the study, the two teachers, Natalie and Sally, were found to highlight their own autonomy in relation to course book use. They did this by stressing their choices in lesson planning and in the classroom, both when using a particular course book, and also when selecting the course book itself. This section will begin with findings from the teachers.

The teachers in the study were teaching in a program that has prescribed state curriculum standards and benchmarks (Massachusetts Department of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2015). There were example lesson plans available to teachers. These lesson plans demonstrated how to incorporate the common core into teachable units. Course books and lesson materials were not provided with the common core. It has been noted that this was a standard practice in adult migrant education; the curriculum rubric and benchmarks were decided by the state, and the lesson content and materials were the teachers and, to a degree, learners' decisions (Wette, 2011). The two teachers, Natalie and Sally, selected the course book and all supplementary materials that they were using in their classes.

Natalie highlighted her own autonomy in choice of course book when she stated that her course book was “not assigned to this class. It was chosen. I have other options ... I chose this book. It's one of the better ones”. It was also a course book that she “used ... some years ago”, so it can be assumed that she was familiar with it. Sally also stated that she was the one who chose the course book to be used in the classroom with her students. She remarked that she came to use the book “through extensive research ... I pored through many, many, many books”. Unlike Natalie's choice of a familiar book, Sally seemed to have chosen the book based on

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what she concluded that the learners needed, wanted, or what she wanted to teach, and searched out an appropriate book that she had not used before.

Teacher autonomy to choose their own course book was also evident in the interview with Amanda, one of the course book writers. In her emailed responses, Amanda reflected on her time as a classroom teacher. She mentioned that being able to choose her own lesson materials and resources was an integral part of why she became a course book writer. She stated that “the existing books in ESL for adults were not appropriate”, and as such, she formed a team to write her own course book. Amanda was not only able to choose her course book, but write a course book to suit her learners, and choose the contents, layout, design, and methodology of the course book. In this case, teacher agency directly led to the writing of a course book. Betty, the other course book writer in the study, did not offer a reason for writing the course book(s) she had written.

During the interview, the teachers also spoke of how they chose to use the course books they had chosen for the class. For both, it was clear that they actively chose to use the book as a resource rather than follow it assiduously. First, Natalie asserted much criticism of the common core and curriculum objectives that she was told to follow. When discussing particular topics in class and lesson activities, she said that students often “do certain things they they’re not going to use...[that] they don’t need”. Natalie stated that she omitted items from the common core that “to me are not important or [I put them] on the list of the least important things”. Sally also spoke about this in her interview. She stated that she often supplements her course book with other materials: “when I design things myself and make my own decisions I am rarely devoted to one book and go in order”. Sally also spoke about the process of lesson planning, maintaining that she starts her “little brainstorming” with “a list and I try to put [the

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tasks] in an order that makes the most sense, and proceed that way". Sally also commented on her materials; "you have to think about what it is that you're going to teach and that selection is really important, and then choosing the right activities and materials is important". Sally asserted that she is the one choosing the lesson plan objectives, materials and activities, based around the curriculum she is given.

Learner autonomy

Nunan (1995) argued that materials and curricula need to promote students to "move towards the fully autonomous end of the pedagogical continuum" (p. 154). Natalie and Sally were aware of student autonomy and both stated that they worked to incorporate promoting this into their lesson planning and classroom management.

Student autonomy was a topic that arose during the interviews with teachers and course book writers. All participants spoke about the idea of encouraging independence in learners and promoting students to learn outside of the classroom. Richards et al. (1995) stated that experienced English language teachers include learner autonomy in their lesson objectives. Natalie stated that she uses the questions in the course book and in exercises to promote student autonomy. She asserted that, "I encourage students teaching themselves and teaching each other, asking each other questions". She did not want the students to be asking her for the answers; she maintained that her approach from students is, "I want you to figure it out, I want you to ask your classmates to help you figure it out". This attitude towards her teaching enabled the students to see in themselves that they are able to take the initiative and learn by themselves, or with a fellow learner. In place of teacher-led and course book oriented lessons, Natalie seemed to by saying that students had the space and time in the classroom to diverge from the course book tasks and confer together to learn language points. Natalie appeared to allow the

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students to dictate part of her lesson, rather than the course book or other learning materials. Natalie was therefore not found to use the course book to promote learner autonomy in the classroom. Instead she used her own ideas of classroom management and the process of using an activity to encourage the students to learn on their own and with other learners.

Sally also promoted students' autonomy in the classroom through her own lesson planning and classroom management. She said in her interview that "I let them do the work and the thinking and processing and ... it helps them realize that they can go and look and find things ... It is supposed to help them so they can go off and do it independently with success". This was an important part of Sally's approach to teaching and lesson management. Sally was developing the learners' strategic competency, which was encouraging learnings to both acknowledge their weaknesses and also have the tools to combat it (Canale, 1988). The teachers also reflected on their role in the classroom. Sally said that her objective was to get the students to realize that they do not have to rely on her "that's my goal, they don't need me, that they have the skills and resources to do what they need to do on their own". Sally saw her role as not being the sole person in the classroom with the information. She said that "rather than me being the carrier of all the information ... I'm trying to rely more on their own intuition ... the information is available to them; they don't need me". Students were able to access parts of the course book themselves, including answer keys in the back. Students were also able to navigate through the course books themselves, studying from the units and activities in the book that Sally did not teach in class. This idea was reiterated by Natalie, who also spoke about what she saw as her role in the classroom, and how she would like the students to view her. She stated, "I'm a guide". Natalie wanted to show and direct the students towards being independent learners. Natalie meant that she was a guide between the students themselves and the students and the materials. Natalie wanted her learners to learn from each other more than

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her or the course book. Both Sally and Natalie were supported by Little (1995), who stated that teachers who are promoting autonomous learners move “from purveyor of information to facilitator of learning” (p. 178).

The comments made by Sally and Natalie spoke about the role they see of themselves in the classroom vis-à-vis the students and the materials. They both asserted that they want the students to be in charge of and responsible for their own learning and language acquisition. The teachers, through maintaining that their position in the classroom was more like that of a guide or assistant, spoke back to how they view all the components of the classroom learning environment. It appeared that neither the course book, nor themselves as teachers, could have offered to the students what students could offer themselves and each other. To some extent, Natalie and Sally were prioritizing what the students knew and had over themselves and their materials, including the course book. Natalie and Sally appeared to perceive the promotion of learner autonomy to be something that came from them; they, as teachers, were in charge of how learners became independent. They did not see the course book as offering a way to be independent without a teacher’s input in directing how the course book was used.

