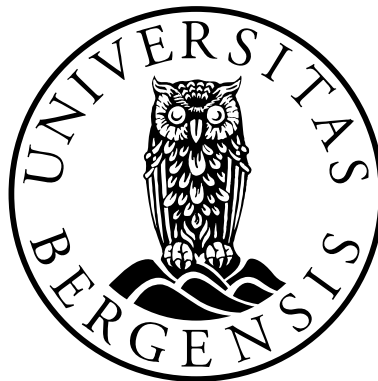


Grammar Teaching in the EFL Classroom:
An Analysis of Grammar Tasks in Three Textbooks

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Summary in Norwegian

Hovedmålet med denne oppgaven er å undersøke grammatikkoppgavene i tre lærebøker som er brukt i engelsk på tiende trinn i norsk skole, *Crossroads*, *New Flight* og *Searching*. Tross nyere hjelpemidler, forblir lærebøkene et viktig verktøy i klasseromsundervisningen, og det er viktig at lærebøkene er gode for at grammatikkundervisningen skal være effektiv. En lærebokanalyse kan bidra til å se hvorvidt lærebøkene som brukes er i tråd med viktige retninger innen undervisning og læring, samt forbedre kvaliteten på lærebøkene. Denne lærebokboken analysen begrenser seg til å undersøke grammatikkoppgavene i bøkene. Det er gjort en kvantitativ undersøkelse av hvor mange grammatikkoppgaver som finnes i hver lærebok sammenlignet med det totale antall oppgaver. Deretter er det gjort en tekstboken analyse ved hjelp av et rammeverk med kriterier som har blitt brukt for å undersøke kvaliteten på grammatikkoppgavene. De kriteriene som har blitt brukt er følgende: Hvorvidt en beskrivelse av en grammatisk struktur er gitt før oppgavene, hvilket språk som er brukt for å beskrive oppgavene, om elevene arbeider sammen eller alene, om oppgavene skal gjennomføres skriftlig eller muntlig, hvorvidt oppgavene opererer på et setnings- eller diskursnivå, hvilke oppgavetyper som er representert, hvorvidt oppgavene krever et åpent eller lukket svar, samt på hvilket kognitivt nivå det er sannsynlig at elevene arbeider under utførelsen av oppgavene. Hovedtendensene for grammatikkoppgavene i de tre utvalgte lærebøkene blir presentert og diskutert i lys av teori om grammatikkundervisning og den historiske utviklingen som har skjedd på dette feltet i løpet av det siste århundret. Hovedtendensene i funnene fremmer et ønske om grammatikkoppgaver som er mer kommunikative, mer diskursbaserte, mer varierte og som inkluderer alle de kognitive stadiene, og der det er en større integrasjon mellom kommunikasjon og grammatikk.

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List of Tables and Figures

| | |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------|----|
| Table 1: The number of grammar tasks and other tasks..... | 56 |
| Table 2: The results for the category <i>explicit description</i> | 57 |
| Table 3: The results for the category <i>work</i> | 62 |
| Table 4: The results for the category <i>medium</i> | 62 |
| Table 5: The results for the category <i>instructional language</i> | 68 |
| Table 6: The results for the category <i>task type</i> | 70 |
| Table 7: The results for the category <i>context</i> | 74 |
| Table 8: The results for the category <i>open/close</i> | 77 |
| Table 9: The results for the category <i>cognitive stage</i> | 79 |
| | |
| Figure 1: How language happens..... | 29 |
| Figure 2: A cognitive model of learning stages..... | 37 |
| Figure 3: The communication model..... | 38 |

Table of Contents

| | |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------|-----------|
| Summary in Norwegian | 2 |
| Acknowledgements | 3 |
| List of Tables and Figures | 4 |
| 1. Introduction | 7 |
| 1.1 <i>Why examining English grammar in education?</i> | 7 |
| 1.2 <i>Why study textbooks?</i> | 8 |
| 1.3 <i>Research Questions and Criteria</i> | 10 |
| 1.4 <i>The Structure of the Thesis</i> | 11 |
| 2. Theoretical Background | 13 |
| 2.1 <i>What is grammar?</i> | 13 |
| 2.2 <i>Some Concepts in Grammar Teaching</i> | 16 |
| 2.2.1 <i>Form and function</i> | 16 |
| 2.2.2 <i>Meaning</i> | 17 |
| 2.2.3 <i>Pragmatics and Discourse in Grammar Teaching</i> | 19 |
| 2.2.4 <i>Grammatical Competence and Grammatical Performance</i> | 22 |
| 2.2.5 <i>Deductive and Inductive Teaching</i> | 23 |
| 2.2.6 <i>The Task</i> | 24 |
| 2.3 <i>Traditional Grammar</i> | 25 |
| 2.3.1 <i>The Grammar-Translation Method</i> | 25 |
| 2.3.2 <i>The Direct Method</i> | 27 |
| 2.3.3 <i>The Audio-Lingual Method</i> | 27 |
| 2.4 <i>Communicative Grammar</i> | 29 |
| 2.4.1 <i>Communicative Competence</i> | 30 |
| 2.4.2 <i>The Development of Communicative Competence</i> | 32 |
| 2.5 <i>Acquisition-Based Approaches</i> | 33 |
| 2.5.1 <i>Acquisition vs. Learning</i> | 33 |
| 2.5.2 <i>Language Awareness</i> | 35 |
| 2.6 <i>Cognitive Approaches to Grammar</i> | 35 |
| 2.6.1 <i>Newby's Communication + Cognitive Approach</i> | 38 |
| 3. Materials and Methods | 41 |
| 3.1 <i>Presentation of the material</i> | 41 |
| 3.1.1 <i>Searching 10</i> | 41 |
| 3.1.2 <i>Crossroads 10B</i> | 41 |
| 3.1.3 <i>New Flight 3 Workbook</i> | 42 |
| 3.2 <i>Method</i> | 42 |
| 3.2.1 <i>Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods</i> | 42 |
| 3.2.2 <i>Textbook analysis</i> | 44 |
| 3.2.3 <i>Counting the overall number of tasks</i> | 45 |
| 3.2.4 <i>The Framework for the Analysis</i> | 46 |
| 3.3 <i>Possible Limitations</i> | 56 |
| 4. Results and Discussion | 57 |
| 4.1 <i>Number of grammar tasks</i> | 57 |
| 4.2 <i>Explicit description</i> | 58 |
| 4.3 <i>Work and Medium</i> | 62 |
| 4.4 <i>Instructional language</i> | 68 |
| 4.5 <i>Context</i> | 70 |
| 4.6 <i>Type of task</i> | 74 |

| | |
|------------------------------------|-----------|
| <i>4.7 Open/close</i> | 78 |
| <i>4.8 Cognitive stage</i> | 80 |
| <i>4.9 Summary of findings</i> | 82 |
| 5. Conclusion | 83 |
| <i>5.1 Summary and Conclusions</i> | 83 |
| <i>5.2 Further Research</i> | 86 |
| References | 87 |

1. Introduction

In my experience, grammar is perhaps the term in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom that evokes the most negative associations. Today, English is used for many purposes around the world, and there are many reasons for which English is important to learn. Still, English grammar, despite its importance in language learning, seems to be associated with boring rules and red ink by many. This thesis addresses some questions of grammar in the EFL classroom. The aim is to examine grammar tasks in EFL textbooks. In the introductory chapter reasons for examining English grammar in education, and reasons for studying textbooks will be given. The research questions and aims, in addition to an overview of the thesis will be presented.

1.1 Why examining English grammar in education?

For many people grammar is synonymous with learning the grammatical forms, and it is often associated with rules, drills, red ink, and boredom (Larsen-Freeman, 2003; Summer, 2011). In my teacher practice I found it slightly difficult to find good ways to teach grammar, apart from the fairly traditional approaches of presenting the grammar on the board and letting the pupils perform a few grammar tasks, the way in which I was taught English grammar at school. When asking my teaching practice supervisors for ideas on how to teach grammar, they expressed a sense of insecurity in this area of language teaching¹. They voiced the opinion that it was difficult to find good ways to teach grammar, and they often ended up using the tasks in the textbooks, in addition to explaining the grammar to the pupils. This is not necessarily negative, but if they were not satisfied with the grammar tasks in the textbooks, they sometimes found it difficult to find other alternatives. They also emphasised that the pupils tended to learn less than they were taught, in the sense that they made the same errors over and over again in written and spoken language. In my experience, grammar is taught in separate sessions, and the pupils tend to enjoy the other parts of English teaching more than the grammar parts. Still, grammar is significant in order to learn to use English not only correctly, but also appropriately and meaningfully.

Because I found it challenging to teach grammar in effective ways, I wanted to examine the field of grammar teaching further. Although there are many ways in which this could have been accomplished, I decided to examine the grammar tasks provided in EFL textbooks. The textbook is widely used in the EFL classroom and is the initial tool for both teachers and

¹ The views are expressed through personal conversations with my teaching practice supervisors.

pupils (e.g. Magne Rogne, 2009; Knudsen, 2012). The tasks, no matter how effectively they promote learning, are the starting point in how grammar is presented and worked with.

My hypothesis is that the grammar tasks in these textbooks are somewhat traditional, i.e. typically written gap-filling tasks with a strong focus on rules, even though there has been a strong emphasis on meaningful, communicative grammar in the field of language teaching over the past forty years. Newby (2000, p. 3) says that modern classrooms reflect a variety of approaches. However, “whilst there is almost uniform rejection of traditional grammar among methodologists, the security its structured practices offer to teachers and learners is obviously appealing”. Currently, there seems to be a view amongst teaching methodologists that favours communicative and cognitive approaches. Still, traces of traditional approaches colour the EFL classroom, especially grammar teaching, in my opinion, as this seems to be an area which is somewhat more difficult to renew than other aspects of English teaching.

1.2 Why study textbooks?

The textbook remains, even with other tools available, important in the teaching of English. Summer (2011, p. 79) says “the textbook is a traditional instructional medium that has, despite the development of electronic media and the Internet, remained a significant and influential tool in the EFL classroom today”. In the upper secondary school, all pupils are provided with computers and can more easily access instructional materials from the Internet. This is not necessarily the situation for the tenth grade pupils. Furthermore, in the upper secondary school, the content of English differs based on which study programme the pupils choose (e.g. general studies, vocational education). Additionally, some pupils chose English as an in-depth study subject, but this is optional. In the tenth grade, the content may differ as well (e.g. different textbooks are used, the teachers emphasise different aspects), but it is likely to be more similar as the guidelines are the same for all, which they are not for all upper secondary pupils. Hence, I have chosen to examine textbooks, and more specifically the textbooks for year ten in the lower secondary school. Although I examine textbooks for this level, the study is applicable for other levels as well (e.g. the framework can be used to examine textbooks for other levels, the trends in these textbooks are likely to be similar for other levels).

There are various reasons for analysing textbooks. First, the textbook must be good in order for the grammar teaching and learning to be effective. Second, it is necessary to see if the textbook is in accordance with the current teaching principles. Third, perhaps the main aim of textbook studies is to improve the quality of the teaching material (Summer, 2011). Through a theoretical analysis, insight about what really happens in the classroom will not be revealed, and the extent to which the textbook influences the teaching depends largely on the individual teacher. However, it can be assumed that the textbooks are used, as they are the primary teaching material available in most EFL classrooms, and that they influence the teaching and learning.

Even though the textbook has been the dominant teaching tool for so long, textbook study as a field of research is relatively new. In Norway, a few master's theses have been written on textbook materials in the recent years (e.g. Austad, 2009; Balsnes, 2009). Austad (2009) compared the grammar tasks in textbooks previous to and after the introduction of the national guidelines of 2006, i.e. *The Knowledge Promotion*. She also investigated the teachers' attitudes to the subject. Balsnes (2009) has analysed the oral activities in textbooks for the subject International English. A comparative analysis of the grammar tasks in current textbooks, on the other hand, has not yet been conducted.

My research examines grammar tasks in the textbooks *Crossroads 10B*, *New Flight Workbook 3*, and *Searching 10*. They are all published after the introduction of the *Knowledge Promotion*, and are influenced by these guidelines. Although there is no longer (since 2000) a formal requirement that the textbooks follow the national curriculum (Rogne, 2009), all the textbooks in this study acknowledge that they are in accordance with *The Knowledge Promotion's* guidelines. The subject English is divided into three main areas: language learning, communication and culture, society and literature. The extract below is taken from the English subject curriculum and shows the variation in objectives for the subject.

