

Andrews University

Digital Commons @ Andrews University

Dissertations

Graduate Research

2015

Curriculum Design and Language Learning: An Analysis of English Textbooks in Brazil

Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues
Andrews University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.andrews.edu/dissertations>



Part of the [Curriculum and Instruction Commons](#), [Educational Methods Commons](#), [Instructional Media Design Commons](#), and the [Modern Languages Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Rodrigues, Ellen Nogueira, "Curriculum Design and Language Learning: An Analysis of English Textbooks in Brazil" (2015). *Dissertations*. 1.

<https://digitalcommons.andrews.edu/dissertations/1>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate Research at Digital Commons @ Andrews University. It has been accepted for inclusion in Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons @ Andrews University. For more information, please contact repository@andrews.edu.

ABSTRACT

CURRICULUM DESIGN AND LANGUAGE LEARNING:
AN ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS
IN BRAZIL

by

Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues

Chair: Raymond J. Ostrander

ABSTRACT OF GRADUATE STUDENT RESEARCH

Dissertation

Andrews University

School of Education

Title: CURRICULUM DESIGN AND LANGUAGE LEARNING: AN ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS IN BRAZIL

Name of researcher: Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues

Name and degree of faculty chair: Raymond J. Ostrander, Ph.D.

Date completed: April 2015

Problem

The textbook is the most important resource for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in Brazil, defining the course to be followed and the teaching and learning processes for language learning. Therefore, it is necessary to understand through an educational perspective the curriculum design employed in the textbook, and the language learning processes used based on the communicative approach, the current favorable approach to English teaching in Brazil. Textbooks writers typically indicate their alignment to the communicative framework. So the problem that exists is the lack of studies on the approaches and processes used in the construction of the English textbook for EFL and the need to identify to what extent communicative approaches guide and frame the curriculum content. In this study I analyze sixth-grade textbooks, the first grade

in which students are in contact with the foreign language. Thus sixth-grade textbooks evoke the importance of understanding how language learning is conceived regarding curriculum design aspects and language learning processes. Hence, for a more effective orientation to students' learning experiences the present study takes into account to what point the textbook writers incorporate aspects of the communicative approach into the curriculum design and language learning processes in the foreign language textbooks.

Method

The method used in this study was qualitative content analysis (QCA). Content analysis allowed me to explore the extent to which textbook writers included curriculum design and language learning processes. QCA provides the means to analyze the meaning of qualitative material in a systematic way. Textbook content can provide qualitative categories that can be rearticulated and resignified, going beyond a format that complies with yes and no to answers. Content analysis helps explore more thoroughly specific aspects of the texts' message providing insights to the effects that the textbook have on users' language proficiency and the extent to which changes are necessary.

Two sixth-grade textbooks were analyzed—the *Links* (2011) and *Keep in Mind* (2012) collections. Both are currently used in Brazilian public schools. The sixth grade is usually the first time students will be in contact with the foreign language and, thus these textbooks were suitable to serve as the corpus of the study. A checklist was developed to evaluate the EFL textbooks, and several aspects were taken in consideration to produce the checklist. Items from previous checklists were adapted for inclusion on the current checklist. To ensure the checklist included items that dealt with aspects of curriculum

design, Nation and Macalister's (2010) language curriculum design components were incorporated into the current checklist.

Checklist items related to the language learning processes were developed based on Tomlinson's (2003, 2010, 2011) and Ellis's (2014) language learning principles. The checklist items have two criteria that must be contemplated to obtain a satisfactory and good evaluation, which is indicated by a summative value for each item in the checklist. The checklist guides the evaluation procedures and examination of the textbooks.

Results

The analysis of the textbooks indicates that both textbooks follow a weak version of the communicative approach. The textbooks develop suitable controlled practices especially related to speaking skills, and provides natural spoken data for the content of the units. However, both textbooks failed to create conditions for freer production of language use to achieve a communicative outcome. There are few opportunities for students to interact, share meaning, and manipulate the language in communicative contexts. Therefore, the textbooks should be revised to ensure that students engage in tangible experiences where they interact through talk-in-interactions and discover the language system in the process of communicating to achieve an outcome.

The textbooks are satisfactory in providing fun and interesting activities for students. Even so, more attention should be given to designing fun activities than relying on goal-oriented activities. Failing to define the goals in precise terms leads to instruction that is not aligned to the goals of the unit. This is seen in both textbooks. Also, in the case of *Links*, textbook writers relied on a 'coverage of materials approach' by having students

work with several topics in the unit, thus hindering their ability to extensively analyze content.

Textbook authors fail to include content more than once across the textbooks, which hinder students' abilities to recall and integrate content knowledge. Language development requires constant reinforcement of learning for students to incorporate the linguistic item into their language system. Conversely, both textbooks ensure a periodic assessment of content and grammatical activities that focus on form-meaning connections. In general, listening, reading, writing, and grammar activities from these two textbooks could offer more chances to assist learners in noticing the input through highlighting or marking the words, isolating the input, and increasing the salience of the target structure. In listening practices *Links* failed to give attention to the metacognitive process where learners attend to input and check their understanding. Also, both textbooks could have provided a range of different listening activities, such as listening grips, prompts, completion of sentences, and matching activities.

The reading activities in *Links* are effective as they lead learners to attend to unknown words, to discuss the main points of the texts, and to trigger comprehension skills. In *Keep in Mind* there is an absence of discourse-level texts, and vocabulary aligned to the goals of the unit. For writing experiences *Links* authors designed suitable practices where students are given a model to follow and are then stimulated to create their own written work. Contrarily, *Keep in Mind* presents word-level practice, and few chances for students to work on the writing process. Finally, both textbooks could benefit if their authors provided more varied activity types, such as, prompts, writing response to

a picture, dictoglosses, reading responses, writing based on concept-maps and inventories.

Conclusions

The analysis of both textbooks shows a compliance to a relatively weak version of the communicative approach. In this sense, textbook writers should focus attention on designing communicative activities more in line with tasks that allow students to interact, negotiate meaning, self-invest in their learning, and produce language in communicative contexts. A balance should be achieved between controlled and free productions of learning, where students have chances to go beyond rehearsal of information to trying out communication and sharing of meaning on their own to achieve communicative competence. Textbooks authors must produce activities and assignments to ensure that students engage in freer productions of learning through tangible experiences where they interact through talk-in-interactions and information-gap activities to discover the language system in the process of communicating to achieve an outcome.

Overall, textbook writers need to provide more attention to the alignment of goals, instruction, and assessment of the units. Formulating more specific goals ensures fewer topics, attention to input, and depth of learning. Listening, reading, and writing activities could be designed to offer more chances for input awareness and processing, through a focus on the metacognitive process, and for more diverse forms of activities. Furthermore, input across the units should be reinforced through a cyclical format to lead students to check their understanding, create connections, and rethink the forms they are in the process of learning to be incorporated to their language system.

Andrews University

School of Education

CURRICULUM DESIGN AND LANGUAGE LEARNING:
AN ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS
IN BRAZIL

A Dissertation

Presented in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

by

Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues

April 2015

©Copyright by Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues 2015
All Rights Reserved

CURRICULUM DESIGN AND LANGUAGE LEARNING:
AN ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS
IN BRAZIL

A dissertation
presented in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
Doctor of Philosophy

by
Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues

APPROVAL BY THE COMMITTEE:

Chair: Raymond J. Ostrander, Ph.D.

Dean, School of Education
James R. Jeffery

Member: Larry D. Burton, Ph.D.

Member: Julia Kim, Ph.D.

Member: Tammy Overstreet, Ph.D.

External: P. Zitlali Morales, Ph.D.
University of Illinois at Chicago

Date approved

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	ix
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	x
Chapter	
1. INTRODUCTION	1
Background of the Problem	1
Statement of the Problem.....	2
Purpose	3
Justification for Research.....	3
Methodology	4
Outline of Study	6
Definition of Terms.....	6
2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND.....	8
Introduction	8
Curriculum Design and Development of Materials for Second Language Teaching	8
Actual Needs and Context for Learning	8
Principles of Language Teaching and Learning	12
Goals, Content, and Sequence of Language Course Design.....	12
Format and Presenting Material.....	15
Monitoring and Evaluation of Curriculum Design	16
Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching	17
The Grammar-Translation and The Direct Method	18
Audiolingualism.....	20
Innovative Methodologies of Language Teaching	22
Approach.....	24
Communicative Language Teaching	24
Task-Based Language Teaching.....	27
Content-based Instruction	29
Foreign Language Syllabus Design	30
Structural Syllabus	32
Functional-Notional Syllabuses	39
Syllabus Proposals Analysis	45

Process Oriented Syllabus.....	46
Procedural Syllabus	47
Task-Based Language Teaching Syllabus	48
Second Language Acquisition and Language Learning.....	53
Input, Output, and Interaction.....	54
Second Language Acquisition and Learning Principles	59
Textbook Analysis Research.....	62
Gender Analysis.....	64
Cultural Issues.....	65
Dialogue Genres.....	67
Methodology and Second Language Studies Analysis	68
The Context of English Language Teaching in Brazil.....	73
The First Half of the 20th Century.....	75
The Second Half of the 20th Century	76
Brazilian Textbook Studies Since the 1990s.....	79
Gender Analysis.....	82
Cultural Analysis	83
Textual Genres Analysis	85
Didactic Dialogues.....	87
Summary	89
3. METHODOLOGY	93
Introduction	93
Literature Review.....	93
Instrumentation	96
Materials.....	101
Data Analysis	103
Summary	105
4. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF <i>LINKS</i>	107
Introduction	107
Analysis of <i>Links: English for Teen</i> Textbook	107
Considering the Environment	108
Discovering Interests	111
Following Principles	113
Goals	118
Listening	120
Speaking.....	122
Reading	125
Writing	127
Grammar	128
Format and Presenting Material.....	130
Monitoring and Assessing.....	131
Summary	133

5. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF <i>KEEP IN MIND</i>	136
Introduction.....	136
Analysis of <i>Keep in Mind</i> Textbook	136
Considering the Environment	137
Discovering Interests	139
Following Principles	140
Goals	143
Listening	145
Speaking.....	148
Reading	150
Writing	152
Grammar	154
Format and Presenting Material.....	156
Monitoring and Assessing.....	158
Summary	159
6. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS AND RESULTS.....	162
Introduction.....	162
Comparative <i>Analysis of Links</i> and <i>Keep in Mind</i>	162
Considering the Environment	162
Discovering Interests	164
Following Principles	165
Goals	167
Listening	169
Speaking.....	170
Reading	171
Writing	172
Grammar	173
Format and Presenting Material.....	174
Monitoring and Assessing.....	175
Results of Comparison among <i>Links</i> and <i>Keep in Mind</i>	176
Commonalities	176
Differences.....	184
Research Questions and Presentation of Findings	188
Summary of Results	194
7. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS.....	198
Appendix	
A. CHECKLIST OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DESIGN.....	205
B. TEXTBOOK ACTIVITIES: <i>LINKS</i>	209
C. TEXTBOOK ACTIVITIES: <i>KEEP IN MIND</i>	219
REFERENCE LIST	228

LIST OF TABLES

1. Alignment of the Theoretical Component with the Checking Item..... 98
2. Comparison of the Summative Value Among *Links* and *Keep in Mind*.....177

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CBI	Content-Based Instruction
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
Ns	Native Speakers
NNs	Nonnative Speakers
PPP	Presentation, Practice and Production
QCA	Qualitative Content Analysis

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Special gratitude is extended to my committee members. Thank you, Dr. Ray Ostrander, for giving tremendous support and providing clarity to my work. Thank you, Dr. Larry Burton, for your scholarly guidance that led me to rich resources and insightful perspectives about the methodology used. Thank you, Dr. Julia Kim, for supporting me with your expertise and stirring questions that improved the quality of the research.

I would like to acknowledge Dr. Guofang Li for her helpful suggestions during my time as a visiting PhD student in the College of Education at Michigan State University, in the fall 2014 semester.

I am deeply indebted to the financial support that I received from the Adventist University of Sao Paulo (UNASP) for the completion of this journey.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Problem

Some disciplines rely on text materials more than others. English Language Teaching (ELT) is one such discipline. Thus, textbooks are an effective tool for identifying stakeholders and teachers' beliefs and practices of language learning theories and course content in the foreign language classroom (Acklam, 1994; Rahimpour & Hashemi, 2011; Roberts, 1996). Many textbook analyses have been conducted to understand how learning about culture, gender, genre, language, and skills are presented through textbooks (Lähdesmäki, 2009; Lee & Collins, 2008; Rifkin, 1998; Yuen, 2011). Other studies have examined the underlying and overarching framework for teaching and learning the target language (Basturkman, 1999; Criado & Sanchez, 2009; Harlan, 2000; Henriques, 2009). Since the 1980s, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has received widespread attention in response to changes in thinking in the field of language teaching (Brumfit & Johnson, 1979; K. Johnson, 1982). Consequently, CLT has become the predominant approach for language learning, where language is perceived as communication in the context of use, rather than grammatical forms to be learned (Byram & Garcia, 2009; Littlewood, 1981).

Attempting to identify the characteristic features of English as a Second Language (ESL) teaching in the 1990s through textbook blurbs, Todeva (1997) found that 75% of

the blurbs identified grammar as the focus of language learning, and only 53% follow a communicative approach to language learning. During this same time in Brazil, similar textbook studies were specifically undertaken to identify the process of language learning and the methodological framework in the textbook materials (Almeida Filho et al., 1991; Consolo, 1990). Studies of English as a second language teaching methods suggest the prevalent use of the Grammatical-Translation and Audiolingualism methodological approach, not the principles of communicative approach (Almeida Filho et al., 1991; J. Santos, 1993).

For the last 20 years, few English as Foreign Language (EFL) textbook studies have explored the framework and language learning conceptions of textbook designers, concentrating mostly on gender, culture and social analysis, along with genre and writing textbook analysis (Oliveira, 2008; Da Silva, 2012). Even so, textbook analysis in Brazil seems to highlight the production of genres and writing, demonstrating a remarkable emphasis on learning the production of writing over oral skills (*Programa Nacional do Livro Didático* [National Textbooks Program, PNLD]). The overemphasis on genre and writing might in effect reduce the role of the communicative approach on the learning of the target language. Furthermore, with the current emphasis of textbook analysis, particularly on gender and cultural aspects, little is known about the use of current language curriculum design and language learning processes that underlies the EFL textbooks use in Brazil. In this sense, the textbook is a valuable resource to determine how language learning is conceived, the orientations to practice language that the textbooks evoke, and the language learning processes that are promoted by Brazilian textbooks.

Statement of the Problem

The textbook is the most important resource for EFL classrooms in Brazil, defining the course to be followed and the teaching and learning processes for language learning. Therefore, it is necessary to understand through an educational perspective the curriculum design employed in the textbook, and the language learning processes used based on communicative approach, which is the current and favorable approach to English teaching. So the problem that exists is the lack of studies on approaches used in the construction of the English textbook for EFL and the need to identify to what extent communicative approaches guides and frames the curriculum content.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to analyze two sixth-grade Brazilian EFL textbooks. Specifically, this study aims at (a) identifying the underlying methodological approach of these textbooks, observing to what extent textbook writers are taking into account language curriculum design; (b) analyzing how language learning processes are being incorporated into the foreign language textbook; and (c) evaluating the textbooks' strengths and weaknesses and indicating changes necessary for these textbooks.

Justification for Research

The communicative approach advocates language teaching for the purpose of enhancing students' communicative competence in real and authentic contexts, considering various sociocultural contexts, settings, participants, and conventions of speech. Even though the communicative and task-based approach are the current proposed frameworks for language teaching, textbooks in countries where English is taught as a foreign language still follow a conventional Structural Syllabus or Notional-

Syllabus Approach (Fernández, 2011; Harlan, 2000). Research also indicates that current textbooks designers are in the process of aligning to communicative approach instructions (Costa, 2004; Fernández, 2011; Gilmore, 2004; Nascimento, 2012). Studies on ESL/EFL textbooks analysis reveal that investigations related to the underlying approach, language learning processes, and curriculum design have not been thoroughly explored in the area of English language learning and language pedagogy.

There is a scarcity of research that analyzes the content of foreign language textbooks and the language learning experiences evoked in the textbooks in Brazil. Furthermore, most studies in the area of language learning have focused on ESL, rather than the context EFL learning. Therefore, more precise indication of how language learning is conceived and language learning processes are organized can be achieved by the present study.

Methodology

The method used in this study to explore the extent that textbook writers are taking into account language curriculum design and English language teaching principles is qualitative content analysis (QCA). QCA provides the means to analyze the meaning of qualitative material in a systematic way (Schreier, 2013). Textbook content can provide qualitative categories that can be rearticulated and resignified, going beyond a format limited to yes and no to answers. Content analysis helps explore more thoroughly specific aspects of the message providing insights to the effects that the textbook have on users' language proficiency and the extent to which changes are necessary.

The material analyzed corresponds to two sixth-grade textbooks—from the *Links* and *Keep in Mind* collections. These textbooks are currently used in Brazilian public

schools, identified by the Programa Nacional do Livro Didático (PNLD [National Textbooks Program]) as reference instructional materials for all public schools following a communicative approach. The sixth grade is usually the first time Brazilian students formally study a foreign language, thus these textbooks are suitable to serve as the corpus of the present study.

A checklist was developed to evaluate the EFL textbooks, and several aspects were taken in consideration to produce the checklist. First, previous checklists were examined and the most prominent features from the Sheldon (1988), Mukundan, Hajimohammadi, and Nimehchisalem (2011), and Rahimpour and Hashemi (2011) checklist were adapted. For the checklist items that deal with aspects of curriculum design, Nation and Macalister's (2010) language curriculum design components were incorporated into the checklist. For the checklist items related to the language learning processes the items were developed based on Tomlinson's (2003, 2010, 2011) and Ellis's (2014) language learning principles. The checklist items also have two criteria that must be considered to obtain a satisfactory and good evaluation. These criteria were developed based on Tomlinson's (2003, 2010, 2011), Ellis's (2014), and Nation and Macalister's (2010). In order to show the quality of the components in the textbooks, each item of the checklist was scaled along a 3-point Likert-type Scale from 0 to 2 (Poor=0; Satisfactory=1; Good=2). This rating was used to indicate the summative value of each item in the checklist (Soori, Kafipour, & Soury, 2011). The checklist itself guided the evaluation procedures and examination of the textbooks.

Outline of Study

In order to analyze the Brazilian EFL textbooks selected for this investigation, the present study is organized in four main parts. The second chapter provides an overview of the components necessary for developing a curriculum design, the approaches and methods in language teaching, the foreign language syllabus design available, and language learning principles and processes. This is followed by a presentation of studies of textbook analysis, along with some background of the context of English language teaching in Brazil and textbook studies conducted there. The third chapter describes the methodology related to the instrumentation, the materials employed for analysis, as well as the procedures and data analysis undertaken in the present study. The fourth chapter describes and analyzes the first textbook, *Links: English for Teens*, followed by the fifth chapter that presents the descriptive analysis of the second textbook, *Keep in Mind*. The sixth chapter analyzes and compares the textbooks, presenting the findings of the study. Finally, the seventh chapter summarizes the main points of this investigation, delineates its conclusion and limitations, and indicates recommendations for future studies.

Definition of Terms

This section presents a definition of the technical terms used in the next chapters.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): An approach to language teaching that advocates communicative competence, language use in real context, and a focus on negotiation of meaning. As Duff (2014) points out, “Communicative language teaching (CLT) is an approach to language teaching that emphasizes learning a language first and foremost for the purpose of communicating with others” (p. 15). The communicative

approach provides opportunities for students to produce their own language in communicative contexts.

Textbook Blurbs: A short summary on the back of the book, which includes the textbook's importance, quotes from the author, and reviews.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Introduction

This chapter first presents an overview of the components necessary for developing a language curriculum design. Then, a description is given of significant elements that take part in the process of language course design: approaches and methods in language teaching, foreign language syllabus design, and second language acquisition learning/teaching principles. This is followed by a presentation of textbook analysis studies, along with background that describes the teaching of English in Brazil and textbook studies conducted therein.

Curriculum Design and Development of Materials for Second Language Teaching

The ESL/EFL textbooks have provided substantial teaching content and instructional direction for the teaching and learning processes involved in a second-language classroom. Although lately teachers are utilizing non-traditional texts in language teaching classroom, the English textbook is a teacher's main source of instructional material and content for delivering their lessons to students; especially when teachers themselves are not fluent English speakers. Consequently, teachers are heavily dependent on the textbook to provide content and the learning activities, which shape the dynamics of a classroom (Byrd, 2001). As Coracini (2011) indicates, the textbooks

appear as unquestionable resources for learning a foreign language and central in defining course of action and content.

ESL/EFL textbooks not only allow us to identify teaching and learning processes, but they are also potentially useful for providing a site for study of the theory-in-use of an English Language Teaching (ELT) community (Basturkman, 1999). Studying the English language teaching textbooks allows the researcher to understand the underlying beliefs about how language learning takes place, and the learning and teaching principles used by textbook designers. Furthermore, the textbooks can give indication of the author's perspectives and choices related to methodology, course design, and instruction, and how these are articulated to effectively enhance students' second language knowledge.

For some time, the language learning textbooks organized curriculum content and sequence based on learning and teaching principles founded on a specific method. As Francis (1995) points out, "The textbooks developed for EFL are organized based on historical principles that provide support for the method. The methods provide the learner and teacher with materials and techniques that will secure a successful language teaching outcome" (p. 8). He also notes that EFL textbooks are often organized as follows: a typical chapter that would include an opener—for instance, a reading passage—vocabulary and structural exercises, and comprehension questions based upon the opener. Other aspects of the chapter may include cultural knowledge and additional isolated language exercises.

Even though some EFL textbooks might still follow this pattern, lately the textbook has become more fluid and multidimensional, with a gradual shift away from prescribed methodologies to more general pedagogic principles that respect local needs

and circumstances. As D. Johnson (2009) argues, “The developments that have occurred in this area over the past few decades have resulted in syllabuses very much more complex and rich than those of the past” (p. 331). In fact, the textbook typically gives more space for students to actively communicate and manipulate content, therefore focusing less attention on prescribing specific language forms. Not only does less control exist for mapping the content, but the sequence of course content is more dynamic—all sorts of practices are emphasized and constantly recycled.

Textbook compilers utilize various design components to aid the process of language curriculum development. A number of language course designs have been proposed by Yalden (1987), Woodward and Lindstromberg (1995), Graves (1996), and Nation and Macalister (2010). According to Nation and Macalister (2010) eight components are part of the curriculum design process: (a) considering the environment, (b) discovering needs, (c) following principles, (d) goals, (e) content and sequencing, (f) format and presenting material, (g) monitoring and assessing, and (h) evaluation.

Actual Needs and Context for Learning

The first component a textbook designer must research to spur successful teaching and learning is the context in which the course takes place. They must understand the course environment and overall setting to choose appropriate content. As Graves (1996) indicates, “You need to know as much as possible about the context in order to make decisions about the course” (p. 13). In order to define the context of a classroom and school setting, Nation and Macalister (2010, p. 4) proposed designers study the following information: (a) time available for the course, (b) size of the classes, (c) range of proficiency levels in the class, (d) immediate needs of the learners, (e) lack of appropriate

materials, (f) teachers' lack of experience and training, (g) use of the first language in the classroom, and (h) need for the learners to be more autonomous. To delineate meaningful selection of language content, course designers need to be aware of the materials that are available locally, the language proficiency level of the students, the societal needs of the schools, and cultural information as it relates to the institution.

The second component—discovering needs—elucidates the type of content to be addressed in the textbook and how it must be done. “Needs assessment,” said Graves (1996, p. 98), “Is the systematic and ongoing process of gathering information about students' needs and preferences, interpreting the information, and then making course decisions based on the interpretation in order to meet the needs.” Investigating the specific needs of students gives insights into their knowledge of the target language, plus how to combat any problems and encourage language growth. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) indicated, when addressing students' needs three things must be considered: necessities (what the learner has to know to function successfully in the target language), lack (what the learner already knows and the gaps of knowledge they still need to learn), and want (adoption of students' learning preferences).

The textbook designer needs to address these three considerations using a range of need-analysis tools, such as writing assignments, corpora, and think-aloud protocols. To identify a student's particular language learning needs and preferences helps target particular gaps and misunderstandings, and focuses on the essential skills needed for language development and use.

Principles of Language Teaching and Learning

The third component of the curriculum design process is following principles presented by research. Not only are the observation of teachers' practice and intuition important elements for curriculum design, but also the research of language teaching and learning gives a valuable guide to course content decision-making. The research promotes insights and criteria critical to understanding language learning and the presentation of curriculum content. Nevertheless, "There is a tendency for this connection not to be made, with the result that curriculum design and therefore learners do not benefit from developments in knowledge gained from research" (Nation & Macalister, 2010, p. 6). Hence, textbook designers can greatly benefit from the knowledge obtained through research, as it is reliable and can clarify language learning processes and acquisition. In this sense, researchers, particularly Tomlinson (2003, 2010, 2011), provides knowledge of language teaching and learning principles that guides curriculum designers.

Goals, Content, and Sequence of Language Course Design

The fourth component of syllabus design requires the identification of goals, which provides specific ideas of what students are expected to learn. They are "exit-level outcomes—the desired results that establish priorities for instruction and assessment. These are inherently abiding aims, providing the rationale for the short-term goals that are lesson- and unit-specific" (Wiggins & McTighe, 2006, p. 58). Goals can be distinguished from objectives; with goals as long-term aims to be achieved and objectives as specific learning outcomes resulting from current instruction (Brandt & Tyler, 2011). Having clear goals and objective statements in every lesson can be of value to direct

students to a particular language learning outcome. Furthermore, goals can determine students' learning experiences, learning destination, and help guide assessment criteria.

The fifth component for language course design relates to curriculum content and sequencing. The course designer has to account for what content the textbook is going to cover and the order of presentation so as to that enhance students' knowledge of language. Textbook constructors may organize lessons around vocabulary, grammatical structures, or written and spoken discourse, with both controlled and unrestricted experiences for students to operate language in communicative contexts. Course content can be based on topics, themes, situations, and tasks. The course designer also has to organize content related to the sub-skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. These skills can be divided further into parts—for instance, writing can be divided into the following: (a) having a model of the reader, (b) having writing goals, (c) gathering ideas, (d) organizing ideas, (e) turning ideas into written text, (f) reviewing what has just been written, and (g) editing the written text (Nation & Macalister, 2010).

Although content can be organized based on more than one overarching criteria for selection of content, one is usually prevalent. Course designers utilize need analysis research and frequency-of-use lists to determine their content choice for language courses. Other criteria for selecting content can be done on the basis of simplicity, utility, and teachability criterion (D. Johnson, 2009). Nation (2001) claims that vocabulary words with a low-frequency (any word with less than 2,000 words) are not worth being incorporated in the textbook. The textbook content for vocabulary can also explore strategies related to mnemonics strategies (recall, repetition and association), metacognition (guessing from context), cognition (inference from context), and keyword

method (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). On the other hand, having functions as the progression principles for the unit can be organized into six dimensions (Van Ek & Alexander, 1980): (a) seeking factual information, (b) expressing and finding out intellectual capacities, (c) expressing and finding out emotional attitudes, (d) expressing and finding out moral attitudes, (e) getting things achieved, and (f) socializing.

With regard to having discourse as the basis for unit progression, Nation and Macalister (2010), based on Biber's (1990) work, comment that "certain text types are rich in certain language features, but contain few instance of others. If a learner is to gain a useful coverage of language features, the genres that occur in the course should match the genres that the learner will need to work with outside the course" (p. 76). In order for learning of content to take place, the textbook needs to be organized in a sequence of lesson units where learners are exposed to various forms of texts that are used in real and spontaneous interactions. In addition, content must be gradually reintegrated to facilitate language acquisition.

The sequence of the language course can be shaped through a linear, modular, cyclical, matrix, and story-line format (Dubin & Olshtain, 1994; Graves, 1996). The linear sequence of course content is particularly used for grammar learning and structures, while the modular format gives more flexibility to the curriculum content and is commonly used for thematic or situational language use. The cyclical format organizes content in a way that it reappears regularly so that more complex learning is achieved. As Dubin and Olshtain (1994) highlight, "In the cyclical shape, the concept is that new subject matter should not be introduced once in a syllabus and then dropped; rather it should be introduced in different manifestations at various times in the course" (p. 55).

Diverging from the cyclical shape, the matrix format gives users more flexibility to select topics in random order, whereas the story-line format ensures thematic progression and helps resolve questions related to the ordering of unit lessons (Dubin & Olshtain, 1994). In short, course planners need to deal with the sequence of the unit lessons and the progression of the curriculum content in a way that it is recycled, and then reappears to reinforce students' knowledge of the target language and trigger more complex learning outcomes. In this sense, the challenge of the task relies on the ability of the planner to combine the formats to ensure the achievement of the learning goals.

Format and Presenting Material

The sixth component of curriculum construction relates to the format and presentation of material. The content of a course needs to be presented in a way that creates conditions for learning to be achieved. When language materials are presented with suitable instructions, activities, techniques, and procedures, learners are able to become fluent and extract regularities from the content presented. A range of activities should be presented to ensure meaning-focused input and output, and language-focused learning. According to Nation and Macalister (2010), meaning-focused activities are comparable to information-gap activities, short talks, conversation while doing a task, dialogue, discussions, problem-solving discussions, and role playings. On the other hand, language-focused learning involves working with spelling practice, blank-filling activities, sentence completion or sentence combining activities, drills, structure-input activities and consciousness-raising tasks (Ellis, 2010).

When designing the format of a lesson there is no set order for the presentation of activities, the textbook planner can use various set formats. The format of the lesson can

be organized, for instance, with listening and reading first, language-focused activities second, and meaning-focused last, which is a typical progression of activities. Another set format can be conducted through guided practice stages, followed by a fluency-development stage and experience stage. Graves (1996) exemplify a typical theme-based course that integrates speaking, listening, reading, and writing, where the unit begins with a listening exercise, followed by a reading and discussion. The next unit would begin with reading, followed by a written and speaking activity. Clearly, there is a range of formats for presenting the units in a language course. Still, the PPP approach seems to provide the basis for presenting language content, and, as Saraceni (2003) indicates, it is heavily employed in many textbooks for language teaching. Concise, systematic format sets are more useful than an unpredictable set of activities, as the course designer is able to reuse with few changes the same format in various lessons, making it easier for the learner to become familiar with the lessons' format.

Monitoring and Evaluation of Curriculum Design

Monitoring and assessing progress informs teachers the depth of learning a student has achieved in a particular unit. Similarly, evaluation concerns the learning outcome of a particular course. The seventh and eight components for developing curriculum design usually involves providing formative and summative assessment for a particular lesson, rather than the entire language program. Monitoring and assessing can be done by short-term achievement tests, multiple choice tests, role playing, reflective questions, quizzes, and writing prompts. Curriculum designers are particularly advised to incorporate formative assessment as part of the course units, because it helps the teacher and student understand to what extent goals and objectives have been met and what still

need to be reinforced. As Sadler (1998) underlines, “Formative assessment refers to assessment that is specifically intended to provide feedback on performance to improve and accelerate learning” (p. 77). Hence, teachers can ensure adequate feedback and learners are able to increase awareness of their performance and identify areas which still require improvement.

Designing a language course is a difficult undertaking due to the fact that various components and conceptualizations are part of the actual design process (Mukundan et al., 2011). The components of curriculum design proposed by Nation and Macalister (2010) to a great extent contribute to the development of suitable language learning materials and for the present study will serve as a basis for analysis of the curriculum design of English language textbooks used in Brazil. The overarching components of textbook development more thoroughly deal with the methodology, syllabus design and instructions, second language acquisition and teaching-learning principles, relevant for the quality of the textbooks and language learning outcomes. The following sections consider these topics more closely.

Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching

The teaching of foreign languages has been around for many centuries and from time to time different aims and skills have been the focus of Second Language (L2) teaching. The pursuit of the appropriate method and the description of systematic methodologies have, at particular times, been considered central to the field.

The Grammar-Translation and the Direct Method

The Grammar-Translation method derived from the learning of Latin and Greek, with some modifications from the classical tradition of Grammar-Translation, taking the

form of a specific method and for more than a century became the predominant educational framework of foreign language teaching (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Developed by German scholars, the Grammar-Translation method was used in most educational contexts in the course of the 19th century until the Second World War. Its objective was to improve reading and writing abilities based on grammar explanations, learned through deduction and memorization of rules. Furthermore, bilingual vocabulary lists and translation exercises, along with the reading of literary texts were believed to instill mental rigor and discipline (Fotos, 2005; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011).

As Howatt (1997) comments, “Each new lesson had one or two new grammar rules, a short vocabulary list, and some practice examples to translate” (p. 136). The Grammar-Translation method was proposed to be practical, ordinary, and a useful framework for foreign language teaching. However, the method developed into a mechanistic and tedious experience with innumerable grammar rules and rote-memorization; especially introduced by those who wanted to show the rigorousness of German and French as paralleled to the classical languages (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As the method was devised based on academic aims concentrating on reading and writing proficiency, the development of spoken language and communication in real contexts was neglected, which brought its most sustained disapproval. Criticisms also lay on the lack of the target language use in the classroom and on being “a method for which there is no theory” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 5).

During the second half of the 19th century, language teaching specialists promoted the primacy of oral methodology in the foreign language classroom. The reformed movement of the 1880s as it is called, passionately reacted against the Grammar-

Translation method and proposed an oral-based methodology aimed at developing spoken skills. The movement was later coined the Direct Method (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). As opportunities for communication among Europeans intensified, a new class of language learner emerged which had limited knowledge of classical grammar (Howatt, 1997). Hence, the Direct Method became widely recognized and implemented as the circumstances of the time demanded spoken language. The Direct Method based its principles for language teaching on similar parameters as the first language acquisition. The grammar taught through inductive learning, oral communication skills are built up in a carefully graded progression. The learning activities became contextualized and the target language turns the medium of instruction (Rodgers, 2009).

Although linguists advocated spoken language and meaningful texts (instead of sentence-based exercises) as the most important skill to focus on foreign language teaching, these ideas only had an influence on secondary school curricula during the beginning of the 20th century. Thus, Grammar-Translation method was significantly replaced only after World War II (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Nevertheless, various elements of Grammar-Translation tradition—with some modifications—are still commonly used in the foreign language classroom, as they are very practical and simple for teachers who have less contact with the target language. Particularly the practice of text translation and renewed focus on grammar leads to recurrent use of the Grammar-Translation method around the world. As Jin and Cortazzi (2011) stress, “Various strands of grammar-translation traditions live on, though [they are] somewhat transformed and developed in practice” (p. 569). Concisely, as Jin and Cortazzi advocate, the method

should not be discarded as “traditional” and “dysfunctional” because it serves various foreign language learners and their purposes; rather, the reason for this continuation should be studied.

Audiolingualism

The mid 20th century introduced the most influential set of practices to dominate the classroom, what became known as the Audiolingual Method. Audiolingualism carried forward the main features devised by the Direct Method, with an oral-based approach and use of language to communicate (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). However, language learning in Audiolingualism is taught through grammatical sentence patterns, using various kinds of repetitive drills. The material is also presented in dialogue form for students to memorize sequences of structure patterns, where the teacher specifies the language to be learned. The medium of instruction is the target language, yet the focus of the learning process is on accuracy of forms and linguistic competence, in a way that communicative activities occurs only after a long process of rigid drills and exercises. Errors are to be avoid at all costs as great importance is attached to accurate pronunciation (H. Brown, 2007).

The Audiolingual Method differs from preceding methods by its dependence on an underlying scientific language theory, which lays the foundation for the method. “The scientific approach to language analysis, stated by Richards and Rodgers (2001), appeared to offer the foundations for a scientific approach to language teaching. Drawing from structural linguistic theory and behaviorist psychology, the method claimed important assumptions related to how languages are learned and understood. Structural linguistics, especially in the work of Leonard Bloomfield (1984) and Charles C. Fries (1952), proposed that speech is the primary medium of language and that language is

produced according to a rule-governed way where various sentences work together in their different levels of structural organization. Structural linguistics provides the theoretical foundation and a notional system for analyzing the systems of language through the phonemes, morphemes, words, sentence types, etcetera (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In turn, behaviorism regarded second-language learning as the set of new habits, where the habits and transference of knowledge from the first language must be transformed to establish habits of the target language. Learning is cumulative and consists of continuous practice via repetition, mimicking, analogizing, and prevention of error, as they can be transferred from the first language to the target language (Lightbown & Spada, 2010). Consequently, stimulus-response connection will be based on adequate reinforcement and the prevention of potential errors, in order to establish an accurate set of new habits.

With the notion of replacing old habits and avoiding potential errors from the first language came a framework termed Contrastive Analysis. Its objective was to apply findings to classrooms to improve classroom materials and resources. The analysis was based on comparing sound, morphological, syntactic, and cultural systems of the two languages to determine students' potential errors and learning difficulties in the classroom (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Mitchell & Myles, 2004). The method was widely adopted by foreign language teachers and provided rich methodological resources for language teachers around the world. Additionally, Contrastive Analysis was useful for helping increase teachers' cross-linguistic knowledge. Lately, other linguistic and cultural analyses, such as Error Analysis, Corpus, and Conversation Analysis, along with new

perspectives on Contrastive Rhetoric (Connor, 1996), are used for collection of instructional resources.

In the 1960s Audiolingualism was under attack and oppositions emerged, especially as Noam Chomsky laid out innumerable criticisms against behaviorism, proposing a new conceptualization of second language acquisition and linguistic approach—termed Generative Linguistics. Not only did a shift to Chomsky’s linguistic approach occur, new ideas came into view that established a learner-centered approach, in which learners interacted and participated more fully in the dynamics of the classroom, therefore being less dependent on the teacher. Nevertheless, the teacher exercised a great deal of control on what was practiced in classroom and few opportunities existed for students to try out, manipulate, and simply communicate spontaneously in the second language.

Innovative Methodologies of Language Teaching

The 1960s through the 1980s encompassed a major paradigm shift in language teaching, bringing about diverse methodological directions and the mainstream interest in the Communicative Approach. During this time, second language teachers and professionals embraced various innovative methods and procedures, including the Total Physical Response, Silent Way, Counseling Learning, and Suggestopedia. These alternative methods incorporated elements from previous language teaching methods, plus cognitive, affective, and sociocultural studies of mainstream education and psychology. As Richards and Rodgers (2001) describe it, “The methods . . . were either developed outside of mainstream language teaching or represent an application in language teaching of educational principles developed elsewhere” (p. 71). The methods

mentioned above not only tend to focus on affective factors—appealing to the senses and giving emotional support to students—but also on developing comprehension, and memory processes, viewing the learner as having the principal role in the classroom. Overall, the diversity of methods offered particular insights, classroom instructional formats, and useful techniques for the teaching of foreign language. Yet, most methods had a short period of popularity with little effect on the curriculum domain.

The field of language teaching has persistently attempted to find the correct and perfect method that describes a set of classroom specifications that handle “all learners in all contexts” (Nunan, 1991, p. 228). Nevertheless, the impossibility of this heralded goal aroused mistrust around methods—prompting changes in thought, intentions, and syllabi of second language teaching within the last decades of the 20th century. Moreover, as Rodgers (2009) stated, “There seems to be a broadly articulated opinion that although there was once an age of ‘Language Teaching Methods,’ that age is now over, and that it is not only possible, but desirable to conceive of methodology with no methods in mind” (p. 347).

It is undeniable that a standard method for teachers provided a sense of direction, with specific actions, and a shared community of professionals, working together to promote effective learning experiences and outcomes. Nonetheless, the dream of a perfect method conceals a false assumption: that a set of prescriptive classroom procedures outlining the role of the teacher, student, and syllabus, can altogether encompass the multidimensional elements of a classroom; not to mention the sociocultural and individual characteristics of the specific learning community. Furthermore, this idea of a perfect method neglects important elements of curriculum

implementation related to design, development, dissemination, and assessment, giving little room for adaptation and accommodation of the demands required (Rodgers, 2009; Jin & Cortazzi, 2011). Therefore, a change in thinking in the field of language teaching removed concerns for the notion of method to approach.

Approach

Instead of designating detailed instructional specifications related to the course content, activities, and required classroom tasks, the notion of approach focused on defining a more broad set of orientations, beliefs, and principles in thinking language teaching. An approach according to H. Brown (2007, as cited in Anthony, 1963) is a “set of assumptions dealing with the nature of language, learning, and teaching” (p. 14). Wherefore, an approach is flexible and more comprehensive in order to adapt to the various circumstances and needs of the students. The most recognized approach which supplanted the notion of method was the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT).

Communicative Language Teaching

The CLT approach evolved during the 1960s and 1970s and was influenced by diverse theoretical and philosophical elements. These elements came into play in the dissemination of the main notions of the approach, and various manifestations of communicative frameworks were established. This interdisciplinary initiative, as documented by Brumfit and Johnson (1979), can be traced to: (a) sociolinguists, particularly Hymes, Gumperz, and Goffman; (b) language philosophers such as Grice, Austin, and Searle; (c) linguist Ross, Fillmore, and Lakoff, who reacted against Chomsky; and (d) discourse analysis accounts by Halliday, McIntosh, and Strevens; and Crystal and Davy (see Byram & García, 2009; Widdowson, 2009).