However, both Amanda and Betty stated that using a course book in the classroom in the way that it was designed offered students autonomy and independence. They both said that by using the entire course book program and its supplementary books and resources, student autonomy could be achieved; neither writer mentioned that teachers were necessary to promote autonomy. Betty stated that although her particular course book was designed for classroom use, with a teacher directing the work, “there are plenty of resources today that meet” the needs of students who wanted independent work. She implied that the desire for independent learners and student autonomy was an important issue that was being addressed by writers and publishing

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companies. This can be shown through the many different resources that accompany the course book, particularly Learning Management Systems (online materials and quizzes). Amanda's comments reiterated Betty's comments on promoting student autonomy. She stated that "the workbooks that accompany a course book series [are] designed to be used independently by [a] student". She went on to say that "the workbook usually includes reinforcement exercises that can be done individually and don't require pair or group work". Amanda concurred with Betty, stating that course books were specifically designed for classroom use, with pair and group work activities to be led by the teacher. Amanda also made mention of computer assisted language learning activities. She stated that "materials that lend themselves to independent work are also online exercises that provide immediate feedback to students". Interestingly, the teachers' and course book writers' opinions differed with the use of the course book. As mentioned previously, at times the teachers preferred not to lead the activities, but rather had the students rely more on each other than the course book or teacher. Natalie and Sally promoted learner autonomy by classroom activities and learners using their peers, whereas Amanda and Betty asserted that learner autonomy was achieved through the course books.

Life skills

Incorporating life skills into the lesson planning and classroom tasks was a topic that was found to be important for both teachers and writers. Both participant groups spoke about the necessity of life skills and functional language to assist students' daily lives outside the classroom. The English language learners in Natalie's and Sally's classroom were from many different countries. All of the students in the class were recent immigrants or new Americans. They all lived in the greater Boston area. In this study, both the teachers and the course book writers spoke about how real life skills and functional lessons that connect learners to the English

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speaking world outside the classroom were important aspects of lesson planning and lesson materials. Incorporating real life settings into the language classroom allowed learners to better understand the contexts of interactions and dialogues. Tomlinson (2012) asserted that many course books and classroom materials offered little to prepare students for interactions outside of the classroom, and in fact materials that reflect a real-life setting could increase motivation in learners.

First, Sally stated that during her teaching, “I think about what I think is important for surviving in a world with English ... I want to be as realistic, as real world as possible”. She also stated that she wanted to teach “what students have expressed that they are interested in”. From these comments, it seems that what guided Sally’s decisions most was providing lessons that were both useful and that the students would enjoy and take an active interest in. To some extent, it seemed that Sally was thinking about what grammar structure or language strategy should be taught next in relation to what the students needed for their everyday lives. The activities that Sally chose in class were directed by what the students would encounter in their everyday lives in the United States. She commented that how she chose materials was in relation to her perceptions of what her students needed in their day to day English language; “something that I have done recently or will do or anticipate or imagine that they will do at some point in their lives”. Sally also stated that she used materials about “baby sitter...advertisements [and] advertisements for immigration classes”. Sally told the researcher what she enjoyed teaching was “the skills that are functional, I really like that”.

Natalie made life skills language a priority in her lessons. During the interview, she used the terms “skills...functional skills ... real life” a total of seven times. This repetition of a particular aspect of her teaching appeared to demonstrate that this was important to Natalie,

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and perhaps at the forefront of her mind when making decisions about lesson planning and teaching. Natalie stated that “giving them [the students] real life skills ... making sure students get some skills, some functional skills” is vital to her teaching approach. Natalie specifically stated that “I’m working things into the lesson plans where those skills can be used outside of the classroom, they can be used in real life settings”. She recalled a lesson whereby the students were “talking about road trips and ... there are some students in the class who are interested in getting a license” in the United States. Natalie stated that she was “trying to take some of those things in the course book that can be used in the real world”. Like Sally, Natalie placed importance on materials and lessons that were pertinent to the learners’ everyday lives and experiences in an English speaking environment. Natalie’s decisions about lesson planning and use of the course book appeared to prioritize what was best and most useful for the students, rather than what should be taught based on language acquisition.

Resources for EAL teachers generally fall into two categories of design: materials which were those specifically designed for EAL learners, and authentic materials, which were those designed to be used in the world without the idea of being classroom materials. Authentic materials may be adapted by the teacher in terms of idiomatic language and complicated lexis, or length; they do, however, remain relatively unchanged in order to provide as authentic an experience as possible for the learner (Richards, 2006). In thinking about her materials; Sally stated that she tried “to have as authentic an activity as possible”. She recalled a recent lesson that she did in her classroom using authentic government forms and documentation: “something I have done recently [is] ... filling out taxes [so] let’s grab a tax form and try to do that together”. Natalie spoke about authentic materials in her class being “meaningful for them” – the students. This quotation was in opposition to what Amanda and Betty stated about

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real life skills. Both writers claimed that they were imperative to both language classes and course books.

Betty stated that “life skills are essential in ESOL courses which service recently arrived students”. She narrowed down her adaption of life skills to general English classes, stating that “life skills become obsolete when students are enrolled in English for Academic Purposes (EAP)”. She made the assumption that EAP learners were already at an Advanced level of English, and perhaps had been living in the English speaking country for quite some time already. Amanda explained that the lack of real life skills in course books encouraged her to get into course book writing. She stated that course books of the time were “grammar-based and did not teach the survival language that our new arrivals needed ... we were writing our own lessons to meet the needs of this population”. Amanda also stated that at the time she and her co-writers were writing a course book based on real life skills and language; “there was also a state-wide effort to establish curriculum based on national life skill competencies for adult level English as a Second Language (ESL)”. The inclusion of life skills became a necessary component of course books and the EAL common core. Amanda stated that this “encouraged the writing of new textbooks” for EAL learners and teachers to use in the classroom. However, as explained by Natalie and Sally, they adapted course book activities and incorporated authentic materials into their classrooms. This implied that perhaps there was a gap between what the course book writers saw as real life skills, and what the teachers wanted to use, or saw as what the students wanted and/or needed to use in the classrooms.

Teacher’s books and other resources

Almost every EAL course book was available with an options package of other resources. A workbook, teacher’s book, audio and/or video materials, and online materials were often

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included. Amanda outlined what a “good” teacher’s book contains: “a lesson plan for each unit in the book and describes supplementary activities to do in the classroom to support the book’s objectives. It also often includes tests for each unit and answer keys”. Betty stated that “it should be easy to follow, practical and identical to the student’s version”. According to this description, teachers need not spend time locating additional materials for class, as they were contained in the teacher’s book. Further, teachers had prepared tests that could be considered valid and reliable and also had example lesson plans on which to draw ideas, inspiration, or use all together. Betty stated that “the teacher’s book is crucial” to teaching effectively in the classroom. Amanda partially agreed, stating that a teacher’s book “is essential for a new ESL teacher ... a very experienced teacher may not use a teacher’s edition as much, but it is still useful”. Both writers agreed that the teacher’s book was an important addition to a teacher’s tool kit of resources and materials.

However, both Natalie and Sally stated that they did not use teacher’s books. They both affirmed that the course book that they currently use did have a teacher’s edition. Natalie said, “I don’t use teacher’s books”. She also stated that “I’m sure it can give me other ideas and help with lessons”. Sally reiterated Natalie’s sentiments, stating that, “It is not my inclination to go to those books ... I almost never read those teacher’s notes”. Sally continued, stating that “I haven’t looked at it ... I think it does have notes to the teacher, suggestions, hints, things like that”. Although Sally and Natalie were aware of what is in the teacher’s book and acknowledge its contents and usefulness, and that it could possibly assist their lesson planning and classroom activities, neither of them used it.