To succeed in a world where English is used for international interpersonal communication, it is necessary to master the English language. Thus we need to develop our vocabulary and our skills in using the systems of the English language; its phonology, grammar and text structuring. We need these skills to listen, speak, read and write, and to adapt our language to an ever-increasing number of topics, areas of interest and communication situations. We must be able to distinguish between spoken and written styles and informal and formal styles. Moreover, when using the language

in communication, we must also be able to take cultural norms and conventions into consideration. (The Knowledge Promotion, 2006)

Mastering of the language for communicative purposes is an overall aim, and there are many different areas in which the pupils need to develop skills in order to achieve this aim. Grammar is one of the elements explicitly mentioned here. The textbooks are likely to influence the way grammar is taught, and whether the grammar teaching is effective for accomplishing communicative skills.

This study is important because there is not yet sufficient research in the area of grammar teaching. Although grammar in textbooks has been studied in other countries (e.g. Summer, 2011), this has not been done with Norwegian textbooks. There is also insufficient research on how teaching materials are used in the classroom. This study will not uncover how the textbooks are used in practice, but it can serve as a theoretical basis for further research in the EFL classroom. Furthermore, the study is significant because of the experience that both teachers and pupils have difficulties with teaching and learning grammar respectively. Thus an examination of the grammar tasks in the textbooks can hopefully be useful for the users and authors of the textbooks, in order to carefully choose tasks and textbooks, and in order to improve them.

1.3 Research Questions and Criteria

The aim of the thesis is to examine how grammar is presented and how the pupils are required to work with grammar based on the tasks provided in the textbooks. I have analysed the grammar tasks according to a set of criteria, which is the following:

1. Task/rule description
 - a) Is a description of the grammar explicitly given? If so, in what manner?
 - b) Are the instructions given in English or Norwegian?
2. How the pupils work
 - a) Are the pupils required to accomplish the task by writing or speaking?
 - b) Are the pupils required to work alone, in pairs or in groups?

3. Context or out of context²
 - a) Is the task operating at a sentence or a discourse level?
4. Types of tasks
 - a) What types of tasks are found in the textbooks? The various tasks types are *ordering, multiple choice, interpretation, gap filling, matching, transforming, reformulation, composition, translation, explanation, correction, and other*³.
 - b) Does the task require an open or close-ended answer?
5. Cognitive stage

Does the task trigger the cognitive stage of *awareness, conceptualisation, proceduralisation, or performance*⁴?

In addition to an examination of the quality of the grammar tasks, the number of grammar tasks compared to other types of tasks will be investigated in order to detect the place grammar has in the EFL classroom according to these textbooks. The research question is as follows: How many grammar tasks are provided in each textbook, and what is the quality of these tasks, according to the specified criteria?

1.4 The Structure of the Thesis

Following the introduction, a theoretical background will be presented in chapter two. This chapter begins with a brief explanation and understanding of the concept *grammar*. Then some significant concepts regarding grammar teaching are addressed. The understanding of the term *task* will be given, before the main directions in grammar teaching in the 19th century and early 2000s will be outlined. The latter part will be structured in four main types of approaches, i.e. the traditional approaches, the communicative approaches, the acquisition-based approaches, and the cognitive approaches; and some of the main methods, concepts or theories in each will be described. There are many aspects and methods that could have been included regarding the history of language teaching and learning. However, only the main approaches and influences, and those that have been most influential in the Norwegian context are included. The aim of the thesis is not to get an in-depth, detailed understanding of

² I will use the term *context* for the sake of simplicity in the tables and further writing. I have included *and out of context* here, in order to show that this category also covers tasks where there is no context, and that the purpose of this category is to uncover whether the tasks is at a sentence or context/discourse level.

³ These terms are partly adapted from Newby (2010). Additionally, I have added some tasks types based on the textbooks in the study (see section 3.2.4).

⁴ These terms are adopted from Newby (2006, 2010). See sections 2.6 and 3.2.4 for further description.

each method, but rather to obtain a broad understanding of the main concepts regarding grammar teaching and learning. The intention is to acquire an overview of the developing trends over the years, in order to examine the quality of the tasks in accordance with the given criteria, which can give an indication of which trends the tasks are in accordance with (e.g. whether they are communicative and cognitive, or whether they are somewhat more traditional).

In chapter three the materials, i.e. the textbooks, will be presented. A brief outline of qualitative and quantitative methods will be given. A mixed method, which makes use of both qualitative and quantitative methods, is used in this study. The quality of grammar tasks in a selection of textbooks has been examined, through the use of a framework comprising certain criteria. These criteria can be quantified and serve as a basis for the analysis. A textbook analysis has been conducted in this study. This is a broad concept and can be accomplished in various manners. I have mainly used Summer's (2011) understanding of the concept, and this will be presented in chapter three. The framework, which has been used for the analysis, will be explained in great detail as well. Examples have been included with the presentation of the framework, in order to make the thesis applicable for the wider audience. Finally, there will be comments on possible limitations of the thesis.

In chapter four the results of the analysis will be presented. The results will be shown in tables. This chapter is structured by the categories of the framework, and the findings of each category will be discussed in relation to the theoretical background presented in chapter two.

Finally, the conclusion will be presented, and comments on further research will be made.

2. Theoretical Background

In this chapter I will first discuss the term *grammar*, before I clarify some important concepts related to grammar teaching, i.e. form and function; meaning; pragmatics and discourse; grammatical competence and performance; and deductive and inductive teaching. Following, the understanding of the term *task* will be explained, before an outline of the history of grammar teaching is given.

2.1 What is grammar?

There are several ways to define grammar, and many have written definitions of grammar, based on for example their view on language. One definition, which is found in *Oxford Dictionary of English Grammar*, says that grammar is “the entire system of a language, including its syntax, morphology, semantics and phonology” (Chalker & Weiner, 1994, p. 177). Other definitions, often popularly used, include the structural rules of a language, but exclude vocabulary, semantics and phonology. Whether a definition of grammar comprises structural aspects only, or whether it also covers semantics and functions, depends strongly on the current view on language and learning. This will be exemplified later in this chapter by looking at some of the various approaches to grammar teaching over the past century. The term grammar is also used in the sense of a book containing rules of grammar, or it can be used as an individual’s application of the rules. In this thesis I will not give attention to the two latter, but rather focus on grammar as a language system and how grammar is used for communication and to make meaning.

Characteristic for the field is that there have been shifting views on grammar teaching. These shifts are often described as pendulum swings between two main views, i.e. between teaching the function of grammar and the forms of grammar. At the one extreme, grammar is a fundamental part of language teaching, with mastering of grammar as the aim of the teaching. At the other extreme, grammar has little or no place at all in language teaching. Throughout the history of grammar teaching, one extreme often has replaced the other.

The two definitions of grammar presented below, both written by Ur with a time span of twenty years, illustrate some differences between these two views. Although there are traces of the importance of meaning and communication in both definitions, the first is more focused on the rules and forms of grammar, whereas the second has a clearer focus on grammar as a means to express meaning acceptably and appropriately.

Grammar may be roughly defined as the way a language manipulates and combines words (or bits of words) in order to form longer units of meaning (...) There is a set of rules which govern how units of meaning may be constructed in any language: we may say that a learner who 'knows grammar' is one who has mastered and can apply these rules to express him or herself in what would be acceptable language forms (Ur, 1988, p. 4).

Grammar may be roughly defined as the way a language manipulates and combines words (or bits of words) so as to express certain kinds of meaning, some of which cannot be conveyed adequately by vocabulary alone. These include the way ideas are grouped and related, and the purposes of utterances (statement, question, request, etc). Grammar may also serve to express time relations, singular/plural distinctions and many other aspects of meaning. There are rules which govern how words have to be manipulated and organized so as to express these meanings: a competent speaker of the language will be able to apply these rules so as to convey his or her chosen meaning effectively and acceptably (Ur, 2009, p. 3).

In the first definition, central words are "mastering" of the language, "rules" and "forms", whereas significant phrases in the second definition are "express meanings", "purposes of utterances" and "aspects of meaning". Summer (2011, p. 22) says that the second definition implies that "we are moving towards a perception of a meaning-oriented concept of pedagogical grammar that considers rules as an aid to expressing meaningful language".

Where linguistic grammar is concerned with what grammar is and how it works, pedagogical grammar is more specifically concerned with how grammar is described for learning purposes and how it should be taught in the EFL classroom (Summer, 2011). In other words, pedagogical grammar is grammar developed for learners of a foreign language. According to Newby (2000, p. 1) the main issues discussed in pedagogical grammar are:

- the aims of grammar teaching (knowing about grammar or using grammar; manipulating sentences or free production)
- the categorisation of grammar (form, meaning, use) into units which will form a syllabus or teaching objectives
- the extent to which grammar should be dealt with separately from other aspects of language
- the use of rules, in particular in how far a conscious focus on grammar rules assists acquisition
- the type of grammatical exercises and activities and tasks which will lead to automatization

An important, but often avoided, question when it comes to grammar teaching is: what are the aims of grammar teaching? The way in which grammar is taught, influences how the pupils learn grammar. Newby (personal communication, February 1, 2013) formulates the aims of grammar learning in the following way:

The overall aim of learning grammar is to be able to express your own ideas in real situations in language that is as correct, meaningful and appropriate as possible. It is the teacher's task to facilitate this grammatical skill with the maximum efficiency.

Newby stresses language performance; the meaningfulness of grammar; a realistic view on grammatical correctness; and the teacher's role in finding appropriate methodology for the learning of grammar and language. The aims of grammar learning should be reflected in the way grammar is taught. In the citation below, Ellis broadly defines grammar teaching as

any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand grammar metalinguistically and/or process it in comprehension and/or production so that they can internalize it. (Ellis, 2006, p. 84 as cited in Timmis, 2012, p. 128)

The outcome of grammar teaching can be, according to this definition, both learning of formal grammar with a focus on the structures of the language, and/or learning of the ability to use grammar in practice. Throughout the history of language teaching there have been shifting views on how to teach grammar. However, the teaching of grammar can be defined broadly as any instructional technique used in order to learn grammar.

In this thesis grammar is thought of as pedagogical grammar. I shall not go into linguistic details about particular grammatical features and how grammar works. What is of interest here is how the grammar tasks in the textbooks are designed according to some criteria, which are mentioned in the introductory chapter and will be explained in greater detail in chapter three. All the tasks which are included in the grammar parts or under the grammar headlines in the textbooks are included in the analysis. Some of these tasks are not really grammar tasks per se (e.g. they have more to do with mathematics⁵ than language). This applies to very few tasks, and will be commented further upon in chapter three.

⁵ The mathematics tasks are included in the EFL textbooks because maths is one of the basics skills that are required to be incorporated in all subjects.

2.2 Some Concepts in Grammar Teaching

2.2.1 Form and function

Form means the external characteristics of language (Chalker and Weiner, 1994), i.e. the structure of the language. In formal grammar, which has to do with the forms of language and often refers to the instructed learning found in traditional teaching of language, little attention is given to meaning (semantics) and use and context (pragmatics) (Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

For many people learning a language is synonymous with explicitly learning its grammar (Eisenmann and Summer, 2012). Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988, p. 15) say: “Not only has grammatical focus long been considered a *necessary* part of language instruction; it has also even to this day often been considered a *sufficient* condition for successful language learning”. In formal grammar teaching, the classroom contents are typically organised mainly based on analysis of language forms, rather than language functions and real communication. The language is often divided into parts and taught in isolation. The presentation-practice-production (PPP) approach to grammar teaching has been widely accepted and used, despite the lack of support by research findings (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011). In the PPP approach, a grammar rule is typically presented to the learners, then the learners accomplish various tasks to practise the rule or structure, and finally they might use the rule or structure more freely in communicative tasks. Many have used this method successfully, while others question its value. Some deficiencies to consider with the PPP approach are that rules can be abstract and inappropriate for some (especially young) learners; and learners are not always able to transfer their knowledge from practice exercises into real written or spoken communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

Form and formal grammar are often contrasted with function and functional grammar. Functional grammar has a different starting point than formal grammar, and the focus is mainly on social interactions, communication and why some forms are more appropriate than others. Some say that language is not considered to be a set of rules, since language use is what is of importance (Larsen-Freeman, 2001). This is somewhat problematic because grammar does have to do with rules and the structure of the language. It cannot be claimed that grammar is purely functional, although it has functions and these functions are of utmost importance. Nonetheless, the approaches used to teach grammatical items can have different starting points, for example whether grammar is explained in terms of language use and

meanings or rather in terms of rules, perhaps using abstract grammatical terms (meta-language). Larsen-Freeman (2001, p. 36) explains the functional view on grammar in the following way: “what is of interest (...) is not that the rules generate grammatical sentences, but rather that the production of rule-governed sentences is the means to coherent communication”. Function stresses the semantic role of sentences, and the ways in which language functions pragmatically and socially, rather than formally (Chalker and Weiner, 1994). Larsen-Freeman (2003) says that grammar has to do with rules and that the rules are helpful, and also that it is easier to understand “how” when you understand “why”. Thus, grammar rules should not be learnt in isolation, but rather in a way that is meaningful and helps the pupils understand the language and how it is best used.