The approach changed the object of what is taught and learnt by helping students communicate, interact, and give conscious attention to meaning instead of language form. As Richards (2001) points out, “Communicative Language Teaching is a broad approach to teaching that resulted from a focus on communication as the organizing principle for teaching rather than a focus on mastery of the grammatical system of the languages” (p. 36). In short, the CLT approach teaches language for the purpose of enhancing students’ communicative competence in real and authentic contexts, taking in consideration the various sociocultural contexts, settings, participants, and conventions of speech. Hymes (1972) was the first to introduce the term communicative competence. It was used in the context of a reaction to Chomsky’s distinction between performance and competence of an ideal native speaker. Hymes criticized Chomsky’s idea of competence apart from its use in social context, proposing that knowledge of speakers must involve: what is possible to do with the language, what is feasible, what is appropriate, and what is actually done. Hence, competence does not only involves speakers’ knowledge of well-formed sentences in a language, but the ability and knowledge of using language in social situations (Young, 2011).

According to Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983) the major distinctions between Audiolingualism and communicative philosophical assumptions relate to CLT’s primary emphases on meaning. The language, therefore, is learned for means of communication and fluency, rather than native-speak proficiency and formal correctness. Furthermore, the goal of language teaching shifted the focus from grammatical form as the product of communication, to the process of communication and interaction in real and meaningful contexts (for a critical view to real contexts of communication, Widdowson, 2005).

However, research also indicates that a meaning-focused instruction is not sufficient for helping students acquire accurate linguistic items (Nizgorodcew, 2007). The textbook writers must ensure meaningful communication moments, as well as attention to the linguistic code. Nizgorodcew (2007) mentions the necessity of focusing on “meaning and the focus on form not as two discrete processes but rather as a continuum” (p. 7). Teachers might believe that merely engaging students in communicative activities will activate learning, but realistically both controlled and free production practices are necessary to exercise the students’ fluency and accuracy of the target language.

This innovative approach views the students as active participants in charge of their own learning process, with opportunities to construct and validate their own language hypothesis, establishing an appropriate learner-centered classroom.

Additionally, the activities in the classroom go beyond sentence-level study, to discourse-level practices centered on situational context and real-world simulation. As Widdowson (1979) proposed, “Once we accept the need to teach language as communication, we can obviously no longer think of language in terms only of sentences” (pp. 49–50). Students must understand how sentences combine in texts to perform communicative acts. Even though the communicative approach is widely promoted for establishing the aim of language teaching as the ability to communicate instead of learning specific grammatical forms, experts have questioned whether the approach, implemented initially by the West, can be applied overseas (Littlewood, 2011). Indeed, different interpretations exist on how to implement the communicative approach, and solutions of how the approach may be applied in various cultural settings is still to be accomplished.

As Lee and VanPatten (1995) underscore, “Although CLT may have caused a major revolution in the way that some people thought about language teaching, no major revolution occurred in the day-to-day practice of most language teachers” (p. 8). Overall, few authentic materials for varying proficiency levels and successive sequences of communicative curriculum design have been developed. To alleviate instructional problems related to CLT, two frameworks developed: Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) and Content-Based Instruction (CBI).

Task-Based Language Teaching

For the past 20 years, task-based language has influenced the way curriculum design and activities are used in the classroom. The Task-based language framework provides purposeful and goal-oriented activities that guide course content, instructional design, and course sequence. A plethora of definitions of the task-based teaching have been formulated, along with differing frameworks and instructional applications (Branden, 2006; Ellis, 2003; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; J. Willis, 1996). As Branden (2006) defines, “A task is an activity in which a person engages in order to attain an objective, and which necessitates the use of language” (p. 4). Lee (2000, as cited in Ellis, 2003) more specifically points out,

A task is (1) a classroom activity or exercise that has: (a) an objective obtainable only by the interaction among participants, (b) a mechanism for structuring and sequencing interaction, and (c) a focus on meaning exchange; (2) a language learning endeavor that requires learners to comprehend, manipulate, and/or produce the target language as they perform some set of workplans. (p. 4)

Therefore, the task has a specific goal, sequence, and way of presenting course content that achieves particular outcomes.

The Task-Based Language Teaching approach exposes students to real-world communicative contexts, allowing opportunities for spontaneous manipulation of language and for exchange of pragmatic meaning. Another characteristic of the task-based approach is its holistic dimension, where students are able to deal with various aspects of language in an integrated form. According to Branden (2006), a task is also “‘holistic’ in the sense that it involves the learners’ knowledge of the different sub-areas of language—phonology, grammar, vocabulary and discourse—to make meanings” (p. 7). In this sense, although the task-based approach does not exclude the linguistic focus on form, a long-standing debate exists with regard to the role form plays in second-language acquisition, and consequently, in how to establish tasks that best deal with the form-function language relationship. As a matter of fact, the connection between meaning and form for some authors is conceived as an important feature of the pedagogical approach (Long & Norris, 2000; Skehan, 1998).

Many different kinds of tasks and design features are described in the literature to serve as guided instruction to be applied according to the topics and aims of a lesson. J. Willis (1996) proposes six tasks types: (a) listening, (b) ordering and sorting, (c) comparing, (d) problem-solving, (e) sharing personal experiences, and (f) creative tasks. Pica, Kanagy, and Falodun (1993) also categorized the tasks according to the interactions that occur in task accomplishments, such as: (a) the jigsaw tasks, (b) information-gap tasks, (c) problem-solving tasks, (d) decision-making tasks, and (e) opinions exchange tasks. Additionally, the task approach as presented by J. Willis (1996) is accomplished through a cycle of procedures: (a) there is the pre-task where preliminary explanations are given; (b) in pairs students make decisions about the tasks, along with preparing a

report for the whole class and comparing results with other groups; and (c) students examine and discuss features of the texts, and the teacher helps recall the elements studied.

Working with the task-based approach is highly effective for developing students' acquisition processes, because it demands a learning process that involves reasoning powers, analytical thinking, an inquisitive description of experiences, and usage of language in different ways. It also provides a structured and flexible instructional design that depends on team work, and collaboration between students. Thus, tasks are highly beneficial for language classrooms research, because they offer guided instructional framework, form-meaning activities, and various formats for sequencing instruction. Pica (2008) underlines that tasks not only serve as research instruments for language teaching classroom, but that they have also gradually taken place in the classroom as well. Therefore, textbook designers must be especially attentive in developing course design that is aligned with current research and approach innovation.

Content-Based Instruction

It is needless to say that task-approach teaching requires a great deal of planning for activities, purpose, and outcome. The Content-Based Instruction (CBI), in some ways, is a solution to the amount of time taken developing tasks content. Instead, it proposes learning of the target language by means of other curriculum subjects. Language and content subjects are integrated and the goal is that students' study the target language with a particular subject (e.g., history, geography, mathematics) and at all academic levels (primary, secondary and tertiary).

As Marsh and Langé (2000) define, “Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) is a generic term and refers to any educational situation in which an additional language and therefore not the most widely used language of the environment is used for the teaching and learning of subjects other than the language itself” (p. iii). The CBI educational approach not only uses the target language as the medium of instruction, but both content and language are the concern of teaching content. It emerged in Europe and has become a very popular framework for teaching foreign languages particularly in European countries. Studies show that CBI helps students save time within the overall curriculum, learn faster, and be more motivated than a traditional classroom setting (Wolff, 2009). Nevertheless, research is still in its early stages and few materials and resources exist for implementation.

Foreign Language Syllabus Design

In the first decade of the 20th century, though Grammar-Translation had not fallen out of favor, a great deal of attention was given to the Direct Method and its oral-based methodology. At that time, despite interest in developing an appropriate language teaching syllabus design, the main concern was to provide methodological specifications of the process of instruction. Still, the “Direct Method textbooks began to follow a definite pattern” (Mackey, 1965, p. 145). Although methodology in the classroom was oversimplified, textbooks taught spoken language through the study of sounds, sentences through pictures and definitions, and language structure through inference and abstraction (Mackey, 1965).

It was actually in the 1920s that Palmer (1922/1968) who proposed a scientific foundation for language teaching, established the principals of language teaching

pedagogy, and laid groundwork of the Structural Method, which later served as theoretical premise for the Audiolingual Method and the traditional structural syllabus. The principles of language teaching methodology according to Palmer (1922/1968, pp. 38-39) comprises:

1. Initial preparation—orienting students toward language learning
2. Habit forming—establishing correct habits
3. Accuracy—avoiding inaccurate language
4. Gradation—preparing students for each subsequent stage
5. Proportion—emphasizing each aspect of language
6. Concreteness—moving from the concrete to the abstract
7. Interest—arousing student interest at all times
8. Order of progression—hearing before speaking, and both before writing
9. Multiple line of approach—using the language in many different ways.

Developing a foundation for language teaching as a scientific study and establishing specific principles for language teaching turned experts' attention, to a certain extent, from standardized pedagogical principles to content and syllabus design. As Richards (2001) confirms, "Once a consensus had emerged concerning the principles underlying an oral-based methodology, applied linguists then turned attention to issues of content and syllabus design underlying the Structural Method" (p. 4).

Structural Syllabus

The structural syllabus as Ellis (1993) underlines, "consists of a list of grammatical items, usually arranged in the order in which they are to be taught" (p. 91). The preoccupation with organizing grammatical forms for course syllabi, as outlined by

the structural syllabus, was the basis for the Grammar Translation and many modern methods established before the communicative approach. Yet, more carefully planned curriculum implementation evolved particularly to serve as a basis for the Audiolingual Method. Despite issues related to syllabus having long been discussed in language teaching, consideration of a systematic elaboration of curriculum gained prominence in the 1960s (Richards, 2001).

The structural syllabus is one of the most influential syllabus designs. An important principle that guided the curriculum design was the behaviorist notion of *shaping*. The concept involves breaking down the grammatical form into small units where learners gradually learn each unit separately, slowly stringing together larger units. Wilkins (1976) called this kind of syllabus *synthetic*, “where different parts of language are taught separately and step-by-step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up” (p. 2). This process of dividing units of phrases and building blocks associating the grammatical structures with the preceding units, typical of structural textbooks, is also known as *sentence patterns*. For instance, *This is + NP*, *Is this + NP*, *This isn't + NP*, as Fries (1952) expounds, *The man has paid*, *Has the man paid*, and *the man hasn't paid*, associating sentence patterns signaling a statement, a question, and a request.

Grammar and vocabulary structures are the main focus of the structural syllabus, which incorporates content into the language course textbooks based on criteria devised by two general procedures: selection and gradation. The process of selection involves choosing from the total language inventory what should be taught given the limited amount of time available for teaching. “Since it is impossible to teach the whole of a

language, all methods must in some way or other, whether intentionally or not, select the part of it they intend to teach” (Mackey, 1965, p. 161). Thus, selection involves deciding what words, features, and structures of the language are essential and intended for learning.

The notion of gradation goes hand-in-hand with the process of selection, which centers on arranging items together for various units and terms of the teaching course. The process of relating items together as a way to divide the course into segments was first given importance by the 17th-century Moravian educational reformer Comenius, as reported by Mackey (1965). Later in the 20th century, Harold Palmer (1922/1968) included gradation in his foundation of a scientific study for language teaching. In the same vein, Halliday, McIntosh and Strevens (1964), and Mackey (1965) provide a careful examination for selection and ordering of items established by the structural syllabus.

Although the structural syllabus was organized mainly around grammar points, with less attention provided to vocabulary, one of the first things textbooks compilers turned their attention to was vocabulary selection. The primary criteria established for choosing the content of course syllabus was the frequency of words. The more frequently a word was used in the corpus the more useful it was for language learners. The level of importance also depended on the type of text and the language sample analyzed, bringing into light the range as a useful criterion for vocabulary selection. The range made it possible to obtain the distribution of words in various types of texts (Richards, 2001).

However, researchers soon realized the words that most appeared were not the easiest for language learners to assimilate into learners’ language system and not ones they needed in the early stages of language acquisition. Consequently, the criterion of

teachability became significant for textbook and material content selection (D. Johnson, 2009). Simple words like *book*, *pen*, *desk*, are not frequently used words in language textbooks, but are necessary for any early language course (Richards, 2001). The criteria of similarity and availability are also taken into consideration when developing language learning curriculum.

Similarity involves vocabulary that students are already familiar with due to close correspondence of forms between the two languages. On the other hand, the concept of coverage relies on selecting vocabulary that serves as main categories for other words, such as, *seat* or *shoes* instead of using specific vocabulary. From 1930s to 1950s various vocabulary lists were proposed for language teaching; one of the most prominent being West's (1953) *A General Service List of English Words*. Developments in structural syllabi were specially achieved as a result of the growth of corpus linguistics (D. Johnson, 2009). Corpus linguistics can provide useful information to the frequency of lexical items informing teaching materials. Various authors have pointed out the benefits of corpora for course design and language teaching (Carmen, Campoy-Cubillo, Bellés-Fortuño, & Gea-Valor, 2010; Leech, Rayson, & Wilson, 2001; McEnery & Wilson, 1996).

The grammatical structure also followed pedagogical criteria for selection and gradation of courses and syllabi. Not only were grammar items of importance, but also the matter of gradation related to grouping the teaching items together and positioning them in the order they should be taught. In fact, the order of verb presentation whether present simple past or present continuous first, was analyzed, taking in consideration both simplicity and frequency. Generally, course content initiates with finites of *be* with

statements like, *This is a desk*, following the parameter of simplicity. Even so, opposing views exist with regards to the logical progression of verbs, with some advocating the teaching of present continuous first, and others the simple past (George, 1963; Hornby, 1959).

Textbook compilers choose the simplest grammatical forms that are essential, easy, and concrete, so students can gradually learn more complex items. As Richards (2001) points out, “The grammatical syllabus have generally been developed from different principles based not on the frequency of occurrence of grammatical items in texts, but on intuitive criteria of simplicity and learnability” (p. 11). In this respect, even though frequency is used as a parameter for selecting grammatical items, simplicity, utility, and learnability seem to be more useful parameters. In order to identify the structures that are similar and easiest from those that are more complex and difficult, experts conducted Contrastive Analysis between the first language and target language. According to Lado’s (1957) proposition, “Those elements that are similar to the [learner’s] native language will be simple for him, and those areas that are different will be difficult” (p. 2). Lado’s approach to gradation, called *Linguistic Distance*, claims that the more similar the structures the easier it will be for students to assimilate. Consequently, it should be the first criterion for inclusion of grammatical items in the language curriculum. Although, as McDonough (1980) indicates, Contrastive Analysis has not been vindicated by subsequent research, it was for some time the basis for predicting learning difficulty.

In regard to the criteria of utility, the concept relates to lexical items that are most disposable and useful in the classroom. It may focus on patterns that are not frequently

used, but “once these patterns have been mastered, various more frequent sentence patterns are already partially learned” (D. Johnson, 2009, p. 311). For instance, the copula *Be*, such as, *This is a bus*, and the negative question, *Is this a bus?*, may not be used in real contexts, yet it helps understand subsequent knowledge of the target language.

Another valuable criterion is the notion of learnability, which brings into perspective the learner’s own sequence of grammar acquisition. The concept takes into account the development of second language acquisition and the ordering linguistic forms are acquired in students’ internal syllabus (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 2010; Pienemann, 1998). It follows that systematic frameworks regarding the order of development of grammatical items were proposed (Dulay & Burt, 1973, 1974; Pienemann, 1998). Dulay and Burt’s (1974) proposition for the ordering of grammatical form is as follows: (a) nouns; (b) verbs; (c) adjective; (d) verb be; (e) possessive pronouns; (f) personal pronouns; (g) adverbs of time; (h) requests; (i) simple present; (j) futures; (l) Wh-questions; (m) present continuous; (n) directions; (o) possessive adjectives; (p) comparatives; (q) offers; (r) simple future; (s) simple past; (t) infinitives/ gerunds; and (u) first conditional.

Although their order of development of grammatical items has been questioned (e.g., Nunan, 1992), experts can use the sequence to develop their own corpus and validate their intuitions about the order of grammatical forms in the language syllabus. More strong predictions were proposed by Pienemann (1998, 2007) in his Processability Theory. Different from vocabulary selection procedures, syllabus constructors have little available information in regards to the frequency of grammar forms, so other criteria

often receives primary emphasis. Even so, George's (1963) findings shows that the simple past is more constantly used than the present continuous based on frequency. His study indicates that the ordering of the content should focus on simple past tense first and then present continuous, implying that the frequency can indicate routes for course syllabus constructors.

Syllabus constructors also faced the task of deciding the approaches to the sequencing of content, namely a linear, cyclical or spiral gradation (Richards, 2001). In the linear gradation approach, items are introduced one at a time and explored thoroughly until the next lesson is executed. On the other hand, the cyclical gradation reintroduced content throughout the course every time a new item was studied. As Van Els, Bongaerts, Extra, Van Os, and Janssen-Van (1984) define:

In a course in which the material is ordered cyclically the individual items are not presented and discussed exhaustively, as in strictly linear gradation, but only essential aspects of the item in question are presented initially. These items then keep recurring in the course, and every time new aspects will be introduced which will be related to and integrated with what has already been learned. (p. 228)

Even though the advantages of cyclical syllabus constantly work with revision, recall of information, and testing hypothesis of structures learned, most textbooks follow the linear gradation approach (Richards, 2001). Traditional textbooks had no specific criteria for selecting content; new items were introduced in any order and the same lesson featured distinct items. The structural syllabus, to overcome the lack of parameters for textbook writers, established the basis for the process of identifying the sequence and ordering of content. To undertake the task of gradation and criteria selection the content became more focused, with less linguistic structures to be learned; the linguistic items reappeared often through the textbook. As Wilkins (1976) identifies for the structural syllabus, "The content of teaching is in the first place a limitation and an ordering of the

forms of the linguistic system” (p. 3). As a result, learning revolves around more specific content and simplification of the learning task.

The structural syllabus, until the 1960s, was considered the conventional syllabus for language teaching, and though is widely used in language curriculum development has faced myriad problems (Nunan, 1992; Pienemann, 1985; Widdowson, 1971; Wilkins, 1976). One of the problems relates to the conflict that emerges in selecting and grading language items, as one criterion may be in detriment with another. Even though the various criteria for course content can complement one another, it is rather difficult to know which criterion is likely to be given more attention to than others. As Palmer (1922/1968) in the early 20th century noted, “It is quite impossible to reconcile the principle of frequency with that of concreteness” (p. 88).

Moreover, the fact that the structural-graded syllabus misrepresented the complexity of language, ruling out the variety of communicative functions that language fulfills, delimiting it exclusively to formal grammar was viewed with reservation (Nunan, 1992). Not only was the course content was highly controlled with over-emphasis on grammatical forms, but few opportunities were given for students to actually use language to communicate and negotiate meaning in the target language. The structural syllabus as conceived by the Structural and Audiolingual methods faced innumerable challenges. New courses were affecting curriculum decisions and instructional content particularly with the emergence of the Functional-Notional Syllabus.

Functional-Notional Syllabuses

The field of applied linguistics since the 1970s has been greatly influenced by philosophers of language and sociolinguistics, and these ideas were reflected in the

syllabus content of that time. The excessive focus on structural competence brought new changes in thinking about linguistics and language teaching, which in turn promoted language for the purpose of meaningful communication. The theoretical foundations for the new way of conceptualizing language can be traced, in part, to the Functional Approach to grammatical description, particularly by Halliday (1973), and Hymes's (1972) communicative competence perspectives (Widdowson, 2009).

Contributing immensely in defining the goal and path of language teaching, Hymes (1972) proposed a new perspective on descriptive linguistics that focused on communicative competence and how communicative functions are realized in contents of use. He proposed four components of communicative competence: the possible, the feasible, the appropriate, and the performed. What caught language teaching experts interest was the component of appropriateness. As D. Johnson (2009) underscores, the interest in appropriateness in language teaching gave rise to what came to be called Communicative Language Teaching.

The communicative approach not only conveys a more comprehensive notion of language teaching and learning, but also has given more attention to the nature of syllabus design (Munby, 1978). In line with viewing language teaching for communicating in its various contexts of use, a committee set by the Council of Europe sought to formulate which components the syllabus should incorporate and what language teaching syllabus should be like. Wilkins (1976), one of the members of the Council of Europe, was the first to propose a syllabus model associated with the aims of the communicative approach. In his book *Notional Syllabuses* (1976) three types of

syllabi are discussed: the Structural, the Situational, and the Notional syllabus, the latter also called Functional-Notional Syllabus (Guntermann & Phillip, 1982; Nunan, 1992).

Wilkins (1976) draws attention to the situational syllabus as an alternative to the structural method. He points out that the situational syllabus has the social situations as the starting-point for the study of linguistic forms. Although the situational syllabus has long been infused in methods of language teaching, it has mostly been used as adjunct instruction for dealing with language form and structure (Krahnke, 1983). The characteristics of the situational syllabus are: (a) linguistic forms are presented considering the social situations where language is used; (b) the order of instruction follows the presentation, controlled practice, and freer production (the PPP method) (Richards, 2001; Rodgers, 2009); (c) specific settings and situations are emphasized, along with grammatical and lexical forms; and (d) lessons reinforce the form-meaning relationship. The backbone of the notional syllabus construction relies on specific situations where language is most likely used in real communication.

Syllabus content includes settings and situations as diverse as, *at a party, at a hotel, going to the airport, grabbing a taxi, and ordering a meal*. According to J. Brown (1995, p. 9), a typical table of contents with an overall situational syllabus organization is seen in Brinton and Neuman's (1982) textbook:

1. Introduction
2. Getting acquainted
3. At the housing office
4. Deciding to live together
5. Let's have coffee

6. Looking for an apartment

7. At the pier.

As can be observed, the course content is elaborated on a thematic format that deals with specific situations where students can practice contextualized language. However, Wilkins (1976) considers a number of problems related to the situational syllabus as basis for teaching materials, especially, the fact that speakers are not restricted to the situations in which they find themselves. For Wilkins (1976), “The diversity of linguistic forms in any one situational unit makes the task of generalizing grammatical learning a difficult one and without it the learner may acquire no more than a set of responses appropriate to that one situation” (p. 84). Even though specific language forms are typically used to communicate in specific settings, communication embraces innumerable language forms and functions as part of any situation.

In turn, Wilkins (1976) proposed an approach to syllabus design called the Notional-Syllabus. The organizing principle for instruction based on the Notional-Syllabus approach relied on the categories of language use which center on conceptual, functional, and grammatical components. Two major components are described by Wilkins as significant for syllabus construction:

1. The Semantico-grammatical components or notions express conceptual meanings related to: *time, location, frequency, dimension, events, agent* and many others, which are characterized by the association between meaning and forms.

2. Communicative functions category is the use of language for communicative purposes to which functions are employed. Examples are *request, apology, invitation, greeting, approval, agreement*, and so on.

The notional-syllabus which focuses particularly on functions and notions in relation to language forms, develops learners' ability to express themselves in real contexts. Learners are able to practice communicative functions in contexts of everyday language to perform the communicative purposes for which language is needed. In order to define syllabus content, textbook designers do not define the notions, functions, and forms students need to engage in, rather the type of discourses that expresses all these purposes (Krahnke, 1983). An example of a syllabus content organized based on parameters of notions and functions is seen in Johnson and Morrow's (1979) textbook:

1. Talking about yourself
2. Meeting people
3. Asking about things
4. Asking for things
5. Inviting
6. Making arrangements
7. Asking the way
8. Asking for help
9. Asking for permission.

Favoring communicative functions over linguistic forms and creating conditions for developing a syllabus with the priority on communicative goals were potentially useful for language instructors. Nonetheless, Wilkins's (1976) approach presented various problems for language syllabus design. The objections centered on the fact that few structures can be used to perform many functions and the difficulty of incorporating the diversity of linguistic form into one situational unit (K. Johnson, 1982; D. Johnson,

2009). Another shortening in the application of notional-syllabus is the lack of selection and systematization of items in the curriculum, which affect carrying out the approach's communicative purposes. As Dubin and Olshtain (1994) comment: "Notions are not easily organized in a systematic manner and do not inherently lead to generalizations" (p. 92). The course planner is faced with the problem of arranging different types of structural sentences within the same unit and ordering any kind of structural grading (K. Johnson, 1982). Hence, in order to develop a systematic sequence of content on which planners to base their instructional syllabus, careful item inventory was necessary. This gave rise to need analysis.

Need analysis was useful for attenuating the hard task of ordering and sequence of functions and structural forms, as course builders' focus on students' particular language needs to determine the content of the course. By gathering information about students' difficulties, interests, and gaps, course planners can make adjustments in the curriculum to meet what learners need to acquire. With the rapid growth of English as a second language and its dominance in business, technology, science and academia, and increased number of international students and immigrants moving to English-speaking countries, need analysis became necessary to attend to this new audience and gave rise to Language for Specific Purpose (LSP; Paltridge & Starfield, 2011).

Need analysis emerging under notional-functional syllabus was particularly suitable for producing materials and course syllabi for particular situations, tasks, performances, and needs, necessary to develop language for specific purposes teaching. English for Specific Purposes (ESP) become a broad field of study that focused on discourse and genre features of particular areas: science, business, medicine, and specific

situations of language, used to facilitate language for specific purposes, students, and course syllabi (Richards, 2001). An attempt to focus on language for a specific purpose for students in the general teaching curriculum was proposed by Van Ek (1975, 1978). He specified a list of common core language functions based on categories of verbal communication, along with determining the situations and elements required to refer to things, people, events—termed t-level. Van Ek (1978, p. 106) established four components of situations:

1. The social rules which the learner will be able to play
2. The psychological roles which the learner will be able to play;
3. The settings in which the learner will be able to use the foreign language;
4. The topics which the learner will be able to deal with in the foreign language.

Based on these components for establishing the situations, Van Ek (1978) designated specific elements and suggested functions to be used in each situation. Van Ek's list of components and categories for the common core and t-level in the document *The Threshold Level* became an important development for syllabus design around the world (D. Johnson, 2009).

Although the notional-function syllabus has presented problems for material builders, it has been useful in various circumstances. As Krahnke (1983) points out, "In the development of specific teaching programs for specific purposes, notional/functional approaches to syllabus may be appropriately used to define the content of such courses" (p. 43). It has also been used to help students who are struggling to obtain communicative competence that are already proficient in grammatical forms, to motivate language learners, and as syllabus parameters in multidimensional syllabi (Krahnke, 1983; D.

Johnson, 2009). Dubin and Olshtain (1994) also proposed combining semantico-grammatical categories—functional skills, themes, and topics—as a way to provide more clear progression and sequence of syllabus design.

Syllabus Proposals Analysis

Syllabus proposals have been analyzed in a number of ways in relation to what students do with language and the underlying goals achieved by the syllabus. Comprising Synthetic and Analytic (Wilkins, 1976), Type A and Type B (White, 1988), Process, Product, Procedural, and Task (Long & Crookes, 1992). Wilkins (1976) was the first to draw the distinction between Synthetic and Analytic Syllabus. The Synthetic Syllabus conceive language teaching as the breaking down of the global language in small pieces where language is presented in a pre-digested way and items are learned one at the time.

As Wilkins (1976) himself defines, “A synthetic language teaching strategy is one in which the different pieces of language are taught separately and step-by-step so that acquisition is a process of gradual accumulation of the parts until the whole structure of the language has been built up” (p. 2). The items are taught in separate and discrete ways, where on one hand the learning of the language task is to be easily and gradually grasped, and on the other hand the language sample is limited (Wilkins, 1976). The synthetic teaching strategy expects that after having learned various language items, the learners can re-synthesize and integrate the accumulated knowledge by themselves.

In contrast, the analytic syllabus is neither derived from lexis and grammatical units nor the starting point for curriculum decision-making. The syllabus is “organized in terms of the purposes for which people are learning language and the kinds of language performance that are necessary to meet those purposes” (Wilkins, 1976, p. 13). The

syllabus focuses on the actual use of language and requires students to use their capacities to think, recognize, and create hypothesis about the patterns of language. In this sense, Wilkins said, “We are inviting the learner, directly or indirectly, to recognize the linguistic components of the language behavior he is acquiring, we are in effect basing our approach on the learner’s analytic capacities” (p. 14). Hence, learners have opportunities to exploit possibilities and observe patterns and regularities in the target language. Long and Crookes (1992) expound by noting that the analytic syllabus consisted of three types of tasks syllabi: process, procedural, and task syllabus, which will be briefly explored in the following subsections.

Process Oriented Syllabus

The notional-functional syllabus that was characterized by Wilkins (1976) as an analytic syllabus, in practice did not diverge from the structural syllabus as emphasizing an end-product outcome of learning. Researchers have indicated that the analytic syllabus expressed by Wilkins (1976) is best operationalize by learning based on task syllabus, which considered the process involved in the use of language (D. Johnson, 2009; Nunan, 1992). The analytic syllabus is also known as the process oriented syllabus, while the syntactic correspond to the product oriented syllabus. Even though both dimensions might still exist in textbooks, the tendency is to focus more on one than the other. While the product syllabus centers on specifying the expected outcome of a lesson or course, the process syllabus focuses on the process in which learning is achieved and on the methodology use for organization of content (White, 1988).

The process oriented syllabus focuses on the process dimension of the learning context rather than the knowledge and skills learners are expected to master. Dubin and

Olshtain (1994) underline three aspects of the process dimension: (a) the organization of language content; (b) types of activities learners are to engage in; and (c) the teacher and learners role in the learning process. Breen's (1984) seminal paper on process syllabus also distinguishes the process syllabus as being concerned with the "capacity for communication," rather than specifying a "repertoire of communication" and conveying information (p. 51). Therefore, the process syllabus, rather than dealing solely with the outcome of course design and the unit of analysis content, is concerned with broad aspects of learning process: the classroom context, decision-making about student needs, instructional practices, process of evaluation, and teacher and students interaction roles.

Procedural Syllabus

In order to elaborate a more suitable way of teaching language, Prabhu (1987) and the staff of the Regional Institute of English South India developed the Bangalore Project with the objective of helping students focus on the meaning of the message instead of form. Prabhu (1987) constructed the procedural syllabus with the premise that "grammar-construction by the learner is an unconscious process which is best facilitated by bringing about in the learner a preoccupation with meaning, saying or doing" (p. 147). Prabhu proposed a task syllabus approach as the organizing principle of instruction, where meaning-focused activities were developed in the classroom. Diverging from structural, functional and notional syllabus, the procedural syllabus brought a new dimension to the field of syllabus design and instructional materials (Zare, 2012).

The lessons are prepared on the basis of communicative tasks that students will participate, and the communicative interactions that they will take part in based on the task at hand (K. Johnson, 1982). The task syllabus influenced in two important ways the

way form language syllabi and courses are built. First, the conventional way of identifying linguistic forms as the basis of syllabus construction were abolished. Given that natural communication in the classroom is the goal, a systematized syllabus selection of the linguistic forms breaks the flow of communicative tasks. Second, the task syllabus avoids teaching activities based on form such as drilling and error correction (Prabhu, 1987; Zare, 2012). Instead, Prabhu (1987) proposed problem-solving tasks involving interpretation of diagrams, maps, and stories, and meaning-focused activities comprised of information-gap, reasoning-gap, and opinion-gap. Prabhu's procedural syllabus was an innovative organizing principle for course design and instruction, which gave rise to the Task-based Language Teaching approach; both shared similar principles. Long and Crookes (1993) describe three approaches as the unit of analysis for syllabus construction (Process, Procedural) and the last one is the Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT).

Task-Based Language Syllabus

Since Prabhu's (1987) proposition of task syllabus design, the task approach has evolved into a variety of versions and directions and attracts enormous interest by researchers and curriculum developers (Bygate, Skehan, & Swain, 2001; Ellis, 2003; Lee, 2000; Long, 1985; Skehan & Wesche, 2002; J. Willis, 1996). The Task-based Language Teaching rationale for syllabus construction and learning activities has largely been developed through second language acquisition studies. The organization of learning by way of tasks is derived extensively on how people acquire a second language and how students process language in performance. Notions related to the processing of input and output theory, the view of interaction hypothesis and negotiations of meaning, and the focus on form-meaning are considered of utmost importance for promotion of language

learning through tasks (Branden, 2006). As Ellis (2000) indicates, “From a psycholinguistic perspective a task is a device that guides learners to engage in certain types of information-processing that are believed to be important for effective language use and/or for language acquisition from some theoretical standpoint” (p. 197). Thus, the task elicits language production that stimulates cognitive processing, language hypothesis, manipulation of the target language and organization and integration of new forms to the language system.

Indeed, initially as proposed by Prabhu (1987), tasks convey only a meaning focused language instruction, but recent formulations of tasks informed by Second Language Acquisition research have found the inclusion of particular areas of grammar to be beneficial (e.g., Skehan, 1998; J. Willis, 1996). Although innumerable definitions for tasks exist, Skehan (1998) drew from different authors to describe the main characteristics of tasks: (a) primacy is given to the meaning; (b) learners are not to regurgitate another person’ meaning; (c) classroom activities simulate real-world activities; (d) achieving task goals is important; and (e) assessing task in terms of outcome.

Overall, tasks are language activities where students learn and produce language for communicative purpose used in real-world situations, in such a way that they are able to “process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome” (Ellis, 2003, p. 16). While carrying out the tasks students are required to use language for problem-solving, decision-making and negotiations of meaning to achieve a specific objective. Curriculum developers use tasks as the framework for unit construction, so students deal with everyday language through activities and their respective speech acts. In this sense, based

on need analysis course designers obtain communicative outcomes that are most useful for language instruction, such as, *describing a person, talking to the doctor, and asking for help*. They paid great attention to the interactants, their speech acts, and context of performance of the tasks, in order to correspond to realistic activities undertaken in everyday life (D. Johnson, 2009).

The curriculum designer also seeks to develop units based on task type; as diverse as problem-solving, role-play, information gap, information transfer, or a jigsaw type. Tasks are highly structured and the unit of content must be enlarged in order for students to be exposed to content, share understanding of a learning outcome, interact with peers to produce the goals of the tasks, and present and discuss tasks in a cycled way. Task approach can be considered a strong version of communicative language teaching and since its rise has served as a fundamental organizing principle for language teaching methodology, materials development, and course design (Ellis, 2011; Nunan, 1991). This approach has been extensively supported by SLA research (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Skehan, 1998) and draws on a number of different theories comprising teachability, implicit knowledge, emergentism, focus-on-form, and noticing conceptions (Ellis, 2010). Although there are many definitions of tasks, the primary focus relies on involving students in production of communicative meaning to achieve a certain outcome. While performing the tasks students use language to communicate, rather than repeating controlled linguistic forms. Furthermore, learners have the opportunity to generate their own language constructions, test their hypothesis, and have “experience trying to use [language] under real operating conditions” (Ellis, 2010, p. 38).

Even though communicating meaning is considered the main characteristic of tasks, a focus on form is not eliminated and much debate exists on task sequencing and combinations of form and message focused. Tasks are distinguished in a number of ways and two general distinct types can be drawn: unfocused tasks and focused tasks. Unfocused tasks relate to tasks in which learners use language to communicate meaningfully, without specifically focusing on specific linguistic forms. On the other hand, focused forms provide opportunities for eliciting specific linguistic features (Ellis, 2011). There is also a distinction between task-based and task-supported language teaching. The task-based relies on unfocused tasks and the task-supported language teaching based its design sequence on Present-Practice-Product sequence, where the final step is used as a task serving to stimulate communicative language use.

The task-supported language teaching approach uses controlled grammatical forms at first and then students experience production of language use themselves. This approach, as Ellis (2011) explained, is probably the most used structure for organizing tasks in existing course books, and has theoretical support from skill-learning theory (K. Johnson, 1996). The task-supported language teaching has been criticized (Skehan, 1996; Willis & Willis, 1996), and its major rejection has been that focus on form might lead students to reproduce grammatical form when having the chance to construct meanings in task. That is, “once learners have a mental set towards the production of prescribed forms it is difficult for them to give priority to meaning. Even at the production stage they see the production of specified forms as the priority, and their success is judged in terms of their ability to produce these forms” (D. Willis, in press, p. 7). Nevertheless, Swain (2005) has argued that, “Evidence for inbuilt acquisition sequences currently lacks

generality” and “there seems to be no good evidence that they cannot be interfere with” (p. 379) and Willis and Willis (1996) suggest the use of grammar as a follow-up to task.

It seems that there is no uniform agreement on how the sequence of form and message can be combined into tasks, but some attention to form are very common and likely to benefit task-based lessons (Bygate et al., 2001; Ellis, Basturkmen, & Loewen, 2001; D. Johnson, 2009). Additionally, there is little systematic research to date that explores the effectiveness of task-based and task-supported language teaching on learners’ L2 knowledge and even less research exists on task material development and acquisition. Still, task-based teaching is a valuable organizing principle and can potentially increase language learning. Hence, it is important to understand to what point tasks are being used in textbooks and the choices that textbook constructors make when designing pedagogical tasks and the sequence used for meaning and form.

This section presented the organization of language syllabus design taking into consideration the content, activity types, and overarching structure of the course. A number of syllabus designs have been proposed: Structural syllabus, Functional-Notional Syllabus, Process Syllabus, Procedural Syllabus, and Task-based Syllabus. Although CLT instructions are incorporated into the language syllabus, the task syllabus has been advocated for by language teaching research and materials developers, since this is a strong type of communicative approach. Nevertheless, the inclusion of the task approach is less seen in foreign language textbooks, and materials developers have given little information on how tasks have been incorporated into language courses. Also, textbooks constructors have relied on more than one foreign syllabus design for the organization of language, content, and activity type. Currently, textbooks appear to include types of

communicative language practices, and there is a greater concern in developing more procedural, process-based, analytic, and task design syllabus. Besides, important guiding principles of Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning-Teaching have been proposed for designing the language course, which will be explored in the following section.

Second Language Acquisition and Language Learning

The field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has provided a vast array of research on what entails the learning of a second language (L2) and the nature of the underlying knowledge system. The area has achieved a large and sophisticated body of research, has tested linguistic theories, and formulated distinct explanations on how learners acquired a second language. Nevertheless, moving away from the early works in SLA where the primacy of investigation relied on pedagogical issues and the effectiveness of teaching methodologies (Cook, 2009; Murray & Christison, 2011), the practical applications of SLA to teaching second and foreign language has not been heavily considered. Testing linguistic theories and providing findings of learner development language processes does not explicitly reveal the potential for practical application and clear procedures for teaching second and foreign languages. As Widdowson (2005) underlines, “SLA researchers have tended to suppose that there is an intrinsically real language learning process that can be identified, as soon as they get their theories sorted out, and that can at last provide a universally reliable basis for course design and methodology” (p. 20). Still, there is no straightforward application of findings of SLA to language pedagogy.

Even though SLA has not provided definite answers about language pedagogy and has few contributions geared toward materials development and classroom methodology, knowledge of recent SLA research findings can be potentially profitable for textbook development. Therefore, the next section focuses not on giving an exhaustive description of SLA theories, rather it targets specific information related to input, output, interactions, and task-based design, relevant for developing textbooks.

Input, Output, and Interaction

Learning a second language is a slow and laborious process and researchers commonly acknowledge that the language that surrounds the learner greatly increase the acquisition of a second language. The concept of input refers to the language that is available to the learner (Gass & Selinker, 2008), which is crucial for preparing the learner for subsequent analysis and eventually internalizing the bit of information that is noticed to the learner's language system. The behaviorist approach to second language learning viewed habit formation, mimicking, and memorization as important processes for learning which was heavily dependent on input. Consequently, input was regarded as crucial for language learning. With the rise of Chomsky's propositions of second language acquisition and the Universal Grammar (UG) approach to SLA, the role of input became viewed as a trigger to eventual stages of internalized language system (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Krashen, 1982; Murray & Christison, 2011). Influenced by Chomsky's UG perspectives, Krashen (1982) developed the Monitor Model, proposing how acquisition takes place.

In the model, Krashen (1985) proposed the Input Hypothesis, which gave an indication of the amount of input learners need to be exposed to in order to understand

information and alter the learner's grammar. For Krashen, comprehensible input (language slightly beyond a learner's current language system) is the most essential element for acquiring a second language. For the input to be understandable, acquired input must be $i+1$, where i is the current state of knowledge and the next stage $i+1$. Hence, "We move from i , our current level to $i+1$, the next level along the natural order, by understanding input containing $i+1$ " (Krashen, 1985, p. 2). For material developers and teachers, input promotes language acquisition when it is understandable, a little ahead of students current language system, and comprehension is achieved through the use of modified input (e.g., Lightbown & Spada, 2010).

Language learners also benefit from the greatest amount of exposure to input; experience with input that is rich and meaningful (Ellis, 2010; Long, 1985; Tomlinson, 2003, 2011). L2 learners need to involve themselves in active processing of language forms and introspective awareness, where with the increase of frequency and meaningful input students notice the most salient language target features. In this sense, input-enrichment activities are potentially beneficial as they are able to increase the frequency and salience of the target input (Ellis, 2010). Through resources such as graphically highlighting the input, learners can successfully enhance learning of the target structure.

Research also advocates that language learners need a silent period with active listening and input, gaining sufficient exposure to the target language in order to obtain confidence in understanding it (H. Brown, 2007; Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982).

Tomlinson's (2011) *Materials Development in Language Teaching* book specifies that materials should have a silent period at the beginning of instruction and points out that "the silent period can facilitate the development of an effective internalized grammar

which can help learners achieve proficiency when they eventually start to speak in the L2” (p. 20). The scholarly research on second language teaching and learning recognized that the Total Physical Response (TPR) approach is particularly suitable for beginners so they can gradually construct learning of the target language while at the same time provides active listening where students respond physically to oral instruction (H. Brown, 2007; Lightbown & Spada, 2010).