An explanation that arose in the interviews for neither Natalie nor Sally using the teacher’s book was their perceived notions of usefulness. Natalie stated that she did not use the teacher’s

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book, saying that “I almost feel like we can do the activities without it”. Natalie felt as if she did not need the teacher’s book; from her comments, it seemed she could teach effectively without referring to the resource. Sally explained something similar, stating that “a lot of the ideas I came up with on my own were the same [as the teacher’s book]”. She also mentioned her use of preparation time. She said that “it takes more time, and I just think of the ideas on my own and they tend to be the same”. Though Natalie’s and Sally’s attitude to the teacher’s book may have spoken to their experience in the classroom, it was interesting that they both decided not to use the teacher’s book as a resource. Both teachers seemed to prefer their own materials, or their own ideas about supplementary materials. The course book writers, however, stated that the teacher’s books were valuable resources designed to assist teachers with their planning and perhaps even makes choosing tasks easier or more time efficient.

Sequence of text books and lessons

Each chapter of the kind of EAL course book described in Chapter 1 typically has a general theme, such as the environment or around town, with a grammar point, vocabulary theme, pronunciation, reading text and a writing task. As discussed in Chapter 2, grammar points build on previous units, from easier to more complex grammar, or contain parts of phrases or clauses that have been introduced before, such as learning the past perfect aspect prior to being introduced to the third conditional structure, which contains the past perfect in the subordinate clause. Amanda mentioned this, stating that “an ESL textbook begins with easier language patterns and builds to more difficult patterns later in the book”. This aligned with Richards (1999), who argued that “the order of a task in relation to other tasks may influence use of target structures” (p. 8). If what Richards stated was correct, the sequence of tasks is vital to accurate linguistic competency. Natalie and Sally, however, seemed to place greater importance on the curriculum assigned to them than the content of the course book. Natalie

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said that she tries “to merge what’s in the textbook with what we are required to do”. Sally stated that she focused on “what the curriculum says I need to cover [and] what the test at the end of the year will require that they be able to do”. Both teachers relied on what they saw as what should be covered rather than covering the units in the course book.

The layout and content of a course book are usually quite self-explanatory in terms of how the book builds on itself, with content and scope and sequence given the first couple of pages of most course books. Amanda stated that “a book should be used sequentially ... each unit builds upon the previous unit by reinforcing vocabulary and grammar learned previously”. According to Amanda, when a book was used out of its intended sequence, students might either get lost in unknown lexis or grammatical structures, or they could miss out on vital scaffolding. However, Sally and Natalie both said that they did not follow the units in the course book in the way that they are presented. Sally stated that she “makes a list and I try to put [teaching objectives] in an order that makes sense and proceed that way”. She explained further, stating that she “thinks about what I want to teach and then I try to find the materials that goes with that”. Her process involves, “glancing through the book and seeing what the book, what the different units are, what the book might have to offer ... that selection is really important, and then choosing the right activities and materials in important”. Sally, in spite of being given sequential linguistic input to follow in the course book and knowing how important material selection was, went about making her own sequence of objectives and materials. Sally would rather recreate her lessons as she stated, “I haven’t done a whole lot of letting the book tell me what’s next, you know like flipping the page and...that’s what I’m going to do next”.

In her interview, Natalie spoke about how she actively disliked the course book sequence. She stated that “you [the teacher] definitely always have to tweak things ... things need to be

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tweaked”. Natalie thought that the items, sequence, units, and/or activities in course books always needed to be changed in order to meet the needs of the students and the teachers. Natalie spoke about disagreeing with the approach of following the units in a course book in their intended order, stating that teaching was “not just following the book and saying ok we did this part ... this exercise is done, let’s move on to the next exercise”. Natalie went on to openly criticize her current course book stating that “I would like to see it a little more, feel a little more, sequential ... one activity or one chapter leading more into another”. In fact, Natalie maintained that units in the book and the sequence in the course book should “not just randomly [be] placed” together. Natalie chose to make her own sequence; she stated that she went “from chapter 1 to a chapter that seems to flow better ... and then move around that way”. Sally, on the other hand, praised the course book writers, stating “I hope to have faith in the person that wrote the book and there’s a method to the madness and to the order”. Although Sally may not have always comprehended the sequence of the course book, she understood that the writers of the books were, as she stated, “people that are more brilliant than I am [who] put [it] together”. Thus, Natalie and Sally had differing opinions and approaches to the course book; they differed from each other, and also from the course book writers.

When asked whether a course book was a necessary component to teaching, both Natalie and Sally disagreed. Natalie stated that “I would say no because you can get material from different places”. She went on to say that “a course book within itself is not necessary...it’s not the be all and end all”. Sally also stated no to the question of the necessity of a course book. She said that she was “rarely devoted to one book and go in order ... no ... a course book is not necessary”. Both teachers stated that a course book did have some benefits. Natalie said that “it’s helpful [and] a lot of times for students it’s a good idea”, though she subsequently stated that course books need to “eliminate some of the randomness I feel sometimes”. She also

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stated that “there are a lot of different exercises ... different chapters, there is a mixture, so that is nice”. Natalie seemed to have quite conflicting views on her current course book and seemed to go back and forth with her praise and criticism of the course book. Sally stated that many course books “have had really good extension activities at the end ... [and] it would be nice not to have to supplement”. However, the course book writers were found to consider that, if the book is used sequentially, with the teacher’s books, workbooks, and other resource materials provided, supplementing the course book would be kept to a minimum. Again, the responses from the Amanda and Betty and Natalie and Sally were in disagreement.

Course book activities and linguistic aims

The relevance of the sequence and order of a course book has already been established throughout this chapter. However, it is equally important to examine whether the activities within the course book were being used as designed or adapted by teachers. Amanda stated that “you cannot assume every teacher will have the pedagogy to implement exercises in the course book, so it is important to outline the steps how to implement each type of exercise”. Earlier she mentioned that these steps and instructions would be detailed in the teacher’s books, which both Natalie and Sally stated that they did not use. Amanda went on to say that “it is very important that teachers follow instructions for different activities. If the teacher doesn’t set up or model an activity ... the students will not be able to perform the tasks correctly”. Here, Amanda referred to the intended objective of each task, which has been determined by the team of writers and fits in to the overall objective of the book chapter and course book as a whole.

It has also been established in these research findings that Natalie and Sally were not necessarily following the objectives and course book instructions. During the observation, the

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researcher noted that Natalie switched the order of activities in the course book; she had the students complete task B prior to A. When asked about this in the interview, Natalie responded saying that “I just thought it might be a little easier ... I think it can be switched”. However, task A was to activate schema and brainstorm adjectives, while task B was to use vocabulary brought up in task A to answer questions in task B. After close reading of the task, the researcher noted that it followed the steps of a task-based language activity as described by Nunan (2004). The learners had great difficulty completing the task, and in the end Natalie dropped the activity and went on to something else. When shown during the interview the course book outlined the activity as a task based activity, Natalie said, “no I’m not aware of it ... makes sense though”. However, she also stated that the course book instructions were not adequate and “needed more examples”.