In the 1970s Halliday described seven language functions. People use language to get things done (instrumental); to control the behaviour of others (regulatory); to create interaction with others (interactional); to express personal feelings and meanings (personal); to learn and discover (heuristic); to create a world of imagination (imaginative); and to communicate information (informative) (Halliday, 1975). These functions are developed in three phases according to Halliday. From a native speaker point of view, the child develops a sense of meaning first, then he learns to express meaning, in simple words at first, and then at the final stage (adult) he is able to express meaning in appropriate manners for these functions.

2.2.2 Meaning

Grammar can be described as a means of expressing certain types of meaning – notions and functions – through grammatical forms. The primary function of language is interaction and communication. However, in traditional approaches to grammar, rules and forms are the starting points for grammar teaching. Both communicative and cognitive approaches stress that meaning happens before form, that is speakers use forms to express what they mean (see Figure 1, chapter 2.4). Thus, grammar can be presented as a set of meanings, i.e. functions and notions, rather than a set of rules (e.g. *A verb is a doing word*).

As a result of the idea that “in actual language use meanings give rise to forms and not vice versa” (Newby, 1998, p. 188), some syllabuses define grammar as a set of meanings, either functions or notions, rather than as a set of forms. The functional-notional syllabus design was a result of the large-scale attempt to incorporate a broader view on language than the

structural view into the syllabus in the 1970s. Structural syllabuses were increasingly criticised because they tended to focus on only one aspect of language, i.e. formal grammar (Nunan, 1988). However, in the 1970s stronger emphasis was given to the purposes and functions of language, and the use of notional syllabuses was applied in the development of communicative competence. In many textbooks grammar was described in terms of notional, rather than formal, labels. *Functions* can be defined as “the communicative purposes for which we use language” and *notions* as “the conceptual meanings expressed through language” (Nunan 1988, p. 35). Newby (1998) defines notions as a single grammatical concept, which is encoded into a form, or “single meanings that are expressed through forms” (p. 188). Examples of notional categories are time, duration, movement, location, and space. Chalker and Weiner (1994, p. 266) say:

Suggested notional categories covered three areas: semantico-grammatical (e.g. time and space), modal meaning, and functions (e.g. how to express disapproval, persuasion, or agreement). (...) In later developments in foreign language teaching, the term *notional* tended to be restricted to the first category (general concepts of time and space, etc.) which were explicitly contrasted with functions, such as agreement or suasion.

Language is complex. A single form can realise more than one function. Furthermore, a given function can be realised by more than one form. When the notion categories, rather than the formal categories, are the starting point for grammar teaching (e.g. *intention* rather than *going to*), there is a stronger focus on how grammar functions, and the various purposes of language can be identified.

A meaning-based approach to grammar teaching reflects how grammar is used in real life and makes it possible to integrate context and grammar. It is likely that meaningful learning happens when cognitive and affective needs are met, because the pupils engage more strongly in the learning process. Drills, for example, do not activate the mind nor engage the pupils in such a way that meaningful learning is likely to happen. Tasks in which they must solve a problem or where they have their curiosity satisfied are much more meaningful. Learning is meaningful when the pupils are given the opportunity to learn from each other, to associate new items with existing knowledge, and to have an overall focus on language meaning.

2.2.3 Pragmatics and Discourse in Grammar Teaching

The terms *pragmatics* and *discourse* are not emphasised in traditional grammar teaching, but in the light of communicative competence (see chapter 2.4.1) and a functional view on grammar, they are rather significant. Pragmatics has to do with language use in sociocultural contexts. Crystal (1997, p. 301 in Rose and Kasper, 2001, p. 2) defines pragmatics as

(...) the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.

In communication there are many possibilities and pragmatic strategies for conveying communicative acts and meaning. To be a competent speaker the pupil must learn to use the language appropriately when it comes to these matters. The social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance, and proper social behaviour is also a significant aspect of language use (Rose and Kasper, 2001). Pragmatics is an important part of communicative competence. In Canale and Swain's review of this concept (as cited in Rose and Kasper, 2001), pragmatics is included in what they call *sociolinguistic competence*. Pragmatic ability is a necessary part of EFL teaching. EFL pupils often have little access to target language input outside the classroom (although Norwegian pupils are in a considerable degree exposed to English movies, music, games, etc). Most pupils have even less opportunities for productive use of the language outside the classroom. When most of the experience with the foreign language takes place within the classroom, how do teachers teach pragmatics in an effective way? Rose and Kasper (2001) suggest that the pupils must be made aware of the pragmatic knowledge that is either universal or transferrable from their native language to start with. Pupils often have troubles using what they already know in new tasks, and thus might need encouragement to use this underlying knowledge. They must also be made aware of cross-cultural differences. In the audio-lingual method for example (see section 2.3.3), some of the conversations that were practised might not have been appropriate to have with strangers from other cultures. If one asks someone one has recently met "how much is your salary", that could be perceived as inappropriate for sociocultural, although not for grammatical, reasons. As the example illustrates, not only knowledge of how to use grammar correctly, but also knowledge of how to use grammar appropriately is significant in language learning. Pragmatic abilities are tied to grammatical and lexical structures. One way to approach grammar is through a focus on pragmatics and language use. The pupils get a

chance to focus not only on the formal possible ways to utter something, but also to understand the importance of social, cultural, and contextual aspects in communication. Topics related to social and cultural aspects are included in *The Knowledge Promotion* and in EFL textbooks today. However, grammar is perhaps not so much integrated with these topics.

Discourse-based approaches to grammar teaching are linked to pragmatics. Structural approaches to EFL teaching have traditionally emphasised grammar instruction alone, and described and studied grammar as “context-free knowledge” (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002, p. 120). A discourse-based approach to language teaching, on the other hand, would focus not only on grammatical forms, but also on the meaning and use of the forms in context. Nassaji and Fotos (2011) recognise the pragmatic meaning in context as an essential function of grammar. Many grammatical items and rules cannot be explained without reference to context, as they are context-dependent. A sentence can be understood in one way if it is understood literally and in a quite different way if contextual and pragmatic factors are considered. A grammatically correct utterance is, as already mentioned, not necessarily appropriate. Thus discursal knowledge, in addition to grammatical and lexical knowledge, is significant. Discursal knowledge takes into account what has already been mentioned and what is likely to be mentioned next. Consequently, context and discourse should be included in the teaching of grammar. Grammar should be taught “through context-embedded discourse rather than through abstract, context-free sentences” (Celce-Murcia, 2002, p. 122).

Grammar is seen as a complex process of making context-based choices that are influenced by psychological and social factors as well as syntax and vocabulary. Because of this complexity, it is insufficient to work with grammar rules in isolation and practise grammar only at the sentence-level. In a discourse view on language teaching, there is a stronger focus on the interaction between linguistic forms and pragmatic conditions than an analysis of the grammatical structure alone (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011).

There are several reasons for incorporating discourse into EFL teaching. Hughes and McCarthy (1998) point out the following: first, in a traditional approach, teaching the paradigms (a list of formal choices that realise contrasting meanings within particular sets of words) is important. Learning the paradigms is an important step in mastering the English grammar. On the other hand, the items of the traditionally organised grammatical paradigms do not necessarily correspond with the choices in authentic communicative situations. That is,

not all grammatically possible alternatives are actual choices in real life communication (see Hymes' fourfold distinction in chapter 2.4.1). Second, the pedagogical grammar rules are often too simple. The simplified rules work for most pupils in most situations. However, although the pupils manage to create well-formed sentences by the rules given, the rules do not necessarily offer sufficiently precise guidelines to choose the most appropriate alternatives in all contexts. Teachers often seem to move from sentence to discourse level when they need to explain a grammatical item and the conventional rules do not say enough to help the pupils produce appropriate language, i.e. the "exceptions" are often explained by discourse. Third, discourse is often suitable when explaining the differences between spoken and written grammar. Although both modes share much grammar, some grammar occurs much more often in one than the other. These differences are best explained by observing the occurrences in discourse. Fourth, some grammatical items cannot be fully understood when seen only in isolated sentences (e.g. this/that/it and many word order phenomena need to be seen in a larger context than the sentence). There are certain benefits with sentence-based grammar as well: for many the sentence is a manageable item to work with; the rules are clear and it can be convenient in the classroom (e.g. can be written on the board, analysed and changed); the decontextualisation can be a benefit for attention or learning load; the framework appeals to the analytical learner; and the terminology used has a long history and is the same for all pupils and teachers, which can be beneficial. On the other hand, the view on language as a series of units that can be detached from context fails to help the pupils in stringing together longer sections of discourse. Another disadvantage is that the learning of the language in a traditional way may result in the pupils having to relearn it in a way that makes the structures usable in authentic use. However, a discourse-based approach can be messy in the sense that it may not give clear rules. This may cause uncertainties both for the pupils and the teachers. There are certain advantages as well as disadvantages with both discourse and sentence-based approaches as seen above. However, they are not mutually exclusive. The motivation for moving from sentence to discourse level is not to change something if it works perfectly fine, but "to represent more accurately actual language in use" (Hughes and McCarthy, 1998, p. 268).

Within the communicative paradigm and a discourse-based view, the communicative use of grammar, i.e. the ability to understand and use grammar in communicative contexts, is of utmost importance. Pragmatics and discourse play an important role here, and should perhaps have an even greater place in the teaching of grammar than it traditionally has had.

2.2.4 Grammatical Competence and Grammatical Performance

Grammatical competence is the speakers' knowledge of the forms and meanings that exist in grammar, and a theoretical knowledge of how to use them. This type of knowledge is reflected in the grammar rules. *Grammatical performance*, on the other hand, is the ability to use grammar correctly and appropriately. In other words, competence is 'in the head', whereas performance is what comes out of the mouth. The latter is the ultimate goal of language teaching (Newby, 1998). Tasks that are sentence-based typically develop the grammatical competence, whereas performance tasks are typically more communicative in nature.

There are some terms that must be recognised in relation to grammatical knowledge. A distinction is often made between declarative and procedural knowledge, and implicit and explicit knowledge. Anderson, according to Newby (2006), defines declarative knowledge as knowledge about facts and things, and procedural knowledge as knowledge about how to perform various cognitive activities. In language teaching this distinction is important because it reflects the distinction between competence and performance. Newby (2006, p. 99) says that this knowledge-based distinction "supports a rationale of specifying the aims of learning grammar in terms of performance, rather than mere competence". Declarative knowledge can be either explicit or implicit. Native speakers typically possess implicit (or unconscious) knowledge, i.e. they can talk correctly and appropriately, but are not necessarily able to talk about the reasons for their linguistic choices. Explicit knowledge refers to the ability to explain grammatical generalisations using metalanguage, which is what many teachers and pupils can do. Even though the pupils can talk about grammar, they do not necessarily always speak or write correctly. I will come back to this below in connection with the inert knowledge problem.

To view grammar as a skill is relatively new. Larsen-Freeman coined the term *grammaring*, which is similar to the concept of grammatical performance, in the early 1990s. By drawing attention to the skill dimension of grammar, she challenges the way in which grammar has traditionally been viewed. Grammar involves more than memorising rules. To use grammar and develop the grammaring skill, practice (other than repetition and drills) is required. Larsen-Freeman emphasises that although grammar has to do with accuracy, it has much to

do with meaning and appropriateness as well. Grammar is not about syntax (form) alone. Semantics (meaning) and pragmatics (use) are equally important in order to speak English well. Grammaticing is “the ability to use grammar structures accurately, meaningfully, and appropriately” (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 143). To help the students develop this ability, grammar must be regarded not only as knowledge, be it knowledge about the language or knowledge about how to use the language, but as a skill, which will consequently impact the way grammar is taught.

There are many reasons for teaching formal grammar (e.g. it is a familiar way of learning; it gives a sense of security and progression, and the learners believe that knowing the rules makes them better EFL users). However, one major problem of EFL teaching is that learners are often not able to transfer the grammar that they can perform in formal settings or in the teaching situation to the communicative settings in the classroom, let alone outside the classroom. “Even though they know a rule, their performance may be inaccurate, or disfluent, or both” (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 7). This problem is referred to as the inert knowledge problem, which occurs when “knowledge that is gained in (formal lessons of) the classroom remains inactive or inert when put into service (in communication within and) outside the classroom” (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. 8). In the classroom, the focus on form and the focus on use often seem to be kept apart to some extent. Tasks that emphasise the use of the language are associated with communication, whereas tasks that emphasise form are related to grammar. In textbooks as well, form and use are traditionally segregated and appear to be completely different, but Larsen-Freeman (2003) suggests that the gap between the two must be bridged; form and use must be more integrated, in order to overcome the inert knowledge problem of pupils not being able to transfer the knowledge gained in a formal lesson to communication outside (or inside) the classroom. The knowledge of grammar rules, which they may be able to use in tasks and tests, remains inactive in non-instructional settings, and that is a challenge teachers must try to help the pupils overcome.