Given the promotion of active listening, TPR approach, and high-frequency input exposure, the language successes achieved with exposure to input, but without engaging in oral practices is greatly limited and insufficient. As Trahey and White (1993) showed, high-frequency input exposure to a particular form was advantageous for learners to understand, particularly the correct position of the form (adverbs). However, limitations of input existed as input provided positive evidence of grammatical adverb position, but failed to give negative evidence of when the information was incorrect. Schmidt (1990, 2001) noticing hypothesis emphasized that input is far from being enough, as attending to a linguistic form on purpose is essential for learning. Furthermore, Swain’s (1985) Comprehensible Output Hypothesis shows that the output is also potentially significant for developing syntax and morphology use, along with students’ awareness to misconceptions and gaps in their knowledge of the target language.

Considerable debate exists in regards to the amount and intensity of input. Surely, input is only one element of the cognitive processing that serves to advance analysis and integration of language form to learner’ system. Even so, to enhance learners’ acquisition, a great deal of comprehensible input is necessary, particularly for foreign language students. “Selecting vocabulary that students will understand, repeating and

rephrasing, avoiding slang words, and simplifying syntax all make input easier to understand” (Murray & Christison, 2011, p. 172). Consequently, language forms must be simplified and made easier to contribute to students learning and chunks of words frequently used outside of the classroom must be constantly recycled and reintroduced in the textbooks. Additionally, opportunity for varied input must be provided that addressed real-world tasks and contexts.

Learning can take place not only by means of rich and varied input, but also through the production of language that happens in interactions and the conversational modifications that occur while students work together for mutual comprehension. The Interaction Approach advocates that learning takes place through input, output, and the exchange of feedback that occurs while L2 speakers communicate (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Through interactions, students negotiate meaning and modify speech through mechanisms such as negotiation, recasts, feedback, clarification requests, and comprehension checks. Interaction studies are conducted based on Long’s Interaction Hypothesis (Storch, 2002), which observes the effects of interaction on second language production.

Research has indicated the advantages of group work and pair work for helping learners manipulate and negotiate meaning. Exploring to what extent learners were involved with negative feedback such as recasts, clarification checks, and modified output, McDonough (2004) analyzed students’ conversations and interactional features. Findings showed that learners who were more involved with negative feedback and modified output in pairs and group activities demonstrated improved production of the target language form. Also, Storch (2002) studied four patterns of pair interaction over

time and its effects on second language acquisition. Between collaborative interaction, dominant-dominant interaction, dominant-passive, and expert-novice, the expert-novice and collaborative interactions were more valuable for second language acquisition as these patterns of pair work maintained more of their second language knowledge over time. Thus, opportunities for interaction provide space for conversational adjustments, helpful for providing increased acquisition of language learning.

Another important element for second language acquisition is the notion of comprehensible output developed by Swain (1985). In her study of children learning French in an immersion context, Swain found that input was not enough to ensure native like performance. Results revealed that verbal production was necessary as it “may force the learner to move from semantic processing to syntactic processing” (p. 249). When the learner produces language it gives opportunities for hypothesis-testing, to notice misconceptions, to increase awareness of language forms and to use language productively and effectively (Mitchell & Myles, 2004). Ellis (2008) stressed that “controlled practice exercises typically result in output that is limited in terms of length and complexity. They do not afford students opportunities for the kind of sustained output that theorists argue is necessary for second language development” (p. 4). Consequently, how output opportunities are conveyed in course content becomes particularly important as it potentially influences the magnitude of learners’ knowledge of the second language.

Second Language Acquisition and Learning Principles

Various authors have articulated second language learning principles for ELT materials: Nunan (1988), Byrd (1995), Richards (2001), McGrath (2002), Ellis (2008)

among others. Yet, there still exists little literature that relates findings of second language acquisition and second language learning to development and evaluation of textbooks. However, Tomlinson (2003, 2010, 2011) and Ellis (2014) has provided a comprehensive list of principle approaches to the development of ELT materials that is based on second language acquisition, learning, and teaching. Some of the principles will be listed as they can serve as a guiding framework for the development of a checklist and subsequent analysis of the textbooks being evaluated.

Principle 1: Learners' attention to linguistic features of the input and exposure to meaningful and rich input.

For textbook planners, attention must be given not only to the amount and frequency of input as to become salient, but to the extent input is provided in a variety of genres and topics. The language course must also be developed in a way that input is contextualize and based on real and authentic contexts of use.

Principle 2: Learners need opportunity to use language that ensures communicative purposes.

Content and instruction must be designed so students are provided with opportunities to produce language in real conditions where they can communicate meaningfully and achieved communicative competence. As Tomlinson (2011) explained, "Learners should be given opportunities to use language for communication rather than just to practice it in situations controlled by the teacher and materials" (p. 15). In this sense, through communicative outcomes learners can negotiate meaning and real-world processes of language use, instead of solely focusing on controlled practice activities.

Principle 3: Materials should facilitate learner self-investment.

Learners should be encouraged to make personal discoveries of language use and gain control of their learning processes and progress. By acknowledging that language learning is a constructive process, learners must have opportunities to actively process information and enhance introspective awareness of language through selective noticing, analyzing, testing and confirming hypotheses.

Principle 4: The content and methodology of teaching should be aligned with the goals and objectives of the unit lessons.

The methodological instruction and content should have clear alignment with the goals of the unit. In order to provide a more consistent plan of instruction a correspondence must exist amongst the objectives, instruction, and assessment (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001). The way the course is delivered must be compatible with the goals in order to increase learning outcome, and intentionally aim to develop students' skills and competency in the target language.

Principle 5: The learner will master what is being taught when they are ready to acquire second language forms.

Based on the Processability Theory (Pienemann, 1998, 2007) production and comprehension of language can only take place if the language feature can be handled by the linguistic processor. Pienemann (1998) ordered procedures for acquisition based on Gass and Selinker (2008, p. 229), and they are as follows:

1. No procedure (e.g., single word utterances)
2. Category procedure (e.g., adding a plural morpheme to a noun)
3. Noun phrase procedure (e.g., matching gender)
4. Verb phrase procedure (e.g., movement of elements within a verb phrase)

5. Sentence procedure (e.g., subject-verb agreement)

6. Subordinate clause procedure (e.g., use of a particular tense based on something in the main clause).

The Processability Theory takes in consideration that the internal syllabus predicts the sequence that the linguistic features emerge in second language acquisition (D. Johnson, 2009). Based on this order for acquiring the second language, course designers might develop the progression of linguistic content and take into account the learner's built-in syllabus.

Principle 6: Textbooks should take in account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed.

Effective production of the target language takes time to process and is usually delayed. Moreover, according to the U-shape patterns, learners at a first stage seem to produce linguistic form that conforms to the target language, then for some time they deviate from the norm and in the last stage they again use the correct form (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Hence, textbooks must not expect that learners grasp content immediately after the initial presentation and should ensure that language course content is constantly recycled and reintroduced.

Principle 7: Learners need opportunities for interaction and output production.

Creating occasions for students to interact can lead to negotiation of meaning and at the same time ensure input and output opportunities where they have to pay attention to grammar and discourse skills (Ellis, 2008). Comprehensive output is important because students can communicate and generate messages where they are stimulated to communicate clearly and fluently. Although the output and interactions center on

communicating meaning and are significant elements for language acquisition, some attention must be given to controlled practice exercises and focus on form, where a variety of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence are emphasized.

The general principles presented for materials development and evaluation drawing from observations of practice, intuitions and theoretical perspectives on second language acquisition and learning, provide guidelines and specifications on how instruction can best facilitate language learning. These sets of principles identify important instructional practices that ensure textbooks designers know language teaching and course design can more adequately maximize language learning and help learners internalize the target language. As H. Brown (2007) states, classroom teachers optimized their teaching when their pedagogy is “well-established [in] principles of language teaching and learning” (p. 17). Thus, these sets of principles will be suitable for developing subsequent analyses of textbooks.

Textbook Analysis Research

The purpose of this section is to describe the major works and findings related to the topic of English as a second language (ESL) and foreign language (FL) textbooks analysis. The area of textbook analysis in English language teaching is still emerging, and systematic research is considered to be lacking particularly in what relates to the identification of curriculum design and language learning approaches, principles, and processes that underlies the English as a foreign language textbooks. This section focuses on investigations undertaken in various countries, particularly in Brazil. In order to explore what studies are being conducted on the topic of English as a foreign language textbooks, the literature review examines the various textbooks studies related to gender,

cultural and social issues, content evaluation, the curriculum design and methodological basis of textbooks. The materials investigated were chosen based on the relevance of the work, the categories used for analyzing the textbooks, the number of citations in other works, and the contribution of the finding to the area. The first section gives an overview of textbook analysis studies considering, gender analysis, cultural analysis, dialogue genre, as well as the language learning methodology and processes indicated in the research. The second section relates to the context of English language teaching in Brazil and the textbooks studies administered in Brazil related to gender analysis, cultural analysis, textual genres analysis and didactic dialogues, along with approaches and conceptions of language learning evoke in the textbooks.

Since the earlier years of ESL/EFL textbook studies interest relied on topics related to ethnicity, gender, cultural and social issues, along with content evaluation. During the 1970s and the 1980s, relevant empirical studies were: Stern (1976), Hartman and Judd (1978), Porreca (1984), Macian (1986), Arizpe and Aguirre (1987) and Graci (1989). In the last two decades, ESL/EFL textbook analysis multiplied on diverse topics that had been the center of investigation. The following section presents a brief overview of the literature related to topics as diverse as gender, social and cultural issues, and content evaluation.

Gender Analysis

Gender stereotyping and gender bias in ESL/EFL textbooks has received a great deal of attention. One of the first studies was administered by Stern (1976), who analyzed the status of sexism in content and photographs of 25 foreign language textbooks. The study reports the massive omission of women in textbooks and the eccentric roles and

stereotypical position women occupy in society. Consistent with this finding, Porreca's (1984) article "Sexism in Current ESL Textbooks" examines sexism in fifteen ESL textbooks in regards to the following categories: omission in text, occupational visibility and illustrations, masculine generic constructions, nouns, and adjectives. In short, females are depicted only half as often as males in texts and illustrations are restricted to traditional jobs such as waitress, nurse, etc. Also, women are portrayed with adjectives related to emotions, physical attractiveness, while men are renowned for its intellect and education. Conversely, Rifkin's (1998) study of gender equity in Russian foreign language textbooks found that recent textbooks have more equitable gender representations than 10 or 20 years ago. The author further emphasizes the importance of engaging not only in quantitative research, but qualitative analysis of the corpus to attained gender equity or inequity patterns.

Lee and Collins (2008) studied the status of women in English textbooks used in Hong Kong and indicated that contemporary textbooks are translating into practice the importance of gender representation and avoidance of stereotyping. The article shows various strategies used by textbook designers to avoid gender inequality and role reduction. Even so, Lee and Collins claim that improvements can still be made in order to portray equal gender status. In this sense, Holmqvist and Gjörup (2006) explored textbooks and suggested practical ideas to work with gender in the classroom.

More recently, Nagatomo (2011) examined gender representation in EFL textbooks for Japanese university students based on Porreca (1984) and Lesikin's (2001) theoretical frameworks. Findings revealed that gender imbalance improved compared to previous studies, as an intentional effort by textbook constructors were made to represent

females as more visible participants in various roles and as active members of society. Lately, studies have suggested an increased awareness and development in EFL textbooks of aspects related to gender, and have found ways and strategies to better represent gender equality. Furthermore, various investigations have focused on changes in women's representation in EFL textbooks. Yet, further studies need to be conducted to understand how different genres portray gender representation.

Cultural Issues

There is a growing interest in how the target culture and cultural elements are represented in the textbooks. With the awareness of intercultural integration in education studies and language pedagogy, textbooks have explored not only the target culture, but how international cultures are portrayed. One of the first textbooks studies that focused on cultural examination was Arizpe and Aguirre's (1987) investigation of Mexican, Puerto Rican, and Cuban ethnic groups in Spanish-language textbooks and how their culture was portrayed. Eighteen textbooks were selected from textbooks published between 1975 and 1985 and their cultural content was analyzed. Findings showed various cultural omissions and generalizations and points out clearly marked cultural vignettes and content that should be included in textbooks.

Risager (1991) in the book chapter called "Cultural Reference in European Textbooks: An Evaluation of Recent Tendencies," presents significant information about the cultural trends in foreign language textbooks. Based on Byram's (1997) list on cultural content, Risager (1991) found that the sociocultural elements represented in the textbooks centered mostly on the middle class, with similar age group as the pupils in focus, and few professional groups, along with a focus on consumption where language is

learned for dyadic service situations and leisure activities. The textbook analysis indicates the lack of expressed values and historical perspectives, and on the other hand, a trend for fragmentation, individualization, and pragmatism. Briefly speaking, this work underlies important trends in sociocultural content in textbooks valuable to understand important changes in cultural transmission and content.

Yuen (2011) investigated the representation of foreign cultures in two English language textbooks used by Hong Kong secondary schools. She found that products related to entertainment, travel, and food are the most frequently cultural elements depicted in textbooks. Findings indicate that elements such as practices and perspectives were less emphasized by the textbooks. The study also observed the status of English as an international language and whether specific cultures were given privileged representation. The study suggested that not only was the content of foreign culture considered fragmented and stereotypical, but an imbalance existed as cultures of English-speaking countries appeared more frequently than those of Asian and African countries. In contrast, Ekawati and Hamdani's (2012) observations of the role of culture in the textbooks showed that the target language of the source culture and international culture were similarly depicted in the foreign language textbook. Recently, Weninger and Kiss (2013) proposed a semiotic approach to analyze cultural elements in textbooks so that content purposely makes connections of cultural meaning, giving space for students to create a reflective engagement with cultural information. Overall, analysis of textbook cultural elements have sought to understand the changes in cultural transmission and how the target language and global cultural consciousness are represented in textbooks.

Dialogue Genres

Textbook writers are aware that the textbook must comprise a full variety of genres to represent the use of a language. As Lähdesmäki (2009) stresses, “One of the clearest trends in the development of the Finnish EFL textbook from its beginnings in the late 1890s till today has been the diversification of the genres presented” (p. 375). With new directions of language teaching by the communicative approach, different genres are incorporated into teaching materials and classroom instruction. Consequently, EFL textbooks need to explore authentic interactions and conversations between native speakers to enable effective language learning outcomes.

Wong (2002) analyzed how eight English as a second language textbooks construct natural telephone conversations. The study reveals that the examples of conversational features found in telephone dialogue in the textbooks are unsatisfactory and do not parallel to real telephone communication. What is needed is more attention to small answers, identification, greetings, and how-are-you sequences, often found in authentic telephone exchanges. The article suggests more natural collections of spoken data and articulation of “interconnections between language, sequence structure and social action” for development of English as second language textbooks (p. 37).

A similar vein, Gilmore (2004) explored textbook dialogue between 1981 and 1997 and compared their authentic interactions. The transcriptions of dialogues used in natural conversation and in textbooks were compared to observe the difference of authentic discourse features. Results showed the lack of authentic equivalents related to the length and turn-taking patterns, lexical density, false starts and repetitions, pausing, overlap, the use of hesitation devices, and back-channeling. Thus, even though curriculum builders are more aware of the need to construct dialogues that reveal the true

nature of conversation and interactions, more features of authentic dialogues are to be incorporated in the textbooks.

Methodology and Second Language Studies Analysis

Various methodologies, particularly the Grammar-Translation method, Audiolingual, and Communicative approach have served as a framework for producing a variety of foreign language textbooks. Nevertheless, few studies have explored issues related to foreign language textbooks, neither have analyzed and evaluated the distinct methodologies, language learning processes, and second language acquisition theories underlying the foreign language textbooks. Even so, Terrell (1990) proposed a five-parameter framework to describe methodological trends in Spanish language textbooks. The study explores grammar-focused activities and the communicative instructional approach to language learning in beginning level textbooks. For analysis of methodological trends the following parameters were evaluated: (a) communication activities/grammar exercise; (b) contextualization/non-contextualization; (c) meaningful/role; (d) open/closed (divergent/convergent); and (e) interactive/non-interactive. The majority of Spanish language textbooks incorporated the five parameters showing qualitative and quantitative differences from Spanish texts of the 1960s and 1970s, which indicates a prevalent shift to communication-focused instruction.

Similarly, Harlan (2000) examined the methodologies and the implementation of second language theory employed in beginner's foreign language textbooks. The investigation found that three-fourths of the foreign language textbooks examined have a preference for the communicative approach, while the others used audiolingual and grammar-translation methodological instruction. The author suggested that second

language acquisition research is better able to affect textbooks through the publication of current language textbooks. Harlam also underlines the effectiveness of combining various methodologies in foreign language textbooks.

In spite of current debates on grammar teaching and language learning, few studies have analyzed grammar acquisition in language textbooks. In order to fill this gap, Fernández (2011) explored how grammar is taught in beginning Spanish textbooks. The article reports that even though grammar lessons in textbooks are still based largely on traditional grammar approaches, there is indication that more significant changes are taking place, the more textbooks incorporate contextualized activities based on second language acquisition. In his own words, “The traditional and questionable controlled production-based approach to teach grammar may be giving way to a more theoretically sound approach, where grammar is thought to be acquired by the processing of meaningful input” (p. 165). Thus, the form-focused approach has been presented in a much more contextualized way, with meaningful input and sound research.

Studies mentioned so far have explored the methodological and instructional content in Spanish foreign language textbooks, where it is possible to speculate that more comprehensive research of textbook analysis has been undertaken. Nevertheless, studies have also been conducted in ESL/EFL textbooks. In this case, Andrade (1990) developed a set of guidelines for examining ESL textbooks for adults based on previous guidelines, research, and interview with ESL teachers. The study presents extended literature review on cultural, methodological, social analysis of ESL textbooks of the 1980s, and presents various recommendations including the necessity of extending the use of active listening, sociolinguistic issues, and pronunciation in the textbooks. Research also suggests that

even teachers who are acquainted with current research in second language acquisition may not consider its implication when employing a textbook in the classroom.

Not only do teachers in the classroom seldom rely on current research in language learning and second language acquisition, but textbooks rarely specify particular theoretical stance. Basturkman (1999), in an attempt to identify the theories-in-use of an English language teaching community in New Zealand, analyze back cover blurbs of textbooks through content analysis and application of linguistic analysis tools. The study suggests that the blurbs do not directly establish the underlying theoretical basis of the textbook content and design was left unexplained, and there was no association between theory and practice. As Basturkman (1999) comments, “It could also be argued that this disassociation of theory and practice reflects the preference of the ELT community for pragmatic solutions to the teaching/learning problem rather than explanations of the teaching/learning process” (p. 33). Findings probably indicate a more critical situation of textbooks and the English language teaching community as a whole. That is, of not addressing the need of relying on theories of language learning and developing particular associations between theoretical learning processes with actual practice in the curriculum content.

More recently, Litz (2005) evaluated the English as a foreign language textbook *English Firsthand 2* used in the language classroom of a university in South Korea. Findings showed that this particular English as a foreign language textbook is consistent with current communicative practices. The activities developed were based on communicative approach, pointing out other specific strengths. Among the shortcomings related to the foreign language textbooks the author indicates that the presentation of

content followed a Presentation, Practice, Production (PPP) approach, rather than Task-based Learning (TBL). Additionally, activities failed to promote meaningful contexts of language use based on realistic discourses.

Less optimistic results about the incorporation of current theories of foreign language curriculum in textbooks were found by Henriques (2009). The author of *An Evaluation of English as a Foreign Language Textbooks for Secondary Schools in Angola* examined two Angolan textbooks with the objective of determining the extent to which the EFL textbooks used in Angola secondary schools are based on current theories of foreign language curriculum and whether textbooks meet the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages' standards (ACTFL). The categories for the analysis of the textbooks involve: textbook overview, desired outcome, teaching procedures, meeting student needs, relevance, and type of assessments. Results lend support to the conclusion that neither of the textbooks are in accordance to current theories of foreign language curriculum and specifications by the ACTFL. Among the many recommendations, the study pinpoints the necessity of expressing the objectives of every lesson, of following an ordering of difficulty level, of ongoing need assessment, and interactions to facilitate learners' ability to communicate in English. Yet it remains, the use of communicative approaches in textbooks, more meaningful interactions, and true-to-life contexts of language use are necessary for effective language learning.

In the same vein, Criado and Sanchez (2009) verified whether the prescribed communicative methodology for teaching English as a foreign language is applied in seven textbooks used in Spain. Selection of textbooks was based on beginner level proficiency and on representativeness of the textbooks for teenagers and adults. A

checklist was designed based on analysis of communicative activity and use of language. The article provided proper guidelines based on interaction, dialogue, process of language production relevant for analyzing the communicative approach used in current textbooks. In short, the study reported that the textbooks adapted fairly well regarding the communicative nature of activities with a range of about 50-80% real communicative activities. Changes in language instruction affected language teaching materials, where both communicative and formal activities have their share in the teaching materials. The analysis of the use of communicative approach seems promising and textbooks in Spain seem to accommodate to the changes in language instruction.

Overall, studies related to the underlying methodology and language learning process and conceptions evoked in the textbooks, along with the curriculum design employed, have not been thoroughly explored in the area of English language teaching. However, most studies have been conducted to evaluate the use of communicative approach in the foreign language textbooks, rather than language learning process and curriculum design organization. Research has indicated that current textbooks have already or are in the process of aligning to communicative approach instructions. Most textbooks analyzed have shown distinct features and preferences of communicative language teaching. Nevertheless, it seems that activities failed to promote meaningful contexts of language use based on realistic discourses used in natural conversations. Moreover, students do not engage in interactions that ensure learners' opportunities to communicate in the target language. Other areas where there is a scarcity of textbook analysis is in the use of task-based design, a form-focused approach, and underlying second language acquisition theories used in textbook.

Over the last two decades, other issues rather than textbooks design and methodology have arisen, where a wide array of different genres were included in the foreign language textbook. Particularly represented in the literature are textbook studies related to the appropriateness of gender representation, of cultural inclusivity, of social issues in the foreign or second language textbooks. Indeed, as Lähdesmäki (2009) has said, the diversification of genres presented in the textbooks is the most visible trend in the last decades. This is seen in the amount of textbooks studies interested in postmodern issues specifically related to gender and intercultural awareness.

The Context of English Language Teaching in Brazil

As an emerging economy, the Brazilian society has increasingly gained interest in learning English due to the demands of a globalized world, and the prevalent use of English as a medium of communication in the sciences, business, and academic world. In Brazil, learning English has been of great value for work opportunities, for more qualified workmanship, for entering a prestigious university, and for attaining status. In the last decade, innumerable English words have been used daily such as *playground*, *feedback*, and *insight*, infiltrating the Portuguese language as it adapts to its phonological system. Consequently, a number of private English courses open every day, and in Sao Paulo alone, there were more than three thousand English institutes in 2001 (Paiva & Pagano, 2001). As Silva and Rajagopalan (2004) underscore, English has become “a very worthy commodity” in Brazil (p. 11, translation mine).

Despite the increasing awareness of the necessity of learning English for inclusion in the global and local society, different from European countries or colonies, there are few spaces where English is a necessary skill. The knowledge acquired by the Brazilian

population is actually limited to more formal use. English was, until recently, seen as “a luxury for the upper class” (Bohn, 2003, p. 159), and those who are proficient in English have been confined to those who use the language for academic purposes, for surviving in the business world, or to those who already spent some time learning the language in the United States, for example. Currently, the majority of Brazilians have limited knowledge of English, which is generally confined to restricted formulaic expressions learned in the classroom setting.

Even though currently there is considerable attention by the Brazilian government and curriculum constructors for English language learning, the public schools have struggled to introduce new ways of language instruction. Indeed, broad national guidelines have been proposed for the teaching of English, as described in the National Curriculum Parameters for Language learning, giving space for the multidimensional practices and contexts that the country comprises. Nevertheless, limited instruction is provided for the learning process, procedures, and methodologies to be used. It seems that much emphasis is given to the reading and writing of the foreign language, rather than on the communicative approach advocated by the field of English language teaching. Moreover, the focus on reading is proposed as a solution to the lack of language ability of teachers and the limited conditions for language teaching (Leffa, 1999). The next section deals with the English language education in Brazil in the first and second halves of the twentieth century, followed by EFL textbooks analysis developed in Brazil since the 1990s.

The First Half of the 20th Century

As Da Silva (2012) mentioned, “The teaching of foreign languages has alternated in moments of obligatoriness and non-obligatoriness, increase and decrease of hourly load, increase and decrease of language offered, different objectives and content” (p. 29, translation mine). During the 20th century, there were moments of increased ascension of the foreign language, but also moments of a complete decline of the subject in the curriculum. At the end of the nineteenth century, a growing interest in language teaching led to changes, where not only the teaching of modern foreign language (French, Italian, and English) received similar status as the classic languages, but more time in the curriculum was provided for learning foreign languages. Nevertheless, “the teaching of modern languages . . . gradually changed by the diverse reform that anteceded the reforms in 1931, having 47 hour classes in 1982, shrinking to 17 hours required” (Fogaça & Gimenez, 2007, p. 164, translation mine). Therefore, the beginning of the 20th century was marked by a disregard to foreign language teaching, which brought notorious attempts to reform the way language was taught in schools.

As Leffa (1999) indicates, the language instructional methodology in the classroom setting was based on translation of texts and an analysis of grammatical items, essentially focused on a traditional Grammar-Translation Method. Nonetheless, in the 1930s the Brazilian educational system went through various changes that benefited the teaching of languages. The reform known as *Francisco de Campos* transformed the instructional content and implemented an official method to language teaching – the Direct Method. The target language was used in the classroom, and the oral-based approach made lessons appealing to the senses with the use of audiovisual instruments, illustrations, objects, and role-plays in order to capture and engage students. The reform

also brought changes in the way the classes were divided, the selection of teachers, and curriculum design (Mulik, 2012). Later in 1942, the *Capanema Reform* ascribed to language teaching pedagogical procedures, aimed at a more holistic notion of education that relied on teaching students to become full citizens and to cultivate a national identity.

The reform was highly beneficial for the development of systematic procedures and pedagogical guidelines for the language teaching classroom, to a point that students could finish high school reading famous authors in the original language (Leffa, 1999). Despite the fact that some teachers were unable to implement the Direct Method adequately, Leffa argues that the *Capanema Reform* was the golden age of expansion for foreign language teaching. It is sufficient to say that the reform broke with the traditional and vicious way of teaching that relied completely on grammatical form and translations, which still prevails in several schools around the country.

The Second Half of the 20th Century

After World War II, Brazil became largely dependent on the United States. Their relationship became particularly cooperative, which eventually yielded to the teaching of English considered prestigious by educational institutions. Even so, in 1961 a new education bill was developed, called *Lei de Diretrizes e Bases da Educação* (LDB, Bill of Directions and Foundations of Education) which reduced the hours for teaching a foreign language and also left institutions to decide whether to include it in school curriculums. Therefore, the Bill of Directions and Foundations of Education determined the non-obligatory status of foreign languages, where Latin was completely removed from the curriculum, and English and French faced the loss of instructional time and advancement in the teaching of foreign languages. As Leffa (1999) pointed out,

Comparing to the Capanema reform and the LDB that follows it, the bill of 1961 is the beginning of the end of the gold years of foreign languages. Even though the bill emerged after the first artificial satellite made by the Russians, provoking a great impact in the American education and expanding the teaching of foreign language around the world, the LDB from the beginning of the 60 reduced the teaching of languages to at least 2/3 comparing to the Capanema reform. (p. 2, translation mine)

In 1971, another reform was introduced that made the educational system act in line with technical preparation of students for their professional work life. Consequently, the humanities subjects were affected and the curriculum as a whole became more scientific and technical. The reform of 1971 intensified the reduction of teaching and learning experiences of foreign languages, where the teaching of languages in the schools' curriculum was almost completely nonexistent. For the next 20 years, foreign language would be practically banned (Bohn, 2003). As a result, private language schools for English learning, emerged all over the country creating a powerful national language teaching business.

Only in 1996, with the new Bill of Directions and Foundations of Education, foreign language became required in schools' curriculum and was once more ingrained into the life of the institutions. The new directions made clear the importance of having foreign languages as part of the curriculum and conceived the principles and procedures for language learning and teaching experiences as pluralistic ideas and pedagogical conceptions. In line with this view, there was no teaching policy or prescribed methods, as each institution and its teachers would decide the pedagogical and instructional approach to language learning based on the multifaceted aspects of students' needs, circumstances, and local contexts. Since the discipline was relegated, teachers had to

reconstruct and rediscover the arsenal of teaching—learning practices and instructional methodology appropriate for students’ growth.

Currently, foreign language learning follows the guidelines proposed by the Bill of Directions and Foundations of Education in 1996, where language instruction has centered more on the role of reading texts. This Bill gives room for diverse practices and approaches to language teaching, but at the same time provides few directions about procedures, strategies, the place of grammar and meaning, and the implementation of communicative approach and language skills. In reality, there is shortage of teachers that are proficient speakers of English, and few teachers are aware of the methodologies and approaches available and how foreign language learners acquire language. As Bohn (2003) argues, “The focus in Brazilian classrooms is archaeological in terms of knowledge and learning and teleological in terms of needs. Students are not invited or allowed to enjoy the pleasures of knowledge building in the classroom” (p. 169). Hence, foreign language teaching faces many challenges that are yet to be addressed.

In this context, the textbook in Brazil has occupied a significant position in the discipline of English language teaching, as it defines the educational course and instructional framework to be used. In the year 2011, collections of English textbooks as a foreign language were chosen as reference instructional materials for public schools according to a set of parameters that dealt primarily with conceptions of language as social practice, textual genre, and a communicative framework to language learning. The program *Programa Nacional do Livro Didático* (PNLD, National Textbooks Program) was significant as it could identify more appropriately English textbooks for the public schools. Language teachers have heavily relied on textbooks as they are able to define

and organize teaching in a more accurate way. Consequently, textbooks are a site for studying the theory-in-use and changes of approaches and conceptions of language learning (Basturkam, 1999, p. 18). The following section present textbook studies conducted in Brazil from the 1990s to the present.

Brazilian Textbook Studies Since the 1990s

By the end of the 1980s the topic of textbooks in language learning attracted considerable attention from Brazilian researchers as an important element for identifying the course content, along with the understandings of the process involved in teaching and learning of English. Generally, the theoretical basis for understanding the process of acquiring a foreign language was established based on language acquisition models of Krashen (1982) and Maclaughlin (1987). Among the studies undertaken in the 1980s, M. Silva (1988) explored whether textbooks were in line with current methodological approaches to language teaching, and Nunes (1989) analyzed the adequacy of language use in the textbooks and suggested a communicative framework for the use of audiolingual and grammatical forms. Other studies, such as Nosella (1981) and Molina (1987), examined underlying ideological conceptualizations as seen in the textbooks.

In the start of the 1990s, Almeida Filho and Consolo (1990) and Almeida Filho et al. (1991) developed a major research study with the objective of identifying the process of learning English in the textbooks and the influence of textbooks in learning the target language in the public sector. The study collected various types of data, including a corpus of academic work in the area, plus field-based investigations where researchers conducted interviews, questionnaires, and recordings of classes. Along with the triangulation approach, the actual criteria for analysis of the textbooks were composed of:

(a) the history of publication; (b) the presentation of the language; (c) ideology; and (d) conception of teaching/learning of the target language (Almeida Filho et al., 1991, p. 71).

Findings of the analysis of five series of textbooks showed for the first group comprised of *English Points*, *Our Way*, *New Dynamic English*, and *Practical Course*, that they were heavily influenced by the Grammar-Translation and Audiolingualism methodological framework. In turn, the second group of textbooks which included only the *Our Turn Series*, presented characteristics of the Notional-Functional approach with a prevalent focus on grammatical forms at the center of unit content. For the first group of textbooks, learning was achieved by studying linguistic structures and rules, where exhaustive repetition and practice lead to acquiring the language. On the other hand, for the second group, learning involves a more dynamic system of communication where grammatical items are learned in specific contexts (Almeida Filho et al., 1991).

Nonetheless, “few tangible occasions exist for experiencing communication in the target language” (Almeida Filho et al., 1991, p. 90, translation mine), since the focus of attention was so often on the formal aspects of language, and by far offers teachers the exclusive tool for establishing the educational course of study. It seems that English language teaching has become automatized by a predominant reliance on linguistic forms, copying of texts, and translation activities.

One of the first theses in Brazil related to the topic of textbooks and its conceptualizations regarding the process of language learning was developed by Consolo (1990). The thesis analyzed three textbooks (*Practical English Course*, *Our Way*, *Our Turn*) that aligned to the project just mentioned above. The study explores classroom language learning dynamics and particularly its textbooks, in order to obtain important

characteristics that influence input. In short, the author mentions that teachers are not only unaware of the theoretical presuppositions proposed in the textbooks and approaches to the English language, but that textbooks are in need of quality measures. Results indicate that textbooks followed a structuralist approach where linguistic forms were the center of language learning.

In an attempt to examine both national and international textbooks, J. Santos (1993) conducted an ethnographic study to grasp textbooks' underlying notion of the process of teaching a foreign language. She reports that the textbook activities focused much attention on the input necessary for language learning, though rarely provided activities that involved real communicative contexts of language use. Similar results were found for both textbooks, where attempts were made to focus on meaningful communication. Nonetheless, the majority of content follows the audiolingual framework with an emphasis on repetition and mechanic study of linguistic forms.

Other studies emerged focusing on the analysis of conversations in the textbooks, particularly exploring the dialogue and how they conform to the communicative approach. Dalacorte (1991) and Chiaretti (1993) investigated the dialogue in various textbooks through analysis of conversation, and findings lend support to the conclusion that the dialogues do not reflect real life conversations and do not assist students in developing communicative competence, mainly attending to linguistic structures. In the same vein, Paiva and Chiaretti (1998) examined the textuality of three textbooks, especially the elements of coherence and cohesion in the dialogues based on discursive parameters. They developed a corpus of genres used in the textbooks and presented enlightening inadequacies, but also positive aspects of the textbooks. For textbook

writers, the analysis brought insights to the development of dialogue, with examples of lack of contextualization, closing and openings of dialogues, and responses and interjections.

As it can be observed, during the 1990s textbook analysis pinpointed conceptualizations about the process of learning and whether the communicative principles are the basis of textbook construction. The investigations had special interest on dialogues, analyzing the communicative functions of conversations, along with genre textual inquiry. Overall, textbook analysis revealed the predominance of grammatical structures as the focus of course unit. From that next decade to present, the study of textbooks has multiplied and various topics have been emphasized, as diverse as gender analysis, culture analysis, textual genre analysis, and the investigation of didactic dialogues, which are the foci of the following subsections.

Gender Analysis

Studies in the last decade have shown interest in the ideological aspects and beliefs represented in the textbooks. In this sense, Oliveira (2008) developed a comprehensive investigation of 28 foreign language textbooks of French and English teaching to explore the presence of gender stereotypes in visual texts used in public schools in Brazil. Following a qualitative methodology, findings supported the conclusion that the textbooks had a stereotypical view of women and that a conservative notion of gender is portrayed. In short, women are represented as having inferior intellectual ability and level of scholarly achievement than men. Women are also restricted to the setting of the house, while men are depicted as professionals and having wise and knowledgeable identities. Furthermore, Pereira (2009) examined the way gender

differences are portrayed in the EFL textbooks, based on interviews, classroom observations in public schools, and principles from Critical Discursive Analysis (CDA). Results of analysis indicate that the representation of gender in the textbooks relies on a conservative perception of men and women, where preconceived and sexist ideas characterized the notions related to sex and gender. The studies advocate the need of developing textbooks in line with the prevailing society, where women have a more active role in the workplace and society as a whole.

Cultural Analysis

Lately, there has been a great interest in analyzing aspects of culture and intercultural awareness in textbooks worldwide. The realities of globalization and the increasing flow of students, ideas, and inter-cultural business, increased the significance of being aware of other cultures and languages. The connection between integration to the culture and learning language is uniquely interconnected. As Almeida Filho (2002) underlines, “A culture controls the great majority of attitudes, behaviors, representations and the customary ways of speakers of a language” (p. 213, translation mine). Therefore, understanding culture is important for developing communicative competence and pragmatic knowledge of the language.

Through qualitative and quantitative analysis of content, Dias (2006) explored elements of culture in three English textbooks. The quantitative analysis assisted in the identification of cultural elements used in the three textbooks, and the qualitative analysis based on Byram’s (1989) framework helped understand how cultural elements are incorporated into textbook activities. Dias found that there is a preoccupation in comparing the target language culture with the first language culture, and in showing

different life aspects and perceptions from other cultures. Nevertheless, findings indicated that there were prevalent cultural notions from Britain, and a need of exploring topics related to arts, literature, philosophy, and movies in the units of the textbooks.

In the same vein, Da Silva's (2012) research aims at investigating the cultural aspects in one of the collections of English textbooks attending to the criterion developed by the *Programa Nacional do Livro Didático* (National Program of Textbooks). The study made use of quantitative procedures to evaluate the content and propositions made by the textbook, but the research was primarily qualitative and based on Cortazzi and Jin's (1999) representation of cultural differences and Byram's (1997) guidelines related to intercultural competencies. Overall, findings reported that the national culture portrayed in textbooks lacks foreign exploration of cultures. There is "a sociocultural neutrality in the description of the character as well as in discussions of cultural topics, and a tendency to minimize or ignore the differences and possible conflicts that occur through intercultural encounter" (Da Silva, 2012, pp. 113-114, translation mine). According to both authors more intentional effort must be made in the textbooks in order to create a deeper understanding of intercultural and cultural aspects of other English speaking foreign countries.

Textual Genres Analysis

A great emphasis on English language teaching is given in helping students produce oral and written textual genres. In this sense, official documents related to the teaching of English as a foreign language have particularly underlined the role of genre and the communicative abilities related to the production of writing. Investigating the use of genres and types of activities proposed by English foreign language textbooks, Araújo

(2006) developed both qualitative and quantitative research. The theoretical frame of reference as guided by Larsen-Freeman and Long's (1991) and a genre textual framework. Two textbooks were selected from private schools in Belém, where the development of a corpus and classroom observations in a continuous collection of quantitative and qualitative analysis were accomplished.

Findings indicated that textbooks writers used multiple types of genres and developed important topics for students' learning. However, the way genre was presented could better develop students' reading and writing comprehension and conditions for producing genres. The study also reports that multiple choices and Wh-questions are the most used activities, "which are activities that offer few opportunities for the interpretation of the text and for negotiation of the meaning and construction of new meaning" (Araújo, 2006, p. 137, translation mine). Thus, more attention is required for the teaching of reading and writing strategies and the conditions in which the genres are produced. Similarly, Paulino's (2009) study investigated how textual genres were explored in the English textbooks *New Ace* (Amos & Prescher, 2006) and *Connect* (Rose, Fatureto, & Sekiya, 2006). Qualitative research was employed for gathering and analyzing data, based on textual gender framework. Consistent with Araújo's (2006) findings, the conditions and functions of genres used in the textbooks were not closely examined, giving few conditions for students to acknowledge the production of genres in communicative situations.

To evaluate some collections of English textbooks that were selected by the National Textbooks Program, Tenuta and Oliveira (2011) relied on principles of Textual Gender and the new Literacy Theory developed in language teaching. The categories

examined in the textbooks relate to: (a) how the textbooks enable students to be producers of texts; (b) how the process approach is applied in the textbooks; and (c) whether divergent genres are utilized in the classroom. Findings lend support to the conclusion that even though the textbooks proposed by the National Textbooks Program draw activities on various textual genres, they rarely specify the conditions in which the text is used for a particular genre. The textbook content has a tendency to focus on isolated lexical items, along with fragmented and decontextualized texts giving few indications of real-life communication. Moreover, the authors claim that more opportunities for a writing process approach need to be implemented in the classroom, where students work with the various stages of the writing process and develop skills to automate writing production in the target language.

Therefore, there seems to be in the English textbooks in Brazil a marked focus on genres and learning of writing, where less attention is conferred to the oral capabilities and strategies for communicating meaningfully in contexts of use. Furthermore, the studies indicate that textbooks writers design lessons with a focus on writing and genre, but failed to explore the conditions and functions of the genres. Future studies can be conducted to explore the conversations of the different types of genres, and how a focus on writing creates conditions for increased communicative competence.

Didactic Dialogues

Besides the fact that textbook analysis in Brazil has studied how genre is developed in the units of content, a great deal of attention has been paid to the analysis of didactic dialogues, which are seen as central elements in developing students' oral communicative abilities and authentic interactions within the target language. Analyzing

English textbooks' pragmatic and communicative content of didactic dialogues of six national textbook collections, Costa (2004) found in his corpus that various elements of natural communication of the target language were incorporated in the dialogues. Elements related to the indication of thoughts in comic strips, signs of surprise, emotion and wonder. Various speech turns, marks of orality, and informal speech were also incorporated. This suggests that, different from the dialogues of the 1990s, dialogue has been produced to enhance communicative capabilities, and stimulate real conversational patterns. In the article *Os diálogos, os livros didáticos de inglês e novas perspectivas* [The dialogue, the English textbooks, and new perspectives for the learning/teaching of languages], Nascimento (2012) indicates that the dialogues in the textbooks have given more autonomy to students as they incorporate natural aspects of the target language, and enhance language learners' communicative competence.

English textbooks are an important instructional guide especially in the context of EFL, where teachers are not themselves fluent English speakers. As Coracini (2011) underscores, the textbooks are seen as unquestionable resources for learning the foreign language, and central in defining the course and instructional framework. During the 1990s, the main focus of textbook analysis was the communicative functions of conversations, along with genre textual inquiry. Currently, English textbook analysis extends to study various topics related to gender analysis, cultural analysis, didactic analysis, and textual genre analysis. Although didactic dialogue studies show that more communicative abilities and real conversational elements are incorporated into the dialogues, at the same time, genre analysis indicates that a prevalent focus of the textbooks is on the production of written genres. Hence, more studies need to be

conducted to help students understand the functions and constructions of genre for particular social circumstances. Also, attention must be given to oral communicative competence, and the teaching of strategies in all four skills necessary for enhancing self-regulated students of English.