Sally also diverged from the intended use of the activity and made it into her own task instead of what the course book outlined. When asked how often she does this, she stated “very often because I have my own objectives”. Sally prioritized her objectives for the class over the ones outlined in the course book that she had chosen and agreed that it is “level appropriate text”. She stated that, though she has tried, she cannot find a course book “that does what I want it to do ... everything that I want it do to”. This attitude to books has led Sally to adapt many of the activities in the book. Sally particularly leans towards Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and transformed many of the course book tasks into laptop activities. She had adapted the lesson the researcher observed for this research into a laptop reading, question and answer task. When asked if she would have preferred the task to be presented as a CALL task in the book, she stated that “it would set up the activity ... but I don’t know that it would greatly assist me if it were written in the book”. Sally said that she liked to “be creative with implementation”

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of the tasks that are in the course book. In contrast, Betty, stated that “a course book is beneficial and helps keep student and teachers on task, organized and meeting goals”.

Borg (2003) asserted that changes in lesson planning and task sequencing are the “interaction between teachers’ pedagogical choices and their perceptions of the instructional content” (p. 94). However, Santoro (1999) stated that “teachers may not be the best judges” (p. 15) when it comes to not only selecting materials, but also deciding on how they are implemented. Wette (2011) stated that many teachers lack “the expertise to create quality resources” (p. 61), which could also allow the assumption that they lack expertise in altering them. However, the teachers in this study were shown to demonstrate knowledge and expertise. The teachers altered the course books because they had an understanding of the learners and materials, not in spite of it.

Summary

The course book writers and teachers were found to have similar approaches and attitudes about teacher and student autonomy. Both participant groups demonstrated a keen interest in promoting independent students. Course book writers and teachers agreed that real life skills, functional language and activities that reflect everyday situations were vital to a strong language classroom and course book.

The perspectives of the course book writers and teachers differed on some of the themes of the research. Both writers adhered to the approach that a course book was necessary and must be used how it was intended, however neither teacher agreed. Both Natalie and Sally adapted materials, did not follow instructions in course books and teacher’s books, and switched the

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order of activities within units and from chapter to chapter. One of the greatest differences was in their attitude towards using the course book sequentially from Chapter 1 onward. Writers were firm in their understanding that this was the way to use course books. However, Natalie and Sally both moved non-sequentially through the course book and followed the sequence on which they had decided, based on the curriculum they were following.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This chapter will discuss the study findings. In the study, the teachers were found to be adapting and altering the course books with which they had chosen to teach in lesson planning and during classroom use. They showed a significant amount of departure from the content prescribed by the course book writers. The teachers appeared to be modifying the book in order to meet the learners' needs in terms of context, real life language, and curriculum. The teachers in this study were not found to use teacher's books, nor to use the course book sequentially. The teachers also adapted the activities in the book and manipulated both the task steps and objectives to meet their own language learning goals.

Meanwhile, the course book writers included in this study intended that their materials be used in the prescribed manner. The course book writers were found to promote the assiduous use of course books and teacher's books. They both agreed that teachers should be using the teacher's books in order to implement the course book accurately. Equally, both writers asserted that the course books were to be used sequentially in order for learners to be introduced to language aptly. The course books writers were found to be in favor of including real life skills and did consider the context of the course book to be important. Learner autonomy played a crucial role in the design of the course books, and both writers stated that they included additional resources to promote learner autonomy.

During the course of this study, three overarching themes were identified: teachers' professionalism and expertise vis-à-vis course book use in the classroom, the way course book

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writers and teachers view context, and the (relational) role of the teacher and the course book writer.

Each of these themes will now be discussed in detail, with the inclusion of a brief section outlining the major points of disjuncture between teachers and course book writers. Following that, implications for the study will be presented, including pedagogical implications for teachers and teacher training, and implications for future course book design and production. This chapter will also include a discussion of the limitations of this study.

EAL teachers' professionalism and expertise vis-à-vis course book use

The context chapter of this thesis outlined the economic facts and status of EAL teachers in the United States. There are no minimum qualifications nor experience required to teach EAL. As such, teachers find themselves without clear paths to career status and advancement that reflects an ungoverned industry.

In this study, it appeared that English language teachers highlighted their professionalism in the classroom through asserting their autonomy and decision making regarding how they used course books. The study found that teachers wanted autonomy over their own classroom decisions and lesson planning, and that in turn this lesson planning affected their overall teaching. Friedman (1999), in his study of work place autonomy in Elementary school teachers, stated that when teachers were given the room to exercise their autonomy over important pedagogical and organizational situations at work, teachers perform better. Friedman (1999) also asserted that giving teachers the power to think and act upon their own decisions about curriculum and the school environment as a whole was a movement that was becoming more popular in the American school system. This power from the ability to exercise

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autonomy can influence non K-12 English language teachers also. In this study, both teachers had the autonomy to choose their own course books as well as to determine how they were implemented in the classroom.

As to the choice of which books to use, the teachers spoke of deliberately looking for materials to meet their particular classroom needs. The course books were chosen based on the teachers' perception of the learners' abilities and linguistic goals. Richards (n.d.) referred to this as pedagogical reasoning skills – the knowledge that teachers have of the language and their current learners and past learners to make decisions in lessons and the classroom. Natalie and Sally made course book decisions based on what they thought was best for their learners, based on previous experience with similar learners or course books.

In the study, the autonomy of the teachers was found to be limited by the particular courses being taught. Teachers in this study were working within strict guidelines prescribed by the requirements of the DESE program. As outlined in the context chapter, the DESE curriculum was rigid in its approach of what skills, and linguistic input needed to be included in the classrooms. The teachers were unable to make choices about the curriculum; however, they were both able to make choices about their resources. Choosing their own course book was a way for teachers to exert their own teaching styles, pedagogic choices, and knowledge about their own workplaces. This small piece of autonomy within the bigger scheme of a state-run program allowed the teachers some ownership over their work. Crawford (1995) argued that course books and other resources can take away teachers' decisions in areas that teachers should or could be making decisions. However, the findings of this study imply that decisions about the course book allowed teachers the room for some autonomy and choices based on what they knew about learners, teaching and the program.

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In terms of autonomy to determine the implementation of course book materials, both teachers in this study demonstrated judgment-based decisions in several ways that differed from the initial setup of the course books. First, this study found that teachers chose not to follow the given sequence of their classroom course book. Richards (n.d.) asserted that course books offered direction to teachers and learners. In progressing through a course book, learners were able to scaffold their language and teachers were able to predict more readily where the learners would/should ultimately end up. As explained in Chapter 1, course books build upon themselves in terms of linguistic input. Each unit's grammar and vocabulary increases in level of complexity and difficulty, thus course books follow Krashen's $i+1$ (1989) theory, with the previous unit representing i . If these course books were used out of sequence, the linguistic input was thus also out of sequence. However, this study found that teachers moved around the table of contents, teaching whichever unit they felt was necessary to their learners. Celce-Murcia (1991) questioned the necessity of focusing on form, given the classroom, learner and teacher variables that exist. If accepting Celce-Murcia's (1991) more open approach to form, it may not in fact be necessary to build upon the linguistic input from each successive unit, as the teachers in this study were found to have done. The most important element to choosing units from the book was that it met the needs of the learners and the teacher, rather than following a book in its prescribed sequence.