2.2.5 Deductive and Inductive Teaching

The terms *deductive* and *inductive* are relevant in relation to how grammar is presented and acquired. With a deductive approach, a rule is first given (by a teacher or a textbook) and studied. Further, this explicit knowledge serves as a basis for controlled practice to consolidate and internalise the rule. With an inductive approach, a grammatical phenomenon

is studied (e.g. in a text). This may be followed by a task that helps the pupils to form generalisations about the language. Deductive teaching of grammar is at the core of much traditional grammar, whereas inductive grammar teaching is found in more recent approaches, as well as in the traditional direct method (Newby, 1998; Simensen, 1998).

2.2.6 The Task

The task is defined by Ur (2009, p. 11) as “anything the learners are asked to do that produces a clear outcome”. Further she says: “the function of the task is simply to activate the learners in such a way as to get them to engage with the material to be practised in an interesting and challenging way”. Other terms used in relation to grammar tasks are *exercise* and *activity*. The term *exercise* often refers to the conventional textbook procedure, which focuses much on correct forms, and can be done correctly without much understanding and meaning. The term *activity* often refers to a procedure where the learner is activated in a task where he or she is engaged with the target language in a meaningful way (Ur, 2009; Summer, 2011).

Samuda and Bygate (2008) distinguish between two types of activity: *holistic* and *analytical*. Holistic activities involve the pupils’ knowledge of different sub-areas of the language to make meanings. The pupils work with the different aspects of language together, similar to the way language is normally used. In analytical activities on the other hand, the different sub-areas of language are taught and worked with separately. This allows the learner to concentrate more narrowly on a selected feature of the language. Analytical activities have traditionally been used in language teaching to focus attention on a pre-selected grammatical item in a drill without much focus on meaning. Holistic activities allow the pupils to work with and integrate different aspects of language for a larger purpose, i.e. there is a stronger focus on meaning and the tasks used here allow for more choices than in analytical activities. Samuda and Bygate (2008) argue that it is in holistic language work that the key language learning processes take place.

For the sake of simplicity I will in this thesis use the term *task* in a broad sense, as in Ur’s definition above. Consequently, I do not distinguish between exercise, activity and task when it comes to the use of terminology. I will touch upon the terms *holistic* and *analytical* in the discussion.

2.3 Traditional Grammar

In a traditional approach to grammar teaching and learning, grammar is defined primarily as a set of forms and structures, which is also the main focus of the textbook syllabus (Newby, 2000). The sentence is the main unit of analysis and grammar is decontextualised. Accuracy is significant in traditional grammar, hence the focus on the ability to form correct sentences. Learning is seen as a conscious process, and grammar is often taught deductively. A PPP method is commonly used, with the main foci being on presentation and practice. Typical tasks are gapped-sentences, pattern drills and sentences for transformation. The teacher, who plays a very visible role in the EFL classroom, controls the practice, and the tasks are easily controllable. In traditional grammar it is often declarative knowledge, rather than procedural knowledge, that is tested.

Below I will give an outline of three traditional approaches to grammar, i.e. the grammar-translation method, the direct method, and the audio-lingual method, which all have influenced the EFL classrooms in Norway in the past century.

2.3.1 The Grammar-Translation Method

As a background for the grammar-translation method, the heritage from the teaching of the Latin language should be mentioned, as this strongly influenced the method. The quote below shows how Simensen (1998) explains the development in the teaching of Latin.

Latin was originally taught as a living language, and was used as a vehicle for teaching other school subjects and as a means of communication in trade, religion, and government. (...) However, it lost its function. (...) By the end of the eighteenth century, the study of Latin grammar had become important in its own right. Its chief rationale was the intellectual stimulation and mental exercise it supposedly provided (Simensen, 1998, p. 24).

The aim of teaching Latin was originally communicative. When the Latin language ceased to exist as a living language, it had been established as the most prestigious language. Thus the approaches used for teaching Latin were adopted to the teaching of other foreign languages, such as French, German and English. In the grammar-translation method the foreign language (here English) teaching consisted mainly of analysing the grammar and translating written

forms in to and out of the foreign language. The ultimate aim of this method was to appreciate foreign literature and develop the intellectual mind, and grammar was very important in the learning process. Another significant idea in this method was that when the pupils became familiar with the grammar of the target language, they would also become more familiar with their native language, and the pupils would become better readers and writers (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). The aim during the era of the grammar-translation method was never really to communicate in the foreign language. This method was widely used in Norwegian EFL classrooms up until 1925 (Simensen, 1998), and we might still see traces of the methods used, such as translation of sentences out of context and a deductive approach to grammar teaching, although a lot has happened in the field since the early 20th century.

As mentioned above, English teaching consisted mainly of studying and analysing the language's grammar, and translating written forms of the foreign language. The Latin approach to grammar teaching divided language into eight parts, i.e. nouns, verbs, participles, articles, pronouns, prepositions, adverbs and conjunctions. This division was later (in the 18th century) established as a template for the studying of the English language as well (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). Even though it became clear that this template "could not be used as effectively to analyse a language in which word order and syntax produced grammatical function and where rules often had multiple exceptions" (Herron, 1976 as cited in Hinkel & Fotos, 2002, p. 2), "this traditional method remained as a basis for language teaching until recently" (Howatt, 1984 as cited in Hinkel & Fotos, 2002, p. 2).

During the influence of the grammar-translation method, it was important to learn about the forms of the foreign language. Grammar was taught deductively and explicitly, and grammatical paradigms should be committed to memory through drills (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Students should be very conscious of the grammatical rules of the target language. Grammar played an important role in this method, as did translation. Similarities between the native and the foreign language were emphasised and if a pupil could translate into and out of the foreign language he/she was successful in his/her language learning. Typical activities of this approach are translation of a passage and memorisation of grammatical rules and paradigms.

The grammar-translation method was not effective in preparing the students to communicate in the foreign language, and thus an increasing need for a somewhat different approach to language teaching emerged.

2.3.2 The Direct Method

In the latter part of the 19th century phonetics was established as a science, and in the light of this development the importance of speech was emphasised. With the development of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), teachers now had a tool for teaching pronunciation (Simensen, 1998). Within the direct method an important principle was that language primarily is speech (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). The native language was not to be used in the classroom, and this was different from the practice in the former grammar-translation method where the language used was primarily the first language (e.g. Norwegian), and the teachers would demonstrate the meaning of a word, rather than explaining, for example by using different objects. It was highlighted that vocabulary was acquired more naturally when it was used in sentences rather than memorized in isolation (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). With the direct method came a stronger focus on communication, mainly pronunciation and conversation. Grammar was, divergent from the grammar-translation method, taught inductively, i.e. the pupils studied a grammatical phenomenon in a text, and formulated a rule from what they found in the examples given. Dictation was also a common classroom activity, i.e. the teacher read a sentence or a passage and the pupils wrote what the teacher read, giving a focus to pronunciation and spelling.

2.3.3 The Audio-Lingual Method

The audio-lingual method was developed in the United States during World War II, as a consequence of the fact that soldiers needed to learn the foreign language rapidly for military purposes. It was first referred to as the Army Method, and in the 1960s the term audio-lingual method was coined. This method was influenced by American structuralism. A branch of descriptive linguistics aimed at describing the languages as they were spoken, with a strong focus on morphology, phonology and syntax. The American structuralists, who were highly influenced by Bloomfield, emphasised formal rather than semantic features of the language (Chalker and Weiner, 1994). This approach was also influenced by behavioural psychology, where habit formation was emphasised in learning (Larsen-Freeman, 1986).

Learning to communicate was the overall aim, and thus the oral skills were given the most attention in the audio-lingual method. With the influence of American structuralism and behaviourism, automatic learning of the language, imitation and drills of everyday conversation, and the structures of the EFL were emphasised. Conversation was taught as habit formation, and even though the aim was communication, the methods used made the learning of language somewhat mechanical.

Even though the focus was on conversation, the method was concerned with drills and memorisation as important tools for learning. Learning a language consisted of forming sets of habits. From the 1960s onwards, this idea was widely challenged, especially by Chomsky who argued that even young children were able to create utterances that they had never heard before. Knowledge of a language involves “the implicit ability to understand indefinitely many sentences” and “generate an indefinite large number of structures” (Chomsky, 1965, p. 15).

Grammar was not taught explicitly in the audio-lingual method, but grammatical forms were rather induced from the examples given (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Simensen (1998, p. 50) says: “in the audio-lingually inspired approaches, grammar teaching consisted normally of pattern practice drills only, and had no explicit explanation of grammar. At the time this was usually called an implicit approach to the teaching of grammar”.

Many studies and experiments were conducted during the 1960s, and most relevant for the Norwegian situation is a study carried out in Sweden, the GUME Project, which is replicated in Simensen (1998). The experiment aimed among other things to find out whether there was a difference in learning between explicit and implicit teaching of specific grammar phenomena. “On the whole, the results of these experiments were significantly better for the group that had had an explicit treatment of grammar” (Simensen, 1998, p. 51). Swedish learners of English, a group similar to the Norwegian learners, learnt English grammar best when the instruction was more explicit than normally encouraged in the audio-lingual method.

Norwegian schools were influenced by the ideas of the audio-lingual method in the period 1950 to 1975. During this period English was made compulsory to all students nationwide, and also the mandatory starting age for learning English in school was lowered. English as a

subject got a bigger place in education in Norway. The repetition of vocabulary was important, in addition to pronunciation which was to be taught by the teacher or by the means of audio recordings (not transcribed texts as had been used before), and grammar teaching was “described as a teaching of structures, patterns and sentence patterns, and a use of substitution tables (...) along with various other types of drills” (Simensen, 1998, p. 55). Even though the focus was on the oral skills, speaking and listening, rather than writing and reading, conversation and grammar was practised as drills and memorisation. *Mønsterplanen*, the national curriculum published in 1974, emphasised that “speech habits are most efficiently established through the production of correct responses” (Simensen, 1998, p. 55). Here we notice the behaviouristic influence in that learning a language has to do with habit formation, and correct language – errors should be avoided.

Although the focus on communication and conversation became increasingly stronger during the years of the direct and the audio-lingual methods, these methods can be seen as somewhat similar to those of the traditional grammar-translation method, with a focus on drills and accuracy, and the avoidance of errors. When it comes to communication, this aspect of language teaching and learning was developed over the next decades. Chomsky rejected the widespread view that language learning was habit formation with his Universal Grammar theory, and his distinction between competence and performance. Hymes, on the other hand, found Chomsky’s theories too narrow, and developed the term communicative competence, which gave emphasis to culture and communication as well. This term will be further described in section 2.4.1.

2.4 Communicative Grammar

In communicative grammar language is seen as a means of communication in actual contexts (Newby, 1998). The role of grammar in this view is the way in which it helps people express certain types of meaning. Meaningfulness and contextual appropriacy are stressed, while formal correctness is given less prominence. Newby (1998, p. 186) presents a communicative model on how language happens:

CONTEXT → SPEAKER/PURPOSE/ROLE → MEANING → FORM

Figure 1: How language happens

As the model illustrates, the form language takes (grammar) is the final stage of interaction. Where traditional grammar begins with the form categories, communicative grammar starts with the context, the speaker and the message. A speaker in a certain context communicates the message through form. Grammar would be worthless if it were not for these other factors. However, grammar is important for communicating the intended meaning. Although the importance of both grammar and communication is stressed, Newby (2000) says that communicative grammar brought benefits to the area of language teaching, but it failed to integrate grammar in a coherent way. This has led to the “grammar vs. communication” dichotomy, which is a widespread, but false view, according to Newby.

The section below will give a more detailed description of the term communicative competence, a concept that has influenced second language teaching since the 1970s.

2.4.1 Communicative Competence

Dell Hymes coined the term communicative competence in 1966⁶, as a reaction to Chomsky’s views on language learning published the year before. Communicative competence is what speakers need to know in order to be communicatively competent (Richard and Rodgers, 2001). Hymes defined communicative competence as knowledge of “when to speak, when not to, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner” (Hymes, 1972, p. 60). Competence is dependent upon tacit knowledge about the language as well as the ability to use it. When children learn a language they develop knowledge not only about grammatical correct language, but also about acceptability. Both grammatical competence and acceptable performance are important in order to be a competent speaker. Hymes argued that even more specific distinctions needed to be made with regards to acceptability, and developed these specifications:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible*;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible* in virtue of the means of implementation available;
3. Whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate* (adequate, happy, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually *performed*, and what its doing entails (Hymes, 1972, p. 63).