Even though learning in the textbooks focuses on production of oral and written genres with special emphasis on writing competency, future studies must be conducted to explore real world conversations in the different genres, and how a focus on writing creates conditions for increasing communicative competence. Research can be conducted to identify the strategies for helping students to communicate meaningfully in contexts of use and to reproduce the conditions that genres are produced.

With regard to the way females are portrayed in ESL/EFL textbooks, further studies need to be undertaken to identify how women are represented to create change in gender representation and equality. Cultural textbook analysis can also increase the understanding of how the native and non-native speakers are portrayed and how intercultural integration can expand.

Although research has indicated that current textbooks have already, or are in the process of aligning to a communicative approach, most textbooks analyses show distinct features of communicative language teaching. Researchers, therefore, are less aware of curriculum design and language learning processes incorporated in the textbook. Accordingly, valuable notions will be formulated if the underlying methodological basis and language learning concepts are thoroughly explored, which is the aim of the present research.

Summary

Designing a language course is a difficult undertaking that involves various components and conceptualizations as part of the curriculum design process. As Nation and Macalister (2010) propose, the curriculum design involves considering the environment, needs, principles, goals, content, sequencing, format and presentation of material, along with monitoring and assessment of the learning outcome. These overarching components for developing the language curriculum more thoroughly give guidelines for establishing the textbook curriculum design, and are relevant for the quality of the textbooks and language learning development. They also serve as a basis for analysis of the curriculum design of English language textbooks used in Brazil.

Another important element of language curriculum development is the role of methods and approaches to second language teaching. Several changes have bypassed the area contributing to various pedagogical and conceptual developments, and instructional methodology innovations in the curriculum. Some methods of language teaching have expanded and transformed; others have been absorbed. In general, the conceptions of methodology as defining the nature of learning and teaching, the content, practices, and activities types, have been regenerated. With the changes in thinking in the field, the notion of approach becomes more suitable to deal with the multidimensional circumstances of language use, classroom dynamics, and student needs. Consequently, the Communicative Language Teaching and Task-Based Language Teaching approaches are widely recommended and employed to enhance L2 acquisition, as learning is ensured through social interactions and use of the second and foreign language for practical communication.

Related to the notion of methods and approaches in English Language Teaching is the organization of language syllabus design, taking into consideration the content, activity types, and the overarching structure of the course. A number of syllabus designs have been proposed: Structural syllabus, Functional-Notional Syllabus, Process Syllabus, Procedural Syllabus, and Task-Based Syllabus. Although Communicative Language Teaching instructions are incorporated into the language syllabus, the task syllabus, as a strong type of Communicative approach, has been advocated for language teaching research and materials developers. Nevertheless, the inclusion of the task approach is seen less in foreign language textbooks, and materials developers have given little information of how tasks are being incorporated to the language course. Moreover, textbooks writers have relied on more than one foreign syllabus design for the organization of language, course content, and activity type. Currently, textbooks appear to infuse types of communicative language practices and more awareness exists in developing procedural, process-based, analytic, and task design syllabi.

Furthermore, general principles presented for material development and evaluation, drawing from observations of practice, intuitions, and theoretical perspectives on language learning provide guidelines and specifications on how instruction can best facilitate language learning. These sets of principles and processes identify important instructional practices that inform textbook writers exactly how language teaching and course design can more adequately maximize language learning. Essentially, these principles show that input, output, interactions, use of language that ensures communicative purposes, and opportunities for self-investment, are necessary for language development.

Finally, research on ESL/EFL textbooks analysis reveals that studies related to the underlying methodology, language learning processes, and aspects of curriculum design have not been thoroughly explored in the area of English language teaching. It seems that more studies have been conducted to evaluate the use of the communicative approach in the foreign language textbooks, rather than curriculum design and language learning processes evoked in the textbooks. Research has indicated that current textbooks have already or are in the process of aligning to communicative approach instructions. Most textbooks analyzed by research have shown distinct features of communicative language teaching, but also elements of other methodologies. There are mixed results related to the development of dialogues based on natural spoken data. At times research points out that dialogues are based on natural conversation, but at others activities seemed to fail to develop spontaneous conversations. Also, studies reveal the need for textbook writers to promote interactions, avenues for negotiation of meaning, and production of language in communications. Moreover, there is scarcity of textbook research on the use of task-based design, PPP approach, form-focused approach, and underlying theoretical basis of second language acquisition in textbook design.

Over the last two decades, others issues rather than textbook design and methodology have arisen, where a wide array of different genres are to be included in the foreign language textbook. Particularly represented in the literature are textbook studies related to the use of the appropriateness of gender representation, of cultural appropriateness, and social issues in the foreign or second language textbooks. In Brazil, textbook analyses seemed particularly interested in postmodern topics related to the integration of gender and intercultural awareness in textbooks, with particular attention

given to the nature and use of genre. Nevertheless, due to the scarcity of studies concerned over curriculum design, and language learning processes, the present research pursuit to analyze these aspects more throughout in EFL Brazilian textbook.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The objective of this study is to investigate to what extent Brazilian textbooks are incorporating effective curriculum design and language learning processes. The present textbook evaluation takes into account the strengths, weaknesses, and changes necessary for the Brazilian EFL textbooks. For this purpose, the third chapter describes the literature on textbook evaluative checklists, instrumentation, materials, procedures and data analysis undertaken.

Literature on Textbook Evaluation Checklists

The textbook is the most essential resource for ESL/EFL programs, because it is able to define the content and teaching/learning activities that will benefit teachers and students. As Sheldon (1988) points out, “Coursebooks are perceived by many to be the route map of any ELT program, laying bare its shape, structure, and destination, with progress, programme, and even teacher quality being assessed by learners in terms of sequential, unit-by-unit coverage” (p. 238). Although the post-method era advocates more localized textbook design where teachers themselves have autonomy to shape their own syllabus and instruction, EFL contexts heavily define the learning process by the use of the textbook. As Soori et al. (2011) indicate, the reality of EFL classroom life shows

that teachers do not have the time and support to design the course for specific situations and students' needs.

In turn, regardless of the shortcomings and its unbridled commercial industry, the textbook provides useful materials for learners and teachers serving as the syllabus, ready-made texts and tasks that ensures accountability, and credibility of the teaching/learning enterprise for parents and students. As a matter of fact, learners seemed to be only able to approach their learning seriously if teachers ground their teaching on textbooks (Ansary & Babaii, 2002). Hence, the textbook should be chosen judiciously by the requirements of local conditions. During the last two decades, language scholars and curriculum designers have substantially investigated evaluative criteria for helping teachers define and select appropriate textbooks. The area of textbook evaluation has grown exponentially during these last decades providing several “checklists based on which a book could be analyzed in detail in order to assure its usefulness and practicality with such factors as proficiency level of students, learners' needs, course objectives, gender, and many other contextual factors” (Sarem, Hamidi, & Mahmoudie, 2013, p. 373).

Textbook evaluation research provides teachers with valuable information to guide the textbook decision-making process and helps them familiarize with its weaknesses and strengths to improve various aspects of the teaching program. In order to develop these aims, several checklists have been generated that cater to general characteristics and criteria for teachers to reflect about the quality of the textbooks and its use for particular teaching/learning contexts. According to Mukundan et al. (2011), a “checklist is an instrument that helps practitioners in English Language Teaching (ELT)

evaluate language teaching materials. . . . It allows a more sophisticated evaluation of the textbook in reference to a set of generalizable evaluative criteria” (p. 21). Scriven (2005) pinpoints a common feature of all checklists—that of being a mnemonic device which can, in a systematic way, evaluate the merit, worth, etc., of complex entities. Through the evaluative checklist, teachers can base their decisions on detailed and systematic examination of the textbooks, rather than impressionistic assessments (Ellis, 1997).

Innumerable textbook evaluation checklists and guidelines are available for teachers and textbook designers to more accurately define the material used in the ESL/EFL classroom (e.g., Daoud & Celce-Murcia, 1979; Littlejohn, 1996; Miekley, 2005; Rahimy, 2007; Sheldon, 1988; Skierso, 1991; Ur, 1996). Most checklists have similar criteria and provide guidelines in two general categories: general attributes and learning and teaching content (Mukundan et al., 2011). Overall, the checklist deals with how materials are presented, its suitability to students, how syllabi and curriculum are constructed, and the way methodology, language skills, and functions are presented.

Byrd’s (2001) checklist, for instance, specifies whether the thematic content and activities in the textbook are reviewed in other contexts. In the same way, Sheldon’s (1988) expansive checklist helps the teacher and textbook designer distinguish how content was selected and graded, along with criteria to evaluate how stimulus, practices, and revision are developed. Furthermore, Miekley (2005) provides a whole section for the evaluation of the teacher’s manual, and Ansary and Babaii (2002) locate broad and universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks through analysis of several textbook checklists and reviews.

These earlier researchers called the attention of teachers and textbook writers to checklists dependent on the swing of the theoretical pendulum and its time (cf. Sheldon, 1988, p. 240). For example, today, less emphasis is given to findings of contrastive analysis of English and L1 sound systems and mechanical drills (Williams, 1983). Even so, the study of textbook evaluation has produced a vast amount of literature and well-established checklists. These checklists offer teachers and textbook writers with a generalizable and objective framework that defines essential features to look for to optimize the assessment of textbooks.

Instrumentation

In the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), three types of material evaluations are prominent: impressionistic, formal and systematic, and a process approach (Chambers, 1997; Ellis, 1997; Hemsley, 1997). Certainly all types of material evaluations involve a matter of judging the suitability of the material. Even so, the process and systematic approach analyzes the textbook in a systematic and definite way. The impressionistic approach relies on researchers impressions of materials and textbooks, and “working entirely intuitively has its drawbacks. Intuition is not explicit. Often it is difficult to explain to others, and therefore difficult to defend” (Chambers, 1997, pp. 30-31). On the other hand, the process approach combines a predictive evaluation of materials along with post-use evaluation, and the systematic evaluation uses available textbook evaluation checklists.

The most widely used instruments for analyzing textbooks are evaluation checklists and a number of checklists have been constructed by scholars around the world. Consequently, the checklist must be tailored to the needs of a specific setting

because “textbook criteria are emphatically local” (Sheldon, 1988, p. 241). For the aim of analyzing the extent Brazilian textbooks employ aspects of effective curriculum design and language learning processes, a checklist was created by adapting items and components from several other checklists.

In this process, several aspects were taken in consideration to produce the checklist. First, previous checklists were examined and the most prominent features from Sheldon (1988), Mukundan et al. (2011), and Rahimpour and Hashemi (2011) checklist were adapted. For the checklist items that dealt with aspects of curriculum design, Nation and Macalister’s (2010) language curriculum design components were incorporated into the checklist (see Table 1). Their curriculum design comprises eight components: (a) considering the environment, (b) discovering needs, (c) following principles, (d) goals, (e) content and sequencing, (f) format and presenting material, (g) monitoring and assessing, and (h) evaluation. For this study’s checklist the components used correspond to: considering the environment, discovering needs, following principles, goals, format and presenting material, and monitoring and assessing. The content and sequencing component were not explored due to its similarity to the format and presentation of material. In the case of the textbooks, the format already provides information about the sequence and organization of content, such that if the format is linear the presentation of content will not be constantly recycled and repeated throughout the units. Also, the component for evaluation was not analyzed because the evaluation concerns the learning outcome of a particular course. The evaluation involves estimating the worth of a course, and the other components already provided with aspects of evaluation for the purpose of this study.

Table 1

Alignment of the Theoretical Component With the Checklist Items

Theoretical Basis	Element (Aspects)	Checklist Items
Nation and Macalister's (2010) language curriculum design components	Considering the environment	The textbook designer took into consideration the level of students' proficiency in every unit.
	Discovering needs	The textbook is compatible with age appropriate topics and interests of the learners.
	Following principles	The activities are well-designed in allegiance with appropriate instructional methodologies.
	Goals	The objectives are spelled out in the introduction part and the material align goals, instruction, and assessment.
	Content and sequencing	Not included in this study
	Format and presenting material	The content in the units are constantly being recycled and repeated, through either a linear, modular or cyclical format.
	Monitoring and assessing	In every unit there are opportunities for assessment.
	Evaluation	Not included in this study
Tomlinson (2003, 2010, 2011) and Ellis (2014) language learning principles	Listening	There is a discernible system at work in the presentation of listening activities, where students recognize and understand the linguistic structures.
	Speaking	Speaking activities promote the development of fluent, accurate, appropriate, and authentic language.
	Reading	The reading texts and activities are organized based on authentic contexts in a way that learners become familiarized with words and text structure.
	Writing	The writing activities aligned to the material worked with in the unit, and students write based on guided instruction.
	Grammar	The grammar activities focus on form and meaning in contextualized communicative events.

The checklist items related to the language learning processes, corresponds to the items: listening, speaking, reading, writing, and grammar. They were developed based on Tomlinson (2003, 2010, 2011) and Ellis's (2014) language learning principles (see Table 1). Tomlinson proposed a principled approach based on his extensive experience teaching English, researching language acquisition, and developing language learning materials. The principled approach propose a list of effective principles for language learning to serve as guidelines for materials developers. Similarly, Ellis derives the general principles for language learning from his vast experience and understanding of second language acquisition and learning; particularly, from the computational model of second language learning. The checklist items and criteria related to language learning have elements that are established by the CLT approach. Although many different meanings and interpretations have been proposed to define the CLT approach, the elements related in the checklist items and criteria to language learning represent aspects of the approach and provides an integrative way for the evaluation. The development of a checklist based on Sheldon (1988), Mukundan et al. (2011), and Rahimpour and Hashemi (2011) was selected because of its reliability and validity procedures. Sheldon's (1988) checklist provides a practical and concise instrument, along with criteria that can be adapted to localized conditions. The checklist is not only based on impressionist judgment, but relies on a range of sources, such as administrators, educational advisers, reviewers, teachers, and learners. Similarly, relying on relevant theory by Messick (1994), Mukundan et al. (2011) developed a checklist that considered the purpose of evaluation, the students, and contextualized tasks. They reviewed previous instruments to ensure construct validity and

reliability. Furthermore, Rahimpour and Hashemi (2011) administered a pilot study of their checklist to ensure practicality and clarity of items. Those authors scrutinized several checklists and questionnaires in the literature to select relevant items, providing a useful and valid checklist.

Once the checklist items for this study were developed, two criteria for each checklist item were developed. The two criteria allowed me to analyze more specifically the language learning process and curriculum design use by textbook writers, where both criteria should be contemplated to obtain a satisfactory or good evaluation of the item. For example, one of my checklist items—the textbook designer took into consideration the level of students' proficiency in every unit—has to comply with two criteria. First, the activities require vocabulary that was presented in the unit; and second, students are prepared and able to cope with what is assigned based on previous instruction. The criteria were developed based on Tomlinson (2003, 2010, 2011), Ellis (2014), and Nation and Macalister (2010). In order to show the level of satisfaction with the components of the textbook, each item of the checklist is scaled along a 3-point Likert Scale from 0 to 2 (*Poor*=0; *Satisfactory*=1; *Good*=2), indicating the summative value of each item (Soori et al., 2011).

The checklist developed for this study guided the evaluation procedures and examination of the textbooks (see checklist in Appendix A). Initially I developed a draft checklist based on established checklists which had been developed, tested and used by published scholars in the field of second language learning (Mukundan et al., 2011; Rahimpour & Hashemi, 2011; Sheldon, 1988). Relying on these scholars helped maximize the content validity of the checklist. To acquire an initial estimate of the

content validity of my draft checklist, two experts from Andrews University in the area of ESL examined the appropriateness of content and items of the checklists. Based on their remarks, minor editorial changes were made to enhance clarity of some items. Also, recommendations were made to remove a few repetitive items. Next, I worked closely with committee member Dr. Julia Kim in the further development and refinement of the checklist. Over a period of approximately 3 months, we re-wrote the checklist to create successively more sophisticated and usable versions.

Materials

The study examined two textbooks corresponding to the *Links: English for Teens* and *Keep in Mind* collections, currently in use by Brazilian public schools. The textbooks were developed for sixth-grade elementary level, which is usually the first time students come into contact with the foreign language. These EFL textbooks were among the textbooks identified by the Programa Nacional do Livro Didático (PNLD, National Textbooks Program) as reference instructional materials for all public schools in Brazil. Since 2011, the Ministry of Education in Brazil has evaluated the functionality and accuracy of the curriculum according to a set of parameters, to which both collections were deemed appropriate to be employed in the public school.

Both textbooks are widely used by learners in the elementary level in Brazil. Based on my personal knowledge of the Brazilian context and my professional training in EFL, I considered them typical of the government-approved textbooks and therefore suitable to serve as the corpus of the present study. The materials are from national publishing houses, which makes it possible for them to be more aligned to the local needs and contexts of learners. The textbooks used for the study are described below.

The collection *Keep in Mind* for Grade 6 is published in Brazil by Scipione publishing house. The authors are Elizabeth Young Chin and Maria Lucia Zaorob (2012), and the textbook analyzed in this collection is designed for beginner students. It contains 192 pages divided into 16 units. Every unit is composed of a definite sequence:

1. Presentation
2. Focus on vocabulary
3. Let's practice
4. Focus on grammar
5. Let's practice
6. Let's listen
7. Let's talk
9. Let's read
10. Let's write
11. Extra activities.

This sequence is used throughout the lesson units, and the only variations are in the acts 6-10 in which a different sequence is given at times. The textbook also includes one lesson related to a thematic unit and English across the curriculum. At the end of the textbook, the material provides a word list and a CD with a track list for students to identify the listening and presentation of vocabulary.

The second textbook, *Links: English for Teens*, is written by Denise Santos and Amadeu Marques (2011). The textbook is published by Ática publishing house, and is designed for beginner students. For Grade 6, the textbook contains one 136 pages divided in 10 units. The units are composed by the following pattern:

1. Let's read!
2. Let's listen!
3. Let's speak!
4. Grammar in action
5. Grammar notes
6. Words in action
7. Let's write!
9. Let's play!
10. Let's stop and think!

The sequence is used throughout the lesson units, and an additional emphasis in each unit is given to transversal themes. The transversal themes deal with cultural plurality, citizenship, ethics, multiculturalism, the English language around the world, work and society; as well as health, culture, and social stereotypes. Moreover, in every unit, the lesson is organized to contemplate three macro aspects: grammar, vocabulary, and communication, to particularly build these three language skills on English foreign language learners. The end of the textbook includes a workbook, a glossary, extra readings, a bibliography, and a CD for the students to practice speaking and listening skills. Hence, the textbooks serve as the corpus of analysis of the curriculum design and learning processes.

Data Analysis

By taking into account the literature, the teaching/learning context in Brazil, and the checklists, the researcher developed a global and detailed evaluation of the textbook based on qualitative content analysis. Although content analysis has often been associated

with quantitative research, it “has recently become closely associated with qualitative research” (Dornyei, 2007, p. 245). Not only does evaluation utilize the checklist to guide textbook analysis, but each content in the units can provide qualitative categories that can be rearticulated and resignified based on the evaluative factors of the checklist. Content analysis relates to “making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of messages” (Holsti, 1969, p. 14). In this process, qualitative categories are not preordained, but derived inductively by a cycle of data analysis of the text and content (Dornyei, 2007; see also Creswell, 2013).

Holsti (1969) states that “qualitative method of content analysis is insightful, whereas quantitative method of content analysis is mechanical” (p. 11). Therefore, content analysis can provide insights to the effects that the textbook have on users’ language proficiency and the extent to which changes and improvements are necessary in the Brazilian EFL textbooks analyzed. Content analysis provides spaces for going beyond an open-ended format complying with yes and no answers, exploring more thoroughly the process of language learning evoked in the textbooks, the organization, and the choices of textbook writers. In order to make visible my thinking process in the development of the analysis, orientations about the evaluation are presented. The analysis of the textbooks began by exploring the first checklist item for each unit of the textbook. In other words, for each textbook the first stage was to analyze the criteria for each checklist item in every one of the units.

The analysis of all the units for each checklist item involves a meticulous attention to each section of the units, in a process of going back and forth and comparing the units and the criteria. After all the units were analyzed, the researcher went back to

the first unit, along with the notes for unit 1, and review the evaluation to be able to write appropriately. In all checklist items this process is undertaken. Thus, the checklist ensures that the analysis could be undertaken by evaluating the units through the criteria established in the checklist. The process of going back and forth into the unit, and evaluating the notes observed, creates the ability to develop inferences and identify the results.

Summary

The field of ELT has a growing focus on the area of textbook evaluation, providing teachers and material developers a guide for the assessment and decision-making process of textbooks selection. Several checklists exist for the investigation of the quality of content and how the curriculum should be constructed. For the present study a checklist was created by adapting items and components from other checklists. Nation and Macalister's (2010) language curriculum design components were incorporated into the checklist components. Furthermore, aspects of the checklist related to the language learning process were based on Tomlinson (2003, 2010, 2011) and Ellis (2014). Features from Sheldon (1988), Mukundan et al. (2011), and Rahimpour and Hashemi (2011) were adapted to create checklist items. They made me aware of the importance of having two main sections in a checklist: general attributes and learning/teaching items. Several insights were provided relating to grammar, students' interest, and recycling of information questions. Hence, the checklist for this study was developed based on several checklists from the literature to guide the evaluation procedures and examination of the textbooks.

The textbooks chosen for the study are widely used by Brazilian public schools. The two sixth-grade textbooks—*Links: English for Teens* and *Keep in Mind* collections—are developed by national publishing houses and allow most students to come into contact with a foreign language for the first time. The textbooks were analyzed based on QCA, where a cycle of analysis of the text and content is developed (Dornyei, 2007; see also Creswell, 2013). The analysis followed a pattern that began by exploring the first checklist item for each unit of the textbook. In other words, for each textbook the first stage was to analyze the criteria for each checklist item in every one of the units. The examination involves a process of going back and forth and comparing the units and the criteria. In the second stage, when all the units are analyzed, the researcher goes back to the first unit, along with the notes for Unit 1, and reviews the evaluation to be able to obtain effective results.

Therefore, the checklist developed for this study allowed the researcher to undertake a more effective evaluation (based on QCA) of the curriculum design and language learning processes evoked in the textbook.

CHAPTER 4

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF *LINKS*

Introduction

The objective of this study was to investigate to what extent Brazilian textbooks take into account language curriculum design and English language learning processes. The following textbook evaluations and analyses pinpoint the strengths/weakness and changes necessary for the Brazilian EFL textbooks. For this purpose, the fourth chapter describes and analyzes the first textbook *Links: English for Teens*. To guide the analysis of the EFL textbooks, a checklist outlines the essential features of language curriculum design and language learning processes. A merit score is assigned for each checklist item numerically rated from 0 to 2 (*Poor*=0; *Satisfactory*=1; *Good*=2). Each checklist item had two criteria that must be fulfilled in order to receive a Satisfactory or Good evaluation. All the units of the textbooks were analyzed for each item of the checklist, and the required criteria were scrutinized to observe whether both criteria are considered.

Analysis of *Links: English for Teens* Textbook

The textbook *Links: English for Teens* for the sixth grade has 10 units, and each unit emphasizes grammar, vocabulary, and communication. The study of the sixth-grade textbook is probably the first experience students have learning English, since generally schools do not teach English in primary school. Thus, textbook writers have ahead of

them the task of introducing the English language in a way that is easy to understand and implemented smoothly.

As I have indicated in the previous chapter (see Table 1), the checklist guided the analysis by providing a statement (see the numbered statements in italics below) to be explored in each aspect investigated in the textbook. The environment was the first aspect to be considered.

Considering the Environment

1. *The textbook designer took into consideration the level of students' proficiency in every unit.*

Textbook writers must have in mind the overall course setting to design appropriate curriculum content. Nation and Macalister (2010) point out that several environmental aspects are to be taken in consideration, in particular the extent the English level in the textbook activities are adequate for students. Through examination of the vocabulary and content in each unit, it was clear that the language was simplified, authentic, and made easy for students to understand. The authors often showcased several character dialogues and comic strips, to help students read and speak at an adequate pace. Various resources in the textbook such as pictures, illustrations, games, and active participation, make it easy for students to assimilate the language. Nevertheless, when it comes to evaluating whether students are prepared to cope with what is assigned based on previous instruction, activities seemed to require more vocabulary than students were prepared to process. Five units relating to the section *Let's Listen!* have listening activities where students are expected to grasp particular features without previously focusing on these linguistic forms. Students are unable to cope with the activity because

they possess neither knowledge of the language forms expected for the activity, nor a sufficient level of proficiency for the level of difficulty presented in the tasks.

For instance, Unit 4 presents vocabulary related to family matters. The unit begins with a reading section that presents the names for family members (e.g., father, mother, brother) and a small description about a brother and sister (see Appendix B, p. 210). The description involves an adjective that describes them, information about their age and favorite sport. What follows is a listening activity where students listen to a CD and number the pictures related to the family members. The vocabulary in this unit involves family, professions, and adjectives that students were not prepared to comprehend, as they have not yet worked with professions (firefighter, web designer, student, lifeguard, and singer) and adjectives (very bright, super). Students listen to small descriptions such as, “Who is that firefighter? That is my father. Yes, sir. David Water is my father and I love him so much.” The vocabulary introduced in the reading section pinpoints only the names for family members, not connecting with the professions to allow students to analyze the input from the listening activity. Thus, vocabulary activities that are presented in the unit are not based on what is assigned in previous instruction.

Units 5, 7, 8, and 9 provide listening activities that require more knowledge than students are prepared for, hindering their ability to learn effectively. This can be illustrated using unit eight, which presents various types of locations (e.g., shopping, monuments, park, museum). The listening activity that follows have students listen and mark “True” or “False” next to the sentences. The listening activities focus on information about capitals and states, along with things you can do in London. Students listen to a text that involves many words that they are not introduced to, such as “the state

of Londrina,” “the North and South of Brazil,” “wind surfing,” “beach,” “river,” and “winter.” Furthermore, the text is quite long for students to follow and the introductory section presents topics that do not aid students in preparing for subsequent comprehension of input (see Appendix B, p. 211).

Units 5, 7, and 9 have similar weaknesses, in which students listen to spoken text that is considered difficult for their level of proficiency. There are also occurrences of readings that are so long that students lose interest and cannot pay attention to the linguistic features. The evaluation of the textbook’s units shows that the section *Let’s read!* in Unit 5 and 9 does not take into consideration students’ level of proficiency. For instance, Unit 5 presents an interview from a community newsletter, and while it may be a suitable idea to present students to newspaper genre, the text is long and there is no resource to direct learners’ attention to the linguistic code. The text is about an IT center for the community referring to the type of project, the sponsors and location of the center. The text has many linguistic features that students have not yet encountered, such as “sponsors,” “skills,” “donate,” “huge success,” “machines,” “supermarket,” and other unknown words.

This introductory activity neither works with the vocabulary in the unit to eventually acquire them. The learning activities that follow the text relates to helping students understand the professions in the target language, whereas the reading text relates to a specific area. There are 18 professions that students should listen to and repeat the vocabulary, yet students are not prepared to grasp the topic based on previous instruction.

Another section *Words in action* in Units 1 and 2 presents activities for which students are unable to cope, because they require vocabulary that was not considered in the unit. This is the case, for example, in Unit 2, where students listen and write the names of classroom objects. Learners are hearing about some objects for the first time, such as notebook, glue, book, and ruler, which have not been covered previously in the unit. Students are asked to write the names of the objects without being introduced to them. In a similar way, the section *Let's read!* has two units that do not consider the required content that is the focus on the unit. Conversely, the section *Let's listen!* needs more work, as five sections lack the appropriate concern for students' level of proficiency. The section *Let's listen!* is scaled as poor. Other sections such as *Let's play!*, *Let's stop and think!*, *Let's write!*, *Grammar in action*, and *Let's speak!* are considered good.

Although the textbook has units that are satisfactory, more than five unit sections have poorly designed activities. These units do not reflect both criteria established by the checklist, that is, they do not correspond to vocabulary activities presented in the unit and the instruction does not prepare students for what is assigned. Since half the sections for *Let's listen!* and other sections such as *Let's read!* and *Words in action* require linguistic features that students are not prepared to understand based on previous instruction, the checklist item *Considering the Environment* receives a merit score of *Poor*.

Discovering Interests

2. *The textbook is compatible with age appropriate topics and interests of the learners.*

The textbook clearly pursues focus on age-appropriate topics and interests of students by presenting curriculum content and instruction that is contextualized, and by relying on engaging activities. As an English textbook used by beginner students, the author's emphasis on topics related to greetings, asking about age, color, alphabet, family, and professions, provides vocabulary and communicative competence that is most useful when approaching English speakers. In this process of choosing what is most of value in promoting English competency, topics related to greetings (e.g., good morning, good afternoon, good bye) and animals were disregarded. However, the textbook does explore topics of interest for students related to personalities (e.g., celebrities) in units five and seven - particularly personalities from Brazil and the United States; sports (Unit 2, Unit 4, and Unit 7); movies (Unit 5 and Unit 7); and interesting places (Unit 8 and Unit 9). There are fun activities like creating a character (Unit 2), playing games (Unit 1), Bingo (Unit 4), Battleship (Unit 3), word hunts (Unit 5), finding items (Unit 8), and spotting differences (Unit 9).

The textbook appropriately incorporates activities related to cyber communication—for example, where individuals correspond with one another over the Internet using emotion symbols and chat interfaces. This enables students to explore the English language in a way that is commonly encountered on the internet. Utilizing content like this works within the students' natural habitat and brings the outside world into the classroom.

Overall, the units in the textbook are designed with a great deal of fun activities and content, working with topics that students are interested in to maximize their

motivation and attention to the target language. Since all units contemplate both criteria for discovering needs, the merit score is *Good*.

Following Principles

3. The activities are well-designed in allegiance with appropriate instructional methodologies.

To understand the approach to language learning used in the textbook, it is important to elicit the framework employed to present content. From the table of contents it is evident that there is a pattern for presentation of course content, where in each unit three sections exist—vocabulary, grammar, and communication. In the vocabulary section, there is a great deal of reading, listening, and speaking activities, which are more controlled, but also constructed in a way that accounts for situational and communicative contexts. The dialogue is constructed to provide practice of language use, and the grammar activities have a focus on form-meaning use.

The resource used to teach grammar in authentic contexts is the comic strip, which deals with language forms based on communicative practice. Each unit deals with a range of different linguistic forms and learners are able to construct generalizations about the foreign language. Usually the activity that follows the comic strip evokes specific linguistic forms, such as, affirmative and negative forms of the imperative (Unit 3), singular and plural (Unit 6), and interrogative form (Unit 9). In general, students have to complete a table repeating or filling with the language forms. However, there is neither a focus on grammatical explanations/rote memorization like the Grammatical-Translation Method, nor repetitive drills as in the Audiolingualism Method. At times, grammar exercises seemed to have reminiscent aspects of the Audiolingual Method, such as the

focus on sentence patterns, (Unit 3, Unit 4, Unit 5, and Unit 7). Even so, the textbook provides controlled activities where learners can analyze and create hypotheses of linguistic patterns within a communicative framework.

As mentioned above, the textbook writers developed controlled activities for the vocabulary and grammar sections based on contextualized communication contexts. Controlled practices are known to produce output that is limited in terms of length and complexity (Ellis, 2008). Yet, these controlled activities are necessary for an EFL learner, because simplified language structures with a great deal of modeling and repetition of information helps the beginner students to be acquainted with the new language. On the other hand, the section in each unit relating to communication should involve activities where students can be actively involved in spontaneous language use. Students must generate their own construction and negotiate meaning in authentic contexts, where the focus is on the process of communication, rather than the grammatical system (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Both controlled and free production should be employed, where learners manipulate and produce the target language through negotiation of meaning between speakers.

Analyzing the communication section of the units more closely, which is in most cases the last part of the unit, provides the extent communicative language teaching is being incorporated into the design of the activities. Evaluation of the units shows that Units 3, 4, 6, 7, and 9 can be classified as having good activities, mostly because students can exchange meaning, with a focus on helping students get their message across. This can be exemplified in Unit 3, where students play Battleship with a partner (see Appendix B, p. 212). Students must look at a column that has numbers and a column that

corresponds to letters of the alphabet to identify the item that exists, when they combine the letter with the number. There is a picture where students need to look at the object located within the number and letter. For example, for letter B and number two there is a book, which if the students look at another picture it corresponds to library. Students need to find out where each object is located. The interaction between learners leads them to perform the task while engaging in language use. Consistent with this activity, Unit 6 presents an activity termed *What is it?*, where students write about a fruit and their partners need to find the type of fruit. These types of tasks help students convey meaning and practice communication in the target language to achieve a communicative outcome.

Conversely, Units 1, 2, 5, 8, and 10 involve students very loosely in the process of communication. In unit one, students in the communicative section learn about colors and shapes (see Appendix B, p. 212). They are supposed to produce a badge with their name, shape, and color of choice. The activity is creative and could have created interaction between students. Still, the activity provides statements for students to look and answer correspondingly—e.g., “my badge is a blue heart,” “my badge is a red circle,” and “my badge is a yellow rectangle.” Learners are not given space to manipulate their own language structures and exchange meaning. In order to achieve a communicative outcome, students must be involved in manipulating language as they construct a badge for their friends, perhaps asking their favorite color and the shape of the badge. This would create opportunities for students to operate language under real conditions.

Another example is observed in Unit 2, where students participate in a game with the name of the classroom objects (see Appendix B, p. 212). There are 20 squares and in each one an object is displayed. Learners roll the dice, mentioning the picture in the

square. Although in the activity students work with vocabulary, learners need to have opportunities to think and communicate in the target language. To promote this kind of interaction, learners must be able to describe the object, to create an answer, or to give clues about the object. For example, in the first square there is a pair of scissors, and students describe the color and its use. This is just an example to show that more elaboration in the way the game is played can lead to increased use of the language system.

Overall, the textbook offers contextualized activities based on a communicative framework. Nevertheless, activities seemed to limit the ability of students to “process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome” (Ellis, 2003, p. 16). There are few tasks where students can generate spontaneous language and experience the process of how language is used in communication. In this sense, communicative activities can be developed to create more opportunities for interactions, problem-solving, opinion exchange, and using meaning-focused output for themselves.

The way curriculum content and instruction is presented in the textbook seemed to follow a kind of PPP approach, that first presents new content, followed by controlled activities, and then free production of content. There is presentation of new content through controlled practices related to reading, listening, and repetition of speaking; followed by practice of speaking and grammar; then production of communication through the sections *Words in action* and *Let's play!* According to Ellis (2011) this instructional methodology is probably the most used sequence for organizing course content, and has theoretical support from skill-learning theory (K. Johnson, 1996). The textbook is mostly framed by a communicative approach, along with elements of

notional-functional approach, and at times favoring the task-approach. Although the textbook designs the content and instruction based on communicative orientation, a weaker type of communicative approach is developed.

In general, students are learning through natural spoken discourses. Content that resembles natural discourses and grammatical forms are not explicitly learned, but awareness of these forms occur in real communication contexts. For instance, there is a dialogue where the interlocutor says that he is from Rio, and the speaker responds, “Cool!” Phrases are used such as *freaky forest*, *cute*, *I’ve got it*, and back-channeling such as *shh!*, *really*, *that’s right*, and *really?* not seen a decade ago in EFL textbooks. Still, learners are not provided with tasks to achieve an outcome, but contextualized activities where they have some opportunity to communicate in a way that allows language to emerge through rehearsal of content.

Therefore, the curriculum content and instruction is based mostly on communicative language approach, through a PPP sequence of language learning. Although the language course activities seem to promote language use, a greater emphasis could be given to involving students in exchange of meaning within the process of communication. It seems that even though most activities promote meaningful communication, they do not follow the other criteria: that students have opportunities to negotiate meaning with interlocutors to achieve a communicative outcome. Since fewer than 5 out of 10 units provide activities where students have opportunities to generate their own language structure and negotiate meaning with interlocutors to achieve a communicative outcome, the score attributed to *Following Principles* is *Poor*.

Goals

4. *The objectives are spelled out in the introduction part and the material aligns goals, instruction, and assessment.*

The analysis of *Links* content shows that the units within the textbook do not explicitly describe the learning to be acquired. In fact, none of the units actually describe the objectives or general goals to be attained. In the first pages of the textbook there is a table of contents presenting the language content for the coursework, but it is left to the teacher to provide the focus of each unit. From the specification of the contents it is possible to extract clues to the nature of the objectives, but there is no indication to specific goals that guide the units.

By examining the content in each unit, it was possible to observe that without specification of goals, various unrelated topics were included in each unit. Those units that centered on fewer topics could explore in a range of ways the content, allowing spaces for students to recall, practice, and assess the target features. This is the case for Units 4, 5, 6, and 7. For instance, Unit 6 enables students to learn about vitamins and minerals, as well as fruits, and how to ask for fruits and juices in a supermarket—all while grasping the concept of plurals. The unit explores the topic with various expressions, contexts, and nuances (see Appendix B, p. 214). When the unit focused on several themes, the activities became cumbersome, and did not allow students to deepen their knowledge of language features nor reevaluate their learning. The units that work with several topics but failed to ensure further analysis of content are 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 9. To demonstrate how the lack of definitive goals for the units influences the alignment of instruction and assessment, two examples will be presented.

Unit 1 displays the limitations of a typical unit that neglects the establishment of goals, which consequently failed to connect the instruction and assessment to the goals. In the unit, students learn several topics about colors, shapes, greetings, telling where they are from, etc. In the first part of the unit students deals with learning how to introduce themselves and greet people. The learning activities for greetings centers of listening, repeating, and speaking activities, but students have few opportunities to use language for communication. They are not allowed space to integrate their knowledge and reassess what they have learned. In the last part of the unit in the sections *Words in action*, and *Let's play!* topics relating to colors and shapes are briefly introduced (see Appendix B, p. 214). Yet, the presentation of the unit offers few chances for learners to analyze and assess their understanding.

Another case is Unit 8, which deals with a range of topics relating to rooms in a house, facts about Angola, prepositions, states, capitals, finding objects, and places to visit. The unit starts off with places to visit such as museums, the zoo, Time Square, and the Empire State Building. Then, students learn about states and capitals of the United States, followed by learning prepositions, parts of a house, and facts about Angola. With all this coverage of materials, the unit moves quickly along the topics, without opportunities for reinforcement, recall, and reevaluation of material (see Appendix B, p. 214). Defining goals along precise terms is of utmost importance, otherwise lessons tend to be based on coverage of content and diffuse the relationships between goals, instruction, and assessment, which provides fewer chances for students to analyze and process the language system. Also, the connection and integration between the topics becomes sparse. Because fewer than 5 out of 10 units follow both criteria corresponding

to an alignment between goals, instruction, and assessment, and a logical connection between topics, the merit score for *Goals* is *Poor*.

Listening

5. There is a discernible system at work in the presentation of listening activities, where students recognize and understand the linguistic structures.

The content of listening activities is organized based on authentic communication, with the spoken word at the discourse level, instead of scripted language made for textbooks. The conversations are adequate and use different linguistic forms in several communicative events. Yet, one of the major problems of listening activities is the lack of appropriate metacognitive activities before and after listening, where students make connections between spoken and written form; where students recognize words, and build understanding of the language system. As Goh (2014) indicates, “The role of metacognition is crucial to the development of second and foreign language listening because listening comprehension, is a largely hidden process that happens inside the head of the learners” (p. 81). Learners need to think about their learning, be able to connect structures, create hypotheses, and verify their understanding.

Few units in the textbook construct listening processes, where there is a great deal of listening activities coupled with a focus on understanding through metacognitive activities. This is taken into account by Units 1, 5 and 6. How these units differ from the others is in that they build the listening activity so that learners use clues to recognize language features, and then step back to another activity to think about their learning. They attend to input and have opportunities to reach an overall understanding and evaluation of their knowledge. For instance, in Unit 1 students listen to a dialogue being

able to be acquainted with input and in another activity students listen to and complete a dialogue with similar content. Students have the chance to listen to the printed text, where greetings expressions are emphasize through small sentences. For instance, “Hi, I’m Matt,” and “Hello everyone. I’m Jane.” The following listening activity has learners use the information in the dialogues to fill in sentences, such as “_____, I’m Lucas” or “Hi _____ name’s Vera.” In these sentences they have to decide what greetings and syntactical items, such as “I’m” or “My name is” fit in the sentences. The activity offers opportunities to verify their learning and practice their knowledge of the linguistic item (see Appendix B, p. 215). Likewise, Unit 6 presents tropical fruits to students through pictures and their names, followed by a listening activity through matching the fruits to their vitamins. First, students are able to visualize the fruits and their names as if they were in a supermarket buying juices. Next, the listening activity presents a board with the words fruit, minerals, and vitamins, for students to match the fruit with the vitamin. For instance, the listening asks, “Are bananas reach in potassium or calcium? Yes, naturally everyone knows that. Bananas have a lot of potassium”. Since students are somewhat acquainted with the vocabulary, they have opportunities to analyze the input in the listening activity to verify the fruits they were introduce beforehand.

On the other hand, Units 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, and 10 have listening activities that do not allow space for learners to focus on specific lexical and syntactic features of input to process and comprehend linguistic features. To exemplify, Unit 2 can illustrate the problems encountered in all units. The listening activity in this unit has two activities: one, where students listen to numbers, and another, where they listen to sentences about classroom objects while numbering the pictures. Although both activities are suitable,

neither actually has a follow-up activity where students concentrate on recognizing patterns and evaluate their knowledge of the content (see Appendix B, p. 215). Another disadvantage of Unit 2 is that the reading activity that introduces the topic of the unit does not exactly align with the listening activities. Thus, listening to numbers and objects will provide few listening practice and enhancement of input understanding for the rest of the unit.