Second, in a related but distinct deviation from the course book writers' design, this study also found that teachers did not consistently use the course book activities in the format and manner intended by the books. The teachers, in both observations, altered the purpose, objective, and steps of the course book activities and used them in different ways from how they were

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intended. Borg (as cited in Birello, 2003) outlined some of the main reasons that influence teachers' decisions in the classroom when implementing activities. These included the teachers' language learning beliefs, vocabulary and context explanations, and decisions related to timing and pacing. All of these reasons were found in this study. One teacher mentioned choosing to rearrange the sequence of activities in a course book unit so learners had better exposure to the vocabulary in the task. The other teacher mentioned making the course book tasks more useful to students' language learning in terms of vocabulary learning and objective of the activity. Both the course book writers and the teachers in this study aimed to engage learners, but they differed in their approaches. Crawford (1995) argued that language learning materials must always engage learners in an interesting, yet linguistically valuable way. In this vein, this study found that the teachers altered and rearranged the course book activities based on their knowledge of their learners.

However, this study found that the course book writers had a preference for course books being used in the intended sequence, and the teacher's books be used as a reference. The course book writers stated that even expert teachers could benefit from the teacher's book. This idea could imply that the course book writers in this study adhered to the model of language learning building upon previous learned linguistic items. The findings of this study discovered that course book writers firmly asserted the place of teacher's books as an essential part of a teacher's toolkit. The teacher's books contained extra activities and explanations for the implementation of the course book. Though both of the teachers examined in the study were fairly opposed to using the teacher's book, the course book writers maintained their utility. This study found that course book writers were concerned that teachers did not have the skills to implement some of the activities in the book, thus the writers offered explanations in the

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teacher's books. Nassaji (2012) outlined the divide between second language acquisition research and teachers' knowledge and classroom pedagogical skills, which could be in line with the concern about teacher skills indicated by the writers. Course book writers made the assumption that teachers require assistance with planning and implementing activities. However, teachers were very clear in their assertion that they have the professionalism and pedagogical skills to make choices for their classes.

Teachers not using the teacher's book associated with their chosen course book also reflected the teachers' ideas of wanting autonomy in the classroom. Both teachers acknowledged that the teacher's book for their course book contained useful activities and information, however neither teacher used the book. Sally stated that much of the time her lesson plans and activities emulated the teacher's books' ideas, thus she felt she did not need to consult the resource. Richards (n.d.) stated that course books run the risk of deskilling teachers as all the information about how to implement activities was written, teachers just had to follow the steps provided. The teachers in this study were aware of the contents of the books and teacher's books, and chose not to use them as they thought they were not useful. This finding suggested that teachers were aware of their own skills and knowledge and know that the teacher's book did not, or was not perceived to, contribute to, or substitute for that. This finding did not correlate to Richards (n.d.) idea of deskilling; rather it appeared that teachers perceived themselves to be equally as skilled as the teacher's book.

Even apart from the choice of whether to follow course book writers' prescribed ordering and intentions, approaching the writing of a course book as a fixed enterprise was found to be in tension with the findings of teachers' actual use of materials. Both Natalie and Sally demonstrated a high level of reflection-in-action (Schön, 1987) when deciding which unit to

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teach, and how to teach. Teachers manipulated and adapted the course book and activities to meet their objectives that they had for their learners. Natalie changed the order of the activity on the spot in the classroom as she maintained it was better for the students at the time. Reflection-in-action was found to allow both teachers a perceived understanding of the classroom milieu and a perceived ability to make clear decisions based on that point in time. In spite of the course book outlining one way to complete a task, teachers made their own decisions so that the activity worked for their learners. This practice is in line with Richards et al. (1995), who asserted that teachers become experts in their field when they become autonomous decision makers. The teachers in this study demonstrated autonomous mastery of their work through reflection-in-action, and applying that reflection to switching the course book activities and not using the teacher's books.

The findings of this study imply that course book writers understand that course books need to be followed sequentially and all resources be used in order to provide a teacher-proof course. As outlined in chapter 1, course books are used extensively in EAL schools and language centers. There are many course books from which schools and teachers can choose. If a course book fails to meet its objectives and the learners find that it does not meet their needs, it will be discontinued at that center. Course book writers were writing books for learners' needs, but also there is a financial incentive for writers to produce books that will not fail. Though the ultimate goal of course book writers and teachers was the same - language learning - the pathway to attaining that goal differed. Put simply, it appeared that course book writers were invested in the book, whereas teachers were invested in the class.

Context of course books and context of the teaching environment

The findings of this study showed that teachers were better positioned than course book writers in terms of providing a social context for the use of language. As established in the literature review, second language acquisition underwent a social turn in line with Halliday and Vygotsky, who both asserted that language needed to be acquired within a social context (Ortega, 2012). Halliday (2004) maintained that the context of culture and context of situation was vital to language learning. These two aspects of context were important to this study of teachers' and course book writers' perceptions of course books.

The teachers in this study were using American course books in their classrooms (Futures 2010 and Ventures 2013). Both course books presented American pronunciation, language, and were set in American places. The context of culture and context of real life situations, however, were not met by the course book. The context of culture must have included the Boston accent, Boston locations, and also the context of the YMCA International Learning Center for it to be completely accurate and appropriate. Ellis and Shintani (2014) pointed out the significance of the specific social setting of language learning, asserting that language users will learn and use the language of their social group. The social group in this study was the Boston YMCA International Learning Center, for which the course book did not specifically cater. Short of designing new course books for each individual school's expected context, the EAL course book could never provide full context without additional input. The context of the social group appeared to be provided by the teacher every time they adapted or modified the course books for their learners. The course book writers understood that they were including social context.

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However, given the inherent difficulties, it was found to be up to the teachers to contextualize the materials.

Researchers have found the importance of the teacher in providing just this supplementation of book-provided context. Wette (2012), in her study, found that teachers adapted materials from course books and other resources in order to make more natural sounding language. Tomlinson (2012) agreed, stating that “good teachers are always adapting” (p. 151) in order to meet both the needs and the context of the learners and the style and approach of the teacher. This study found that teachers adapted the course book materials to meet the goals of the learners, either by changing their intended objective, or by making the task more useful to the learners. The choices that teachers made were based on the course books not offering the natural, or real life, language that the teachers wanted to teach in the classrooms.

The teachers in this study also made course book decisions based on wanting to incorporate life skills most relevant to their students’ places in life and specific needs into the curriculum. The findings found that teachers supplemented their lessons with authentic materials. Richards (n.d.) asserted that what course books offered was mostly inauthentic materials designed to teach specific language structures. To this end, teachers wanted to offer learners the chance to use authentic, every day materials in the classroom. This found that teachers made decisions about activities and language in the course books based on the real life usefulness of what was presented in the course book. The teachers, by using real life materials, such as Sally using the Massachusetts tax form, created a real life context external to the course book. Though the course book writers claimed that real life situations, and skills within a local context, were a crucial component of course book design, they still did not meet the needs of the teachers’

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goals for authentic materials in this study. Further, life skills differed from learner to learner and context to context. The teachers were the best judge of assessing the learners' needs when it came to life skills and every day necessity English.