⁶ First introduced in a paper read at Yeshiva University. The first article on the subject was published in 1972.

First of all, a sentence must be formally or grammatically possible. Unlike some earlier views on language, grammatical possibility is not the only significant factor. The sentence must be feasible or workable as well. In addition, it must be appropriate. This is closely connected to the context in which it is uttered. An utterance can be grammatically correct and still inappropriate in certain (or all) contexts. Last, occurrence must be considered. Something might be formally possible, feasible and appropriate, and still never or rarely occur. Grammatical competence is important in order to be a competent speaker. However, other aspects, such as social, situational and cultural aspects must be taken into consideration as well. When it comes to EFL teaching, these aspects must be taught and learnt in addition to grammatical competence, which is not enough to be a fully competent speaker.

In some earlier teaching methods, where the focus was primarily on grammar and the formal aspect of language, the sentences or tasks worked with did not necessarily have to make any sense with regards to meaning and communication. It was enough for them to be grammatically correct because the mastering of grammar and the formal rules of the language was the main aim of EFL teaching. Since the introduction of the term communicative competence there has been a stronger focus on other competences needed in order to be a competent EFL speaker (see section 2.4.2). Since the 1970s formal teaching of grammar has been given little attention from time to time, but again attention has been drawn to the fact that some (explicit) grammar teaching is proven fruitful. Consequently, grammar should be taught.

During the communicative paradigm, the views of the Russian psychologist and pedagogue, Vygotsky, have influenced EFL classrooms. He stressed language as a cultural and social phenomenon. Human activity (e.g. language) happens in cultural surroundings and cannot be understood apart from this context (see section 4.3). Mental structures and cognitive processes are results of social interaction (Woolfolk, 2004). Language is learnt through interaction with others, as the social, cultural and contextual aspects are important for developing the ability to communicate well in the foreign language. The moving away from mainly formal approaches to language and grammar teaching in the late 1960s/early 1970s called for alternative teaching methods.

With the introduction of the concept communicative competence and the development of this term in the following years, a shift occurred in the teaching of language, and there was a call for alternative teaching methods. Out of this grew new approaches to language teaching, which can be grouped together under the term communicative language teaching (CLT). CLT “marks the beginning of a major paradigm shift within language teaching in the twentieth century, one whose ramifications continue to be felt today” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001, p. 151). In CLT two versions are often distinguished: the strong and the weak version. The weak version implies simply “to learn to communicate in the target language, (...) communicative activities are integrated into both grammatically and functionally based teaching programs” (Simensen, 1998, p. 117). The strong version of CLT implies communicating in the target language in order to learn it, because language is learned through communication (Nassaji and Fotos, 2011). The strong version reminds us of Krashen’s theories, which will be touched upon in section 2.5.1, where language is acquired through the exposure of and the use of the target language.

2.4.2 The Development of Communicative Competence

The concept of communicative competence has been redefined a number of times since it first emerged in the 1960s. Skulstad (2009) gives an outline of the new elements that were added in the following years. In 1980, Canale and Swain identified three components of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence. Three years later Canale added a fourth component, i.e. discourse competence. In 1986, van Eek added two more elements: sociocultural and social competences. In 2001, The Council of Europe made a new specification of the concept communicative competence in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The CEFR is a common basis for language syllabuses, national guidelines, textbooks, etc. across Europe. The framework has influenced the Norwegian context as well (e.g. the national guidelines and textbooks). The CEFR describes what the pupils “have to learn to do in order to use language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively” (The Common European Framework of Reference [CEFR], 2001, p. 1). It distinguishes three main components of communicative language competences: linguistic competence (dimensions of the language system), sociolinguistic competence (the sociocultural conditions and the social conventions of language use), and pragmatic competence (the abilities to use and interpret communicative language functions) (Skulstad, 2009; CEFR, 2001).

Linguistic competence is distinguished into six sub-competences. One of them is grammatical competence. The CEFR (2001, p. 113) defines grammatical competence as

knowledge of, and ability to use, the grammatical resources of a language. Formally, the grammar of a language may be seen as the set of principles governing the assembly of elements into meaningful labelled and bracketed strings (sentences). Grammatical competence is the ability to understand and express meaning by producing and recognising well-formed phrases and sentences in accordance with these principles (as opposed to memorising and reproducing them as fixed formulae).

It is made clear from the framework that both knowledge of and the ability to use grammar are important. The importance of meaning in relation to grammar is stressed. The teaching of grammar should not include memorizing and reproducing grammar, but the teaching should be meaningful and based on the idea that the overall aim is to develop the communicative competence.

2.5 Acquisition-Based Approaches

In the 1980s an increasing interest in first-language acquisition took place among various methodologists, and the idea was that the same language learning processes could apply to second and foreign language learners. The distinction between learning and acquisition, where *learning* included explicit focus on grammar and *acquisition* was an unconscious learning process (and favoured in some quarters), led to an “anti-grammar movement” and in some places formal grammar teaching was abandoned (Newby, 2000). The acquisition and learning distinction will be elaborated on in the section below.

2.5.1 Acquisition vs. Learning

Krashen made a distinction between language learning and language acquisition. He said that adults have two ways of picking up a language: learning or acquiring. According to Krashen, learning has to do with knowing the rules and having a conscious knowledge of grammar. However, formal language is not enough for developing communicative abilities in second languages. Thus, Krashen advocated language acquisition. Acquiring means picking the language up and “developing ability in a language by using it in natural, communicative situations” (Krashen and Terrell, 2000, p. 18). Learning is perhaps what most people are familiar with from the EFL classroom, acquiring is similar to the manner in which children learn to speak their first language. Krashen and Terrell (2000) say that adults do not acquire quite as well as children, but despite this it appears that language acquisition is the most

important means for gaining linguistic skills even for an adult. Krashen does not discard learning, but he emphasises that its use is limited. Language learning can only be useful as an editor or monitor. “We use acquisition when we initiate sentences in second languages, and bring in learning only as a kind of after-thought to make alterations and corrections” (Krashen and Terrell, 2000, p. 18). Learning is useful in its right place, i.e. to supplement acquisition, but conscious rules have a very limited function in communication, according to Krashen. In order to use them the speaker must have time to inspect the utterance before it is spoken, be consciously concerned about correctness and has to know the rule. All these factors are rarely met in natural conversation, where the focus is most likely on what is being said, not how it is being said. However, in tests and preparation these factors are met and can be found useful.

According to Second Language Acquisition (SLA) research, people acquire best when they are exposed to comprehensible input, i.e. exposure to and experience with the target language. Acquisition takes place when the learner (or acquirer) understands what is being said in the target language and the communication is meaningful. Proceeding comprehensible input emerges the ability to speak fluently, with increasingly grammatical accuracy. An approach that is strongly influenced by this view would have little or no explicit grammar teaching. Others have argued that grammatical competence is essential for communication and that meaningful input is not sufficient for gaining this competence. Also, with a purely communicative approach certain aspects of the language are difficult to learn because they escape the process of naturalistic learning. High levels of proficiency in a language might require explicit instruction (Hinkel and Fotos, 2002). Some scholars have uttered reservations about Krashen’s hypothesis that EFL learners acquire language in the same manner as L1 learners. The following reasons are emphasised by Newby (2006): EFL learners often learn the foreign language at a stage where the critical period of language acquisition is over; EFL learners have at their disposal a metacognitive awareness and can therefore contribute actively to their language learning unlike children learning their native language; the nativist view on language acquisition does not take into account the cognitive resources available to the learner; and language pedagogy can actually make a contribution in facilitating school-based learning. I shall elaborate on the cognitive view on grammar in chapter 2.6, of which these premises underlie.

2.5.2 Language Awareness

Language awareness refers to “the development in learners of an enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language” (Carter, 2003, p. 64). *Consciousness-raising*, which is another term used, is described as a “deliberate attempt to draw the learner’s attention specifically to the formal properties of the target language” (Rutherford and Sharwood Smith, 1988, p. 107). In the 1980s language awareness was associated with a reaction to the more prescriptive approaches to language teaching with methods such as grammar-translation, drills and pattern practice. It was also associated with a reaction to the neglect of attention to forms in some strong versions of CLT. Language awareness involves a stronger focus on language. In relation to grammar teaching it involves more specifically the highlighting of particular language features (e.g. capitalising or underlining a specific grammatical feature in a text). The aim is not repeated production, but rather to help the pupils to know about certain grammatical features. This is perhaps the main difference between language awareness and the more prescriptive approaches. According to Ellis consciousness-raising is “an attempt to equip the learner with an understanding of a specific grammatical feature – to develop declarative rather than procedural knowledge” (2002b p. 168). Even though the main aim is to develop explicit knowledge, this does not necessarily involve metalanguage, i.e. grammatical terminology. In the 1980s there was an assumption among some scholars and teachers that no explicit grammar instruction was necessary. Language awareness provides a sense of security for learners, Rutherford and Sharwood Smith (1988) argue. Simensen (1995) says that consciousness or awareness can lead to explicit knowledge, which again can lead to automatised and implicit knowledge. An approach to grammar teaching that is based on language awareness can be a potential facilitator for language acquisition. A language-awareness approach to the teaching of grammar is more inductive, as the pupils have to discover rules for themselves. There are cognitive advantages with the pupils reflecting upon language. They are more involved in the language learning process, and are given more time and space to develop their own affective and experimental responses to language (Carter, 2003).

2.6 Cognitive Approaches to Grammar

The term *cognitive learning* can be understood in a broad sense to include any approach concerned with the relationship between language and the human mind. Newby (in preparation) understands this in a more narrow sense, i.e. the processes that are active when

learning takes place. Common to all methods within the cognitive approaches is the belief that there is a fundamental difference between first and second-language acquisition processes, and thus a conscious focus on grammar is beneficial. In this way the cognitive approaches stand in opposition to Nativist and Innatist theories, which are highly concerned with the way in which children learn their first languages and say that people are born with an innate set of rules about language in their minds (e.g. Chomsky). It must be clear, though, that the cognitive approaches reject the passive view on learning inherited from the traditional approaches to grammar teaching and learning. Language awareness approaches encouraged a way of teaching in which the pupils were guided towards a focus on aspects of the language and helped them to use various cognitive strategies to explore how language works. The cognitive approaches have extended on this view, according to Newby (2000), in the following ways: there is a focus on grammatical meaning which gives theoretical support to the notional grammar found in CLT; an analysis of the cognitive processes which underlie learning gives a theoretical foundation that can be fed into the design of grammar tasks; and the cognitive stage model has the potential of bridging the gap between competence and performance (see chapter 2.2.4). A cognitive view on learning takes the pupils' perspective. It focuses on the tasks that must be accomplished in the human brain at each stage in order for grammar to be internalised. This model sees grammar both in terms of competence and performance, which is similar to the communicative model in which language is seen in both terms of knowledge and skills (Newby, 2010).

With influence from cognitive psychology, the supporters of a cognitive approach to grammar believe that language learning is a stagewise progression (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Newby, 2010). Other approaches to grammar involve the thought of stagewise progression as well (e.g. presentation – practice – production in traditional approaches; input – intake – output in naturalistic acquisition approaches). However, the stages in the cognitive approach are described differently because they take the pupil's rather than the teacher's perspective and focus on the tasks that must be accomplished in the mind in order for grammar to be internalised (Newby, 2010). I will use Newby's description of the cognitive stages here. His description is relatively recent and based on former models used by cognitive psychologists.

The cognitive stages, as presented by Newby, are shown in the figure below. There are four stages between the input, i.e. materials provided by the teacher or the textbook and the pupil's existing knowledge, and the output, i.e. what the pupil says or writes. It must be noted that the stages are not separate, but rather overlapping, as learning is an ongoing process. Still, it is useful to present them as distinct stages "in order to enable a systematic analysis of learning processes and corresponding pedagogical activities" (Newby, 2006, p. 106).