Similarly to Unit 2, the listening activity for Unit 3 relates to the topic of disciplines, and another related to the alphabet. In both activities students only listen to content; there is no activity for students to use the information to understand the meaning or identify language elements relevant in the listening event. This is also observed in Units 4, 7, 8, and 9, where students do not engage in listening activities that involves reflection and generation of their own meaning. Overall, the textbook does not organize listening activities that facilitate recognition of patterns in listening, along with decoding, comprehension, evaluation, and practice of the language items. Hence, both criteria are not followed by seven units of the textbook, which corresponds to a merit score of *Poor* for *Listening Practices*.

Speaking

6. *Speaking activities promote the development of fluent, accurate, appropriate, and authentic language.*

The speaking experiences must provide controlled language production along with opportunities for free production to enhance speaking skills. Overall, the units provide suitable controlled activities, but few chances to manipulate and generate their own production. The units that manage to engage the learners in both processes are found

in Units 3, 4, 8, 9, and 10. In these units students are encouraged to talk in authentic communicative activities with opportunities to negotiate meaning. For instance, in Unit 3 students read and listen to a conversation. The conversation relates to asking how to spell words. Then, students substitute words that were spelled in the dialogue for another. Next, the students have a dialogue about disciplines, and after practicing the dialogue, they have to use prompts to create a dialogue. The dialogues deal with content covered in the lesson relating to the alphabet and disciplines. Hence, students have more freedom to produce language, and the activities give space to reinforce and practice communicative speech (see Appendix B, p. 216).

On the other hand, Units 1, 2, 5, 6, and 7 fail to provide free production of language use. One problematic factor is that activities simply asked students to get in groups and act out a conversation. Since learners are just learning the FL, they need some modelling to lead them to generate their own structures. For instance, in Unit 5 students have a small dialogue about professions where they need to listen to the conversation. Then, students are to talk to a friend about people identified in the pictures. There is a word question, with a word “model,” and the answer is given Formula-1 “driver.” Thus, students are to ask, “Is he a model,” and another student will answer, “no he is a Formula-1 driver” (see Appendix B, p. 216). Although this activity is very helpful, students are not negotiating meaning per se. For it to do so, students need to be involved in, for example, an information-gap activity where one of the students has some elements of the profession, and the other student has other elements about the profession; together the students need to find out the profession based on the information they have.

Furthermore, students could recreate a conversation together as they listen to a dialogue, develop a dialogue about a profession with a role-play presentation to the classroom, filling the gaps, or engage in consensus-building activities. The unit does not provide opportunities for encouraging students to talk about the professions. As a whole, the units do not ensure the practice of communication, and listening and repeating dialogue is not enough for students to enhance their spoken abilities and fluency. It is necessary that activities repeat, reinforce, and promote communication of the same content to help model oral skills.

Another example is found in Unit 2, where students listen to a CD and read a conversation. The content of the conversation relates to information that is presented in Unit 1. After reading and listening to the conversation, students are asked to act out a conversation. The problem with having students simply act out a conversation is that students will likely repeat given dialogue, without thinking about the language system and constructing their own dialogue; they will not create meaning, only repeat the dialogue given. The free production activity should help students draw on impromptu speech, prompts, and problem-solving activities that lead them to think and speak. Although the activity should be free to enhance production, students also need guidance in performing the task. Providing activities without guidance can lead to more freedom than students are able to tolerate.

The other units have similar limitations, where activities fail to give chances for students to generate meaning and practice verbal communication. In general, the conversations and dialogues in all the units are appropriately designed and represent authentic language use. The dialogues used a variety of conversational markers, turn-

taking, and sequence structure, corresponding to “that’s amazing!” “that’s right,” “well . . . ,” “really nice!” “oh, it’s great!” “let me see,” “cool!” and “okay.” The only important discursive markers that were lacking correspond to *You know*, and *I think*. Although the speaking activities are not based on scripted dialogues, there could be more balance between speaking tasks that promote controlled and freer communicative speech. The activities must go beyond engendered repetition of spoken language. Since five units lack both criteria—the ability to promote controlled and free production of speech, along with opportunities to practice communication and increase speaking skills—the merit score for *Speaking is Poor*.

Reading

7. The reading texts and activities are organized based on authentic contexts in a way that learners become familiarized with words and text structure.

The reading activities frequently begin the units, presenting content that will be the basis for the unit. The reading section should be organized to attend to new vocabulary and comprehension of the text. The curriculum content of reading activities, Units 1, 2, and 3, lacks a focus on the unit’s vocabulary and comprehension of texts. For instance, in Unit 2 students have a poster with several imperatives used in the classroom such as “read the text,” “look at the picture,” and “close your books.” After students read the sentences related to classroom language they are asked through multiple-choice questions the type of text and the type of information the text contains (see Appendix B, p. 217). In this activity the emphasis is on the genre of the text that is appropriate, yet it could go beyond to include deliberate attention to the vocabulary and comprehension of

the sentences through pronominal questions (begin with a question word like What, Who, How, When, Why, Where), sentence completion, and translations.

Nevertheless, Units 4 through 10 deal with the new words and creating general comprehension of the texts. As examples, Units 8 and 9 will be presented. Unit 8 has a reading lesson, where students read a text, which includes pictures about visiting New York. The unit asks students to discuss the key words in the text and mark their favorite activity when they travel (e.g., I love shopping, I love walking in the park, or I love monuments). This reading activity is appropriate because it helps learners enhance the connection of background knowledge to predict new information of the text. The unit draws attention to useful words and helps increase students' comprehension skills, which leads them to consider what activity they like to do when they travel, the type of text, and words they know.

Similarly, Unit 9 has a lesson that integrates crucial elements: appropriate text, posing of questions, and completion of a table with the main points of the text. The type of text corresponds to an e-mail, where students see the e-mail as if it were going to be sent by a person. There are instructions to observe a scene, to read a text, and discuss the type of text and how it is organized. Thus, the reading activity allows input awareness and emphasizes the words being studied, along with helping learners explain and check their understanding of the words. Since 7 units out of 10 provide reading activities that attend to unknown words that occur in the unit and help learners to improve comprehension skills, the correspondent merit score for *Reading* is *Satisfactory*.

Writing

8. *The writing activities aligned to the material worked within the unit, and students write based on guided instruction.*

Overall the writing activities in the units are designed in a way that learners are able to attend to particular language structures, and are based on guided writing going beyond world-level. The analysis indicates that Units 2, 4, and 8 are limited in providing learners with appropriate content that builds their level of vocabulary and comprehension of language forms. For instance, in Unit 2 students are asked to make a poster entitled *English in my world*. Learners must develop a poster with their names and one thing they love; the example the textbook suggests relates to sports, the Internet, and music. The section *Let's write!* is the only section where students actually have to write and understand sentence structure by combining words (see Appendix B, p. 217).

In Unit 2, students were not able to reevaluate their knowledge about the unit's topic and write based on guided instruction. The unit relates to classroom language, and the writing activity could explore the writing of the vocabulary introduced in the reading section. Not only are there cases where the writing activity is not related to the topic, but the activity is loosely organized. This is the case in Unit 4, where students work to learn words about family members. The writing activity has a girl with a family album opened to her mother and brother's photo. The activity asks: How old is her mother? Where is she from? The students must look at the picture to find the answer. However, the writing activity does not explore learners' ability to write about the brother, mother, etc. Answering where the mother is from and how old she is does not per se explore students' understanding about family vocabulary nor provides writing beyond word-level. In turn, students should be stimulated to write about vocabulary related to family members.

Conversely, in Units 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, and 10, the curriculum content enhances learners' writing experiences, offering activities that are worked through guided instruction. To illustrate, in Unit 7 students learn about topics related to people and celebrities, and in the writing section they are asked, with helpful prompting, to write about their role model. To assist them, students have a writing model they must follow and, they are encouraged to use language at the sentence level (see Appendix B, p. 217). Students are asked to write a text about their role model. A text about Felipe Massa is used as an example. The description of the role model includes, the kind of driver he is, his favorite actor, and people that inspired him. Having a written model to follow, students are able to create their own text and not only write the words indicated by a picture.

In Unit 9 learners read a postcard from a place in Brazil called Paquetá Island, having a written model for them to write a postcard to a friend. This activity is useful because students are learning vocabulary as they explore postcard genre. Also, there is a connection between reading and writing, where students read a text and have to generate similar content, with the reading text as reference, through guided writing instruction. Other units have similar writing activities; having students develop their own writing through a modeled written script. As 7 units out of 10 provide writing experiences that increase language knowledge by activities based on guided writing and sentence-levels, the merit score for *Writing* is *Satisfactory*.

Grammar

9. The grammar activities focus on form and meaning in contextualized communicative events.

The textbooks' grammar activities are based on relevant grammar constructions used in contextualized communicative events. In every lesson a comic strip is used to lead students to attend to particular target forms, and help students associate form-meaning constructions. There are units that could have less information about grammar constructions (Unit 7, Unit 8). Other units, such as Unit 4 promote more contexts for attending to language form. In turn, all units could have students notice the constructions through highlight of the input in the cosmic strip. In any case, grammar activities with the use of comic strips promote space for learners to focus on language analysis through a contextualized communicative framework.

Unit 4 again provides a variety of activities where students complete conversations, a table, translate sentences, and observe words that are in bold. This strategy of highlighting the input helps students attend to important forms, enhancing input processing (see Appendix B, p. 218). In Units 7 and 8 students have a range of dialogue activities, sentence completion, pictures, and table completion, which offers students opportunities to notice form, along with their use and meaning. In general, all lessons introduce contextualized grammar activities through comic strips, and allow students to focus on form and meaning by table completion, grammar notes, and completion of sentences. Therefore, all units help students associate form and meaning in contextualized communicative events, promoting the ability to focus on language analysis and creating meaning of the target forms. The grammatical points are presented in a meaningful context to facilitate understanding of forms and its use in communication. The merit score for *Grammar*, therefore, is *Good*.

Format and Presenting Material

10. *The content in the units are constantly being recycled and repeated, through either a linear, modular or cyclical format.*

The evaluation of the units content shows that there is a linear format for topic, vocabulary, and grammatical forms. There are some cases where the topics and vocabulary are reinforced in the next lesson (Unit 2, Unit 3, Unit 4). The first four units give a chance for students to repeat and recycle their understanding through activities that provides use of the learned topics. For instance, Unit 1 focuses on helping students know how to ask a person's name, tell their own name, and get to know the person for the first time. In Unit 2, there is a dialogue that stresses these language structures emphasized in Unit 1, asking about a person's name, where they are from, and how old they are. Similarly, Unit 3 reinforces students' knowledge of classroom objects covered in Unit 2, as students substitute words in the dialogues with words from Unit 2. Subsequently, Unit 4 reinforces information about asking someone's name and telling your name in a dialogue, followed by asking where someone is from in a written activity.

In Units 1 through 4, there is a cyclical format where content is reinforced in the subsequent unit. Nevertheless, in Units 5 through 10 the presentation of content is basically linear, with vocabulary and topics being presented mostly once in a lesson unit. Only sparse examples of material covered in other units can be seen. For example, in Unit 8 the words "yellow pencil" and "book" reappear in an activity where students are to find items. The grammatical forms also followed a linear format with some progression in the way new language forms are introduced in each unit. For example, Unit 5 stresses the language form *Is she?* and Unit 6 deals with the structure *Is it _____?*. In the same

vein, Unit 8 works with the language form *This is* and Unit 9 focuses on the form *there is/are*.

Although the textbook units offer rich and varied content, few activities allow students to notice and recall topics already learned in other units. The course content does not contemplate the fact that students need constant reinforcement, and it seems to rely on a false assumption that once the content is presented students learn it and immediately integrate it into their language system. Additionally, with the coverage of various topics in a unit, it becomes more difficult to find a direction to review the materials. It would be best to cover fewer topics in each unit to reinforce and recall their knowledge of content to increase the chances of learning these language items. In this sense, even though the writers attempt to promote a type of cyclical reinforcement of grammatical and lexical features for the first 4 units, as a whole the units are based on a linear presentation of topics and vocabulary. A curriculum content that offers constant recycling and repetition of information can increase the chances for acquiring new items. Because 6 out of 10 units do not repeat and recycle content across the textbook, the merit score for *Formatting and Presenting* is *Poor*.

Monitoring and Assessing

11. *In every unit there are opportunities for assessment.*

Throughout the units there are various opportunities for students to assess content learned. There are assessment activities provided by the sections *Let's play* and *Let's stop and think*, and the textbook does contain periodical assessment opportunities. The periodical assessment occurs in the back of the material used for revision, extra-activity or homework. These activities are used to complement the units and are helpful for

students as they can be easily used for revision and self-study purposes. For example, in Unit 1, students are able to unscramble words related to meeting people, they introduce themselves, learn color elements based on the shape of figures, and complete a grip. Generally, these activities are well-designed, and there is a checkpoint at every three units where students can integrate their knowledge and review what they have learned. Probably the limitation in some units is the focus on form, based almost entirely on drills and sentence patterns (Unit 5, Unit 7, and Unit 10). On the other hand, the textbook provides a range of fun activities, with dialogues, matching columns, puzzles, underlining of words, and drawings, such as in unit three (see Appendix B, p. 218).

Another example is Unit 4, which conveys to students the chance of assessing knowledge through breaking of codes, creating a family tree, and completing sentences. Similarly, Unit 6 provides the opportunity to review material through dialogue, writing, drawing, and matching of columns. The checkpoint allows students to integrate information into the activities, working at the same time with having students ask someone for their age, their name, favorite color and the subjects in school; content studied in unit one through three. It would be even more productive if these activities could have listening activities for students to practice, or videos that work with speaking and listening skills to be studied on their own.

In regard to the units themselves, the assessment provided in the back of the textbook is satisfactory in Units 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, and 10, giving space for students to evaluate their own knowledge. This can be exemplified in Unit 1, where in this case there is a play activity (Tic-Tac-Toe) and students use the shapes learned to be able to play (see Appendix B, p. 218). In Unit 4 there is a Bingo activity where students listen to numbers

to see whether they have the number. Even though the section *Let's play!* allow learners to assess their knowledge, the section *Let's stop and think* could evoke particular information learned in the unit. In Unit 2, for example, the unit introduces new vocabulary related to food, which could be used to review essential vocabulary and sentences learned in the unit. Usually the section *Let's stop and think* emphasizes values and cultural awareness, or introduces a topic that stimulates students to think. Yet, it would be best if this section could integrate the goals of the activity with material that can lead them to higher critical thinking.

Though the section *Let's stop and think* could provide more opportunities for periodical assessment of information and the textbook could provide space for self-study activities on the Internet, the activities on the back and on the textbook itself assist students in assessing content. The only units that do not provide content assessment are 5, 8, and 9. Since students have opportunities for periodic assessment and are able to assess their understanding, the merit score for *Monitoring and Assessing* is *Satisfactory*.

Summary

The evaluation of the textbook units reveals that the content and instruction design are based on communicative orientation, corresponding to a weaker type of communicative approach. The presentation of content follows a PPT approach, first presenting new content, then controlled activities, and free production of content. There are presentation and practice of new content through controlled practices relating to reading, listening, and repetition of speaking, followed by production of language use. Still, in activities where there are freer production of language use, more opportunities should be offered for students to discover the language system for themselves through the

process of communicating to achieve an outcome. Although the activities are not based on scripted texts supplying learners with authentic language use, they must go beyond repetition of spoken language. Even though freer production activities are necessary, just having students act out a conversation will probably lead them to repeat a dialogue, rather than having them think and speak communicatively. Designing activities without guidance can lead to more freedom than they are able to tolerate. The analysis shows that the textbook must promote activities that have a communicative purpose, where learners are given opportunities to negotiate meaning and experience the process of how language is used in communication. Additionally, learners must engage in generating language collaboratively in interactions through problem-solving and information-gap, where they exchange information and use meaning-focused output for themselves.

Based on the analysis of the *Links* textbook, the curriculum content effectively contemplates the interests of learners. The textbook provides contextualized communicative events for reading, writing, and grammar skills, allowing a focus on language analysis and comprehension of the target language. For writing activities students develop their own texts based on guided writing instruction. At the same time, reading practices are used as a reference for writing and they can attend to unknown words and verify their comprehension of texts. Moreover, throughout the units, students engage in assessing the content learned.

On the other hand, the absence of precise definition of goals leads to coverage of content, and diffuse alignment of goals, instruction, and assessment. The presentation of various topics in a unit obstructs the progression of content, as students cannot extend their knowledge of the topic that was first introduced. Though there is space for

assessment in each unit, it not always leads to revision of the elements that were the focus of the unit, and content is not being recycled throughout the units. Most times, students are expected to grasp particular features without the textbook previously eliciting them, hence the activities fail to reflect learners' level of proficiency. In the listening activities, learners need more intentional engagement in recognizing patterns, verifying their own understanding of the language features, and generating their own meaning.

CHAPTER 5

DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF *KEEP IN MIND*

Introduction

This chapter presents a descriptive analysis of the second textbook, entitled *Keep in Mind*. Similarly to *Links: English for Teens*, the examination was conducted based on a checklist that outlines the essential features of language curriculum design and language learning processes. In order to show the quality level of the components in the textbooks each item of the checklist was assigned a merit score numerically rated from 0 to 2 (*Poor=0; Satisfactory=1; Good=2*). Each checklist item has two criteria that must be contemplated to obtain a satisfactory or good evaluation. All units of the textbooks are analyzed for each item of the checklist, and the required criteria are scrutinized to observe whether both criteria are considered.

Analysis of *Keep in Mind* Textbook

The second textbook analyzed has the title *Keep in Mind: English for Teens* and, is employed in the sixth grade. The textbook has 16 units, and each unit emphasizes grammar and vocabulary, along with listening, speaking, reading, and writing. There is not a particular combination of the components of the unit, as *Links*, which divides content based on grammar, vocabulary, and communication. The textbook *Keep in Mind* presents the sequence and scope through various sections covering grammar, vocabulary, and the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing); and other sections entitled

Language Corner, Project, Food for Thought, and Cool. These last unique sections are small annotations about words, interesting points, or questions to think about.

Considering the Environment

1. *The textbook designer took into consideration the level of students' proficiency in every unit.*

Novice learners need stretches of language that are easily understood for their level of proficiency. The textbook *Keep in Mind* provides consistent attention to students' level of proficiency by offering a section called *Get in the mood*, where the topic is introduced through small texts, pictures, images, etc. Learners in every unit are introduced to the essential vocabulary of the unit, followed by a presentation that more fully presents the content of the units. The presentation and practice of the vocabulary section presents to students the content of the unit and gives some background knowledge for them to process the language and deepen their level of understanding. The units are very compact, offering chances for practice, production, and reinforcement of content throughout the units. Furthermore, the content is often facilitated by *Food for thought*, a box where students' knowledge is facilitated through the use of instruction and tips in Portuguese. Therefore, the unit's content provides the appropriate presentation of the topic for students' proficiency levels to facilitate apprehension of the target language.

All units in the entire textbook offer presentation of the unit's content, preparing students for subsequent activities suitable for students' level of proficiency. At some points, the textbook seemed to oversimplify expectations for the reading and writing sections through the use of words, rather than sentences or discursive level (Units 2, 3, 7, and 9). Additionally, there are some questions and instructions presented using students'

first language (Units 1, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, and 15). In Unit 2, the section *Let's read* has an activity where students replace symbols for words, such as "I'm _____" with the symbol of a sad face, where students are expected to write sad. The sentences are not connected to the topic of the unit, and the exercise seems superficial and too simplistic for sixth grade students (see Appendix C, p. 220). There is not a text where students could recognize specific features learned. Also, instead of just having some words to decode, it will be more beneficial for learners to develop a text.

The units assigned an important place for the use of the first language to provide instructions, tips, propose directions, and projects for the class. Even so, at times the units could have posed the questions for the activities in English, having a dictionary box for the words they do not know. For example, Unit 8 presents messages about things students need and possess. Students are to discuss with their classmates about, what types of clues they used to do the activity, and the types of verbs were used in the messages. Their inquiries could be asked in English, yet the textbook lists the questions in Portuguese. The textbook writers developed the units in a way that the students can have a great deal of initial presentation and practice with the vocabulary before subsequent focus on the skills (listening, reading, speaking, and writing).

For instance, in Unit 1, students are introduced to a section called *Get in the mood*. There, students have the opportunity to be introduced to vocabulary related to classmates, teacher, friends, and family. These words are noticed by students through three homepages, where these words appear with photos and people profiles (see Appendix C, p. 220). Basically, these words compose the basic vocabulary explored during the unit. Following this section, students are presented with a listening and reading

activity where they become aware of how to introduce themselves and greet people. In later sections, students have various activities to help them focus on vocabulary, and grasp each word before moving on to individual language skills. In every unit, textbook writers seemed primarily concerned with core vocabulary, providing opportunities for students to practice and thoroughly understand each word. Therefore, all units satisfy the criteria that students are prepared to cope with what is assigned based on previous instruction, and that activities required vocabulary presented in the unit. Given that all units are designed based on the students' level of proficiency, the merit score for *Considering the Environment is Good*.

Discovering Interests

2. *The textbook is compatible with age appropriate topics and interests of the learners.*

When a textbook showcases topics that are of interest to learners, they engage more readily in the activities. *Keep in Mind* provides a great variety of topics related to students' interests such as sports, family, professions, collections, etc. To increase students' interest and motivation in learning the target language, the textbook writers present content intertwined with the following topics: personalities (Unit 1), celebrities (Unit 4), sports (Unit 3), movies (Units 2, 3, 6, 10, and 15), Formula-1 racing (Unit 4), and collections (Unit 7). There are also topics related to occupations (Unit 10), colors (Unit 8), e-mail (Unit 4), symbols used in text messages (Unit 2), and days of the week (Unit 16).

The units not only offer a range of topics of interest for learners, but plenty of fun activities as diverse as constructing an Internet homepage (Unit 1), creating symbol

messages (Unit 2), playing a spelling game (Unit 5), generating a genealogical tree (Unit 6), organizing a swap meet (Unit 8), *What is this?* Technique (Unit 9), Find the Differences (Unit 14), and producing a newsletter (Unit 16). The content is oriented around the interest of the students, as they generate a linguistic repertoire for themselves. Another aspect that is important to emphasize is the opportunities the units bring for students to participate in projects related to the content of the unit.

Students are able to experience learning both inside and outside the classroom through interactions with their peers. The project generally requires the elaboration of materials where students have to deal with the target language for the duration of a task. For instance, in Unit 1 students create a homepage presenting all their classmates and teachers, through pictures and descriptions about them. In another instance, in Unit 5 students develop a newsletter where they have to present news about sports, community, events, curiosities, and a current theme. In every unit there are topics that relate to celebrities, movies, or Internet-related elements. For example, in Unit 3, students have an activity where they need to identify the superhero, the names of the sports, and number assigned to the superhero. The units focus on integrating students' own world into the lessons, and presents content in connection to topics that are of interest for students. The textbook does a good work in providing fun activities, along with topics compatible with the needs and interests of students, therefore *Discovering Interests* receives a merit score of *Good*.

Following Principles

3. *The activities are well-designed in allegiance with appropriate instructional methodologies.*

Evaluating this checklist item, it was possible to observe in the units that there is an accentuated focus on grammar and vocabulary. Although the textbook works with skills and communication, great attention is given to grammar. There are various examples of activities that are designed to have students develop sentence patterns and grammatical items that resemble a structural syllabus. For instance, in Unit 4 the grammar section presents the grammatical structure for questions (e.g., “Are we classmates?” and, “Are they from Brazil?”), and students have to write the sentences based on the example. There is also the following question: “Is Barrichelo from the United States?” and students must respond, “No, he isn’t from the United States.” In the *Let’s practice* section, students have to look once more at the pictures and write the questions, along with the answers, just like the last activity. Thus, though the textbook provides form-meaning grammatical activities and practice, and presents the vocabulary in communicative contexts, there is a greater emphasis on grammar and vocabulary, rather than communication. There is not a section or intentional focus, however, on communication, which could provide opportunities for students to try out their own language production in communicative contexts.

The textbook has a *Let’s speak* section which has both controlled and free speech production of the target language. However, all the activities are similar to each other, and elicit few linguistic structures as students attempt to act out a conversation. It is common in almost all speaking practices for students just to repeat dialogues with a partner, not being involved in exchange of information to attempt to generate their own production in the target language. For example, Unit 3 relates to learning about sports and numbers, and students are to walk around the classroom, asking the following questions:

“Is Marquinhos on the soccer team?,” responding, “Yes, he is,” or “No, he isn’t.” The grammatical section works with these grammatical items: *This is/Is this*, and the activity connects the grammatical items with the production of communication (see Appendix C, p. 221). Even though controlled practices are relevant, there are a few opportunities for students to actually practice spontaneous performance which leads them to transfer their knowledge to real communicative events. Although the dialogues and conversations in the textbooks are based on communicative contexts, the units do not provide students with space to go beyond controlled practices of communication. They do not generate their own language structure and negotiate meaning with interlocutors to achieve a communicative outcome.

The occasions where students are asked to talk, they are simply to come up with a dialogue, which does not automatically lead them to exchange of communication. Learners need to be incited to interact and practice conversations with the help of clues and guided instruction. For instance, in Unit 4 students are to produce a poster of a Brazilian personality, and talk to their classmates about the people in the poster. However, there is no preparation for students to go beyond asking questions such as, “Is this person from Rio,” and the students respond, “No/yes, he/she is/isn’t.” This activity is important to create a basis for working with other language structures, and having students participate in the process of generating their own construction (see Appendix C, p. 221). But, students need easy vocabulary and language forms, and Unit 4 fails to help them generate language collaboratively in interactions. When students interact in communication they should be able to integrate input, output, meaning, and test their own hypothesis through trial-and-error opportunities. Students should be encouraged to share

expressions and produce spoken language, evaluating the language they and the other speakers produce.

The textbook relies on a structural and communicative syllabus, where the communicative framework corresponds to a weaker version of the communicative approach. In reality, the dialogues, conversations, and scripts in the units are based on communicative contexts attempting to create meaningful communication. Yet, the absence of activities that create opportunities to produce language in interactions limits students in developing communicative competence. The disproportionate focus on grammar in comparison with communicative contexts, limits the exchange of information between interactants. Since, the majority of units failed to provide opportunities for learner to produce their own language structure and negotiate meaning with interlocutors, the merit score for *Following Principles* is *Poor*.

Goals

4. *The objectives are spelled out in the introduction part and the materials align goals, instruction, and assessment.*

The examination of content indicates that the units do not explicitly describe the learning outcome to be acquired. None of the units presents their objectives outright, where the only indication is in the table of contents. Although it is left to the teacher to specify the goals, the learning outcome can become somewhat evident through the unit. Generally, all units have one or two topics that are integrated and explored during the unit. Since the units have few topics, students can be provided with opportunities for performance of the target language and for more comprehensive understanding. In turn, the units explore the content in a range of ways, allowing students to increase their

knowledge of the foreign language. The analysis shows that Units 5 and 9 are limited in aligning the goals, instruction, and assessment.

Taking Unit 5 as an example, students have opportunities to exchange personal information with others, and know the sounds of the alphabet. The vocabulary presentation focuses deliberately on the alphabet having students' look, listen, and repeat. Yet, the major aim of the unit relies on knowing peoples' personal information, such as their first and last names, phone number, name of school, signature, etc. There are few moments where students can analyze the sounds of the alphabet, and act based on this knowledge. The sounds of the alphabet could be connected with knowledge of personal information, to help them to actually notice and internalize the information. Thus, establishing specific goals would have helped the design of the unit to have a balanced and refined presentation of both topics (see Appendix C, p. 222).

Similarly, in Unit 9, two topics are presented related to age and numbers. However, the numbers are used only one time in the unit, not providing opportunities for learners to integrate these two themes. The sections *Let's read*, *Let's listen*, *Let's talk*, and *Let's practice* are not able to provide a chance to practice and reinforce the content of the unit. For instance, the section *Let's read* requests learners to read a registration form and write the information necessary. The registration form asks for the full name, username, birthday, father's and mother's name, and home address, but does not lead students to process the information, and it is inconsistent with the content presented in the unit. Consequently, learners are less able to reinforce and assess their understanding of the linguistic features covered in the unit.

Even so, most units offer chances for students to reinforce, recall, and evaluate the content during the progression of the unit. Although learning outcomes become more intentional and purposeful when they are defined in precise terms, the textbook writers built units that were focused on specific language features and topics, providing cohesive and compact units. For example, Unit 8 presents colors and school materials then combines the topics, asking for items using the learned vocabulary, such as “I need a blue pen” or “I have two black pencils.” The topics are described in isolation at first, and then students have to integrate and combine knowledge of the topics (see Appendix C, p. 222). In Unit 3, for example, there is an exposition of sports, along with the vocabulary section for numbers (1 through 20). During a large portion of the unit students have to connect the sports people play, with the number of the t-shirt, the age of a sports personality, etc.

Both units (Units 3 and 8) show what occurs in almost all remaining textbook. That is, a suitable format that exists a relation of goals, instruction, and assessment, generating a sequence and progression in the unit where students are more capable of performing and assimilating information, analyzing in an integrated way the language features involved in the topics. Only two units (Unit 5 and Unit 9) did not follow the criteria in aligning goals, instruction, and assessment, and creating a logical progressions of the topics that centers on goal of the unit. Hence, the merit score for *Goals* is *Satisfactory*.

Listening

5. *There is a discernible system at work in the presentation of listening activities, where students recognize and understand the linguistic structures.*

In the textbook, listening is organized into more than one section, involving the practice of listening in the *Presentation*, *Focus on vocabulary*, and *Let's listen* sections. The content of the listening activities are based on authentic communication, though at times the writers present messages at the sentence level. Even so, the conversations are rich and involve linguistic features in a wide range of communicative events. In Units 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, 10, 13, 14, and 16, the listening activities provide attention and comprehension of specific language features. For example, Unit 6 has a dialogue about family names, where a girl in the listening activity presents her family in a picture to a classmate. In the dialogue, the girl indicates her brother, father, sister, and best friends.

Following the dialogue, students have to match the pictures with their relations, in a way that students can recall and check their understanding about the vocabulary. Next, learners organize the family members by writing their names, and complete sentences about the pictures. For the last activity, students listen to a dialogue and circle the people that are being talking about (see Appendix C, p. 222). During these listening activities students can focus on recognizing and thinking about specific vocabulary verifying their knowledge. Although the last activity could rely more on comprehension by having learners write down missing words, use notes to reproduce a text, and create a written sequence; combining all the activities in the listening practice provides plenty of opportunities for students to build understanding and internalize specific content presented in the unit.

The listening activities offer students the chance to process the linguistic features worked in the unit. As an example, Unit 13 shows together with other units, that there are opportunities to focus on particular features and evaluate the students' understanding

through matching activities, observing pictures and completing sentences, along with prompts about listening. In this unit, there is a listening dialogue where a student asks about his ruler seeing that it is not on his table, yet a classmate opens his backpack, and found the material he needs in his pencil case. After the dialogue, students look at a picture and there are prompts related to the objects that are on the table. Students need to figure out the message and find the student's ruler. Learners are able to think about their learning and reach an overall understanding. Hence, both criteria are contemplated in the units—attention to specific lexical and syntactic features of input and giving opportunities for students to check their understanding.

The units with poor listening activities restrict students' potential for checking comprehension. The activity may not center on the primary objective for the unit, or it is limited in providing opportunities for students to analyze information (Units 1, 2, 5, 9, 11, 12, and 15). For instance, Unit 5 displays individuals asking someone else about their name and phone number. In the listening activity, students listen to three persons getting information about their first and last name, and phone number. The section already has a grid with the name, last name, and phone number, with only one phone number for students to write in the box (see Appendix C, p. 222). Since the unit also emphasizes the alphabet and knowing how to spell, the follow-up listening activity could have given opportunities for students to write down their name, last name, and even spelling their last name. In addition, further information could have been provided, such as the parents' names, school, etc. This activity could have a listening dialogue where the interlocutors introduce themselves on the first day of class, giving information like their full name, nickname, their favorite subject; then students have to write down their names and

information given. The limitation relates not only to presenting a listening dialogue that is limited by them giving only the information needed for writing the first and last name, and phone number, but students are not able to analyze the written form, and practice their knowledge of the linguistic items.

Despite units with limitations in providing opportunities for students to analyze information, the overall listening activities give opportunities for recall, reflection, and generation of meaning. There are more units that followed the criteria for providing a focus on lexical and syntactic items, and chances to practice their knowledge of the linguistic item, than not. So since the textbook organizes listening activities that facilitate recognition and comprehension of patterns in listening, the merit score for *Listening* receives a merit score of *Satisfactory*.

Speaking

6. *Speaking activities promote the development of fluent, accurate, appropriate, and authentic language.*

Students should produce a great deal of language through controlled- and free-production activities. By evaluating the units it was possible to observe that students need more opportunities to practice communication to enhance their speaking skills. The units that promote controlled and free production of language, along with opportunities to practice communication corresponds to Units 1, 2, 5, 8, and 11 through 13. These units were designed to promote speaking skills that leads students to produce language in communicative events to develop competent speakers. For instance, in Unit 13 students learn about prepositions and classroom objects. Learners in the speaking activity have a picture of a classroom with desks, a blackboard, windows, a map, etc. The activity asks

students to say where their backpack, notebooks, pencil case, clock, wastebasket are in the classroom. Students will have to use the vocabulary and prepositions learned to tell their partner where these objects are. Hence, they will have to say, “My backpack is on the floor” or “My backpack is on my chair,” etc., describing the objects location (see Appendix C, p. 223).

Another example of an appropriate activity that enhances language production is in Unit 8. The unit presents subjects related to colors and school materials. Students must place objects in a bag without letting their fellow students see them. One at the time, learners take an object from the bag and describe it, and they have to guess to whom it belongs. Students are to negotiate meanings, while helping each other describe the objects to discover the owner. Although there are suitable speaking activities organized in the textbook, in the *Let's Speak!* section there are various units that lack the ability to lead students to speak in authentic communicative contexts, with opportunities to negotiate meaning. This is the case in Units 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, and 14 through 16.

For instance, Unit 4 explores some countries, Formula-1 racing, and asks where people are from. In the speaking activity students are requested to make a poster of a Brazilian personality and to find out where that person is from. In fact, there is a prompt, such as, “Is Ronaldinho from Rio de Janeiro? And the answer will be given, “No, he isn't. He's from Rio Grande do Sul” (see Appendix C, p. 223). The conversation that is going to be achieved with this activity is limited, because students are not going to have many instances for producing language and manipulating various conversational features. The activity seems to stress the ability of students to produce grammatical accuracy, rather than encouraging them to talk about the different countries, which country students

are from, and the Formula-1 drivers. Thus, learners need to participate in activities that lead to their involvement in production of language and negotiation of meaning.

Another type of activity for speaking used in the textbook is games. For instance, Unit 7 has a game about school objects, with two trajectories, one for player A and another for player B. The concept of the game is appropriate, but what limits this activity is that students are prompted only to say the name of the object, instead of generating a conversation with another player or players.

The way activities are designed could have relied more on information-gap activities, role-play technique, and consensus-building for students to share meaning and practice communication. Overall, the conversations and dialogues are appropriately designed to represent authentic language use. However, space for freer production should be designed to promote more conversational situations and exchange of meaning. Since, 9 out of 16 units do not provide speaking opportunities that promote controlled and free language production with opportunities to practice communication and increase speaking skills, the merit score for *Speaking* is *Poor*.

Reading

7. The reading texts and activities are organized based on authentic contexts in a way that learners become familiarized with words and text structure.

The reading activities start the unit briefly presenting content that will be the basis for the unit, but they also have a *Let's read* section that works more in-depth with vocabulary and reading skills. Elements of most importance for the reading section is attention to vocabulary and comprehension of the texts. However, the content of the reading activities in Units 2, 3, 7 through 10, and 13 through 15 present elements that

lack attention to important vocabulary and reinforcement of reading comprehension. For example, in Unit 2 students are presented with small sentences that contain symbols along with words. Students are to decode a message, but that contains vocabulary that is not the focus of the unit. For instance, the book presents the word “I” and the symbol of a heart followed by the word “you.” They would write love in the place of the heart (see Appendix C, p. 224). The reading activity does not have a text linked to writing, the sentences are small, nor is vocabulary emphasized in the unit employed. Thus, the reading activities do not give deliberate attention to vocabulary to help achieve high language proficiency.

Other units, for example Unit 8, do not present a text or an activity where students improve their comprehension of vocabulary. Students in the activity have few isolated sentences that focus on grammatical items, such as the verbs *need* and *have*. The focus of the text is not the objective of the unit, and there is no discussion of comprehension or questions for students to evaluate their knowledge of the sentences. In general, the readings are small, at the sentence or word level, and they are not intentionally the focus of the reading activities. The reading activities do not provide students with information that can be reanalyzed to achieve vocabulary comprehension.

On the other hand, there are Units 1, 4 through 6, 11, 12, and 16 work with new vocabulary and help students create a general comprehension of the message and vocabulary in the texts. For instance, in Unit 6, students read texts about family—particularly that describe father, mother, brother, and sister. There are photos of a family and students have to discuss information in the text while filling a grid with male and female descriptions (see Appendix C, p. 224). Similarly, in Unit 16 there is an invitation

to a Christmas celebration, where students read the information, discuss elements of the text, and work with a classmate to answer questions about the invitation.

The units that are well-designed draw attention to useful words and increase student's comprehension skills. These same units integrate crucial elements: appropriate text, posing of questions, and completion of a table with the main points of the text. Nevertheless, since 7 units out of 16 do not allow students to attend to the words and promote comprehension, the corresponding merit score for *Reading* is *Poor*.

Writing

8. The writing activities aligned to the material worked with in the unit, and students write based on guided instruction.

It was possible to observe that the writing activities in the textbook do not highlight important vocabulary covered in the unit, and the foci do not rely on the process of writing to help students compose effectively. The units that provide a suitable writing practice are 3 to 5, 11, 12, and 15. These writing activities are characterized by targeting the topic of the unit related to important vocabulary, having reading as a source of input to assist students in creating a written text, and by going beyond word-level practice to sentence-level writing.

For instance, in Unit 5 the reading activity centers on having students read a text taken from a school newsletters. A student called Daniel gives descriptive information about himself, related to vocabulary worked in the unit. The writing activity has students write an introduction of themselves for either a school or class newsletter. Students can use the reading text to explore vocabulary, social contexts, and writing to an audience (see Appendix C, p. 225). Similarly, in Unit 12 students can explore the vocabulary

introduced in the reading section, using the source as a guide. In the writing activity students are to write a message to a friend in another class, and a written model is used to increase their attention to the organization of the text and help create their message. In other units the writing activity is loosely organized, sometimes having students only practice word-level skills. Hence, it is essential to explore other resources, such as short prompts, writing a response to a picture, dictoglosses, reading responses, writing based on a concept map or concept inventories.

There are several units in *Keep in Mind* that are limited in providing instructions to help students create a written text; they also offer little chance for developing and understanding the writing process; they are Units 1, 2, 6 through 10, 13, 14, and 16. Unit 14 provides a clear example: the reading and writing activity shows a picture of the prices of a boy's used clothes. Students must design their own poster based on the example, however, there are no specifications about what students are expected to do; it seems that they are simply to write the price of the clothes. The activity is limited, not allowing students to produce their own written work in the target language (see Appendix C, p. 225).

It would be beneficial for students to develop an advertisement about clothes, with the price, sale price, quality of the clothes, and the date they would like to sell them. This would provide reading and writing connections, and help explore known vocabulary to actively search for knowledge about writing. It can offer more space for students to deal with the language system and their own written work.

Another example is Unit 2, which portrays similar components found in other units: the writing section requires students to write a message using letter and symbols,

while the reading section also has symbols for students to decode (a smiley face, heart, telephone, pen, etc.). Nevertheless, the unit does not deal with the vocabulary expressed through the symbols. The activity lacks a definite goal and a focus on the topics covered in the unit. Another shortfall about the writing experience in Unit 2 is the absence of directions to assist learners in writing a text at the sentence-level. Learners need appropriate scaffolding of the assignments, and specific provenance about the topic, genre, and purpose of the text.

Therefore, the nature of the writing tasks needs to be improved to help learners generate a written text that goes beyond the word level, supplying chances for them to compose effectively, while incorporating prior knowledge and then testing comprehension. The merit score for *Writing* is *Poor*, as 10 out of 16 units lack both the following criteria; drawing learners' attention to particular language structures and designing activities that go beyond the word-level to the sentence-level.

Grammar

9. The grammar activities focus on form and meaning in contextualized communicative events.

The textbook writers give a great deal of attention to the grammar sections in *Keep in Mind*. Generally, there is a particular presentation and concentration on the target forms, but at the same time, provides space to practice the use of grammatical items. Although there are not a range of different activities, such as collaborative dialogues and resources that trigger attention to grammar construction, students have opportunities to manipulate written and spoken grammar.

The majority of units fulfilled the criteria for grammar by promoting activities that associate form-meaning constructions in communication and helping students attend to language forms in a contextualized way. Students deal with particular grammatical construction that are worked with in the unit, completing two or three activities including filling in blanks, executing sentence patterns, puzzles, writing conversation, along with a segment for a spoken production and use of the target constructions. Thus, the activities allow students to work on text manipulation and understanding of the use dimension. The written and practice activities are designed to take into consideration the use of grammatical items in particular contexts.