The findings of this study aligned with Wette's (2011) conclusions that course books offered contrived notions of culture, and Birch and Liyanage (2004), who stated that course books presented what is attractive about culture, rather than the reality. The reality, the real life situations came from the teachers' materials and resources. The course book writers could not provide the context for the teachers as they had not anticipated the context of the Boston YMCA International Learning Center learner social group. Richard (1994) argued this exact point, that course books were lacking in local content and therefore needed to be altered in the classroom by the teachers.

The course books writers were meeting the needs of English language learners in the American linguistic setting. American English was the common form for presenting the language. However, other forms of English have to be acknowledged (Matsuda and Friedrich, 2011). This idea of Global English (Crystal, 1997) and Englishes was introduced by the teachers. Through changing materials and adapting the course book, the teachers brought to the classroom their variety of English and the varieties of English to which they have been exposed, rather than just the English of the course book. This acknowledgement of different types of English was an important aspect of language learning, and allowed the learners to gain access to the cultural contexts of the language that they wanted to learn (Santoro, 1999). This study found that teachers were able to contribute culture of context to the course book. By deliberately omitting activities and units and supplementing with other materials, the teachers

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were offering the learners a more complete context of culture than the course book alone could provide. Teachers were able to supplement the local lexicon and colloquialisms with units in the course book that were not. Further, teachers understood which items in the course book could be omitted due to local knowledge.

The teachers, through using more natural language and authentic materials, were working to improve the learners' discourse competency. Canale (1988) stated that discourse competency was an understanding of the different genres of linguistic input. Authentic materials, such as tax forms, and real life skills, such as reading notices, offered the learners experience with learning from everyday tasks that reflected their lives. As the teachers were supplementing with other materials, the judgment that they made about the course book was that it did not support the students with every day, real life linguistic input.

However, teachers' piecemeal adoption of course materials could implicate an imbalance in the overall content of a course. One advantage for course book writers is the time to prepare and design activities and contents that specifically geared towards improvements in the four aspects of communicative competency (Canale, 1988). Course books contained a variety of activities and other resources, as detailed in Chapter 1, and, as this study found, were carefully constructed by the course book writers. This was a complex issue for teachers in the classroom. Sally acknowledged the experience and credentials of the course book writers, and both teachers expressed that the resources were useful, however in the classroom, these ideas were found to conflict with the teachers' reflection-in-action (Schön 1987). The teachers wanted to adapt the materials to their learners, but also knew that the materials were produced in order to

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assist their learners in the best way possible. Equally, the course book writers wanted to assist the teachers by providing clear and detailed activities and instructions.

The roles of the teacher and course book writer

This study found that teachers prioritized learner autonomy and independent students, which was an area where teachers and course book writers concurred. According to Richards et al. (1995), both teachers demonstrated themselves to be expert in their field as learner autonomy was in the foreground of their lesson objectives and incorporated into their lesson materials. The teachers were found to understand that they played an active role in encouraging learner autonomy and ensuring learners were always working on strategic competency. Strategic competency was a learner's ability to overcome shortcomings in linguistic knowledge or weaknesses in communication through knowing how to fix the problem (Celce-Murcia, 1991). Both teachers were found to increase learners' competency in this area by taking a less active role in the classroom when explaining or giving answers. This decision by teachers was influenced by their reflection-in-action. Teachers were able to make on the spot decisions based on learners' needs and also teachers' needs. As Schön (1987) maintained, each situation that requires knowledge used reflection-in-action. Just like the baseball pitcher analogy (Schön, 1987), teachers in this study were shown to switch their method, approach, and techniques based on the situation in front of them in the classroom.

Similarly, it was found that course book writers were also concerned with learner autonomy. Course books came with additional resources that promoted independent learning and autonomy. Interestingly, the course book writers saw that the promotion of learner autonomy can be achieved through the course book itself, whereas teachers saw it as part of their instructional practice. Crawford (1995) argued that language learning materials and course

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books needed to include learner autonomy as a priority in their design. She specifically mentioned (Crawford, 1995) that course books should be including self-assessment tasks and activities which allowed students to measure their own improvements. This, in turn, increased their self-awareness of linguistic items, and also raised their self-confidence in the new language. Course book writers included these self-access and independent study items in their course book resource packs. These activities could also be seen in the course books outlined in chapter 1. The writers, like the teachers, believed that learner autonomy and encouraging language learning outside of the classroom was an important aspect of using a course book. This was in line with Canale's (1988) model of strategic competency. When students access language learning resources outside the classroom, they were better able to identify and find solutions to linguistic items that they did not understand completely.

The course book writers were also concerned with the linguistic input to which learners were being exposed. One writer mentioned that she began writing course books as the course book she was assigned as a teacher contained grammar structures without a context or function. Crawford (1995) argued that the language presented in course books should be as authentic as possible. As such, the writer adopted an approach which incorporated local context and real life skills. This style of course book design was in line with communicative language teaching, which focuses on communication skills of grammar form and accuracy and was very much in favor with course books writers (Ellis and Shintani, 2014). Celce-Murcia (1991) stated that course books needed to incorporate all aspects of improving learners' communicative competency, particularly presenting grammar in a culturally appropriate and realistic way. However, as the brief history of second language acquisition presented in Chapter 2 explained, these approaches to course book design were based on cognitive theories of language learning.

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It was challenging for course books to navigate and incorporate recent sociocultural approaches.

Though course books are largely using culturally appropriate language and settings, they have not taken the next step in the social turn. It is the teachers' role to create the social groups and environment required for language learning. Halliday (2004) introduced grammar and lexis by examining field, tenor, and mode, all of which contribute to real life dialogue and social interaction. With the current range of course books, this study found that learners were introduced to the utterances and expressions of the language, and the teachers' role was to make it meaningful to the learners. Liyanage and Bartlett (2010) asserted that teachers were unable to see the bigger picture when it came to lesson planning, however this study has found that it was the course books that were lacking the full context.

Richards (n.d.) stated that language learning materials and classroom resources should aim to teach learners, but also work to further train and educate teachers in aspects of language development or pedagogy with which they were unfamiliar. However, this study has found that Richards' ideas were not the reality for these teachers and course books. This study found that the role of the course book writer was to assist teachers in their practice, and the role of the teacher was to assist learners in their language acquisition. Though both the writers and the teachers were committed to language learning as their ultimate goal, they seemed to be working in parallel, rather than in unison. The teachers were challenged with negotiating the state curriculum, the course book, and their own pedagogy. This could have been because curriculum-driven teaching was not considered by the course book writers as the primary market for the course books – this is an issue worthy of further research.