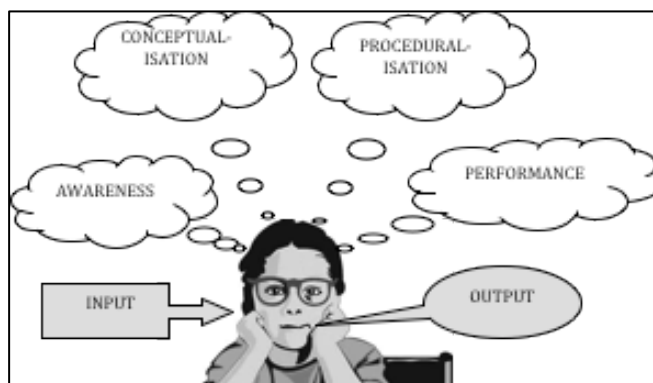


Figure 2: A cognitive model of learning stages (Newby, 2008)

Input comprises both input from the teacher and the textbook, in addition to the pupil's existing knowledge. The following cognitive stages, i.e. what happens in the mind, are necessary in the learning process. Each stage is useful depending on what the aim of the grammar session is. The cognitive view on learning gives preference to awareness-raising tasks and learning by doing tasks, as these promote reflection and help point learners in the direction of performance, which is the overall goal of language learning (Newby, 2006). At the awareness stage the pupils focus on and notice new grammar, as attention is brought to a grammatical feature. At this stage it can involve withdrawal of attention from some features in order to focus the attention on other features. At the conceptualisation stage the pupils understand a grammar rule; they make generalisations; and they internalise the rules. This stage is concerned with the acquisition of new knowledge and this knowledge is typically conscious. At the proceduralisation stage competence is linked to performance. Initial declarative knowledge is taken over by procedural knowledge. The amount of attention on grammar is reduced here. The pupils must not only know, but also use grammar in tasks without a strong focus on rules. These tasks are performed under controlled conditions. Tasks that require them to create utterances, which encode their own ideas, are typically at this level

of cognition. This stage must be supported by both oral and written tasks, as the pupils learn to use grammar in practice. At the final stage, performance, the learners are able to use grammar in open contexts with the focus of their attention being on the overall message. Output is not a cognitive stage, but rather the language used by the pupils. The output can function as evidence of the cognitive processes, and feedback on what the pupils say or write can cause the cyclical stagewise process to continue (Newby, 2006; Newby, 2010).

2.6.1 Newby’s Communication + Cognitive Approach

A Communication + Cognitive (C+C) approach to grammar and language learning bring together the communicative and the cognitive view on language and learning. This approach sees grammar as both a mental process (cognitive) and a dynamic process (communicative). The communicative approach supports discourse and context-based approaches, while the cognitive supports psychological, mind-based approaches (Newby, 2010). Newby (in preparation) says that CLT must be supplemented with insights from cognitive learning theory if its approaches are to be effective. The cognitive, together with a communicative view on language, have the potential to provide a theoretical framework with important applications in grammar teaching (Newby, 2000). In the C+C approach grammar is seen as a process, rather than a product, and both use and knowledge, plus performance and competence are involved. This minimizes the potential fallacy of earlier methods which is the tendency to focus on either use or knowledge; or performance or competence.

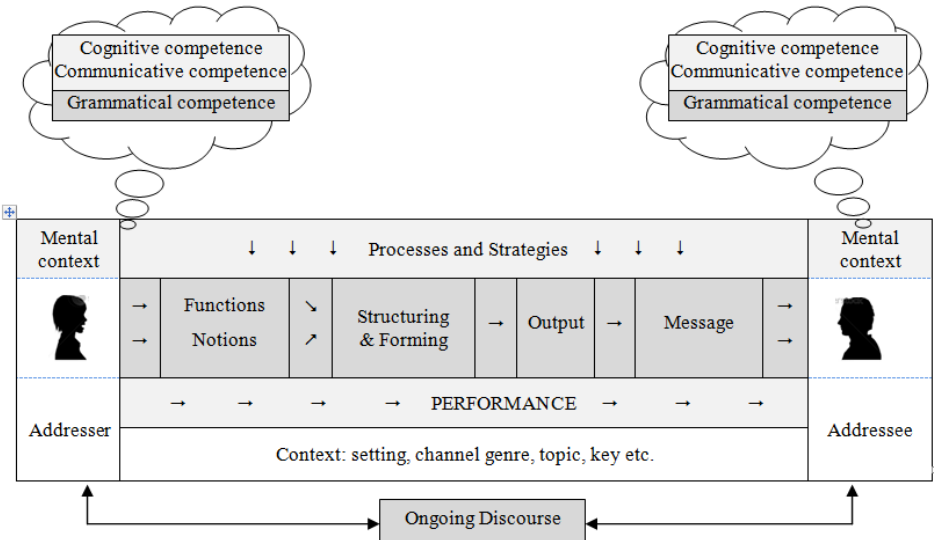


Figure 3 The Communicative Model (Newby, 2010)

Figure 3 illustrates how grammar can be viewed as a process, rather than a product. Language is seen as a means to expressing meaning into form. The primary language functions are interaction and communication, and the functional use of the language is reflected in its structure. Also, discourse is included in this model, as an important aspect of language. Consequently, grammar cannot be viewed as detached from it.

The theoretical aspects presented in this chapter will be linked to the findings in chapter four, but first the materials and methods will be presented in the next chapter.

3. Materials and Methods

In this chapter the textbooks, which have been analysed, are presented. After that, a brief outline of qualitative and quantitative methods is given, followed by a presentation of mixed methods. Next, textbook analysis will be explained, before the framework, which I have devised and used for analysing the grammar tasks, will be described in detail. I have included some examples in this part. This is because I hope that teachers of English can make use of my analysis in choosing or evaluating textbooks, and I believe that the examples are advantageous in this respect. Finally, possible limitations will be discussed towards the end of this chapter.

3.1 Presentation of the material

My analysis is based on three textbooks for the 10th grade in Norwegian schools. The textbooks were selected because they are currently most widely used. This information was provided and confirmed by a marketing consultant at Gyldendal Undervisning (Gyldendal Undervisning, personal communication, October 17, 2012). All textbooks are based on the national curriculum *The Knowledge Promotion*, which has been the educational guideline since 2006. A brief presentation of all three textbooks will be given in the next sections.

3.1.1 Searching 10

The textbook *Searching 10* is written by Anne-Brit Fenner and Geir Nordal-Pedersen, and was published in 2008 by Gyldendal. In addition to the textbook, available materials are *Read and Write* (with facilitated tasks and texts), a teacher's resource book, audio books for the pupils and an Internet site with additional tasks. *Searching 10* comprises 336 pages. There are ten chapters, plus one part called *Individual Reading*, and one part called *Focus on Language*, which includes grammar rules, phonetic symbols and a wordlist. Each of the ten chapters comprises texts, pictures and tasks related to the topic of the chapter (e.g. *A Nation of Immigrants*, *Fantasy*). Towards the end of each chapter is a section called *Focus on Language*, and this is where the grammar tasks are found. These parts are particularly interesting for this thesis, and will be given the main attention.

3.1.2 Crossroads 10B

The textbook *Crossroads 10B*, is written by Halvor Heger and Nina Wroldsen. It was published by Fagbokforlaget in 2008. *Crossroads*, as a series of teaching materials, comprises

Crossroads A, which has many authentic texts and interviews about various topics, and *Crossroads B*, which is divided into two parts: literature and grammar. That is, grammar has a separate section where grammatical rules and explanations are presented, followed by tasks for each grammatical topic. *Crossroads A* also has a simplified version, where the texts are more easily read. In addition, there are audio books, teacher resources, and an Internet site. *Crossroads B*, which comprises 198 pages, is the book included in this analysis, as this is where the grammar tasks are.

3.1.3 New Flight 3 Workbook

Berit Haugnes Bromseth and Lisbeth Wigdahl are the authors of the textbook *New Flight*. It was published in 2007 by Cappelen. I will describe and analyse *New Flight 3 Workbook*, as this is where the grammar tasks are found. This book has 222 pages. In addition to the *Workbook*, *New Flight* has a *Textbook*, which comprises different texts, and a *Grammar*, which includes grammar rules. The latter is allowed for the pupils to bring at their written English exams. There are no grammar tasks in this, but it is sometimes referred to in the *Workbook* so that the pupils can look up grammar rules if needed. A *Teacher's Book* and a *CD* are also available. *New Flight Extra* is a simplified version of the original book. In the original version of *New Flight 3 Workbook* all tasks are marked according to three different levels of difficulty. I have included all grammar tasks in my analysis, not distinguishing the tasks according to level of difficulty. The reason for doing this is twofold. First, although the teacher may help the pupils to choose tasks that are suitable for the level they are at in English, all tasks are easily available for all pupils, and they can in theory choose to perform any of the tasks available. Second, *Searching* and *Crossroads* do not have such a distinction, and thus the basis for comparison is more advantageous when not making this distinction in *New Flight* either. The grammar tasks in *New Flight Workbook 3* are not separated in their own section, but spread out in the book. However, they are always categorised under the headline “grammar”, followed by roughly four or five grammar tasks.

3.2 Method

3.2.1 Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods

Quantitative research “involves data collection procedures that result primarily in numerical data which is then analysed primarily by statistical methods” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 24). One of

the main characteristics of quantitative analysis is the use of numbers. In order to use numbers the researcher must devise categories and values that are precise and unambiguous prior to the research. Quantitative research is interested in common features among groups, not individuals, and it needs variables that capture these features. This approach typically makes use of statistics, such as calculating the average or complex computer-based analyses, and this method has standardised research procedures, that can eliminate any individual subjectivity. This method has several advantages: it is systematic, the measurement is precise, the data is reliable and can be generalised, although this depends on how they are collected. The research process is relatively quick and the quantitative method tends to have a universally high reputation. On the other hand, this method can average out responses of the whole group and thus it might not give justice to the subjective variety. Also it does not necessarily uncover the reasons for particular observations (Dörnyei, 2007).

Unlike quantitative, qualitative methods involve “data collection procedures that result primarily in open-ended, non-numerical data which is then analysed primarily by non-statistical methods” (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 24). Qualitative methods are perhaps more flexible in its response to new openings that may occur in the research process. The analytical categories and the research questions may be redefined during this process. Qualitative methods are typically concerned with individuals’ subjective opinions and experiences. The research is typically conducted in a natural setting. The sample size is often relatively small. The qualitative analysis is interpretive, which means that the outcome is the result of the researcher’s interpretation of the data. In qualitative research some data can be quantified, similar to quantitative research. There are several advantages of qualitative methods: sense can be made of complex situations, although there is a danger that the researcher makes too simple interpretations of the findings. However, qualitative methods can broaden the understanding of a phenomenon with its in-depth analysis. Also, this method is flexible when things go wrong in the research, which can lead to exciting results. Some weaknesses attached to qualitative research approaches are the following: emphasis has been given to the fact that the sample size is typically small in these studies. This means that generalisations cannot be made to the same extent as in quantitative research. Another possible disadvantage is the role of the researcher in analysing the data and the possible influence this may have on the results. One more possible limitation is that theories can be either too complex or too narrow due to the difficulty in knowing whether the results are of general importance. Also, this type of

research is typically more time-consuming and labour-intensive than quantitative research (Dörnyei, 2007).

Mixed methods combine the quantitative and qualitative methods. By doing this one may increase the strengths and eliminate the weaknesses of each research method. Also, a better understanding of a phenomenon may be achieved by including both numeric trends and specific details. Mixed methods may improve the validity of the research and allow for making generalisations, which is normally not easily done in a qualitative research method alone. The findings gained from using mixed methods may be acceptable to, and thus reach, a larger audience. However, some emphasise the possible dangers of believing that the use of mixed methods is the ultimate solution in deciding upon the best choice of research method. The researcher is not necessarily well-versed in both methodologies. Also, the large number of possible combinations may be unfortunate if the researcher cannot adequately encompass all these. Finally, there may be a belief that investigating the sum is better than investigating the parts, which may in some cases be unfortunate (Dörnyei, 2007).

The analysis I have conducted comprises a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. The aim is to describe the quality of the grammar tasks in the textbooks according to specific criteria. The framework (see chapter 3.2.4) comprising these criteria made it possible to systematically analyse all the tasks. The results are quantifiable data that serves as a basis for the descriptive analysis.

3.2.2 Textbook analysis

When analysing instructional material (textbooks) two types of options can be distinguished: a theoretical and an experimental textbook analysis (Summer, 2011). The experimental textbook analysis is an empirical examination that looks at how the textbooks are used in practice by a teacher in a contextual setting (e.g. the classroom). An empirical examination would give interesting insight into classroom practice, but would be limited to the particular situational context in which the study was conducted. In the theoretical textbook analysis, on the other hand, the textbook itself is analysed through a specific evaluative framework. A theoretical textbook analysis is what I perform in this study. It will not give insight in classroom practice, but can provide us with other valuable information, as the textbooks are likely to influence the teaching. The justification for a theoretical textbook analysis, according to Summer (2011), is that it is important that teachers and learners are provided with an

excellent textbook to have the best quality of teaching and for successful learning. The aim of a textbook analysis is not to criticise the material designers or publishers, but to illustrate current trends in textbooks and suggest improvements. The results of a textbook analysis might help teachers to choose the right teaching material, to use the grammar tasks critically, and potentially supplement with other grammar tasks. The focus of this thesis is restricted to analysing the grammar tasks, and not the textbook as a whole.