The units that lack pairing form-meaning constructions in communications are Units 4 to 15. In Unit 4 students have a dialogue that works with definite pronouns and possessives. Following this segment, they complete a chart that presents questions, with affirmative and negative answers. The only activity in which students are involved is sentence construction, working with negative and positive answers (see Appendix C, p. 226). The language forms are not presented in a contextualized format, nor are opportunities given for learners to practice and work with written and spoken constructions. Similarly, in Unit 15 the section on grammar presents examples of the use of the relative pronoun *when* in questions, and the possessive pronouns *his*, *my*, and *your*. Students fill the blanks with *my*, such as “My birthday is on April 1.” The activities in *Let’s practice* have similar exercises that ask students to look at the picture and write, “When is her birthday?” responding, “Her birthday is on April 1.”

In these two units (Unit 4 and Unit 15) the grammar activities are insufficient to assist learners in making meaning under a particular communicative context. There are

no intentional goals aimed at helping students' associate form-meaning constructions in communication.

Besides the units just mentioned, all other units have an intentional design for grammar that provides several activities that help students practice relevant grammar construction in a contextualized format. For instance, in Unit 9 there are examples of grammatical items, and blanks in the sentences for students to fill in the correct construction. The activities offer opportunities for learners to practice the vocabulary related to age and grammar structures. Some pictures are provided for students to attempt to produce their own sentences using the grammar constructions. Next, another activity is given for them to practice working with the use dimension. The activities are designed using sentences and examples that naturally occur in communicative contexts (see Appendix C, p. 226).

Unit 14 has a parallel structure for the presentation of genitive and possessive forms. Students have a sentence to complete with pictures, writing questions and answers, matching pictures, and using spoken grammar by telling a partner the name of clothing shown in pictures. The examples and sentences are contextualized, in a way that learners practice a meaningful use of grammar. Therefore, the merit score for the *Grammar* item is *Satisfactory*, as both criteria were met by 14 out of 16 units.

Format and Presenting Material

10. *The content in the units are constantly being recycled and repeated, through either a linear, modular or cyclical format.*

Evaluating all sixteen units of the *Keep in Mind* textbook, it was possible to observe that the content has a linear format for the presentation of the topics. Although in

the dialogues and presentation of content there are repetition of vocabulary from other units, no attention is given to repeat content in a more focused way. In some units grammatical items that have already been seen are used freely and causally, not providing a more salient focus on the forms. It would be useful to reinforce the vocabulary and topics, and grammatical items in subsequent units, recycling their knowledge of the target language. However, only four units (Units 5, 8, 10, and 13) have instances that reinforce the vocabulary learned in other units. For example, Unit 10 presents several occupations, and some sections intentionally have students connect family names with occupations. Students were already introduced to family names in Unit 6, and they are able to notice and recall information learned in Unit 10 (see Appendix C, p. 227).

Similarly, Unit 13 introduces vocabulary related to the furniture of the classroom, such as a chair, desk, and table, etc. Taking advantage of content learned about classroom materials, Unit 13 combines both furniture of the classroom with classroom material content. Classroom materials were explored in Unit 8, and students were not only able to integrate information, but reinforce learned content. Although in these units that reinforce vocabulary there is an intentional activity and space for students to review their knowledge, there is no explicit attention given to grammatical items. Grammatical items that seemed to be repeated are just placed in a dialogue with no stress or focused activity to recycle students understanding of the forms. For example, Unit 12 introduces the notion of time, and how to ask about time. The grammatical form most emphasized in this unit is *Let's go to...*, with grammatical activities that give opportunities for comprehension. In Unit 16, the grammatical form appears again in a dialogue, yet there is

no salience of the form or attention to the form in an activity. The grammatical item only appears in the dialogue, and students are not allowed to reanalyze or review learning.

Hence, with the exception of Units 5, 8, 10, and 14, where there is an attempt to develop a cyclical format for content presentation, the content throughout the textbook follows a linear format. There are few cases where the topics are reinforced, and the grammatical items are sparsely thrown into the dialogues. Although the units do not have an overabundance of topics to be covered in a unit—providing one or two topics—a cyclical format could be developed to provide constant recycling and repetition of information. To increase the chances for students to internalize information, the course content should ensure constant reinforcement and recollection of learning. Because fewer than 7 units out of 16 followed both criteria for *Formatting and Presenting Material*, the merit score is *Poor*.

Monitoring and Assessing

11. *In every unit there are opportunities for assessment.*

For supporting students in assessing their knowledge of content, every two units pose a section to assess learning. These sections are composed of vocabulary or grammar reviews. Also, there is a subsection where students check what they know and can do in English. Throughout the units students have opportunities for periodic assessment, and they can evaluate their own knowledge. There is a table showing what students should be able to do in English, where they fill in the box for *Yes*, *No*, or *I need more practice*. This way, students are aware of what still needs to be practiced and can review their knowledge to obtain a more complete understanding of the content.

The assessment sections have vocabulary, grammar, and interactive activities that involve students in the serious work of reanalyzing and evaluating their knowledge, such as reviews for Units 7 through 8, Units 9 through 10, Units 11 through 12, and Units 13 through 14. To provide an example, in the review for Units 7 and 8 students have several types of activities: filling in the blanks, completing descriptions, developing dialogues, and matching conversations. These activities allow students to assess in various ways the content covered in these units (see Appendix C, p. 227). In the assessment section for Units 13 through 14 students find the differences, and complete sentences, which provide more varied forms of activities.

Although all units provide appropriate opportunities for periodic assessment, there were in some units a lack of assessment that involved students in interactions to create their own meaning and written comprehension. Most grammatical activities were based on drills and sentence patterns, and in some units the vocabulary section had students develop only mechanics, such as correcting mistakes in sentences or cross out words that do not belong to a category. Nevertheless, the textbook provide opportunities for periodic assessments and space for learners to evaluate their own knowledge. Therefore, the merit score for *Monitoring and Assessing* is *Good*.

Summary

The analysis of *Keep in Mind* indicates that the curriculum content effectively contemplates the needs and interests of learners, and offers students plenty of fun activities. The textbook promotes authentic language use and contextualized communicative events for reading, writing, and grammar skills. Grammar especially is presented in a way that allows for students to manipulate the linguistic features in its use

dimension. Moreover, textbook writers provide space for students to evaluate their own knowledge through periodic assessment of content learned.

The description of the goals for each unit is not presented outright. Yet, the units are designed with few topics in a way that provides a more comprehensive understanding of the topics and language features. The essential vocabulary is displayed with a great deal of initial preparation of the vocabulary (e.g., *Get in the Mood* and *Food for Thought*) before subsequent focus on reading, speaking, and writing skills. With a compact presentation of content, the goals can be achieved and the chances increase for practice, production, and reinforcement of the content. Hence, the textbooks provide content suitable for students' level of proficiency by giving them the appropriate preparation for subsequent activities in the unit.

The textbook relies on a structural and communicative syllabus, where the communicative framework corresponds to a relatively weak version of communicative approach. Although the content of the activities is based on authentic communication, there are few opportunities for students to try out their own language production in communicative contexts. Students in speaking activities are asked to repeat dialogues with a partner, not being involved in exchange of information to attempt to generate their own production into the target language. The activities do not provide spaces for students to go beyond controlled practice of communication. There is a great emphasis on grammar and vocabulary rather than communication, limiting the exchange of information between interactants.

The listening activities in the textbook provide appropriate opportunities for learners to recall, reflect, and generate meaning. They help students attend to the

metacognitive process necessary to comprehend and analyze information in the dialogues. On the other hand, in the reading activities the sentences are short and the vocabulary is not the focus of the unit. Furthermore, the writing activities are limited in helping students create a written text and develop understanding of the writing process. The nature of the writing task can be improved to aid learners to deal with the language system and build their own written work. The presentation of topics follows a linear format, which fails to reinforce the vocabulary and topics in subsequent units. The recycling of information throughout the units is of outmost importance for helping learners acquire the target language. Therefore, more attention needs to be given to the repetition of content in a more focused way.

CHAPTER 6

COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter presents the comparative analysis of the textbooks *Links* and *Keep in Mind*. The analysis explores the commonalities and differences between the textbooks. Also, attention is given to the research questions and findings of the study.

Comparative Analysis of *Links* and *Keep in Mind*

Based on descriptions and analyses of each textbook in the previous chapters, the present chapter develops a comparative analysis between the textbooks. Both textbooks are compared for each one of the checklist items, follow by a section of results summarizing the comparison between *Links* and *Keep in Mind*.

Considering the Environment

The textbooks *Keep in Mind* and *Links* have different organizations for the presentation of content. For *Links*, there is a preoccupation in providing authentic texts and sentences, helping learners deal with various discursive features. Yet, the content is presented briefly and activities go beyond students' level of comprehension. The textbook deals with various topics, limiting students' ability to comprehend and attend to linguistic features. Consequently, learners encountered language forms that they were not prepared to acquire. The textbooks have activities, particularly listening practices in which students are expected to grasp language structures that have not been previously

elicited. At times, activities include vocabulary that has not been covered, and students do not have the proper proficiency for the difficulty level of the tasks. This may be due to the amount of topics to be covered, which takes away the opportunities of students to direct their attention to the linguistic code.

Furthermore, the textbook writers could be more considerate of a student's attention span, and therefore limit the use of long, complex texts; especially when the text uses vocabulary not yet covered in the unit. They must be constantly aware that students are not able to activate learning that has not been previously introduced. It is possible that having fewer vocabulary words that are also more aligned with the goals for the unit could maximize students' ability to learn effectively. Therefore, the reading and listening activities that initially present the essential vocabulary could be developed to help students cope with what is assigned. First, students should look through the vocabulary. Second, the textbooks should give attention to particular linguistic features; this way, students will be able to consider the language system and create their own hypotheses about the target language. Despite having authentic texts, learners need an intentional focus on specific vocabulary in order to give attention to these language structures.

Conversely, the textbook *Keep in Mind* successfully presents vocabulary throughout units by a process format for displaying the content of the unit. The *Get in the mood* section, which is the first section of every unit, briefly provides students with a first glance at the topic and vocabulary, followed by a presentation and practice of the unit. The order of presentation helps students retrieve prior knowledge and recall learning throughout the lessons. There are fewer topics which allows for a compacted unit, giving learners a chance to comprehend input, practice, and reinforce content during the

activities. The way the unit is developed provides a great deal of initial presentation and practice of vocabulary before subsequent focus on the skills (listening, reading, writing, and speaking).

Thus, there are several opportunities for presentation of the skills before they are practiced individually. With a few topics, the textbook writers of *Keep in Mind* explore more consistently the core vocabulary, and build upon this knowledge during all the units, which was not observed in the textbook *Links*. One disadvantage, at times, of the textbook *Keep in Mind* that cannot be overlooked is the oversimplification of the reading and writing sections, and the use of Portuguese in tasks where English could have been used. Still overall, *Keep in Mind* works with a compact organization more aligned with the goals of the units, which prepares students to cope with what is assigned based on previous instruction, along with having activities that work with vocabulary presented in the unit.

On the contrary, *Links* has difficult listening and reading activities for learners, and failed to present and prepare students for the essential vocabulary in the unit, hindering their ability to analyze the language system. Both textbooks incorporated resources, such as a dictionary box for learners to comprehend unknown words and highlight input during presentations of content, to stimulate input processing. Even so, *Keep in Mind*'s course design is most able to prepare students to work with vocabulary presented in the unit.

Discovering Interests

The students' level of engagement of the foreign language greatly depends on how the tasks capture their interest. Both textbooks offer a range of topics of interest for

learners and plenty of fun activities. The topics are related to personalities, sports, celebrities, movies, collections, and interesting places. Students participate in fun activities as diverse as Bingo, Battleship, word hunts, finding items, and spotting differences. Finding items and spotting differences especially rely on ordering and identifying skills, comparing task accomplishments advocated by the communicative approach (J. Willis, 1996). Many other fun activities are included for students; the textbook even explore Internet content and emoticon symbols used in text messages.

One relevant activity, yet, probably not as compelling for Brazilian students, is to complete Luke Skywalker's (of Star Wars®) family tree to be filled out. The average Brazilian student would be unaccustomed to this television series, which would interfere with their interest in the activity. Nevertheless, both textbook writers present learners with topics of interest and a great deal of fun activities. Because the beginner students are dealing with the target language for the first time, having enjoyable and entertaining activities is of utmost importance. Fortunately, the textbook writers develop appropriate topics of interest for students, not relying on procedural activities.

Following Principles

The *Links* and *Keep in Mind* textbooks have differences and similarities in their activity design and the underlying approaches that guide the learning experiences. *Links'* curriculum is framed mostly by a communicative approach, but also has elements of a notional-functional approach. The communicative orientation is based on a weaker type of the communicative approach, because only at times does the content favor a task approach. The presentation of content has a process that follows a PPT sequence of

language learning, with presentation of vocabulary and grammar, practice, and the production of controlled and freer communication.

Designing the language learning based on a communicative approach allows for situational and communicative context activities, rather than relying on grammatical explanations, rote memorization, and controlled activities. The dialogues and conversations are based on contextualized communications, but the design and intentional aims of the activities do not give space for learners to generate spontaneous language experienced in the process of language production. There are few tasks in *Links* where learners can discover the language system for themselves through the process of communicating to achieve a particular outcome. Students have controlled activities where communication emerges through the rehearsal of content, but activities must promote opportunities to negotiate meaning with interlocutors. In spite of having suitable controlled activities, *Links* does not allow learners to try out their own language production in meaningful ways.

The textbook *Keep in Mind*, like *Links*, relies on a weaker version of the communicative framework. The textbook's syllabus is based on the communicative framework, but also displays aspects of a structural syllabus. The presentation of grammar relies on a structural syllabus. There is a great emphasis on grammar and vocabulary in relation to communication. Although the content and activities are contextualized, based on real communications, the units do not provide students with space to go beyond controlled practices of communication. The freer production relies on requesting students to come up with a dialogue, which does not automatically lead them

to exchange information. In reality, students are not able to produce language to achieve an outcome.

In summary, both textbooks concede appropriate controlled practices and contextualized content, but fail to enable students to generate language collaboratively in interactions. Despite the fact that beginner students have little knowledge of the target language, having students produce language in interactions can increase opportunities to integrate input, output, and test their own hypotheses. The design of free activities loosely elicits the opportunity to manipulate language in real communication by creating various avenues for interaction and manipulation of meaningful contexts. Both textbooks dismiss free productions based on a task approach. Activities rely on having students come up with a dialogue or controlled answers and questions that involve repetition of dialogues. Activities that involve free communication are found lacking in the textbooks, where learning experiences convey a weak communicative approach. Consequently, this can lead to constrained generalizations and practice of the English language.

Goals

Both textbooks dismiss the necessity of explicitly describing the learning outcomes for their units. It is left to the teacher to figure them out based on indications presented in the content section. In *Links*, there are no specifications of goals and the curriculum includes several topics in a unit. Focus is on breadth and coverage of materials, rather than deep knowledge of the featured language topics. With the attention to various topics, students are unable to explore the content in a range of ways and integrate knowledge learned. There are few chances for learners to analyze and assess their understanding, affecting the alignment between goals, instruction, and assessment.

Additionally, the instruction becomes diffused by not focusing on the unit goals, which hinders the potential for learners to explore nuances, contexts, and expressions that are expected to be the aim of each lesson. Hence, the establishment of specific objectives would provide chances for students to recall, practice, and assess their understanding, instead of having various topics that failed to create a logical connection between the topics and goals.

The textbook *Keep in Mind* also does not present the objectives expected for the unit, but since the units are composed of fewer topics, the correspondence between the goals, instruction, and assessment is not greatly affected. Targeting one or two topics in the unit allows for a smooth progression, where learners can explore the topics and assess their understanding of the language structures. The units have a cohesive and compact presentation of content, which creates instruction that works with the essential aims of the lesson. In turn, *Keep in Mind* provides in-depth information and comprehension of the focal point in the lesson, creating a suitable format that integrates the goals, instruction, and assessment. Thus, the lack of definition of goals in precise terms can lead to content that diffuses targeted coverage of material. This leads to a sparse relationship between goals, instruction, and assessment. Conversely, working with a compact format with fewer topics allows for depth of material, which in turn develops a more purposeful instruction and assessment (Wiggins & McTighe, 2011). Essentially, *Keep in Mind* units move in a progression of content that provides opportunities for reinforcement, recall, and reevaluation of material, while *Links* could produce a more effective relationship between goals and instruction.

Listening

There are accentuated differences between *Links* and *Keep in Mind* in relation to the design of listening practices in the textbooks. In *Links*, the listening dialogues and conversations do not rely on scripted language made for textbooks, but it provides linguistic items in communicative events. In spite of that, there is no space for learners to focus on specific lexical and syntactic features of the input, nor to evaluate their comprehension of content. After having students listen to dialogue, there is a need for follow-up activities, where students concentrate on recognizing patterns and use information to think about what they learned through, for example, completion of sentences, listening grids, prompts, and matching activities. However, in both textbooks, there is a lack of these types of activities following listening to dialogue.

The textbook *Links* should organize listening that facilitates recognition of linguistic items and chances for students to check their understanding throughout the practice of content. On the other hand, *Keep in Mind* not only uses authentic language through dialogue, but assists learners in attending and comprehending specific language features. Although there are listening practices that could be developed more at the sentence level, there are plenty of opportunities for students to process and comprehend linguistic items. The listening practices are organized to help students attend to content and construct their own meaning. The textbook's listening sections develop various activities that lead students to think about the target language and reach overall understanding. Although both textbooks could employ pedagogical tools and resources that help students more attentively focus on specific lexical and syntactic features of input, *Keep in Mind* attends to the metacognitive processes of learners. This textbook, in

relation to *Links*, allows more space for learners to process input and to practice listening in order to decode, create hypotheses, and verify comprehension of the language.

Speaking

In both textbooks the dialogues and content are appropriately designed with authentic communication and discursive markers, yet students are not led to generate their own production and share meaning in conversations. The two textbooks have suitable controlled language production where students listen and repeat content, reproducing spoken language based on formulated conversations provided in the lesson. Controlled practices are necessary to create rule-competence, comprehension, and to build the ability to get a message across. Students can focus on the input and output, but still in a limited way. Correspondingly, activities must go beyond repetition of conversations, to help them manipulate and produce their own language forms. That means that a balance must exist between controlled and free production to provide output that is lengthy and complex to give the necessary conditions for second language development (Ellis, 2008).

Both textbooks failed to ensure practice of communication and negotiation of meaning, as learners need free production that engages them in creating meaning and fluency of the features of spoken language. Since students are in the beginning process of building their own language system, simply asking students to act out a conversation can lead to freedom that they are not ready to take; rather, students need guidance with linguistic resources or prompts in order to perform a task. Requesting these novice students to talk with a partner or act out a conversation will lead to repetition of the dialogue given in the lesson.

The textbooks require more attention to developing free production and creating diversified activities, rather than asking students to talk to a partner. Students need some guidance and structure to develop communication. L2 speaking should rely heavily on students working together to achieve mutual comprehension, through discussions and group work. Particularly in the textbook *Keep in Mind*, the free production activities at times are prescribed to the world-level, having students work with few items and words, stressing students' grammatical accuracy. In general, there are few opportunities for students to work with talk-in-interaction, which promotes oral communication skills. Therefore, the textbooks need to balance speaking tasks that promote controlled and free communicative speech, and develop fluency, accuracy, and authentic language.

Reading

Textbook writers attend in different ways to aspects of the reading experience to enhance vocabulary and comprehension skills. The textbook *Links* draws attention to the vocabulary worked in the unit, and triggers students' background knowledge in order for them to predict new information in the text. Although more attention could be provided for the learner to notice input, the reading activities attend to unknown words and increase comprehension skills. The textbook promotes comprehension skills through a range of follow-up activities that focus on reading and discussion of the text, posing of questions about the main points of the text, and completion of information grids. Even though *Links* assists students to work with different genres, there is an overemphasis on having students know the genre of text. Questions about the type of text always emerge isolated from the content worked in the lesson content. However, the textbook helps

learners to check their understanding of the words and message of the text, which promotes reading skills and retention of content.

In comparison with *Links*—instead of having students read full texts—*Keep in Mind* has students interpret short sentences. At times, the vocabulary in the sentences is not the essential vocabulary that is the focus of the unit. Also, the few sentences provided in the reading activity seem to focus on grammatical items, in place of eliciting deliberate attention to vocabulary. Hence, *Keep in Mind* reading practices lack the potential to provide students with information that can be reanalyzed in order to achieve comprehension of the vocabulary and the message of the texts. On the whole, the textbook *Links* provides a more suitable reading experience than *Keep in Mind*, due to *Keep in Mind*'s shortfall in providing readings that have small and isolated sentences, which does not allow for comprehension of vocabulary and main-idea comprehension of the texts.

Writing

The textbook *Links* provides a satisfactory score for writing practices in relation to *Keep in Mind* especially because students have a model to follow, and are stimulated to use the language system to explore sentence-level writing work. At times, *Links* course design for writing activities has tasks that neither connect reading and writing, nor organize freehand written work related to the unit goals. Despite this fact, most units direct students through a written script to increase their ability to create their own written work. Generally, the activities focus on important language structures related to the unit, exploring writing experiences that maximize their ability to compose. On the other hand, *Keep in Mind*, though having suitable writing lessons that help students delve into the

writing of specific vocabulary with attention to the audience of the text, fails to explore tasks that require students to go beyond the word-level. In most cases, the writing is loosely organized, having learners simply practice word-level skills, with little opportunity to focus on the writing process.

In *Keep in Mind* the writing practices lack specifications about the written work and appropriate goal-oriented activities. In general, both textbooks could benefit from providing more specific guidance about the topic, genre, and purpose of the task. Students need assistance in dealing with the language system in a way that leads them to produce their own work, along with attention to the process of writing to help students compose effectively.

Grammar

Both textbooks assigned a great deal of attention to the form-meaning relationship in the construction of grammar activities. The grammatical items are explored in contextualized communicative events. The textbook *Links* uses comic strips to supply the grammatical forms in a communicative framework. Conversely, *Keep in Mind* employs different kinds of activities, such as dialogues, sentence completion, and charts, but at times the emphasis relies more on form than meaning. Both *Links* and *Keep in Mind* offer activities where students notice the form, along with their use and meaning. While *Links'* comic strips elaborate on the forms and use in communication by exploring content in the comic strips, *Keep in Mind* presents the content about the grammatical items and develops different types of activities for learners. Hence, the textbooks attend to language forms in input, while promoting its use in communicative contexts.

The only aspect that could be improved is the intentionality of textbook writers in helping students notice input. There are few instances where the input is highlighted or stressed in the presentation of content. The attention to form is conceived during the exercises or charts where the grammatical points are explained. Still, there is not a focus on input awareness during the presentation of information in the dialogues. Nonetheless, before providing opportunities for free production of speech in the unit, both writers attend to the language form and use dimension.

Format and Presenting Material

The analysis for format and presentation of material in the textbooks reveals that a small number of units repeat and recycle content across the textbook. Although the textbooks offer rich and varied content, the writers do not contemplate the fact that students need constant reinforcement for learning the linguistic items. Working with content one time through a unit is not sufficient to help students integrate and recall knowledge of content. The textbook *Links* in the first four units attempts to recycle vocabulary and grammatical items, providing a cyclical format for presentation of material. During the other six units there is no intentional appropriation of content in other units, with rare, sparse examples of material covered in other units. The lexical and grammatical structures presented in the units follow a linear format, limiting learners' potential to notice and recall topics already learned in other units.

In the case of the textbook *Keep in Mind*, the course content does not attend to recycling of content in a focused way. There are few cases where the topics are reinforced with grammatical and lexical items thrown freely and casually into the dialogues, without giving the necessary focus on the previous material. The format across

the units is linear, not allowing students to recall their knowledge of the topic. On that account, both textbooks failed to provide presentation of material where learners can review and reinforce the material, increasing the chances of learning the language items.

Monitoring and Assessment

In the textbooks *Keep in Mind* and *Links* there are plenty of opportunities for students to assess content learned. In both textbooks there is a checkpoint section at the end of the textbook or throughout the unit lessons that contains a periodic assessment of every two or three units. The assessment allows for students to revise and integrate the information learned in the units. Hence, the assessment sections are satisfactory, giving space for students to evaluate their own knowledge. The textbook *Keep in Mind* has a particular section where students are able to self-assess, checking their progress of what they know and can develop in English. This section is desirable because it allows students the ability to understand what their learning should entail and which elements need further improvement.

In both textbooks it is possible to observe that though the form-meaning in grammatical activities is contemplated, in the assessment there is a focus on form with activities comprising drills and sentence patterns. Moreover, the assessment activities failed to provide opportunity for students to practice their speaking and listening skills, to assess their level of proficiency. Perhaps, assessment of students' knowledge of the target language in interactions could be an aim in the assessment section of the textbook. To sum up, as a whole the textbooks develop assessment activities that provide various forms of activities that allow periodic assessment to help students evaluate their own knowledge.

Consistent with the results, it was possible to observe that the checklist items that have satisfactory results for both textbooks correspond to: discovering interests, grammar, monitoring, and assessment. Poor scores correspond to: following principles, speaking, and format and presenting material. *Links* shows satisfactory results for reading and writing, while *Keep in Mind* satisfactorily designs items related to considering the environment, goals, and listening activities (see Table 2 in Chapter 4).

Results of Comparison among *Links* and *Keep in Mind*

This section compares the results of *Links* and *Keep in Mind*, discussing the findings in the context of existing literature.

Commonalities

The analysis of the textbooks shows several commonalities in the choices of curriculum content and instructional design. Both textbooks offer a range of topics of interest for students relating to personalities, sports, celebrities, movies, collections, etc. The activities are fun and engage students in the learning process, rather than relying on mechanical tasks. There are activities used that are suggested for enhancing communicative competence, such as ordering and spotting, and comparing tasks (J. Willis, 1996). The course content of both textbooks explores specific writing settings, such as text messages or sending an e-mail. Despite using content from the Internet, the textbooks could advance their resources from the Internet, such as blogs, Twitter®, Facebook®, Learnist®, Pinterest®, Videojug®, etc. The Internet can be a means for students to further pursue activities in order to immerse themselves in language learning. Since resources on the Internet are tremendous, and students are familiarized with that environment, more can be accomplished to incorporate learning 2.0, e-learning, and the

Table 2

Comparison of the Summative Value Among Links and Keep in Mind

Checklist Item	<i>Links</i>	<i>Keep in Mind</i>
1. Considering the Environment The textbook designer took into consideration the level of students' proficiency in every unit.	0	2
2. Discovering Interests The textbook is compatible with age-appropriate topics and interests of the learners.	2	2
3. Following Principles The activities are well-designed in allegiance with appropriate instructional methodologies.	0	0
4. Goals The objectives are spelled out in the introduction part and the material aligns goals, instruction, and assessment.	0	1
5. Listening There is a discernible system at work in the presentation of listening activities, where students recognize and understand the linguistic structures.	0	1
6. Speaking Speaking activities promote the development of fluent, accurate, appropriate, and authentic language.	0	0
7. Reading The reading texts and activities are organized based on authentic contexts in a way that learners become familiarized with words and text structure.	1	0

Table 2—Continued.

<p>8. Writing</p> <p>The writing activities aligned to the material worked with in the unit, and students write based on guided instruction.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>0</p>
<p>9. Grammar</p> <p>The grammar activities focus on form and meaning in contextualized communicative events.</p>	<p>2</p>	<p>1</p>
<p>10. Format and Presenting Material</p> <p>The content in the units are constantly being recycled and repeated, through either a linear, modular or cyclical format.</p>	<p>0</p>	<p>0</p>
<p>11. Monitoring and Assessing</p> <p>In every unit there are opportunities for assessment.</p>	<p>1</p>	<p>2</p>

Internet as a means for helping students achieve successful learning.

The textbooks dismiss the necessity of explicitly ascribing the learning outcome of the units. Henriques (2009) found similar results in his analysis of EFL textbooks: Textbook designers neglect the necessity of expressing the objective in every lesson. There is a tendency to focus on the amount of material covered, working with several topics in a given unit, instead of achieving specific goals. This is the case of the textbook *Links* which relies on a coverage approach, hindering the potential of exploring the content in a range of ways. The instruction becomes more diffused and less attention is paid for students to learn the social circumstances and nuances of expressions that are expected to be the aim of each lesson. *Keep in Mind* provides more compact units that focus on a few topics to be explored in each unit. Even so, not having precise learning

objectives leads to diffused activities, particularly with what relates to the reading activities which failed to center on the goals of the unit. For *Links* this is seen in the writing activities. Therefore, establishing desired goals for the units can provide instructions that direct students to purposeful language learning outcome, and more compact units that explored more in depth the content of the textbook.

The literature indicates that there is a prevalent shift in textbooks to a communicative instructional approach (Criado & Sanchez, 2009; Gilmore, 2004; Harlan, 2000). However, studies also show that there is prevalent use of audiolingual and grammar-translation methodological instruction (Consolo, 1990; Harlan, 2000; J. Santos, 1993). By analyzing the textbooks, it is possible to observe that a communicative approach serves as a framework for the development of learning experiences, the content, and instructions of EFL textbooks. Regardless of a communicative framework being the basis of the textbook development, there is a tendency in *Links* to use a notional-functional syllabus as an adjunct instruction, with an acute focus on specific settings and situations.

On the other hand, *Keep in Mind* incorporates elements of audiolingual and the structural syllabus attending to repetitive exercises, sentence patterns, and mechanical study of linguistic forms. For *Keep in Mind* there is an emphasis on studying linguistic structures, where the teaching material often focuses on grammatical forms at the center of the unit content. Other studies have found similar conjunctions of communicative approach and the audiolingual or structural approach to the process of teaching a foreign language (Harlan, 2000; J. Santos, 1993). Dalacorte (1991) and Chiaretti (1993) point out that the textbooks they analyzed may attempt to develop communicative competence, but

mainly attend to the linguistic structure. Although *Keep in Mind* is communicatively oriented, there is an excessive focus on the grammatical forms, accuracy, and formal correctness.

In effect, *Links* and *Keep in Mind* rely on a weak version of the communicative approach because those activities do not allow learners to try out their own language production in meaningful ways to achieve a communicative outcome. The textbooks have suitable controlled language production instructions where students listen and repeat content, reproducing spoken language based on formulated conversations. Surely, controlled practices create the conditions for students to experience the process of language production in communications. It helps develop rule competence and comprehension, and builds ability in interactions to get the message across. However, as Nizegorodcew (2007) emphasizes, “Meaning-focused instruction does not suffice in acquiring accurate L2 forms” (p. 274). On that account, there must be a balance between accuracy and fluency (Ellis, 2008), having a share of controlled and freer production through loosely controlled activities where students can negotiate meaning collaboratively. Nizegorodcew (2007) also stresses that the focus on meaning and form should not be viewed as two discrete processes, but together as a continuum.

Controlled practices expose and assist students in rehearsing features of input to be eventually acquired in free production of oral communicative practice. Still, the design of activities very loosely enables students to manipulate language in communications, creating various avenues for interactions and sharing of meaning. The content and dialogues of activities show that textbook writers promote contextualized instructions. The texts and dialogues are based on realistic discourse use in natural conversations. The

literature on textbook studies related to the investigations of conversational and discourse features incorporated into dialogues shows mixed results. Dalacorte (1991) and Chiaretti's (1993) textbook analysis indicates that dialogues failed to reflect real conversational patterns and contextualized aspects of the target language. Investigations present a lack of contextualized and authentic conversational features related to turn-taking patterns, marks of orality, overlap, use of hesitation device, and back-channeling (Gilmore, 2004; Tenuta & Oliveira, 2011). Conversely, Costa (2004) shows that various elements of natural conversations were explored in contextualized communicative events in the textbooks analyzed. The present analysis indicates that conversational features are found in dialogues and that a natural collection of spoken data is used in the textbooks.

Nevertheless learners engage in few tangible experiences where they produce language in interactions and enhance oral communication skills, because the design of activities does not provide appropriate channels to create communication. Activities are limited, as they do not go beyond controlled practices that affect the speaking lessons. Nizegorodcew (2007) mentions that "teachers are made to believe that learners themselves possess sufficient FL resources, which can be activated by merely engaging them in communicative activities" (p. 275). This maxim is also perceived in both textbooks, where the mere focus on having students talk to a partner without giving much instruction and a structured activity type will lead to the conditions necessary for communication and L2 development.

At times, students are given more freedom than they are able to handle. Learners need opportunities to use language in loosely controlled activities, rather than simply requesting them to talk to a partner or rehearse dialogue. The textbooks focused more

attention on having free production by diversifying the activities. The activities must rely heavily on providing opportunities for students to work together to achieve mutual comprehension, to negotiate meaning, and to generate talk-in-interaction that promote communicative competence. To assist students in communicating to achieve an outcome, students need information-gap, consensus building and problem-based activities, as well as other types of activities that involve fluency, such as role-playing, fluency circles, presentations, ordering and sequencing, and jigsaw activities.

While Criado and Sanchez's (2009) research indicates that textbooks adapted fairly well to the communicative nature of activities with a range of about 50-80% of real communicative activities, other studies have shown that textbooks have their shortcomings in facilitating communication in the target language (Harlan, 2000; Henriques, 2009). Almeida Filho et al. (1991) believe that students have "few tangible occasions for experiencing communication in the target language" (p. 90). The design of activities must focus beyond form-focused instruction to meaning-focused instruction. Neither textbook relies on a task-based approach because they do not explicitly aim to help students experience the interactional dimensions of language use and discover the language system in interactions in the process of communicating to achieve an outcome. Overall, EFL textbooks must ensure that learners are adequately guided to enhance communicative competence in free communicative speech moments, in a way that promotes several aspects of language learning concerning fluency and accuracy in authentic contexts.

Although there are few spaces for students to assign meaning and produce language in communication, in both textbooks the grammar activities provide

opportunities for students to attend to language form, along with the use dimension. The textbook *Links* uses comic strips, which is an appropriate means to supply the grammatical forms in a communicative framework. The design of grammar activities allows for a focus on form-meaning relationship that explore grammatical items in contextualized communicative events. Conversely, *Keep in Mind* employs different kinds of activities, such as dialogues, sentence completion, and charts, but at times the emphasis relies more on form than meaning. Similarly, Fernández (2011) in his analysis of textbooks found that the grammar in textbooks has incorporated a more form-focused approach presented in a contextualized way, releasing grammatical practices from a controlled-based approach. Textbooks writers are attuned to the necessity of providing language forms in communicative events, attending to the form and how meaning can be conveyed. One aspect that could be improved is that there are few attempts to direct students to the linguistic code through input awareness, such as marking or increasing the salience of the target structure in the input. To achieve students' perceptual systems, more enrich input tasks can be used to increase students' attention to the linguistic features.

The textbook analysis reveals that input is practiced and presented with ample exposure during the unit. Yet, across the units a small number of units repeat and recycle content. *Links* and *Keep in Mind* predominantly rely on a linear format and, in few cases, on apparent reinforcement of grammatical and lexical forms; items are thrown casually into the material. Though the content of the textbooks is rich and varied, the writers do not contemplate the need for constant reinforcement of learning to be incorporated to the learners' linguistic repertoire. Students' success depends on having them work with the

target structure that they were already in the process of learning. Designing the presentation of material based on a linear format fails to consider that content presented once is not sufficient to help students integrate and recall content.

On the other hand, textbooks provide plenty of opportunities for students to assess content learned. There is a checkpoint section that ensures a periodic assessment of content, allowing for students to revise and integrate information learned in the units. Particularly for *Keep in Mind* there is a focus on grammatical items through drills and sentence-pattern activities, rather than checking students' speaking ability. Perhaps, both textbooks would benefit from offering students the opportunity to practice through videos of listening and speaking activities, helping them assess their level of proficiency.

Differences

The textbooks have a different organization of content and considerations of the environment. This aspect relates to presenting vocabulary and content that have been previously covered in the unit. *Links* provides for students authentic texts to help them deal with various discursive features. Even so, the units deal with various topics that do not allow a process where students are initially presented with the linguistic items, being able to build upon previous knowledge during the unit. Since there are various topics in *Links*, students do not have opportunities to notice and comprehend input, because the vocabulary was not initially introduced and consistently explored. On the other hand, *Keep in Mind* has a more compact presentation of content with fewer topics, allowing a first glance into content, and various opportunities for presentation and practice of vocabulary.

Although *Keep in Mind* more intentionally prepares students to cope with content and presents vocabulary used in the unit, the reading and writing sections have vocabulary that is simplified. Besides, English could have been used for instruction given in Portuguese. *Links*' shortcomings result from complex and long texts that have not been the focus of instruction and initial presentation. The number of topics takes away the possibility of initially presenting the essential content and preparing learners for subsequent attention to the linguistic code. Particularly, for listening, *Links* fails to present and prepare students to understand core vocabulary. In sum, *Keep in Mind* works with a few topics, aligning them to the goal, allowing further opportunities to explore them during the units.

Findings indicate that the textbooks are based on a communicative framework, but they also display elements of other syllabi. In *Keep in Mind* there is a tendency to focus on grammar and vocabulary more intensely than on communication. The textbook displays elements of a structural and audiolingual syllabus centering on linguistic items and structural patterns. Instructions have a great deal of emphasis on particular linguistic items and grammatical concepts. On the other hand, *Links*, besides framing the course and instruction through a communicative approach, incorporates notional-syllabus and, at times, presents reminiscent aspects of the audiolingual method. This is seen through the use of drills and sentence patterns in the activities. However, more focus is observed in the situational and communicative contexts.

In *Links*, a more clear distinction of the sections relates to vocabulary, grammar, and communication, following a PPP sequence of language learning. The presentation of content in a PPP sequence provides a presentation of vocabulary and grammar, practice,

and production through free and controlled communications. The textbook analysis developed by Litz (2005) also shows that the FL textbooks elaborate the sequence of content through a PPP, rather than a task-based approach. Ellis (2011) mentioned that this instructional methodology is probably the most widely used sequence for organizing course content. In reality, the limitations of *Links* are not due to the instructional sequence, but in the quantity of topics and inability to focus on the goals of the unit. Although *Keep in Mind* does not follow a PPP sequence, there is an explicit presentation, practice, and production of content with different nuances, for instance, reading and writing at the end of the units. The textbooks at times favor a task-approach, but do not intentionally have a curriculum design that focuses on tasks. Learners could produce and process language in-context and at higher levels if the textbook activities were more elaborately crafted.

Accentuated difference is observed in the design and organization of the listening practices in the textbooks. *Links* always provides authentic dialogues that deal with linguistic items at the discursive level. Despite that, listening activities could more appropriately facilitate recognition of linguistic items, helping students notice input and evaluate their comprehension of content. The textbook could more intentionally focus on the metacognitive process of learners, offering activities after the listening act that help students to think about the language system. At variance with *Links*, the textbook *Keep in Mind* develops dialogues that are at times at the sentence-level, yet allows more space for learners to attend to features of input and to verify comprehension of their learning. Thus, *Keep in Mind* has a more satisfactory organization of listening experiences. To improve

both textbooks, several activities could be developed, such as listening grips, prompts, completion of sentences, and matching activities.

Concerning the reading experiences, textbook writers have different ways of presenting the vocabulary and enhancing comprehension skills. In *Links*, textbook writers attend to unknown words and promote comprehension skills through a range of follow-up activities. These activities focus on features of input, discussions, and questions about the main points of text. Learners can increase their reading skills as the textbook allows for understanding of the words, the message of the text, and predicting new information by triggering their background knowledge. The reading activities in *Links* have a satisfactory organization. The only aspect that seemed to somewhat limit the flow of reading is the overemphasis on having students knowing the genre of texts isolated from the content covered in the lesson.

On the other hand, *Keep in Mind* shows some shortcomings relating to the reading practices, due to the absence of full reading texts, instead providing small sentences to be interpreted. At times the vocabulary in the reading activities did not align with the essential vocabulary of the unit. Furthermore, the small sentences provided seemed to center on grammatical items, in place of arousing deliberate attention to vocabulary. Hence, *Keep in Mind* should provide more space for students to analyze the vocabulary through authentic messages and texts, allowing for comprehension and retention of content. Both textbooks also could provide a word-wall with the vocabulary that is covered in the texts and attend more deliberately to features of input.

For the writing skills, *Links* designs activities that are more satisfactory than *Keep in Mind*, especially because students have a model to follow and are stimulated to create

their own written work. In *Links* the writing practices are more aligned to the goals of the unit, offering written guidance to help learners explore their ability to compose.

Conversely, *Keep in Mind* focuses on specific vocabulary, but fails to explore activities that go beyond word-level, with limited opportunities for learners to focus on the writing process. At times, the writing experiences lack specifications about the written work and appropriate goal-oriented practices. Additionally, both textbooks could benefit by providing more varied activity types, such as prompts, writing a response to a picture, dictoglosses, reading responses, and writing based on concept-maps and inventories, etc. Moreover, attention can be assigned to the process of writing, reading and writing connections, and guidance about the topic, genre, and purpose of the tasks.

Research Questions and Presentation of Findings

In this section the research questions are emphasized, making explicit the findings regarding the aims proposed in this study.

Research Question 1: To what point are textbook writers taking into account language curriculum design?

Although language curriculum design can be conceptualized as the whole product of student learning experienced in the textbook, in this work for the purpose of description and analysis it corresponds to checklist of items related to considering the environment, discovering interests, goals, format and presentation of content, and monitoring and assessment (Nation & Macalister, 2010). The analysis shows that although teachers can make inferences about the learning outcomes of the units, the textbooks do not clearly define the aims of the lessons. This can create difficulties as the

textbook writers are unable to consistently explore and build goal-oriented lessons allowing students further opportunities to explore the content.