The major points of disjuncture between teachers and writers

This study found that while the disjuncture between implementation ideas of teachers and those of course book writers was not universal, it was substantial in several key facets of course book use that were observed. As detailed in the sections above, this disjuncture can primarily be seen in three areas: using the given sequence of course books, providing representations of real life and context of culture, and utilization of teachers' books.

As to the first component of disjuncture seen in this study, there was a marked separation between teachers and course book writers on both the necessity of and the utility of presenting course book materials in the sequence given. Teachers expressed a want to use the activities and materials in course books in the order and form that best suited their teaching and their learners. Course books writers, however, had chosen the language development sequence and presented in a specific way to best achieve language acquisition. Moreover, course book writers felt it was crucial to the successful use of the materials to proceed in the intended sequence, while the teachers in this study felt the materials were more successful in an altered presentation.

In a second point of disjuncture found in this study, teachers and course book writers differed in their approaches to bringing specific cultural and practical elements into the classroom. Teachers were keen to present a real life context to the learners with lesson materials. As such, they found it most useful to the students to seek out additional English language supplements targeted at exposure as well as skill building. In addition, both teachers were aware of their students' context of local and regional culture. Additional pieces of material brought to students allowed the introduction of cultural elements alongside language in the classroom.

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Meanwhile, course book writers also expressed a need to present a real life situation but were limited in the specificity of what they were able to include. Course books presented a generic American cultural representation, whereas the teachers were able to concentrate on the context of Boston, Massachusetts and their learners' real lives.

In a final observed disjuncture between course book writers and teachers, and perhaps the most significant, the two sets of examined participants differed drastically on the importance of and appropriate use of teachers' books. The perceptions of both methods of use for teachers' books as well as teachers' books relationship to the course books demonstrated a clear difference in teachers and course book writers. From reflective discussion, teachers explained that these books were not necessary to their effective teaching strategies in the classroom. In practice, both teachers decided against using them. In fact, the research found that the teachers considered teachers' books in general to be an unnecessary component of the course book. Course book writers, on the other hand, viewed teachers' books as being a key component of the successful use of a given ESL course book series. Both course book writers stated that the teachers' book, regardless of teachers' expertise and experience, would find the activities and lesson planning assistance invaluable.

These three components of conflicting ideas about the implementation of course book materials reveal a major rift in thinking between those creating materials for EAL students and those tasked with delivering those materials to the intended student recipients. These revealed conflicting approaches have implications for design and use of course books that are explored below.

Summary

This chapter has examined the findings through the literature and found that three major ideas have emerged from this study. Firstly, teachers were promoting their professionalism and autonomy by adapting and manipulating course books. As teachers, they asserted their own choices and pedagogy in the classroom for the direct benefit of their learners. Course book writers had incentives to design and produce books which were self-explanatory and resistant to teachers' experience and credentials. Secondly, teachers in this study were including context and real life skills and language in their lessons. The teachers demonstrated that they aligned themselves – consciously or subconsciously – with the sociocultural theories of language teaching, and were providing social context as central to their teaching. It was difficult for course book writers, however, to provide the kind of context they maintained was important in the course books. Their priority appeared to be cognitive language acquisition of communicative competency and communicative language teaching.

Implications for teachers and course books

The most crucial implication that arose from this study was the need for ongoing teacher training. Teachers would gain from being kept informed of SLA research and theories which affect their work. The need to incorporate the social turn into language classrooms is important for language learners to attain the most current techniques and approaches. Teachers in this study were incorporating social groups and contexts into their classrooms, but the gap between practice and theory is wide. State based professional development sessions and updated credential evaluations should incorporate SLA theory-based scholarship in order for teachers to understand why they are adapting books. As such, course books could be used to familiarize teachers with current second language acquisition theories to improve their practice in the

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classroom. This way, research and learners can be better connected, leading to more valuable outcomes for learners and data for researchers.

Course book writers have traditionally designed books to be used as the course of language learning. This study has demonstrated that teachers' desire for professionalism and autonomy overrode the course book. These ideas could be incorporated more in the design of course books. Rather than have the teacher negotiate their autonomy and choices with the course book, the course book could allow for this autonomy in the structure. Designing course books with flexible and adaptable activities could promote teachers to follow them in a structured way rather than jumping around the book. Rather than course books dictating how their content were implemented, they could present activities that catered for different teaching styles and choices within the same book.

Limitations

This was a small study limited to only two teachers and two course book writers. The study was thus limited in voice and site size. Also, the context of the study was one language center with a set curriculum directed by the state and followed by the language center and teachers. However, the course book writers were producing nation-wide publications.

As this study was conducted within a curriculum, it cannot claim that all language teachers adapt course books in the same way that these teachers did. These particular teachers were negotiating both curriculum and course books in their lesson planning and teaching. This would be atypical of EAL teachers who teach a course that is based on a particular course book. Further, the data were collected through one interview (with an accompanying classroom

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observation for the two participating teachers) and thus the responses of the participants are limited to that particular time.

A further limitation of this study is the lack of students' voices. Given the setting for the study was an EAL school, the perceptions of the learners in the classroom where the teacher participants were teaching would have been a valuable contribution. However, the scope of this study was limited in size and time, and thus only included teachers and course book writers as participants.

Concluding Remarks

Borg (as cited in Birello, 2012) stated that teachers' beliefs were difficult to research and study, and that often a single teacher's belief may contradict or be disconnected with other beliefs they have. However difficult they may be, there is scope for further research into the connection between teachers' perceptions of the materials they use in class and the materials' intended use as perceived by the writer. This study has demonstrated that there was a sometimes tension-filled relationship between the perceptions of teachers using course books and how course book writers designed the books. These tensions were experienced by teachers mostly in the realm of autonomy and an understanding of the learners in the classroom and their objectives in relation to the objectives of the course book. This study is not purporting to say that course books become obsolete; however, perhaps there is space for course books and teachers to come together in terms of teachers' autonomy, activity flexibility and life skills lessons.

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APPENDIX A

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACCET	Accrediting Council for Continuing Education and Training
CAL	Center for Applied Linguistics
CALL	Computer Assisted Language Learning
CLT	Communicative Language Learning
DESE	Department of Elementary and Secondary Education
EAL	English as an Additional Language
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
ESL	English as a Second Language
ESOL	English to Speakers of Other Languages
ILC	International Learning Center
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
PD	Professional Development
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
TA	Thematic Analysis
UG	Universal Grammar
YMCA	Young Men's Christian Association

APPENDIX B

CLASS OBSERVATIONS AND INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

OBSERVATION

The classroom observation will be conducted during a normal teaching day. The researcher will have a copy of the course book sections being used during the lesson. The researcher will be making notes on the course book materials, marking any changes in activity, rubric or task that the teacher makes. This material will provide the initial basis for questions in the interview, but general questions about the teacher's approach to teaching and using course books will also be asked. The researcher will then move on to ask the teacher about general course book use in the classroom and their ideas on using them.

INTERVIEW SCRIPT AND QUESTIONS

Firstly, thank you for allowing me to observe your class, and for giving me your time for the interview. Please answer the interview questions openly. If you do not understand a question, please do not hesitate to ask for clarification.

To begin, I'd like to ask about your lesson planning.