Although the textbook has been the main instructional material for centuries, the field of textbook research is relatively new. However, some textbook studies have been conducted over the past years (e.g. Cunningsworth, 1984 as cited in Summer, 2011). Still, it is difficult to find uniform guidelines for the analysis or evaluation. A distinction is sometimes made between *analysis* and *evaluation*. Textbook *analysis* can be used to refer to a descriptive analysis, whereas the term textbook *evaluation* can be used to refer to a more critical evaluation. In general, however, the two terms are often used interchangeably (Summer, 2011). I choose to use the term *textbook analysis* here, since I am primarily concerned with a description of the textbooks' grammar tasks. However, I will discuss possible advantages and disadvantages regarding the grammar tasks, and suggestions for improvement will be made.

3.2.3 Counting the overall number of tasks

In *New Flight* the grammar tasks are grouped together under the headline *grammar*, in *Searching* they are grouped together at the end of each chapter in sections called *Focus on Language*, whereas *Crossroads* is organised with a separate grammar section (*Grammatikk*) where all the grammar tasks are found. I have included all the tasks in these grammar sections, even though a few (especially maths tasks in *Crossroads*) are not directly grammar tasks. For example, some of the tasks have to do with pronunciation and the difference between British and American English. These are related to grammar, although others may choose to include these in separate categories. I use a broad definition of grammar and include all the tasks that the textbook writers have decided to incorporate within this topic. Examples of tasks not related to grammar, are tasks related to the various topics of the textbooks, writing strategies, speaking strategies, and vocabulary to mention a few.

There are various ways to count the tasks, and I decided to count as the following: task 1 is one task, even if it has sub-tasks, such as a, b, c, etc. I found this to be the best solution

because the different textbooks do not always use the same numbering for similarly designed tasks. For example, one textbook could use the numbering 2 *a, b, c, d,* and *e* for a task while another textbook used the numbering 1,2,3,4,5 for a similar task. Also, they are not always consistent in how they do this. Grammar tasks often have for example sentences a-f, where the pupils are required to make the same operation in all these sentences (e.g. fill in the right form of a verb). Since the sub-tasks often require the pupils to accomplish similar operations, I found it appropriate to count these as one task.

3.2.4 The Framework for the Analysis

In order to collect the data for the analysis a descriptive framework was devised. I wanted to organise the data by using categories so that the data was easily comparable. Thus the framework comprises categories that I have used in my analysis. Woods (2006) says that categories must be generated from the data and not superimposed on the data from some other study; they must be exhaustive so that all the data fit somewhere into the categories; they must be mutually exclusive so that all cases go into one category alone; and finally the categories must be on the same level of analysis and relating to the same criteria. In accordance with Woods' criteria for developing categories to organise the data by, I have devised a descriptive framework as a tool for analysing the grammar tasks. The categories are based on the theory and categories used in the work of other scholars. However, the categories are adapted from their work rather than superimposed on the data, in order to suit the aim of this thesis, which is to examine how grammar is presented and worked with, and to suit the tasks in the selected textbooks. The categories are exhaustive in the way that all the data, i.e. all tasks, can be analysed according to all categories. The sub-categories are mutually exclusive, so that there is only one answer to each category. The category *work*, for example, has the sub-categories *alone, in pairs,* and *in groups*. In the process of developing the framework I found it necessary to include a fourth sub-category, i.e. *both*, because some of the tasks involved a process of working alone before cooperating. Without this, some tasks would fit into two categories, but by adding the sub-category *both* this problem was solved and could provide more details with respect to how the tasks are required to be carried out. The framework made it possible to give a description of the tasks according to the criteria specified within the eight various categories.

A framework for analysing grammar tasks

| | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| 1.0 Explicit description | 1.1 Supplied 1.2 Discover 1.3 Not provided | a) Minimal b) Detailed a) Finding patterns b) Stating explicit rule |
| 2.0 Work | 4.1 Alone 4.2 In pairs 4.3 In groups 4.4 Both | |
| 3.0 Medium | 2.1 Oral 2.2 Written 2.3 Unclear 2.4 Both | |
| 4.0 Instructional language | 8.1 English 8.2 Norwegian 8.3 Both | |
| 5.0 Context | 3.1 Sentence level 3.2 Discourse level 3.3 Other | |
| 6.0 Type of task | 5.1 Ordering 5.2 Multiple choice 5.3 Interpretation 5.4 Gap filling 5.5 Matching 5.6 Transforming 5.7 Reformulation 5.8 Composition 5.9 Translation 5.10 Explanation 5.11 Correction 5.12 Other | |
| 7.0 Open/close | 9.1 Open-ended 9.2 Close-ended | |
| 8.0 Cognitive stage | 7.1 Awareness 7.2 Awareness-Conceptualisation 7.3 Conceptualisation 7.4 Conceptualisation-Proceduralisation 7.5 Proceduralisation 7.6 Proceduralisation- Performance 7.7 Performance | |

The framework for my analysis is adapted from Summer's textbook evaluation (2011). She has adapted previous frameworks (e.g. Ellis, 2002a) used for similar studies and revised it in a way that suited her evaluation better. Since the aim of my thesis is similar to Summer's (analysing grammar tasks in textbooks), and since her evaluation is recent, I found it appropriate to adapt her framework. The categories *explicit description*, *context*, and *medium* are modified from Summer's work to fit my own research. The categories *task type* and *cognitive stage* are adapted from Newby (2010). For the category *task type* I found it

necessary to make some additional sub-categories as I read the textbooks closely. There were some task types that were not included in Newby's list of tasks, but which were quite frequent in the textbooks in my study. Additionally I have included the categories *work*, *instructional language* and *open/close* based on the theoretical foundation. The framework is presented below.

Category 1.0 *Explicit description*, describes whether there is an explicit description of grammar or not, and in which way grammar is presented. If the description is *supplied*, an example of the target structure or a specific rule is given. The supplied description can either be *minimal*, which means that a particular structure is listed or highlighted, or it can be *detailed*, which means that an explicit presentation of the target structure is provided in a whole phrase or phrases. If, on the other hand, the aim is that the pupils discover the language more freely, i.e. they have to find and identify certain linguistic patterns or functions, the description is called *discover*. This can mean either *finding a pattern*, i.e. finding a linguistic pattern in a sentence or a text, or *stating explicit rule*. The latter requires the learner to understand the construction or function and devise an explicit rule. Sometimes an explicit rule is not given, so I have included a category named *not provided* for the tasks where this is the case. In Example 1 below the task has an explicit description of the grammar, which is supplied and minimal. An example of the grammatical structure is given where the main focus, i.e. the correct tense, is highlighted. There is given no further detailed description of the grammatical structure.

Put the verb in the right tense.

Example: drive/break: I was *driving* to Toronto when the car *broke* down.

- a) dance/go: We ... at the club when the lights ... off.
- b) Have/ring: The Hendersons ... dinner when the phone ...

(...)

Example 1: Supplied, minimal (New Flight Workbook 3, task 13, p. 198)

Here are three sentences in the passive from this chapter.

- The movement was founded in 1961 by the British lawyer Peter Benenson.
- World War II was begun by Nazi Germany.
- The course of the war was changed by Germany's invasion of Russia.

Read text B and find five sentences in the passive. Write them down in your rough book.

Example 2: Discover, finding patterns (Searching 10, task L1, p. 198)

In Example 2 the pupils are required to find grammatical patterns in a text. Examples of the structure are given, and it is up to the pupils to find the grammatical pattern in the text. Hence, the task is in the category *discover, finding patterns*.

Category 2.0 *Work*, describes whether the task requires the pupils to work *alone, in pairs* or *in groups*. The tasks, which require them to work alone, are typically written, whereas the cooperation tasks are typically oral. In the textbooks in this study, the pupils are explicitly instructed to work in pairs or groups for the tasks that require this. They are never specifically instructed to work alone. However, I assume this, as the activities in these tasks are typically designed to be performing alone. I have also included the sub-category *both*, for cases where the task consists of two different operations, where one is carried out alone, whereas the other is carried out by two or more pupils. Example 3 and 4 below illustrate how the pupils are required to work in pairs and alone, respectively.

Work together in pairs and make up small dialogues or role plays in which one of you suggests something. The other should use the expressions above to get you to repeat the suggestion and make clear what you have in mind.

Example 3: Work, in pairs (Searching, task L3, p. 25)

Adjective or adverb? Write these sentences correctly:

- a John has a (beautiful) wife. She dances (devine).
- b She is just (fantastic). She has a (tremendous) (good) voice, but she sings (aweful) (loud). (...)

Example 4: Work, alone (New Flight, task 38, p. 209)

Category 3.0 *Medium* refers to the way in which the pupils are going to carry out the task. Obviously, *oral* requires the pupils to speak, and *written* requires the pupils to write. I have included the sub-category *both* for tasks that require the learner to use a combination of speaking and writing (see Example 5), and the sub-category *unclear* for cases where it is difficult to decide what the medium is according to the information given.

Lag ti setningar med it is/was, there is/are, there was/were. Diskuter med partnaren din om dei er rette før de ber om ein kommentar frå læraren.

Example 5: Medium, both (Crossroads, task 5, p. 133)

Category 4.0 *Instructional language* describes the language in which the instruction is given. It can either be given in *English*, *Norwegian* or *both* languages. Example 6 shows how Norwegian is used as the instructional language.

Set inn refleksive pronomen:
a) I enjoyed ...
b) You (eintal) enjoyed...
c) He enjoyed... (...)

Example 6: Instructional language, Norwegian (Crossroads, task 3, p. 132)

Category 5.0 *Context*, describes whether the task is at a sentence level or a discourse level. At a sentence level, the pupils are required to work with grammar in single sentences (see Example 7). At a discourse level the pupils are required to work with grammar in context, for example in a text (see Example 8).

Translate the sentences into English. If you think there is more than one possible translation, write all of them.

- 1 Skal du verkeleg sjå den filmen?
- 2 Dei reiser heim i morgon tidleg.
- 3 Ho kjem ikkje til å vere her neste veke. (...)

Example 7: Context, sentence level (Searching, task L3, p. 121)

Read text F and write down the adverbials. Notice carefully where the adverbials are placed in the sentences. Do they follow the rules above?

Example 8: Context, discourse level (Searching, task L1, p. 221)

Category 6.0 *Type of task* describes different task types. *Ordering* is when the task is to write sentences from jumbled words or from using words in different boxes. In a *multiple-choice* task the pupils are required to choose one correct answer from several distractors. The *interpretation* task requires the pupils to explain the meaning of similar sentences, which have different interpretations. In a *gap-filling* task the pupils fill in gaps in sentences or dialogues. Cue words in brackets or a bank of words above the task may be included. *Matching* describes a task where the pupils match two halves of sentences, or write sentences based on substitution tables. *Transforming* is when the pupils change a sentence or word into another. A *reformulation* task asks the pupils to paraphrase a sentence using a different construction. *Composition* is a type of task in which more imagination is required than in the tasks mentioned above. These tasks are more open-ended as well. Tasks that fit in this category are typically those that require the pupils to complete partial sentences, answer questions using a sentence containing a particular grammatical item, add a second line to a dialogue using a particular grammatical item, interpret or explain information in a chart or picture, or create own sentences or short texts. *Translation* tasks require the pupils to translate sentences or short texts from English into Norwegian, or from Norwegian into English. The sub-category *explanation* describes tasks where the pupils must explain a grammatical rule or phenomenon. *Correction* describes the task type where the pupils must correct grammar errors in sentences or texts. Finally, I have included the sub-category *other* for tasks that do not fit into any of the sub-categories above. Examples of the most commonly used task types in these textbooks are provided below. In Example 9 the pupils must translate sentences. The headline gives them a clue about using the quantifiers *some* or *any*. In Example 10 the pupils are required to change one word into another by using the correct prefix, i.e. transforming. Example 11 shows a gap-filling task where a bank of words is given above the task. In Example 12 the pupils are required to create their own utterances by using the particular feature given, i.e. the nationality words. They get to practise nationality words at the same time as they use their imagination and creativity, as the task is more open-ended than for example a gap-filling task.

The quantifiers *some* and *any*

Translate these sentences:

- a Har du lyst på litt melk?
- b Vi har ikke noe melk igjen.
- c Noen har stjålet mobiltelefonen min. (...)

Example 9: Task type, translation (New Flight, task 27, p. 171)

Complete the pairs below using the correct prefix. You may need to use a dictionary, but try to guess first.

popular – unpopular

responsible –

legitimate –

interested – (...)