When failing to describe the desired goal, there is a tendency to use a coverage approach by working with several topics in the unit. This is observed specially in *Links*, as the number of topics to cover limits the potential to provide in-depth understanding of content. Furthermore, it does not allow students to be initially presented to the linguistic items and to build understanding upon previous knowledge. In turn, *Keep in Mind* allows students to notice and comprehend input, which are essential elements for students to incorporate the linguistic items to their language system. Language learning is dependent on targeting specific features of input, offering chances to help learners pay attention to input that can be eventually acquired during the lesson. Thus, the presentation of a more compact unit established on goals can create opportunities for students to notice the input and understand how the language is actually used (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Schmidt, 1990, 2001). In this case, *Keep in Mind* allows for more authentic manipulation of input, and input processing for meaning and form.

The textbooks design fun and interesting activities for students. Learners are involved in playing different types of games and activities; for example, Battleship, word hunt, finding items, and spotting the differences. Thus, the activities focus on what is of interest to learners, rather than relying on mechanical instruction. Even so, both textbooks seemed to be more attentive to having fun and interesting activities, rather than goal-oriented activities. Consequently, the instructions may not be aligned to the goals of the unit, and are not purposefully constructed to facilitate the learning outcome, which is the case in *Links*. Furthermore, the content of activities is more accessible in the textbook

Keep in Mind; however, there are times that the content is oversimplified and could involve more complex and authentic dialogues and conversations.

On the other hand, *Links* has more authentic content, but overlooks the fact that texts can be too complex for students who are just learning the target language. Another obstacle for students' self-investment in both textbooks is the format and presentation of content to allow reinforcement of their learning and to incorporate linguistic items in their repertoire. Both textbook writers failed to consider that working with content only once across the units is insufficient to assist students in integrating and recalling knowledge of content. Language learning is an ongoing constructive process, where learners must actively process information and re-analyze grammatical and lexical items.

The content should allow for repetition and recycling of content in the textbook as students' success is dependent on having them work with a target structure that they are in the process of learning. Hence, the language learning processes related to having materials that facilitate learner self-investment and that take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed are not contemplated in the textbooks (Tomlinson, 2003, 2010, 2011). Conversely, the textbooks provide plenty of space for students to assess learning. There are periodic assessment checkpoints for them to revise and integrate their understanding of the target language, thus a great deal of attention in the textbooks is given to assessment.

Research Question 2: How are English language learning processes being incorporated into the EFL textbooks?

The English language learning process relates to how language learning is evoked in the textbooks. The English language learning process is particularly reported by the

following checklist items: following principles, grammar, listening, reading, writing, and speaking. The analysis of grammatical practices indicates that both textbooks have a satisfactory score, as they provide opportunities for learners to attend to language forms and their use dimensions. The textbooks offer chances to focus on form-meaning connections, exploring grammatical structures in contextualized communicative contexts. The development of listening practices in the textbook *Keep in Mind* is more satisfactory than *Links*, due to the attention the writers give to the metacognitive process of learning. In *Keep in Mind*, students attend to features of input and practice listening in ways that learners can verify their comprehension of learning. Even though *Keep in Mind* at times relies on practices more at the sentence-level, it allows more space to attend to input and help students check their understanding. *Links* relies on authentic listening of dialogues at the discursive level, but fails to present activities after the listening act that lead learners to think and comprehend the linguistic items.

On the other hand, *Links* develops reading and writing activities that offer a more consistent and satisfactory organization of students' learning experiences. Providing discursive-level dialogues and content facilitates the use of follow-up activities that help analyze vocabulary through authentic messages and texts. In the reading activities, *Links* helps students attend to unknown words, promotes discussions about the main points of the texts, and provides follow-up activities that focus on features of input. Conversely, *Keep in Mind* provides small sentences that seemed to center particularly on grammatical items, rather than deliberative attention to the vocabulary and comprehension of the text. With content for both reading and writing that fails to go beyond sentence and word-level, *Keep in Mind* limits students' opportunities to focus on the writing process and to

explore their own ability to compose. In turn, *Links* provides students with a model to be followed and stimulates them to create their own work. Despite the fact that *Keep in Mind* provides a range of listening activities that promote comprehension of the target language, the reading and writing practices hinder students' potential to master composition and comprehension skills, as it assigned privileges for conveying grammatical understanding.

Both *Keep in Mind* and *Links* frame the instruction in a communicative approach, relying on a weak version of the framework. This becomes evident as the activities limit learners to manipulate their own language production in meaningful ways to achieve a communicative outcome. Textbooks do not follow a task-based approach because it does not allow avenues for interactions and sharing of meaning that ensure opportunity to use language for communicative purposes. Textbook writers promote contextualized instruction that provides natural discourses and conversational features of dialogue, along with suitable controlled language production instruction. These controlled practices create conditions for students to develop rule competence, comprehension, and ability to get the message across, yet freer production should go beyond having students talk with a partner. As Tomlinson (2011) expounds, "Learners should be given opportunities to use language for communication rather than just to practice it in situations controlled by the teacher and materials" (p. 15). Consequently, the design of activities should be loosely structured, because students are given more freedom than they can handle. Rather than just rehearsing a dialogue, free production requires more attention to diversifying activities through information-gap, consensus building, problem-based activities, and more.

The speaking activities can engage students in more tangible experiences, where they work together to achieve mutual comprehension, produce meaningful communication, and generate talk-in-interactions that promote communicative competence. Also, there must be a more balanced orientation of content and instruction, where students work in a continual process through controlled and freer production, capacitating learners to produce and process language in contexts of use. Therefore, critical to the textbooks is the need of the interactional dimension and the production of output experiences, where students try out their own language production to achieve a communicative outcome.

The analysis of the textbooks reveals that other syllabi besides the communicative approach serve as adjunct instruction. *Links* incorporates a notional-syllabus and, at times, presents reminiscent aspects of the audiolingual methods, but predominantly focuses on situational and communicative contexts. On the other hand, *Keep in Mind* displays elements of a structural and audiolingual syllabus, centering on grammatical concepts, linguistic items, and structure patterns. This textbook, with an emphasis on grammatical structures, failed to provide discursive-level content, and limitations seemed to showcase themselves particularly in the writing and reading sections of the textbook. In regard to the sequence of language learning, *Links* follows a PPP sequence for the presentation of content, providing a presentation of vocabulary and grammar, practice, and production through free and controlled communications. However, the sequence does not seem to work across the unit with the same content and goals, which restrict the potential for students to produce and process the language system. *Keep in Mind* does not follow a PPP sequence, but there is a similar organization for the presentation of content.

Summary of Results

Findings show that communicative approaches serve as the framework for the development of students' learning experiences. There is an acute focus on providing dialogues and content based on spoken data and realistic discourses used in natural conversations. Both textbooks rely on a weaker version of the communicative approach, not a task-based approach where students engage in the process of communicating to achieve an outcome. Generally, the activities are based on controlled practices, leading to rehearsal of information or having students talk to a partner without providing a loose structure or an activity type that leads students to negotiate meaning collaboratively. The fact that students come together to talk with a partner gives more freedom than students are able to take. Although controlled practices help students become acquainted with the spoken language, rule competence, and comprehension of content, the design of activities must be structured to enable students to manipulate language in communication, creating various avenues for interactions and sharing of meaning. There must be a balance between controlled and free production of language, and it has shown that the textbooks lack a special attention to output production through information-gap activities. The design of activities provides few tangible occasions where students interact and try out their own language production. Hence, more attention can be given by textbook writers to a meaning-focused instruction, explicitly aiming to provide appropriate channels for students to create communication and achieve a communicative outcome.

The analysis of *Links* and *Keep in Mind* indicates that grammar activities allow for a form-meaning focus, exploring grammatical items in contextualized communicative events. Textbook writers are attuned to the necessity of attending to the grammatical form along with how meaning is conveyed. Although the design of content at times provides

opportunities for students to attend to input, few attempts exist that allow them to direct the linguistic code through input awareness, such as marking or increasing the salience of the target structure. Thus, more can be achieved to trigger students' perceptual system, creating activities that increase their attention to the linguistic features.

The textbooks present rich and varied content, offering students various topics of interests for them to be engaged in while learning the foreign language. However, textbook writers do not contemplate the need of constant reinforcement of learning for students to incorporate the linguistic code to their language system repertoire. Failing to consider content more than once across the textbooks will not be sufficient for students to recall and integrate knowledge of content. Conversely, the textbooks offer checkpoint sections that ensure a periodic assessment of content, allowing revision of information learned in the units.

Besides the commonalities observed between the textbooks, particular aspects related to the organization of curriculum content and instructional design are unique to each textbook. Although both failed to define precisely the learning outcomes of the units, *Links* provides more diffused units with various topics to be covered, relying on a coverage approach to content. This textbook highlights authentic texts, helping students deal with various discursive features, but does not concede students to explore content in a range of ways. The textbook does not ensure a process where students are initially introduced to the topic and linguistic items, being able to, during the unit, build upon previous knowledge. On the other hand, *Keep in Mind* presents a more compact presentation of content with fewer topics, allowing for depth of learning and alignment to the goals of the unit. This textbook ensures a more satisfactory organization of content

and alignment to the goals of the units, since fewer topics allow for further analysis of content.

The textbook *Links* uses a PPP approach for the sequence of language learning. The limitations of the textbook do not rely on the instructional PPP sequence, but in the quantity of topics that enable students to create depth of understanding about the language system. *Keep in Mind* cycles through an explicit presentation, practice, and production with various nuances of the PPP approach. Besides the communicative approach, *Links* incorporates a notional-functional syllabus, and only at times is it possible to observe reminiscent aspects of the audiolingual method. During the activities in the units, it is clear that the textbook writer offers a great deal of attention to authentic dialogues and content, rather than scripted language made for textbooks, as in the textbook *Keep in Mind*.

For the listening activities *Links* lacks the focus on the metacognitive process of learners and the acute focus on helping learners recognize the linguistic items and comprehending the content. Contrariwise, *Keep in Mind* allows space for learners to attend to the features of input and to verify their comprehension of linguistic items. The metacognitive process is contemplated, providing opportunities for students to think and comprehend the linguistic items. Both textbooks display aspects of other language syllabi and methods. The textbook *Keep in Mind* employs aspects of the structural and audiolingual syllabus that centers a great deal on particular linguistic items, sentence structures, and grammatical concepts. In general, *Keep in Mind* has an emphasis on linguistic structures with a focus on grammatical forms, accuracy, and formal correctness, especially regarding reading and writing experiences designed to rely on sentence-level

practices. There is an absence in the reading practices of authentic and full reading texts that align to the goal of the unit.

Although overall having few topics allows for continuous analysis of content, not precisely defining the goals creates the potential for working with content that is not the essential vocabulary of the unit. This is the case for the reading activities where *Keep in Mind* presents small sentences that center on grammatical items in place of deliberately giving attention to vocabulary and comprehension of content. In variance with *Keep in Mind*, *Links* attends to unknown words and promotes comprehension skills through a range of follow-up activities that focus on input, the main points of the text, questions and answers, and completion of information grids. For the writing experience, *Keep in Mind* also failed to explore activities that go beyond the word-level, therefore limiting the opportunity for students to focus on the writing process. On the other hand, *Links* stimulated students to create their own written work, offering guidance to explore their ability to compose. In summary, both textbooks have limitations and strengths that can be of use for the development of further EFL textbooks, and many commonalities exist that serve as insights for course and instructional development.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In order to better understand the underlying methodological approach of the two Brazilian EFL textbooks, *Links* and *Keep in Mind*, both used at the elementary level, the present study investigated to what point aspects of language curriculum design and English language learning processes are being incorporated into the foreign language textbooks. The second chapter provided a theoretical background of the literature on curriculum design and development, textbook analysis, and English language principles and approaches in the field of language learning. The third chapter presented the methodology used to analyze the textbooks, which comprised the instrumentation, materials, procedures, and data analysis undertaken. Then, the fourth chapter described and compared *Links* and *Keep in Mind* findings.

The second chapter presented an overview of the curriculum design and development of materials for language learning, approaches, and language syllabus design, as well as English language learning principles in the area of English language teaching. The literature review also explored textbook analysis relating to gender, culture, dialogue genre, and the methodological and language learning processes in the textbooks. Research indicated that there is an intense interest in textbook studies related to postmodern issues, specifically social, gender, and intercultural awareness. Few studies investigate the underlying methodological and language learning processes present in the

textbook, and the bulk of research focuses on analyzing dialogues, genres, and the alignment of textbooks to the communicative approach. The literature shows mixed results concerning the incorporation of the natural collection of spoken data in the textbooks, at times indicating features of authentic dialogues incorporated in the textbooks (Costa, 2004). At others times, research displayed the necessity of authentic contexts and realistic discourses that rely on real conversational features (Gilmore, 2004; Litz, 2005). Many studies have been conducted to evaluate the use of communicative approach, and studies reveal that textbooks have already or are in the process of aligning to a communicative-focused instruction (Criado & Sanchez, 2009; Harlan, 2000). Textbooks framed by a communicative framework also can incorporate other syllabi, such as structural and audiolingual (Litz, 2005). Although textbook analysis may display the use of authentic dialogues, research reveals rarely that there are chances for learners to explore meaningful interactions and to produce personal language use in communication (Henriques, 2009; Litz, 2005; J. Santos, 1993).

In regard to the analysis of genre in the textbook materials, investigations display that few conditions exist for students to acknowledge the genres and communicative conditions in which they are produced (Araújo, 2006). Overall, textbooks rely on a communicative framework for textbook construction. Still, there seems to be conflicting results regarding dialogue and conversations reflecting natural communications. Examining textbook analysis studies allowed me to observe the shortcomings of the textbooks in incorporating language learning processes and aspects of language curriculum design, such as the setting of delimited objectives, assessment, and the presentation of content. Hence, considering that few inquiries investigate aspects of

curriculum design and language learning processes in the field of language learning, a close examination offers insights and the underlying concerns of textbook writers in regard to the learning process.

The methodological and research design procedures were indicated in the third chapter, and the actual analysis was undertaken in the fourth chapter. The analysis of the textbooks indicates that both follow a relatively weak version of the communicative approach. They develop suitable controlled practices, especially related to speaking skills, and provide natural spoken data for the content and dialogues of the units. However, both textbooks failed to create conditions for free production of language use to achieve a communicative outcome. There are few opportunities for students to interact, share meaning, and operate the language in communicative contexts. There should be a balance between controlled and free production of language, providing proper attention to the way activities are designed to favor language production. Having students talk to a partner or rehearse a dialogue is not enough to lead learners to try out their own language production and engage in negotiations of meaning. Simply asking them to act out a conversation can lead to freedom that they are not ready to take, which leads to repetition of content.

Rather, the activities should provide prompts and linguistic resources in order to help them perform a task. Students need types of activities that ensure that they can engage in the process of communicating to achieve an outcome, such as information-gap, consensus building, and problem-based activities, as well as other types of activities that involve fluency, such as role-playing, fluency circles, presentations, ordering and sequencing, and jigsaw activities. Although students are just starting to learn and have a

small repertoire of the target language, these activities mentioned can promote more tangible experiences where they can interact and discover the language system in the process of communication.

The textbooks do a satisfactory work in providing fun and interesting activities for students. Yet, more attention is given to designing fun activities rather than goal-oriented activities. Moreover, not defining goals in precise terms led to instructions that were not aligned with the goals of the unit—this is the case for both textbooks, especially *Links*. Because the units do not describe the desired goals in precise terms, textbook writers can rely on a coverage-approach of materials by working with several topics in the unit, as in the case with *Links*. Consequently, the topics are not extensively analyzed and neither one allows for building further analysis of content during the unit. On the other hand, *Keep in Mind* presents a more compact presentation of content with fewer topics allowing for depth of learning and more alignment to the goals of the unit. Still, at times the instruction does not align to the goals, especially the reading and writing activities.

The textbooks fail to consider content more than once throughout the units, which hinders students in the process of recalling and integrating knowledge of content. Language development requires constant reinforcement and reassessment of learning, thus changes are necessary for the organization of content to allow plenty of opportunities for recycling of content. Conversely, the textbooks offer checkpoint sections that ensure a periodic assessment of content, allowing revision of information learned in the units. In both textbooks, the grammar activities focus on form-meaning, presenting linguistic items in contextualized communicative contexts. The grammar

activities have a form-and-use dimension, particularly in the case of *Links*. By using cartoons and comic strips, students can notice the input.

In the listening practices, *Links* has appropriate activities at the discursive level, but fails to give attention to the metacognitive process in a way that provides opportunities for learners to attend to input and check their understanding. This shows that authentic language is not enough, as follow-up activities are necessary for students to think and comprehend input. Additionally, both textbooks could have provided a range of different activities for listening, which could rely on listening grips, prompts, completion of sentences, matching activities, etc. The reading activities in *Links* are very suitable as they lead learners to understand unknown words, to discuss and question the main points of the texts, and complete an information grid that triggers their comprehension skills. The reading experience gives attention to input and help students work with their background knowledge, helping them to predict new information. On the other hand, *Keep in Mind* has some shortcomings especially due to the absence of full reading texts, rather than having just small sentences to be interpreted. The vocabulary at times does not align to the goals of the unit, and there is a focus on isolated grammatical items.

Another shortcoming in both textbooks is the lack of opportunities for students to notice and comprehend input to be eventually acquired during the lesson. Listening, reading, writing, and grammar activities could offer more chances to assist learners in noticing the input through input awareness, such as highlighting or marking the words, isolating the input, and increasing the salience of the target structure during the unit. In fact, the presentation of a more compact unit established on the goals creates opportunities for manipulation of input and input processing. Hence, to stimulate

students' perceptual systems, more enriching input tasks could be used to increase their attention to the linguistic features. For the writing experience, *Links* designed suitable practices, where students have a model to follow and are stimulated to create their own written work. In contrast, *Keep in Mind* presents word-level practices and few chances for students to work on the writing process (process approach to writing). Besides providing more attention to the writing process, both textbooks could enhance students' learning by offering more varied activity types, such as prompts, writing response to a picture, dictoglosses, reading responses, and writing based on concept-maps and inventories, etc.

Overall, textbook writers should attend to the alignment of goals, instruction, and assessment of the units; formulating more specific goals with fewer topics; paying attention to input; and increasing the depth of learning. Also, listening, reading, and writing activities could be designed to offer chances for input awareness and processing, for a focus on the metacognitive process and for more diverse forms of activities. Textbook writers should focus on designing communicative activities more in line with tasks that allow students to interact, negotiate meaning, self-invest in their learning, and produce language in communicative contexts to achieve an outcome. Students must try out communication and sharing of meaning on their own to achieve communicative competence. Furthermore, the activities design could be more intentional in focusing on specific vocabulary and linguistic items. The input across the units should be reinforced through a cyclical format to lead students to check their understanding, create connections, and rethink the forms they are in the process of learning to be incorporated to their language system.

The present analysis identified several conceptions and processes of textbooks in Brazil related to foreign language learning that can be improved, as well as positive aspects developed by the writers to be incorporated and expanded in the development of textbook materials. However, it is important to point out some limitations of this study. First, I developed the analysis based on the checklist employed under my own judgment. It could have been appropriate to have judges review the findings obtained (inter-rater validity). Second, I evaluated only the first textbook (for sixth grade) of the collection. A greater understanding of the language curriculum design and language learning process in the textbooks could have been provided by studying the collection as a whole. Third, teachers develop their own ways of manipulating the information in the textbooks, and it would have been important to understand teachers' thinking and practices in their use of the material. Although this study focused on the conceptions and language learning process used and designed by the textbook writers, other aspects could be analyzed relating to teachers' design and use of materials and the kind of training they receive. Future research can be conducted to reveal how the teachers use the textbooks in their local contexts, and whether the findings of this work persist as the teacher works with the materials. Investigations also can be conducted about whether teachers are taking into consideration second-language principles, or their knowledge of language curriculum design when teaching the foreign language. Moreover, further studies can help one understand how output and freer productions are worked out by teachers during the development of the activities in the textbook.

APPENDIX A

CHECKLIST OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DESIGN

CHECKLIST OF LANGUAGE CURRICULUM DESIGN

Rubrics		
Poor 0-50% -0-5 units (Links) -0-7 units (Keep in Mind)	Satisfactory 60-90% -6-9 units -8-15 units	Good 100% All units
Component	Criteria: -The activities require vocabulary that was presented in the unit. -Students are prepared and able to cope with what is assigned based on previous instruction.	
(1) Considering the environment		
Checklist Item		
The textbook designer took into consideration the level of students' proficiency in every unit.		
(2) Discovering Interests	Criteria: -Units are designed with fun activities (word puzzle, bingo, etc). -Topics are of interest for students (celebrities, places, movies, personalities, animals, etc).	
The textbook is compatible with age appropriate topics and interests of the learners.		
(3) Following principles	Criteria: -The activities gives opportunities for learners to generate their own language structure and negotiate meaning with interlocutors to achieve a communicative outcome. -Most activities are constructed to focus on promoting meaningful communication, relying on tasks-based approach.	
The activities are well-designed in allegiance with appropriate instructional methodologies.		
(4) Goals	Criteria: -There is correspondence between the goals, instruction, and assessment. -There is a logical connection between topics, which help achieve the stated goal of the unit.	
The objectives are spelled out in the introduction part and the material align goals, instruction, and assessment.		

<p>(5) Listening</p> <p>There is a discernible system at work in the presentation of listening activities, where students recognize and understand the linguistic structures.</p>	<p>Criteria:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Listening tasks focus on specific lexical and syntactic features of input. -Students are given opportunities to check their understanding, by practicing their knowledge of the linguistic item.
<p>(6) Speaking</p> <p>Speaking activities promote the development of fluent, accurate, appropriate, and authentic language.</p>	<p>Criteria:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The speaking activities promote controlled language production and free communicative speech. -Learners have opportunities to practice communication and increase speaking skills.
<p>(7) Reading</p> <p>The reading texts and activities are organized based on authentic contexts in a way that learners become familiarized with words and text structure.</p>	<p>Criteria:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The reading activities attend to unknown words that will occur in the unit. -Allow learners to improve comprehension skills.
<p>(8) Writing</p> <p>The writing activities aligned to the material worked with in the unit, and students write based on guided instruction.</p>	<p>Criteria:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The writing activities draw learners' attention to particular language structures worked in the unit. -The activities are designed based on the guided writing, going beyond the word-level to the sentence-level.
<p>(9) Grammar</p> <p>The grammar activities focus on form and meaning in contextualized communicative events.</p>	<p>Criteria:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The activities help associate form-meaning constructions in communications. -Students attend to language forms in a contextualized format.
<p>(10) Format and presenting material</p> <p>The content in the units are constantly being recycled and repeated, through either a linear, modular or cyclical format.</p>	<p>Criteria:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> -The topics and vocabulary learned in the units are reinforced and recycled. -The presentation of content is organized based on either linear, modular, or cyclical format.

<p>(11) Monitoring and assessing</p> <p>In every unit there are opportunities for assessment.</p>	<p>Criteria:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">-The units provide opportunities for periodic assessments.-The units provide space for learners to evaluate their own knowledge.
--	--

APPENDIX B

TEXTBOOK ACTIVITIES: *LINKS*

Environment and Reading (checklist components)

Let's Read!
For 3 levels

1 Read the list on the right and answer: what words can you understand?

This is my brother Michael Baker. He's 11 and he is in Year 7. Michael is good at Science and his favorite game is Human Puzzle.

Look at my sister Hannah Baker! She is 14 and she is very energetic! Her favorite sport is badminton and she is on the English badminton team.

JOHN AND SUSAN ARE HUSBAND AND WIFE AND ALLAN AND PAULINE ARE HUSBAND AND WIFE TOO

MY FAMILY

- My parents
 - Father
 - Mother
- My siblings
 - Brother (Michael)
 - Sister (Hannah)
- My grandparents
 - Grandma (Susan)
 - Grandma (John)
 - Grandma (Pauline)
 - Grandpa (Alan)
- Other relatives
 - Uncle (Paul)
 - Aunt (Mary)
 - Cousin (Alex)

NO, THIS IS BADMINTON, A VERY POPULAR SPORT IN ENGLAND.

IS THIS TENNIS?

2 Read about Michael and Hannah. Use the vocabulary to write 3 sentences about yourself.

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 36-37)

Environment (checklist component)

Let's Listen!

1 Listen to Jane and her students, then mark T (true) or F (false).

a. () Jane is from Londrina.

b. () London is the name for 'Londrina' in English.

c. () London is the capital of Scotland. *have a very question because London is not a city in Scotland*

d. () Jane loves London. *Where is Londrina. Come on everyone*

2 Listen to the CD again and underline the things you can do in London

a. Go to museums.

b. Visit the Statue of Liberty.


c. Eat at nice restaurants.

d. Go to the beach.

e. Visit the city that never sleeps.

Let's Speak!

1 Look and say what's going on.

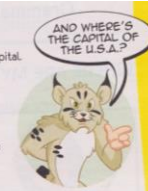


2 Listen and read.


Vera: Where's New York City?
Greg: It's right here, in the state of New York. But New York City isn't the state capital.
Vera: And what's the capital of New York State?
Greg: Look at the map. Can you spot it?
Vera: Hmm... Let me see... It's Albany!
Greg: That's it!

3 Your turn! In pairs, ask and answer about some of the states in America and their capitals.


AND WHERE'S THE CAPITAL OF THE U.S.A.?




a.




c.



b.



d.



Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 78-79)

Following Principles (checklist component)

Let's Play!
FOR A LEARNER

BATTLESHIP

This is a Revision Exercise

● Sayumi and Matt are playing battleship. What about playing battleship with a friend too?

... the library? ... the reception? ... the girls' restroom? ... the boys' restroom? ... the gym?

● Where's...

A-ONE. NOTHING.

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 34)

Let's Play!
FOR A LEARNER

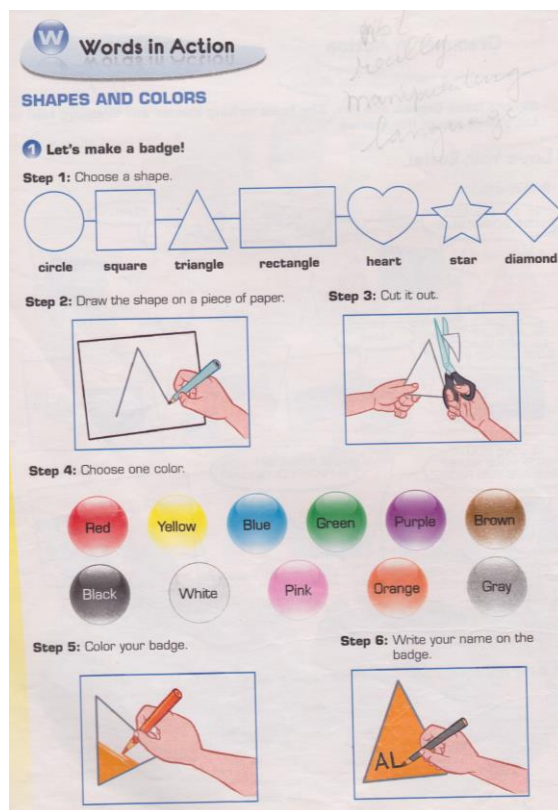
CLASSROOM TRAIL

● Play the game with a friend.

7 GLUE STICK	8 PEN	9 PEN	END 22
6 GLUE STICK		10 PEN	21
5 CD PLAYER		11 PLAY AGAIN	20 (A PAIR OF) SCISSORS
4 PENCIL		12 GO BACK TO 6	19 GO TO 20
3 PENCIL		13 GO TO 20	18 GO TO 20
2 SCISSORS		14 BOOK	17 RULER
1 START		15 RULER	16 RULER

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 24)

Following Principles and Goals (checklist components)



Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 12)

Goals (checklist component)

Let's Listen!

Listen to Dr. Harwood and match the columns.

FRUIT	MINERALS	VITAMINS
-------	----------	----------

a. () vitamin C

b. () vitamin A

c. () potassium

d. () vitamin E

e. () antioxidants

Look and answer.

dialogue

MY BADGE IS A BLUE HEART.

MY BADGE IS A RED CIRCLE.

MY BADGE IS A YELLOW RECTANGLE.

WHAT ABOUT YOUR BADGE? WHAT COLOR IS IT? WHAT SHAPE IS IT?

LUCAS

VERA

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 58)

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 13)

Let's Read!

Visiting New York? Great idea!
New York is the perfect place to spend your vacation! With lots of places to go and loads of things to see, the 'city that never sleeps' has something for every person.

What kind of person are you?
What's your favorite activity when you travel?

() I love monuments. Empire State Building

() I love shopping. Times Square

() I love modern art. Museum of Modern Art's gallery

() I love walking in the park. Central Park

() I love animals. American Zoo

() I love movies. American Museum of the Natural History

() I love music. Rocky Horror Picture Show

() I love dinosaurs. American Museum of Natural History

THIS IS MY HOMETOWN.

1 Read the text quickly and consider: What type of text is it? What words do you know?

2 Discuss: What are the key words in this text?

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 76-77)

Listening (checklist component)

Let's Listen!

1 Let's meet Jane's students. Listen and point to the words you hear.

HI, I'M MATT.
HI, I'M ROXANNA.
HELLO, I'M ADÃO.
HELLO EVERYONE. I'M JANE.
HELLO! I'M SAYUMI.
HI! MY NAME IS JACK. JACK LYNK. A CAT? NO! I'M A LYNK!
HI! I'M SIMONE. WHAT'S YOUR NAME?
HI, I'M ZEQU.

Now, let's meet Greg's students. Listen and complete.

HI, _____ ZECA.
HELLO, _____ CARLA.
HI, MY NAME'S GREG. WHAT'S YOUR _____?
HI, NAME'S VERA.
_____, I'M LUCAS.

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 8-9)

Let's Listen!

1 Listen and repeat.

1 ONE 2 TWO 3 THREE 4 FOUR 5 FIVE
6 SIX 7 SEVEN 8 EIGHT 9 NINE 10 TEN
11 ELEVEN 12 TWELVE 13 THIRTEEN 14 FOURTEEN 15 FIFTEEN

How old are you?


2 Listen to the CD and number the pictures.

() () ()
() () ()

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 18)

Speaking (checklist component)

1 Let's sing with Carlinha!




The Alphabet Song
 A, B, C, D, E, F, G
 Come on, join me!
 A, B, C, D, E, F, G
 H, I, J, K, L, M, N, O, P
 Q, R, S
 T, U, V
 W, X
 Y and Z
 Now that you know you can,
 Let's sing it all again!

(This song was especially composed for the book - BIC 88 - All-4g-2008!)

Let's Speak!


2 Read the conversation and listen to the CD.

Lucas: What's this, in English? How do you spell the word?
 Carlinha: That's a P-E-N-C-I-L.
 Lucas: That's right.
 And that? How do you spell it?
 Carlinha: B-I.
 Lucas: No, not that's wrong. It's B-O-O-K.
 And Carlinha, how do you spell "eraser"?
 Carlinha: Eraser? That's difficult. I don't know.
 Lucas: E-R-A-S-E-R.




3 You are an actor now!
 Use the conversation in Exercise 1 to talk with a friend.
 pen • ruler • scissors • eraser • school bag

4 Roxanna is lost. Sayumi is trying to help her.



Roxanna: Where's the English class?
 Sayumi: It's in Room 5.
 Roxanna: And where's Room 5?
 Sayumi: It's over there.
 Roxanna: OK. The next class is... History.
 Sayumi: Where is it?
 Roxanna: Let me see... It's in Room 9.
 Roxanna: And where's Room 9?
 Sayumi: It's here! It's right here!
 Miss Owen: Okay, time for a quick test.
 Write two pages about Life in ancient Egypt.
 Roxanna & Sayumi: Oh, NO!



5 Your turn!
 Now practice the conversation using the information below.

- Portuguese / Geography / Write two poems about Brazil.
- Math / English / Write about your school.
- Art / Spanish / Write a short story in Spanish.

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 29-30)

2 Now listen to the conversation.

Greg: Is he a soldier?
 Zeca: No. That's Carlinhos Tinta. He's a painter.
 Greg: Ah, okay. What about her? Is she an actress?
 Zeca: Oh no. That's Marianne. She's a hair stylist.
 Greg: Really? And those two guys? Are they sailors?
 Zeca: No, they're capoeira dancers.
 Greg: Of course!

3 Your turn!
 Talk to a friend about these people.

Conversation 1



Question: model
Answer: Formula 1 driver

Question: princess
Answer: actress

Question: wizards
Answer: actors

Conversation 2



Question: model
Answer: soccer player

Question: doctor
Answer: tennis player

Question: cowboys
Answer: singers

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 51)

Writing (checklist component)

Let's Write!

1 Observe the posters.

ENGLISH IN MY WORLD

2 Your turn!
Make a poster entitled "English in My World".

Let's Write!

1 Read.

MY ROLE MODEL
Felipe Massa is my role model. He's cool! He's a great F1 driver. He's fast but he's not furious. His favorite actor is Robert de Niro and his role models are Ayrton Senna and Michael Schumacher. Felipe Massa is an inspiration to me!

2 Your turn!
Write about your role model and show your text to your friends.

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 23)

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 74)

Reading (checklist component)

1 Observe the scene. What's going on?

2 Read the text and answer the questions:

CLASSROOM LANGUAGE

Listen to the CD.
Read the text.
Write the answers in your notebook.
Talk to your friend.
Answer the questions.
Work in pairs.
Look at the picture.
Get your books.
Open your books to page 9.
Close your books.
Don't chew gum in class.
Don't write on the wall.
Can you repeat that, please?

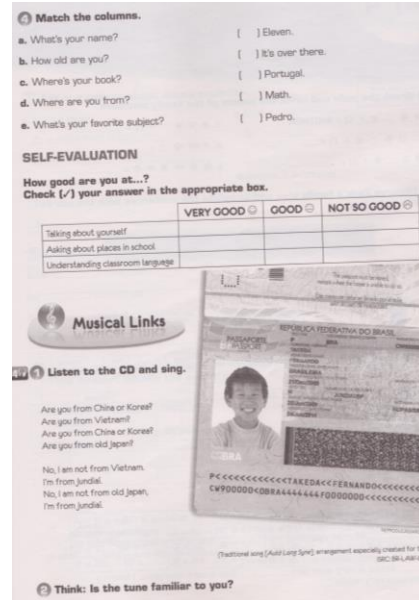
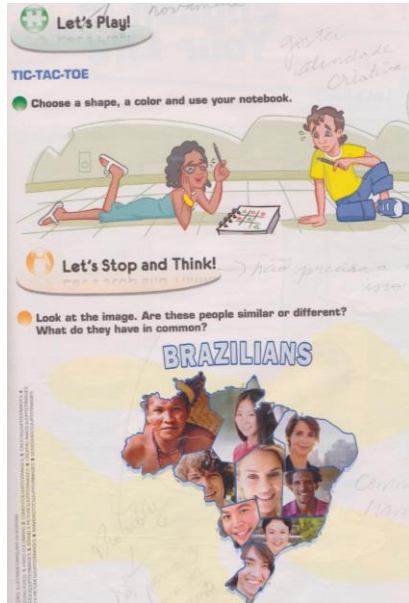
• What type of text is this?
a. A diary b. A classroom poster c. An e-mail

• What type of information does the text contain?
a. Examples of classroom language b. Information about animals c. Examples of TV programs

3 Read the balloons and the poster. Can you guess the meaning of the words you don't know? *Idea:* Use the words you know to help you with the new words.

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 17)

Monitoring and Assessing (checklist component)



Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 15)

Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 113)

Grammar (checklist component)



Source: Santos and Marques (2011, p. 41)

APPENDIX C

TEXTBOOK ACTIVITIES: *KEEP IN MIND*

Environment (checklist component)

Hi, I'm Pedro.

Unit 1

Get in the mood

Comença a ser interessante

ACTIVITY 1 A picture of me and my classmates.

THIS IS ME AND MY FAVORITE CLASSMATE. **MR. BUTLER.**

ACTIVITY 2 Welcome to my homepage! I am Kayra Vargas.

THIS IS MY BEST FRIEND.

GLEN'S HOMEPAGE

Hi, my name is Glen Hestful and I am a Freshman at Central High. This is my **home** at Christmas. I have two brothers - Gabriel and Gus - and a sister - Glenda. My mom and Dad are Carol and Bob.

Look at the pictures and the highlighted words. What do these words mean?

Who would you include in your homepage?

- Your family.
- Your classmates.
- Your teachers.
- Your friends.

Food for thought

- Quando a foto de uma pessoa aparece na internet, ela está exposta para todo mundo ver. Mas será que essa pessoa quer aparecer na internet?
- Você sabia que, para colocar a foto de alguém na internet, mesmo que seja em sua própria página na Web, você precisa ter a autorização dessa pessoa?

Respect other people's privacy!

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 11)

Act 8 Let's read

1 Read these messages. Use the symbols to decode them.

Please 🐞 to me.

I'm 😊.

I ❤️ you.

Good 🌟!

Please 🐞 me.

Are you 😊?

Act 9 Let's write

Write a message using letters and symbols.

Cool!

The first emoticon :-) was created in 1982. If you type this sequence of characters on your computer, it turns into ☺.

Discuss with your classmates.

- Que tipo de mensagens você costuma escrever?
- Você usa palavras e símbolos, smileys ou emoticons? Por que ou por que não?

Project

- Pense em como você geralmente se sente durante um determinado período do dia.
- Expresse o que você sente através da linguagem não verbal – por exemplo, desenho, pintura, colagem, grafismo, fotografia etc.
- Quando terminar, escreva o título de sua obra conforme a etiqueta ao lado. Preencha a primeira lacuna com um emoticon ou smiley e a segunda com o período do dia escolhido. Não se esqueça de assinar!
- A classe expõe suas obras e convida outros alunos e professores para ver a exposição.

Feeling _____ in the _____

I ❤️ YOU!

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 25)

Following Principles (checklist component)

Act 6 Let's listen

- Listen to Mr. Ogawa announcing the basketball team. Write the numbers on the shirts.



Act 7 Let's talk

- Make a sports shirt for yourself.**
 - Choose one sport and one number from 11 to 20.
 - Draw a big sports shirt on a sheet of paper.
 - Write your name, number, and the name of the sport on the shirt.
 - Stick the shirt on your back.



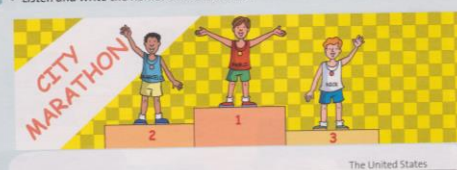
- Talk to your classmates.**
Walk around the classroom. Ask and answer questions about the other classmates.

IS MARQUINHOS ON THE SOCCER TEAM? NO, HE ISN'T. HE'S ON THE BASKETBALL TEAM. IS HE NUMBER ELEVEN? YES, HE IS.

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 34)

Act 6 Let's listen

- Listen and write the names of the countries.



The United States


Cool!

The word marathon comes from Greek. According to legend a Greek soldier named Pheidippides ran about 26 miles (42 kilometers) from Marathon to Athens to deliver the news about the victory of the Greek over the Persians in Marathon in 490 B.C.

Source: Merriam-Webster student dictionary

Act 7 Let's talk

- Make a poster.**
 - Draw or get a picture of a Brazilian personality or group that you like.
 - Find out where in Brazil this person is/these people are from.
 - Stick your poster on a classroom wall.
- Talk to your classmates about the people in the posters.**



IS RONALDINHO FROM RIO DE JANEIRO? NO, HE ISN'T. HE'S FROM RIO GRANDE DO SUL.

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 42)

Listening (checklist component)

Act 6 Let's listen

• Listen to a student getting information for her phone book. Correct the mistakes.



Name	Phone number
Pedro Rossini	555-5069
Carlos Lima	
Toshiro Ocada Okada	555-41619

Act 7 Let's talk

• Make a class phone book.

Talk to your classmates. Write down their names and phone numbers.

Language corner

Trabalhe com um(a) colega:

1. Soletre o nome Kimberley sem nenhuma pausa entre as letras. Agora, soletre-o com pausas nos pontos indicados (-): Kim-ber-ley. De que jeito é mais fácil soletrar? E para entender?
2. Experimente o mesmo com um número de telefone: 5559456 e 555-94-56.


My phone book

First name	Last name	Phone number

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 52)

Act 6 Let's listen

• Look at the picture and listen. Circle the people they talk about.




Act 7 Let's talk

• Bring photos or draw a picture of your family. Talk to a classmate about it.

Act 8 Let's read

1 Match the texts and the pictures.



Look at some pictures of my family. This is my father. His name is Ben. He's here with my sister. Her name is Peggy. She's very pretty.

These are my two brothers. Their names are Gordon and John. We're good friends.

And these are my mother and my grandfather. Her name is Debbie and his name's Paul.

2 Discuss with your class.
Que pistas você usou para associar os textos às fotos?

3 Find the male and female names in the texts.

a) Male names: _____ Ben _____

b) Female names: _____

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 60)

Goals (checklist component)

Food for thought

1. Você costuma guardar coisas que não usa mais, como roupas e brinquedos?
2. O que você pode fazer para consumir e desperdiçar menos?
3. Leve esta reflexão para seus amigos e familiares.

The future depends on what we do in the present. (Mahatma Gandhi)

Act 8 Let's read

1 Read the messages. Match them to help the students find what they need.

I need a pencil. Heisique - 6 th B - Room 21	I have an extra pen. It's red. Marcelo - 6 th C - Room 23
I need a notebook. Ana Luísa - 8 th B - Room 8	I have two pens. They're blue. Luana - 8 th C - Room 12
I need a blue pen. Do you have one? Ronaldo - 7 th A - Room 14	I have two black pencils. Bia - 6 th B - Room 21

2 Discuss with your classmates.

a) Que pistas você usou para fazer a atividade?

b) Nos textos acima, que verbo indica posse? É necessidade?