1. How do you approach your lesson planning? What is your first step?
2. What is in the forefront of your mind when you are lesson planning?
3. How do you utilize the book? What are you often thinking about when you are flicking through your course book?
4. What teaching methodology are you influenced by when you are putting together your lessons?
5. How would you sum up your approach to lesson planning?

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Next, let's talk about the actual course book.

1. How did you come to use the course book you are using?
2. Can you tell me how you would prefer the course book to look?
3. What changes would you like to make to the book?
4. If you were to write your own course book, what would you give priority to? What kind of activities would you include? What would you leave out of your course book, which is in the one you are using now?
5. How is a course book necessary in the classroom?
6. If I were to ask your students what they thought of the course book, what do you think they would say?
7. What, if ever, makes you supplement this course book? What other materials do you use? What makes you choose these materials over your course book?

Let's discuss specifically some items I noticed in the observation. I have a copy of the section of the course book that you used today. It may assist you if you have your copy also.

1. What made you choose these activities today in your lesson plan?
2. Have you covered the previous pages in this course book?
3. Can you walk me through your decisions in using activity? Did it meet your lesson objective needs?
4. I noticed that you did not use activity, can you walk me through your decisions not to do that?
5. How was your lesson successful today?
6. How was your use of the course book successful today?

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7. What would you change about your lesson today? Specifically how you used the course book.
8. Can you walk me through just quickly what you will teach tomorrow? What will you use from the course book?
9. How do you use the teacher's book which accompanies this course book?
10. Do you often use the instructions rubric in the course book, or paraphrase verbally for the students? How do you think the instructions rubric printed in the book assists or hinders students?

Thank you for your time today and thank you for your participation in this research. Please do not hesitate to contact me via email if you have any questions or concerns about what we discussed today. I will provide a written transcript of this interview to you if you wish.

SAMPLE QUESTIONS FOR EAL TEACHERS POST OBSERVATION

1. How did you choose the course book you are currently using?
2. How appropriate is the course book to your students' needs and level?
3. How often would you use the course book during the course of your teaching day?
4. Do you supplement the course book? If you do:
5. How do you supplement the course book?
6. What materials do you use when you supplement?
7. What are the reasons that make you supplement the course book?
8. How often would you supplement the course book with other materials?

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9. Can you tell me about a time when you recently supplemented the book? Why did you supplement and what was the outcome? Please be as detailed as you can be.

Questions after this point will be directed by the data collected during the observation and will specifically ask questions about the course book materials and what happened during the lesson.

1. What made you do _____ in the class?
2. Why did you choose to use the materials from _____ in place of the course book?
3. I noticed that the course book focuses on _____, however you went off topic from that. Why was that?
4. Can you explain why you transitioned from the course book to the ____ activity?
5. Can you tell me how you use the book in class?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR COURSE BOOK WRITERS

1. How did you first get into course book writing from teaching?
2. When writing and designing course books, did you find your teaching experience useful? Why/ why not?
3. How are the themes and grammar decided for each course book? What do you understand to be the role of the teacher's book?
4. Can you see any situation where the teacher wouldn't need the teacher's book?
5. How important do you think it is to incorporate life skills (such as workplace English, filling in an application etc) into an everyday English course book?
6. To what extent do you think a course book should be used sequentially?
7. In the course book, do you assume any knowledge on the part of the teacher?

COURSE BOOKS IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE CLASSROOMS

8. Do you write course books for students to be able to use them independently of a teacher? Why/ why not?
9. How important do you think it is that teachers follow instructions provided for different activities?
10. Is there any particular way that you think a course book that you write should be used by teachers? By students?

CONSENT FORM

Project: Using English Language course books in the English language classroom

Chief Investigator: Dr Marianne Turner

Co-investigator: Ms. Alison Don

I have been asked to take part in the Monash University research project: Using English Language course books in the English language classroom. I have read and understood the Explanatory Statement and I hereby consent to participate in this project.

I consent to the following:

	Yes	No
• Being observed in an EAL classroom for one class session	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Taking part in a one on one interview after the observation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Audio recording during the interview	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The data that I provide being used in future research papers or journal articles	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Name of Participant _____

Participant Signature _____

Date _____

CONSENT FORM

(Course book writers)

Project: Using English Language course books in the classroom: teachers' pedagogical perspective

Chief Investigator: Dr Marianne Turner

Co-investigator: Ms. Alison Don

I have been asked to take part in the Monash University research project: Using English Language course books in the classroom: teachers' pedagogical perspective. I have read and understood the Explanatory Statement and I hereby consent to participate in this project.

I consent to the following:	Yes	No
• Taking part in a one on one interview via Skype or email	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• Audio recording during the interview	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
• The data that I provide being used in future research papers or journal articles	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Name of Participant _____

Participant Signature _____ **Date** _____

EXPLANATORY STATEMENT

(Classroom students)

Project: Using English Language course books in the English language classroom

Dr Marianne Turner of Education Phone : **R Don**
Department of Education Phone : [REDACTED]
[REDACTED] [REDACTED] [REDACTED] [REDACTED] [REDACTED] [REDACTED]
[REDACTED]

You are invited to take part in this study. Please read this Explanatory Statement in full before deciding whether or not to participate in this research. If you would like further information regarding any aspect of this project, you are encouraged to contact the researchers via the phone numbers or email addresses listed above.

What does the research involve?

The aim of this study is to explore teachers' use of course books in EAL classrooms. Your involvement in this study is minimal and involves only being present during an observation of the teacher in your English class.

Consenting to participate in the project and withdrawing from the research

The first step in the consent process involves signing and returning the attached consent form. To participate in this study is completely voluntary and no reason need be given if you choose not to participate. If you chose not to participate, notes will not be taken on any contribution you make in the observed class.

Possible benefits and risks to participants

There is neither any risk nor benefit to participating in this study. This research, whether you choose to participate or not, will not affect your relationship with the college in any way.

Confidentiality

Data is being collected on the teacher only. Data will be used as part of a Masters of Education thesis at Monash University, Melbourne, Australia.

Storage of data

All data will be stored on my personal laptop, with access only by the researcher.

Results

The dissertation will be available upon completion in May 2017. Prior to this date, all materials, any video recording or audio recording and transcript will be available to you at any time during the research. Access to the materials can be made by contacting the researcher.

Complaints

Should you have any concerns or complaints about the conduct of the project, you are welcome to contact the Executive Officer, Monash University Human Research Ethics (MUHREC):

Executive Officer
Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Room 111, Building 3e
Research Office
Monash University VIC 3800

[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]
[REDACTED]
Thank

you,

Alison Don
Co-investigator

CONSENT FORM

(Classroom students)

Project: Using English Language course books in the English language classroom

Chief Investigator: Dr Marianne Turner

Co-investigator: Ms Alison Don

I have been asked to take part in the Monash University research project: Using English Language course books in the English language classroom. I have read and understood the Explanatory Statement and I hereby consent to participate in this project.

I consent to the following:

- Being observed in an EAL classroom for one class session
- The researcher taking notes during the observation

Yes

No

Name of Participant _____

Participant

Signature _____

Date _____

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