Act 9 Let's write

• Organize a swap meet in your class.

– Copy and complete one of the messages below.

I have _____	_____
Room _____	_____
I need _____	_____
Room _____	_____

– Stick the messages on a wall or bulletin board in your classroom.

– Read the messages. Can you find something that you need?

Project

Objetivo: Organizar uma feira de trocas (swap meet) com toda a escola ou algumas classes.

1. Discutam com a classe toda o que será trocado na classe, quem será convidado, quando e onde vai ocorrer.
2. Em grupos de 4-6 alunos, criem cartazes anunciando a feira.
3. Coloquem os cartazes em espaços apropriados da escola.

Dicas:


- Vejam um modelo de cartaz em www.educationworld.com/tools_templates/index.shtml#signs (acesso em 25 fev. 2008).
- Para descrever o evento, escrevam "Let's swap..." e preencham o espaço com ilustrações do que será trocado.

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 79)

Speaking (checklist component)

Act 6 Let's listen

1 Listen and write the names of the countries.



The United States

Cool!

The word marathon comes from Greek. According to legend a Greek soldier named Pheidippides ran about 26 miles (42 kilometers) from Marathon to Athens to deliver the news about the victory of the Greek over the Persians in Marathon in 490 B.C.


Source: Merriam-Webster student dictionary.

Act 7 Let's talk

1 Make a poster.

- Draw or get a picture of a Brazilian personality or group that you like.
- Find out where in Brazil this person is/these people are from.
- Stick your poster on a classroom wall.

2 Talk to your classmates about the people in the posters.




Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 42)

Act 6 Let's listen

1 Listen to Elisa and Pedro talking in class. Answer the questions.

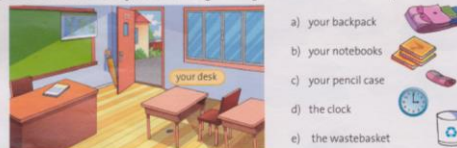
- O que Elisa quer?
- Como ela pede para usar esse objeto?
- Pedro concorda em emprestar o objeto?

2 Find Pedro's ruler.



Act 7 Let's talk

1 Decide where the objects on the right will go. Put the letters in the picture.



- your backpack
- your notebooks
- your pencil case
- the clock
- the wastebasket

2 Talk to a classmate. Compare your classrooms.

WHERE IS YOUR BACKPACK? IT'S ON THE FLOOR. MY BACKPACK IS ON MY CHAIR.

Act 8 Let's write

• Rewrite the sentences. Use *it* or *they*.

- My desk is between two windows. My desk is green.
My desk is between two windows. It's green.
- My pencil case is on my desk. My pencil case is red.
- My notebooks are in my backpack. My notebooks are yellow.

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 124)

Reading (checklist component)

Act 8 Let's read

1 Read these messages. Use the symbols to decode them.

Please 🖋️ to me.

I'm 😊

I ❤️ you.

Good 🌟!

Please 🙋 me.

Are you 😊?

2 Discuss with your classmates.

- Que tipo de mensagens você costuma escrever?
- Você usa palavras e símbolos, smileys ou emoticons? Por que ou por que não?

Cool!

The first emoticon :-D) was created in 1982. If you type this sequence of characters on your computer, it turns into ☺.

Act 9 Let's write

Write a message using letters and symbols.

Project


- Pense em como você geralmente se sente durante um determinado período do dia.
- Expresse o que você sente através da linguagem não verbal – por exemplo, desenho, pintura, colagem, grafismo, fotografia etc.
- Quando terminar, escreva o título de sua obra conforme a etiqueta ao lado. Preencha a primeira lacuna com um emoticon ou smiley e a segunda com o período do dia escolhido. Não se esqueça de assinar!
- A classe expõe suas obras e convida outros alunos e professores para ver a exposição.

Feeling _____
in the _____

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 25)

Act 6 Let's listen

Look at the picture and listen. Circle the people they talk about.




Act 7 Let's talk

Bring photos or draw a picture of your family. Talk to a classmate about it.

Act 8 Let's read

1 Match the texts and the pictures.



Look at some pictures of my family. This is my father. His name is Ben. He's here with my sister. Her name is Peggy. She's very pretty.

These are my two brothers. Their names are Gordon and John. We're good friends.

And these are my mother and my grandfather. Her name's Debbie and his name's Paul.

2 Discuss with your class.
Que pistas você usou para associar os textos às fotos?

3 Find the male and female names in the texts.

- Male names: _____ Ben _____
- Female names: _____

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 60)

Writing (checklist component)

Act 8 Let's read

1 Read a text taken from a school newsletter.

Hello. My name's Daniel Jones, but my friends call me Di. That's my nickname. I love rap and hip-hop. I study in the afternoon. I'm in Room 12. My phone number is 555-8075.

2 Write the information you need to contact Daniel.

3 Discuss with the whole class.

- Um jornal de escola chama-se school newsletter em inglês. Quem produz esse tipo de publicação? Para quem? E para quê?
- Que tipo de informação e/ou seções ele geralmente contém?
- Que tipo de formato ele normalmente apresenta?
- No caso de Daniel, por que ele publicou o texto acima no newsletter?
- O que seria um class newsletter? Quem produz, para quem e para quê?

Act 9 Let's write

Write an introduction for a school or class newsletter.

your photo _____

Project

Objetivo: Produzir e publicar o 1º número de um class newsletter, usando os textos já escritos na Act-9 das unidades 1-5. A publicação pode consistir de uma única página.

Pré-produção: Discutam e decidam com a classe toda.

- Qual será o nome do class newsletter?
- Quais serão as seções deste 1º número? Por exemplo, apresentação de alunos novos à comunidade escolar com os textos da unidade 5; seção sobre os ídolos esportivos da classe com o material da unidade 3; curiosidades, brincadeiras, pensamento do dia etc. Façam uma lista.
- Quem quer publicar seu material no newsletter? Anotem os nomes dos autores ao lado das respectivas seções.
- Como veicular: via impressos colocados em certos espaços da escola e/ou via internet?
- Quem formará a equipe de produção desse número? Outras equipes poderão se candidatar para os próximos.

Produção:

- Recolham os textos dos colegas que querem publicar.
- Peçam ajuda ao professor com os nomes das seções em inglês.
- Digitem os textos, incluam as imagens e arte gráfica e formatem o newsletter. Se quiserem, vejam dicas de formatação com Microsoft Word em: www.education-world.com/a/tech/techtorial/techtorial062.pdf. Acesso em: 18 fev. 2008.
- Imprimam e distribuam o newsletter nos espaços definidos e/ou veiculem via internet.

Act 8 Let's read

1 Look at the shop window. Answer the questions.

- Qual o nome da loja?
- Qual o desconto que a loja está dando?
- O preço da camiseta era _____ e agora é _____.

2 Discuss with your classmates.

- Você conhece alguma loja que tem nome em inglês?
- Qual é o nome da loja? O que significa?

Act 9 Let's write

1 Look at Oscar's poster. Why is he selling his old clothes? Is it a good idea?

Oscar's poster

2 Make your own poster.

Your poster

Project

Objetivo: Escolher o uniforme ideal para sua escola.

- Discutam em grupo as características que a roupa que se usa na escola deve ter. Considere aspectos como conforto, custo, praticidade, imagem etc.
- Procuram em jornais, propagandas de lojas ou na internet os itens que vão compor seu uniforme. Lembrem-se de incluir itens adequados para as diferentes estações do ano.
- Desenhem o uniforme completo ou usem recortes de revistas ou de outras fontes e coleem em uma cartolina.
- Coloquem etiquetas com o nome de cada item em inglês. Usem um dicionário, se precisarem.
- Compartilhem e comparem seu projeto com a classe toda e votem no melhor uniforme.

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 53)

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 133)

Grammar (checklist component)

Act 4 Focus on grammar

1 Read the example. Complete Malu's answers about her family.

Questions	Answers
How old is your brother?	My brother is twenty-one years old. Diogo is twenty-one years old. He is twenty-one years old. My brother = Diogo = He
are you?	I'm eleven years old.
is your brother?	twenty-one years old.
is your sister?	thirteen years old.
are you and Marta?	We're eleven years old.
are your parents?	forty-two years old.

2 Complete the sentences with the loose pieces.

He She It We They

a) My parents are from Paraná. They are from Curitiba.

b) Pedro and Marta are in . aren't in Brazil.

c) My brother is 21. is on the basketball team.

d) My English teacher is . is very nice.

e) and I are classmates. are in Book 1.

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 86)

Act 4 Focus on grammar

1 Look and read. Write the translations.

WE YOU THEY

nos

THESE ARE PEDRO AND OSCAR

THESE ARE ANITA AND MARTA

estés

2 Read the examples. Complete the chart.

Question	Affirmative answer	Negative answer
Are we classmates?	Yes, we 're classmates.	No, we aren't classmates.
	Yes, we are.	No, we aren't.
Are they from Brazil?	Yes, they 're from Brazil.	No, from Brazil.
	Yes, .	No, .


3 Answer the questions in two ways.

a) Is Barrichelo from the United States?
No, he isn't from the United States.
No, he isn't.

b) Is Marta from Germany?

c) Are you and Anita from Brazil?

d) Are Pedro and Carlos from Mexico?



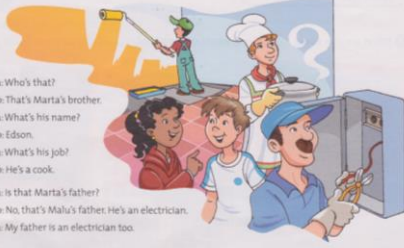
Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 40)

Format and Presenting Material (checklist component)

Act 1 Presentation


1 Listen and read.

Anita and Pedro are at the School Improvement Day. Who are they talking about?



Anita: Who's that?
 Pedro: That's Marta's brother.
 Anita: What's his name?
 Pedro: Edson.
 Anita: What's his job?
 Pedro: He's a cook.
 Anita: Is that Marta's father?
 Pedro: No, that's Malu's father. He's an electrician.
 Anita: My father is an electrician too.

2 Who are the people on the left? Match them and the pictures.



Marta's father

cook

Malu's father

painter

Marta's brother

electrician

3 Read, listen and repeat.

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 92)

Monitoring and Assessing (checklist component)

1 Unscramble the words. Then match the words and the pictures.

a) ESPN

b) SARERE

c) YCROSAN

d) NPELCI

e) LRSEUR

f) SPNERHAER

g) CTISRKSE

h) LEPANI AECS



2 Complete the conversations about the objects in activity 1.

 What _____ in English?

 What _____?

 What _____?

3 Talk to a classmate. Ask and answer questions about two objects in activity 1.

Source: Chin and Zaorob (2009, p. 72)

REFERENCE LIST

- Acklam, R. (1994). The role of the coursebook. *Practical English Teaching*, 14(3), 12-14.
- Almeida Filho, J. C. P. (2002). *Dimensões comunicativas no ensino de línguas* [Communicative dimensions in the teaching of English]. Campinas: Pontes.
- Almeida Filho, J. C. P., Baghin, D., Consolo, D. A., Santos, J. B. C., Alvarenga, M. B., & Viana, N. (1991). A representação do processo e aprender no livro didático nacional de língua estrangeira moderna no 1º grau [The representation of the process and learning in the national foreign language textbooks in the primary and middle school]. *Trabalho Linguística Aplicada*, 17, 67-97.
- Almeida Filho, J. C. P., & Consolo, A. D. (1990). *A pesquisa analítica sobre o LD nacional de LE na escola pública de 1º Grau* [The analytic investigation of the national textbooks of foreign language in the public school of primary and middle schools]. Retrieved from www.let.unb.br/.../professores/documentos/A_pesquisa_AnaliticaLD.doc
- Amos, E., & Prescher, E. (2006). *New ace*. Longman: Brazil.
- Anderson, L. W., & Krathwohl, D. R. (2001). *A taxonomy for learning, teaching, and assessing: A revision of Bloom's taxonomy of educational objectives*. New York: Longman.
- Andrade, M. R. J. (1990). *Guidelines based on second language acquisition and related research for evaluating ESL textbooks for adults* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 800/521-0600)
- Ansary, H., & Babaii, E. (2002). Universal characteristics of EFL/ESL textbooks: A step towards systematic textbook evaluation. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 8(2). Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Ansary-textbooks/>
- Anthony, E. (1963). Approach, method, and technique. *English Language Teaching*, 17, 63-67.

- Araújo, M. S. (2006). *Leitura e gêneros textuais em livros didáticos de língua inglesa do Ensino Médio* (Unpublished master's thesis). Universidade Federal do Pará, Belém, Brazil. Retrieved from http://www.repositorio.ufpa.br/jspui/bitstream/2011/1772/1/Dissertacao_LeituraG enerosTextuais.pdf
- Arizpe, V., & Aguirre, E. B. (1987). Mexican, Puerto Rican, and Cuban ethnic groups in first-year college-level Spanish textbooks. *The Modern Language Journal*, 71(2), 125-137.
- Basturkman, H. (1999). A content analysis of ELT textbook blurbs: Reflection of theory-in-use. *Regional Language Centre Journal*, 30(18), 18-38.
- Biber, D. (1990). A typology of English texts. *Linguistics*, 27, 3-43.
- Bloomfield, L. (1984). *Language*. Chicago: University of Chicago.
- Bohn, H. I. (2003). The educational role and status of English in Brazil. *World Englishes*, 22(2), 159-172.
- Branden, K. V. D. (2006). *Task-based language education: From theory to practice*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brandt, R. S., & Tyler, R. W. (2011). Goals and objectives. In A. C. Ornstein, E. Pajak, & S. B. Ornstein (Eds.), *Contemporary issues in curriculum* (5th ed., pp. 10-20). Boston: Pearson.
- Breen, M. P. (1984). Process syllabuses for the language classroom. In J. C. Brumfit (Ed.), *General English syllabus design* (pp. 47-60). Oxford: Modern English Publications with the British Council.
- Brinton, D., & Neuman, R. (1982). *Getting along: English grammar and writing* (Book 1). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (3rd ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Brown, J. D. (1995). *The elements of language curriculum: A systematic approach to program development*. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Brumfit, C., & Johnson, K. (1979). *The communicative approach to language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bygate, M., Skehan, P., & Swain, M. (2001). *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching, and testing*. Harlow, England: Longman.
- Byram, M. (1989). *Cultural studies in foreign language education*. Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

- Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Byram, M. B. G., & Garcia, M. C. M. (2009). Communicative language teaching. In K. Knapp, B. Seidlhofer, & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning* (pp. 491-516). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Byrd, P. (1995). *Materials writer's guide*. Boston, MA: Heinle and Heinle.
- Byrd, P. (2001). Textbooks: Evaluation for selection and analysis for implementation. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (3rd ed., pp. 415-442). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Carmen, M., Campoy-Cubillo, M. C., Bellés-Fortuño, B., & Gea-Valor, M. L. (2010). *Corpus-based approaches to English language teaching*. London: New York: Continuum.
- Chambers, F. (1997). Seeking consensus in coursebook evaluation. *ELT Journal*, 51(1), 29-35.
- Chiaretti, P. A. (1993). *A performance do diálogo no livro didático de inglês: Evolução e limites do gênero* (Unpublished master's thesis). Faculdade de Letras da Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais, Belo Horizonte, Brazil.
- Chin, E. Y., & Zaorob, M. L. (2009). *Keep in mind: 6.º ano*. São Paulo, Brazil: Scipione.
- Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second-language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Consolo, D. A. (1990). *O livro didático como insumo na aula de língua estrangeira (inglês) na escola pública* (Unpublished master's thesis). Universidade Estadual de Campinas, São Paulo.
- Cook, V. (2009). Developing links between second language acquisition research and language teaching. In K. Knapp, B. Seidlhofer, & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning* (pp. 139-156). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Coracini, M. J. F. R. (2011). *Interpretação, autoria e legitimação do livro didático: Língua materna e língua estrangeira* [Interpretation, authorship, and legitimization of the mother tongue and foreign language textbook] (pp. 17-26). Campinas, SP: Pontes.
- Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1999). Cultural mirrors: Materials and methods in the EFL classroom. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Culture in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 196-219). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from <http://www.insikapub.com/Vol-01/No-01/09IJBAS%281%29%281%29.pdf>

- Costa, G. S. (2004). *Diálogo didático de inglês a luz da pragmática* [Didactic English dialogue in light of pragmatics]. Retrieved from <http://www.giseldacosta.com.br/artigos/capitulo3.pdf>
- Creswell, J. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles: Sage.
- Criado, R., & Sanchez, A. (2009). English language teaching in Spain: Do textbooks comply with the official methodological regulations? A sample analysis. *The International Journal of English Studies*, 9(1), 1-28.
- Da Silva, J. M. (2012). *Implicações culturais e didáticas do inglês como língua internacional: o livro didático* (Unpublished master's thesis). Universidade de São Paulo, São Paulo, Brazil.
- Dalacorte, M. C. F. (1991). *Natural conversation and EFL textbook dialogs: A contrastive study* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Texas, Austin.
- Daoud, A., & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979). Selecting and evaluating a textbook. In M. Celce-Murcia & L. McIntosh (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 302-307). Cambridge, MA: Newbury House Publishers.
- Dias, L. H. (2006). *Uma lente cultural sobre o livro didático de língua inglesa* (Unpublished master's thesis). Universidade de Brasília, Brazil. Retrieved from http://biblioteca.universia.net/html_bura/ficha/params/title/uma-lente-cultural-livrodidatico-lingua-inglesa/id/26571926.html
- Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative and mixed methodologies*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Dubin, F., & Olshtain, E. (1994). *Course design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Duff, P. A. (2014). Communicative language teaching. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton, & A. S. Marguerite (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th ed., pp. 15-30). Boston, MA: Heinle.
- Dulay, H., & Burt, M. K. (1973). Should we teach children syntax? *Language Learning*, 23(2), 245-258.
- Dulay, H., & Burt, M. K. (1974). Natural sequences in child second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 24(1), 37-53.
- Dulay, H. C., Burt, M. K., & Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Language two*. New York: Oxford University Press.

- Ekawati, D., & Hamdani, F. (2012). Cultural mirrors: Materials and methods in English as a foreign language. *International Journal of Basic and Applied Science*, 1(1), 53-59.
- Ellis, R. (1993). The structural syllabus and second language acquisition. *Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages Quarterly*, 27(1), 91-113.
- Ellis, R. (1997). The empirical evaluation of language teaching materials. *ELT Journal*, 51(1), 36-42.
- Ellis, R. (2000). Task-based research and language pedagogy. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 193-220.
- Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2008). Principles of instructed second language acquisition. *System*, 33, 209-224. Retrieved from <http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/instructed2ndlang.html>
- Ellis, R. (2010). Second language acquisition research and language-teaching materials. In N. Harwood (Ed.), *English language teaching materials: Theory and practice* (pp. 33-57). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2011). Macro- and micro-evaluations of task-based teaching. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials development in language teaching* (pp. 212-235). Boston: Pearson.
- Ellis, R. (2014). Principles of instructed second language learning. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton, A. S. Marguerite (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign Language* (4th ed., pp. 31-45). Boston, MA: Heinle.
- Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H., & Loewen, S. (2001). Learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning*, 51, 281-318.
- Fernández, C. (2011). Approaches to grammar instruction in teaching materials: A study in current L2 beginning level Spanish textbooks. *Hispania*, 94(1), 155-170.
- Finocchiaro, M., & Brumfit, C. (1983). *The functional-notional approach*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fogaça, F.C., & Gimenez, T.N. (2007). O ensino de línguas estrangeiras e a sociedade [The teaching of foreign languages and the society]. *Revista Brasileira de Linguística Aplicada*, 7(1), 161-182.
- Fotos, S. (2005). Traditional and grammar translation methods for second language teaching. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. x, pp. 653-670). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

- Francis, L. M. E. A. (1995). *English as a foreign language: Textbook analysis, ideology and hegemonic practices in a Brazilian context* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Ohio State University, Columbus.
- Fries, C. C. (1952). *The structure of English*. New York: Harcourt Brace.
- Gass, S., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. New York: Routledge.
- George, H. V. (1963). A verb-form frequency count. *English Language Teaching*, 18(1), 31–37.
- Gilmore, A. (2004). A comparison of textbook and authentic interactions. *ELT Journal*, 58(4), 363-374.
- Goh, C. C. M. (2014). Second language listening comprehension: Process and pedagogy. In M. Celce-Murcia, D. M. Brinton, & A. S. Marguerite (Eds.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (4th ed., pp. 72-89). Boston, MA: Heinle.
- Graci, J. P. (1989). Are foreign language textbooks sexist? An exploration of modes of evaluation. *Foreign Language Annals*, 22, 477-486.
- Graves, K. (1996). *Designing language courses: A guide for teachers*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.
- Gutermann, G., & Phillip, J. K. (1982). *Functional-Notional concepts: Adapting the foreign language textbook*. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/search/detailmini.jsp?_nfpb=true&_ERICExtSearch_SearchValue_0=ED217698&ERICExtSearch_SearchType_0=no&accno=ED217698
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1973). *Explorations in the functions of language*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K., McIntosh, A., & Stevens, P. (1964). *The linguistic sciences and language teaching*. London: Longman.
- Harlan, K. (2000). Foreign language textbooks in the classroom: Bridging the gap between second language acquisition theory and pedagogy. *Honors Projects*, Paper 5. Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.iwu.edu/hispstu_honproj/5
- Hartman, P. L., & Judd, E. L. (1978). Sexism and TESOL materials. *TESOL Quarterly*, 12, 383-393.
- Hemsley, M. (1997). The evaluation of teachers' guides—design and application. *English Language Teacher Education and Development*, 3(1), 72-83. Retrieved from <http://www.elted.net/issues/volume-3/mikehelm1.pdf>

- Henriques, S. (2009). *An evaluation of English as a foreign language textbooks for secondary schools in Angola* (Doctoral dissertation). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database. (UMI No. 3372353)
- Holmqvist, P., & Gjörup, L. (2006). *The representation of gender and gender roles in English textbooks*. Retrieved from <http://dspace.mah.se:8080/bitstream/handle/2043/3426/representation%20of%20gender.pdf;jsessionid=53172A35C35CB4502F17CF6C8A8BB00B?sequence=1>
- Holsti, O. R. (1969). *Content analysis for the social sciences and humanities*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Hornby, A. S. (1959). *The teaching of structural words and sentence patterns*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Howatt, A. P. R. (1997). *A history of English language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hutchinson, T., & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hymes, D. H. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-293). Baltimore: Penguin Education.
- Jin, L., & Cortazzi, M. (2011). Re-evaluating traditional approaches to second language teaching and learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. II, pp. 558-575). New York: Routledge.
- Johnson, D. (2009). Foreign language syllabus design. In K. Knapp, B. Seidlhofer, & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning* (pp. 309-340). New York, NY: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Johnson, K. (1982). *Communicative syllabus design and methodology*. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Johnson, K. (1996). *Language teaching and skill learning*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Johnson, K., & Morrow, K. E. (1979). *Approaches*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Krahnke, K. (1983). *Approaches to syllabus design for foreign language teaching*. Retrieved from http://www.eric.ed.gov/ERICWebPortal/search/detailmini.jsp?_nfpb=true&_ERICExtSearch_SearchValue_0=ED283385&ERICExtSearch_SearchType_0=no&acno=ED283385
- Krashen, S. D. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.

- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. New York: Longman.
- Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistics across cultures: Applied linguistics for language teachers*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan.
- Lähdesmäki, S. (2009). Intertextual analysis of Finnish EFL textbooks: Genre embedding as recontextualization. In C. Bazerman, A. Bonini, & D. Figueiredo (Eds.), *Genre in a changing world* (pp. 375-392). Ft. Collins, CO: WAC Clearinghouse.
- Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in language teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long, M. H. (1991). *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. New York: Longman.
- Lee, J. F. (2000). *An introduction to task-based instruction*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Lee, J. F. K., & Collins, P. (2008). Gender representation in Hong Kong English textbooks: Some past and current practices. *Sex Roles*, 59(1), 127-137.
- Lee, J. F., & VanPatten, B. (1995). *Making communicative language teaching happen*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Leech, G., Rayson, P., & Wilson, A. (2001). *Word frequencies in written and spoken English: Based on the British national corpus*. London: Longman.
- Leffa, V. J. (1999). O ensino de línguas estrangeiras no contexto nacional [The teaching of foreign languages in the national context]. *Contexturas*, 4, 13-24.
- Lesikin, J. (2001). Determining social prominence: A methodology for uncovering gender bias in ESL textbooks. In D. Hall & A. Hewings (Eds.), *Innovation in English language teaching* (pp. 275-283). London: Routledge.
- Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2010). *How languages are learned* (3rd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Littlejohn, A. (1996). The analysis of language teaching materials: Inside the Trojan Horse. In B. Tomlinson, (Ed.). *Materials development in language teaching* (pp. 191-213). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Littlewood, W. (1981). *Communicative language teaching: An introduction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Littlewood, W. (2011). Communicative language teaching: An expanding concept for a changing world. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. 2, pp. 541-557). New York: Routledge.

- Litz, D. R. A. (2005). Textbook evaluation and EFL management: A South Korean case study. *Asian EFL Journal*, 1-53. Retrieved from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/Litz_thesis.pdf
- Long, M. H. (1985). A role for instruction in second language acquisition: Task-based language teaching. In K. Hyltenstam & M. Pienemann (Eds.), *Modelling and assessing second language acquisition* (pp. 77-99). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Long, M. H., & Crookes, G. (1992). Three approaches to task-based syllabus design. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(1), 27-56.
- Long, M. H., & Norris, J. M. (2000). Task-based teaching and assessment. In M. Byram (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of language teaching*. London: Routledge.
- Macian, J. (1986). An analysis of state-adopted foreign language textbooks used in first- and third-year high school Spanish classes. *Foreign Language Annals*, 19(2), 103-118.
- Mackey, W. F. (1965). *Language teaching analysis*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Maclaughlin, B. (1987). *Theories of second-language learning*. London: Edward.
- Marsh, D., & Langé, G. (2000). *Using languages to learn and learning to use languages*. Jyväskylä: University of Jyväskylä.
- McDonough, S. (1988). Psychological aspects of sequencing. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18(4), 311-320.
- McDonough, S. (2004). Learner-learner interaction during pair and small group activities in a Thai EFL context. *System*, 32, 207-224.
- McEnery, T., & Wilson, A. (1996). *Corpus linguistics*. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
- McGrath, I. (2002). *Materials evaluation and design for language teaching*. Edinburgh: University of Edinburgh Press.
- Messick, S. (1994). The interplay of evidence and consequences in the validation of performance assessments. *Educational Researcher*, 23(2), 13-23.
- Miekley, J. (2005). ESL textbook evaluation checklist. *The Reading Matrix*, 5(2). Retrieved from http://www.readingmatrix.com/reading_projects/miekley/project.pdf
- Mitchell, R., & Myles, F. (2004). *Second language learning theories* (2nd ed.). London: Hodder Arnold.

- Molina, C. (1987). *Quem engana quem? Professor X Livro Didático* [Who deceives who? Professor X Textbooks]. Campinas: Papyrus.
- Mukundan, J., Hajimohammadi, R., & Nimehchisalem, V. (2011). Developing an English language textbook evaluation checklist. *Contemporary Issues in Education Research*, 4(6), 21-28.
- Mulik, K. B. (2012). O ensino de língua estrangeira no contexto brasileiro: Um passeio pela história [The teaching of foreign language in the Brazilian context: A walk in history]. *Crátilo: Revista de Estudos Linguísticos e Literários*, 5(1), 14-22.
- Munby, J. (1978). *Communicative syllabus design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Murray, D. E., & Christison, M. A. (2011). *What English language teachers need to know*. London: Routledge.
- Nagatomo, D. H. (2011). A critical analysis of gender representation in an EFL textbook. *Journal of the Ochanomizu University English Society*, 1, 53-61.
- Nascimento, K. H. (2012). Os diálogos, os livros didáticos de Inglês e novas perspectivas para o ensino/aprendizagem de línguas [Dialogues, English textbooks, and new perspectives for the teaching and learning of languages]. *Cadernos do IL*, 44, 385-406.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I.S. P., & Macalister, J. (2010). *Language course design*. London: Routledge.
- Nizgorodcew, A. (2007). *Input for instructed L2 learners: The relevance of relevance*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Nosella, M. L. C. D. (1981). *As Belas Mentiras* [The beautiful lies]. São Paulo: Editora Moraes.
- Nunan, D. (1988). *Syllabus design: Language teaching, a scheme for teacher education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1991). *Language teaching methodology*. Hemel Hempstead, England: Prentice Hall.
- Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunes, O. O. B. (1989). *An analysis of some textbooks currently in use in Recife, Brazil, and suggestions for the adoption of a communicative methodology* (Unpublished master's thesis). Universidade Federal da Paraíba, Recife, Brazil.

- Oliveira, S. (2008). Texto visual, estereótipos de gênero e o livro didático de língua estrangeira [Visual text, gender stereotypes, and the foreign language textbook]. *Trabalho Linguística Aplicada*, 47(1), 91-117.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Paiva, V. L. M. O., & Chiaretti, A. P. (1998). Texto ou pretexto: uma análise discursiva de materiais didáticos de inglês. In I. D. Machado et al. (Eds.), *Teorias e práticas discursivas* [Theories and discursive practices] (pp. 25-42). Belo Horizonte, Brazil: Carol Borges. Retrieved from <http://www.veramenezes.com/pretexto.htm>
- Paiva, V. L. M. O., & Pagano, A. S. (2001). English in Brazil with an outlook on its function as a language of science. In A. Ulrich (Ed.), *The dominance of English as a language of science* (pp. 425-445). Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Palmer, H. E. (1968). *The scientific study and teaching of languages*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. (Original work published 1922)
- Paltridge, B., & Starfield, S. (2011). Research in English for specific purposes. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (Vol. II, pp. 106-121). New York: Routledge.
- Paulino, S. F. (2009). *Interculturalismo e ensino de língua inglesa: É na tua língua que falo, mas é na minha língua que te compreendo* (Master's thesis). Universidade Federal de Pernambuco, Pernambuco, Brazil. Retrieved from http://www.pglettras.com.br/2009/dissertacoes/diss_Suzana-F-Paulino.pdf
- Pereira, A. L. (2009). *Representações de gênero em livros didáticos de língua estrangeira e discursos gendrados em sala de aula* [Representations of genre in foreign language textbooks and gender discourses in the classroom]. III Edipe – Encontro Estadual de Didática e Prática de Ensino. Retrieved from <http://www.bibliotecadigital.unicamp.br/document/?code=vtls000428422>
- Pica, T. (2008). Task-based instruction. In V. Deussen-School & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (Vol. 4, pp. 71-82). New York: Springer.
- Pica, T., Kanagy, R., & Falodun, J. (1993). Choosing and using communicative tasks for second language instruction. In G. Crookes & S. Gass (Eds.), *Tasks and language learning: Integrating theory and practice* (pp. 9-34). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Pienemann, M. (1985). Learnability and syllabus construction. In K. Hyltenstam & M. Pienemann (Eds.), *Modelling and assessing second language acquisition* (pp. 23-75). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.

- Pienemann, M. (1998). *Language processing and second language development: Processability theory*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Pienemann, M. (2007). Processability theory. In B. VanPattern & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 137-154). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Porreca, K. L. (1984). Sexism in current ESL textbooks. *TESOL Quarterly*, 18(4), 705-724.
- Prabhu, N. S. (1987). *Second language pedagogy: A perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Rahimpour, M., & Hashemi, R. (2011). Textbook selection and evaluation in EFL context. *World Journal of Education*, 1(2), 62-68.
- Rahimy, R. (2007). A coursebook evaluation. *ESP World*, 6(2). Retrieved from <http://www.esp-world.info/contents.htm>
- Richards, J. C. (2001). *Curriculum development in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Rifkin, B. (1998). Gender representation in foreign language textbooks: A case study of textbooks of Russian. *The Modern Language Journal*, 82(2), 217-236.
- Risager, K. (1991). Cultural references in European textbooks: An evaluation of recent tendencies. In D. Buttjes & M. Byran (Eds.), *Mediating languages and cultures: Towards an intercultural theory of foreign language education* (pp. 181-192). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Roberts, J. T. (1996). Demystifying materials evaluation. *System*, 24(3), 375-389.
- Rodgers, T. (2009). The methodology of foreign language teaching. In K. Knapp, B. Seidlhofer, & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning* (pp. 341-372). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Rose, L. H., Fatureto, M., & Sekiya, T. (2006). *Connect*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Sadler, D. R. (1998). Formative assessment: Revisiting the territory. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 5(1), 77-84.
- Samuda, V., & Bygate, M. (2008). *Tasks in second language learning*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

- Santos, D., & Marques, A. (2011). *Links: English for teens, 6.º ano*. São Paulo, Brazil: Ática.
- Santos, J. B. C. (1993). *A aula de língua estrangeira (inglês) modulada pelo livro didático*. (Unpublished master's thesis) Universidade Estadual de Campinas, São Paulo, Brazil. Retrieved from <http://www.bibliotecadigital.unicamp.br/document/?code=vtls000062415>
- Saraceni, C. (2003). Adapting courses: A critical view. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Developing materials for language teaching* (pp. 72–85). London/New York: Continuum.
- Sarem, S. N., Hamidi, H., & Mahmoudie, R. (2013). A critical look at textbook evaluation: A case study of evaluating an ESP course-book: English for international tourism. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*, 4(2), 372-380.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11(1), 17 - 46.
- Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 3-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schreier, M. (2013). *Qualitative content analysis in practice*. Los Angeles: Sage.
- Scriven, M. (2005). *The logic and methodology of checklists*. Available from www.wmich.edu/evalctr/checklists/
- Sheldon, L. E. (1988). Evaluating ELT textbooks and materials. *ELT Journal*, 42(2), 237-246.
- Silva, F. L., & Rajagopalan, K (2004). *A linguística que nos faz falhar: Investigação crítica* [The linguistics that make us fail: Critic investigation]. São Paulo: Parábola Editorial.
- Silva, M. A. C. M. B. (1988). *Estudo diacrônico de livros brasileiros para ensino de inglês: Grau de atualização frente às correntes metodológicas* (Unpublished master's thesis). Pontifícia Universidade Católica, São Paulo, Brazil.
- Skehan, P. (1996). Second language acquisition research and task-based instruction. In J. Willis & D. Willis (Eds.), *Challenge and change language teaching*. Oxford: Heinemann.
- Skehan, P. (1998). Task-based instruction. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 268–86.

- Skehan, P., & Wesche, M. (2002). Communicative, task-based, and content-based language instruction. In R. Kaplan (Ed.), *Oxford handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 207-228). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Skierso, A. (1991). Textbook selection and evaluation. In M. Celce-Murcia (Ed.) *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 432-453). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.
- Soori, A., Kafipour, R., & Soury, M. (2011). EFL textbook evaluation and graphic representation. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 26(3), 481-493.
- Stern, R. H. (1976). Review article: Sexism in foreign language textbooks. *Foreign Language Annals*, 9, 294-299.
- Storch, N. (2002). Patterns of interaction in ESL pair work. *Language Learning*, 52(1), 119-58.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: Some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In S. Gass & C. Madden (Eds.) *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-53). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Swain, M. (2005). The output hypothesis: Theory and research. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471-483). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Tenuta, A. M., & Oliveira, A. L. A. M. (2011). Livros didáticos e ensino de línguas estrangeiras: A produção escrita no PNLD-2011/LEM [Textbooks and the education of foreign language: The writing production in the PNLD-2011/LEM]. *Linguagem & Ensino*, 14(2), 315-336.
- Terrell, T. D. (1990). Trends in the teaching of grammar in Spanish language textbooks. *Hispania*, 73(1), 201-211.
- Todeva, E. (1997). Capulet and Montague—reconciled and ennobled: Recognising the existence of a balanced approach with CLT. *Journal of Communication and International Studies*, 1(4), 127-134.
- Tomlinson, B. (2003). *Developing materials for language teaching*. London: Continuum.
- Tomlinson, B. (2010). Principles of effective materials development. In J. C. Richards (Ed.), *English language teaching materials: Theory and practice* (pp. 81-108). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Tomlinson, B. (2011). *Materials development in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, MA: Cambridge University Press.
- Trahey, M., & White, L. (1993). Positive evidence and preemption in the second language classroom. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 15(2), 181-204.

- Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching: Practice & theory* (pp. 184-187). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Van Ek, J. A. (1975). *The threshold level*. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe.
- Van Ek, J. A. (1978). *The threshold level for schools*. Harlow, England: Longman.
- Van Ek, J.A., & Alexander, L.G. (1980). *Threshold level English*. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Van Els, T., Bongaerts, T., Extra, G., Van Os, C., & Janssen-Van, A. D. (1984). *Applied linguistics and the learning and teaching of foreign languages*. London: Arnold.
- Weninger, C., & Kiss, T. (2013). Culture in English as a foreign language (EFL) textbooks: A semiotic approach. *Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages Quarterly*, 47(4), 1-23.
- West, M. (1953). *A general service list of English words* (Rev. and enl. ed.). London: Longman.
- White, R. V. (1988). *The ELT curriculum*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1971). The teaching of rhetoric to students of science and technology. In *Science and technology in a second language*. London: Centre for Information on Language Teaching and Research.
- Widdowson, H. (1979). *Explorations in applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Widdowson, H. G. (2005). Applied linguistics, interdisciplinarity, and disparate realities. In R. B. Kaplan & P. Bruthiaux (Eds.), *Directions in applied linguistics: Essays in honor of Robert B. Kaplan* (pp. 12-25). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Widdowson, H. (2009). The linguistic perspective. In K. Knapp, B. Seidlhofer, & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning* (pp. 193-218). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Wiggins, G., & McTighe, J. (2006). *Understanding by design*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Wiggins, G., & McTighe, J. (2011). *The understanding by design guide to creating high-quality units*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Wilkins, D. A. (1976). *Notional syllabuses: A taxonomy and its relevance to foreign language curriculum development*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Williams, D. (1983). Developing criteria for textbook evaluation. *ELT Journal*, 37(3), 251-255.
- Willis, D. (in press). *Focus on meaning, language and form: A three way distinction*. Retrieved from <http://www.willis-elt.co.uk/books.html>
- Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. London: Longman.
- Willis, J., & Willis, D. (1996). *Challenge and change in language teaching*. London: Heineman.
- Wolff, D. (2009). Content and language integrated learning. In K. Knapp, B. Seidlhofer, & H. G. Widdowson (Eds.), *Handbook of foreign language communication and learning* (pp. 545-572). New York: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Wong, J. (2002). "Applying" conversation analysis in applied linguistics: Evaluating dialogue in English as a second language textbooks. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 40, 37-60.
- Woodward, T., & Lindstromberg, S. (1995). *Planning from lesson to lesson*. London: Longman.
- Yalden, J. (1987). *Principles of course design for language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Young, R. F. (2011). Interactional competence in language learning, teaching and testing. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 471-483). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Yuen, K. M. (2011). The representation of foreign cultures in English textbooks. *ELT Journal*, 65(4), 458-466.
- Zare, J. (2012). Procedural syllabus, a follow-up or an alternative. *International Journal of Linguistics*, 4(3), 16-25.

VITA

Ellen Nogueira Rodrigues

Academic Degrees

- Candidate Ph.D., Curriculum and Instruction, Andrews University.
2012 M.A., English (Teaching English as a Second Language), Andrews University.
2009 Post-Graduate Diploma (Lato Sensu), Higher Education, Adventist University of Sao Paulo (Brazil).
2006 B.A., Letters (Specialization in Portuguese and English), Adventist University of Sao Paulo (Brazil).
2006 B.A., Translation and Interpretation (Portuguese/English), Adventist University of Sao Paulo (Brazil).

Additional Educational Experience

- 2014 Visiting Ph.D. Student in the Department of Teacher Education (College of Education), Michigan State University.

Publication (Refereed Journal)

- Rodrigues, E. (2013). Um breve estudo da inteligibilidade no contexto de *world englishes* [A Brief Study of Intelligibility in the Context of World Englishes]. *Acta Científica*, 22 (1), p. 93-107.

Academic Presentations

- “Survival in the Classroom: Group Work and the Second Language Learner.” Michigan College English Association (Grand Valley State University), 2012.
“A Conversational Analysis of Mix Marital Couples’ Conversation.” Fourth Annual Faculty and Graduate Student Celebration of Research (Andrews University), 2012.
“The Task-Based Approach to Curriculum Design: Current Research.” Adventist English Association (Andrews University), 2013.
“Nonnatives’ Perceptions of Group Work: A Study on Interactions Between Native and Nonnative English Speakers.” 14th Year of the Midwest Conference on the Scholarship of Teaching and Learning (Indiana University, South Bend), 2013.
“Teaching English.” 11th Annual TLC Conference (Andrews University), 2013.
“My Cross-Cultural Journey: An Autobiographical Analysis of the Challenges and Negotiations in Entering the World of Unfamiliarity.” Fifth Annual Celebration of Research & Creative Scholarship (Andrews University), 2013.
“Cross-Cultural Autobiographical Accounts: Narratives of Alienation, Understanding, and Reconciliation.” Michigan Academy of Science, Arts and Letters (Oakland University), 2014. Presented with Thula Lambert and Fatima al Nasser.
“A System of Discipline: A Review of Classroom Management Models and Strategies.” Sixth Annual Celebration of Research & Creative Scholarship (Andrews University), 2014.
“Academic Experiences of Brazilian International Students.” Michigan Academy of Science, Arts and Letters (Andrews University), 2015.
“Curriculum Design and Language Learning.” AICER Symposia (Andrews University), 2015.