Example 10: Task type, transforming (Searching, task L3, p. 72)

Fyll ut med *every/everybody/everyone, some/someone/somebody, any/anyone/anybody*, eller *none/no one/nobody*:

- a) My watch is gone! ... has stolen it.
- b) ... of the Carlton brothers were there.
- c) Would you like ... ice water, Madam? (...)

Example 11: Task type, gap filling (Crossroads, task1, p. 169)

Have small conversations where you use as many nationality words as possible.

Example:

A: I don't know any Englishmen, but I think Americans are nice.

B: So do I. Danes are nice too.

Example 12: Task type, composition (New Flight, task 15, p. 116)

Category 7.0 open/close describes the outcome of the task. If the task is close-ended there is only one correct answer, or possibly two correct answers sometimes. If, for example, the task is to translate a sentence from Norwegian into English, I have categorised this as a close-ended task. There might be some variation in the translations, however the aim of the task is typically to translate for a specific reason, for example to use the past tense, hence it is not an

open task. An open-ended task has more than one right answer. Below is an example to illustrate the difference between close-ended and open-ended tasks.

| |
|------------------------------------------------------|
| A The girl ____ (eat/eats) apples. B I like _____ |
|------------------------------------------------------|

Example 13: Open and close-ended tasks

A, in Example 13 above, is a close-ended task with one correct answer, whereas B is open-ended with many correct answers (the pupils can create many utterances about things they like). In B there is also a much stronger focus on meaning than in A where the emphasis is more strongly on grammar rules.

Category 8.0 *Cognitive stage* is more difficult to distinguish clearly, as the cognitive process is a gradual and ongoing process. I have used Newby's distinction (see Figure 1 in chapter 2.6) between four cognitive stages, which happen between the pupils' input (existing knowledge, plus the teaching material) and output (what they say or write). The *awareness* stage is the level at which the pupil notices and focuses on new grammar, i.e. attention is brought to a grammatical phenomenon and the pupils must perhaps recognise a pattern or a shape. The *conceptualisation* stage is where the pupils understand the grammar rules, test and confirm these rules and store new concepts in their memory. This knowledge is usually conscious. The *proceduralisation* stage is the stage in which the learner must not only know grammar, but also use it, typically under controlled conditions. At this stage the pupils can make use of the grammar to create their own utterances in exercises without a strong focus on rules. It is at this stage the pupils automatise the rule. In the final stage, *performance*, the pupils are able to use grammar in open contexts where the focus is on the overall message. It can be difficult to decide the cognitive stage in which the pupils' brains are active in each task. However, it is possible to see what sort of stage the task possibly triggers by looking at the focus it requires of the pupils, for example whether the aim is to notice grammar, whether the focus on rules is strong, or whether the task requires them to use language more freely. What is problematic about this category is that a task is often somewhere between two cognitive stages, it is difficult to separate them clearly. Thus I have decided to add the sub-categories *awareness-conceptualisation*, *conceptualisation-proceduralisation* and *proceduralisation-performance*. These sub-categories made it possible to place the tasks

according to the appropriate cognitive stages. Having to choose between two categories (e.g. conceptualisation and proceduralisation) when it was actually somewhere in between, would possibly give an incorrect picture of which cognitive stages the tasks triggered, and by adding these sub-categories the risk of skewing the results was minimized.

Study this conversation:

Mum: Lionel! Haven't you *dressed* yet?

Lionel: No, I don't *feel* so good. My tummy aches and I can hardly *move*.

Mum: Hm. As far as I can remember, this is exactly how you *felt* the last time you were having a test at school. Are you sure you're not *imagining* these pains?

(...)

Translate the verbs in the italics into Norwegian. What is the difference between the English verb and the Norwegian translation?

Example 14: Cognitive stage, awareness (New Flight, task 13, p. 11)

Above (Example 14) is an example of a task at the awareness stage. The intention is that the pupils notice and focus on new grammar, as their attention is drawn to the highlighted verbs in the discourse, and to the differences between Norwegian and English verbs. When having finished the task the pupils are asked to read about the verbs (verbs that do not usually take a reflexive pronoun) in their *Grammar*. The function of the task is to draw attention to the grammatical phenomenon without focusing strongly on the rules at first.

Use *is* or *are* to complete these sentences:

a Here ... the furniture you ordered, Mrs Burns

b The police ... constantly fighting crime.

c Good information ... necessary before a decision is made. (...)

Example 15: Cognitive stage, conceptualisation (New Flight, task 9, p. 163)

In the example above (15) there is a focus on the formal aspects of language, the pupils must understand how to use the grammatical rules correctly in these sentences, test the rules and acquire new knowledge. The pupils are not yet required to use the language more freely, something which happens in a stronger degree at the proceduralisation stage, where the attention to rules is reduced.

Work together in pairs and tell each other what you like and dislike.
Use different expressions and make at least ten sentences each.

Example 16: Cognitive stage, proceduralisation (Searching task L1, p. 24)

In Example 16 the pupils are required to create their own utterances that encode their own ideas. Examples of phrases used for expressing likes and dislikes are given above the task, and the pupils get to practise these under controlled conditions.

Look at the map on the next page. Take turns describing a travel route.

Example: I'm now sailing down (name of the river). To the right/left I can see (name of a mountain). This mountain is part of (name of a mountain range).

Example 17: Cognitive stage, performance (New Flight, task 21, p. 98)

In the example above (17) the pupils' focus is on the overall message, i.e. what they describe by looking at the map.

I have read the textbooks and studied the grammar tasks closely according to the framework, i.e. I have used a sheet printed with the framework for each task. All the tasks have been examined according to each category, and placed in only one of the sub-categories. This means that each grammar task was described according to eight criteria, i.e. explicit description, work, medium, instructional language, context, type of task, open/close, and cognitive stage. Additionally, I have counted all the tasks in each textbook, comparing the overall number with the number of grammar tasks. As a tool for presenting the statistics resulting from the study of the tasks, I have used Microsoft Excel. The results will be presented and discussed in chapter four.

3.3 Possible Limitations

Possible limitations to my study are the following: first, other textbooks might have resulted in other findings, as the tasks might be quite different in those textbooks. However, I have chosen the most widely used textbooks in order to make the analysis applicable for a wider audience, i.e. the users of these books (e.g. teachers). Second, this is a theoretical analysis, and thus the study will give no insight into real classroom practice. Teachers might adapt the tasks to make them more suitable for their pupils, for example. On the other hand, the results of a practical analysis would be limited to the context, in which the study was conducted, and its pedagogical implications. Third, some would say that ideally there should be a second researcher in order to see if the results and interpretations of the results are similar, which would possibly make the findings more reliable. Since this was not possible in this study, I have a clear framework that I use in my analysis, where objective criteria are the basis for the choices I make.

4. Results and Discussion

In this chapter the results of the analysis will be presented. The results are structured by the categories in the framework, and will be followed by a discussion, which addresses issues from the theoretical background presented in chapter two. The results will eventually give conclusions to the research question: how many grammar tasks are provided in each textbook, and what is the quality of these tasks, according to the specified criteria?

4.1 Number of grammar tasks

The number of grammar tasks compared to the overall number of tasks in the textbooks, are presented in Table 1 below. The table shows the numbers of the grammar tasks, the number of other tasks, the overall number of tasks, and the percentage of grammar tasks. *Crossroads* has the largest number of grammar tasks (35.6 %). *New Flight* and *Searching* have similar percentages of grammar tasks (14.0 % and 15.3 %, respectively).

| Textbook | Grammar tasks | Other tasks | All tasks | % |
|------------------------------|---------------|-------------|-----------|------|
| <i>Crossroads 10B</i> | 78 | 141 | 219 | 35.6 |
| <i>New Flight Workbook 3</i> | 58 | 320 | 378 | 15.3 |
| <i>Searching 10</i> | 45 | 275 | 320 | 14.0 |

Table 1: The number of grammar tasks and other tasks

The place grammar has had in EFL teaching over the years has varied. In earlier structural approaches, grammar made up a considerable part of language teaching (e.g. the grammar-translation method). Since the beginning of the CLT approaches the place of grammar has been challenged and largely debated, but many argue that grammar has a significant role in EFL teaching and should therefore be taught (e.g. Ellis, 2002a). There are many different tasks in the three textbooks of my analysis, and supported by the curriculum there are many foci apart from grammar (e.g. intercultural awareness, communication, culture and society). Still, there is a considerable number of grammar tasks in all textbooks, although *Crossroads* has the highest number. It seems like the view that some grammar teaching is beneficial is reflected in these books, although communication, rather than grammar, is the overall aim. Grammar is taught, but how? It is debated how grammar is best taught and although it seems to be less agreement on what is right and wrong regarding this, the textbook tasks can give an indication of what is likely to be the focus of the teaching and learning. Thus, I have

examined the quality of the tasks according to the criteria presented in chapter three. The results will be presented and discussed in the rest of this chapter.

4.2 Explicit description

Explicit description indicates whether there is an explicit description or explanation of a grammatical rule prior to the task. The classifications indicate whether the description is supplied in detail or minimally, or whether the pupils have to discover the grammatical structure or state a rule on their own. The results are presented in Table 2 below.

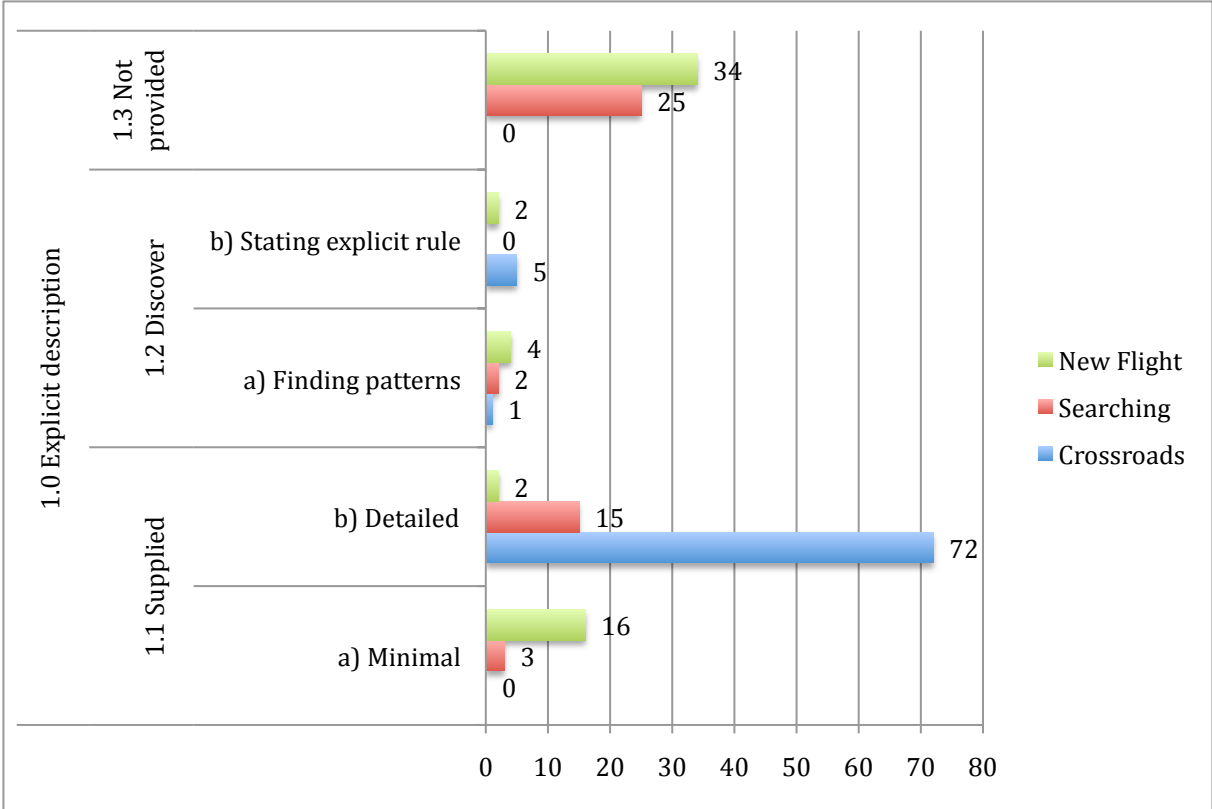


Table 2: The results for the category explicit description⁷

In *Crossroads* detailed grammatical descriptions are provided prior to all grammar tasks. *Searching* and *New Flight* have separate grammar sections (at the end of the textbook and in a separate grammar book, respectively) comprising detailed grammatical descriptions. Hence, there is more explicit description in *Crossroads*.

In *Crossroads*, the tasks in which the pupils are required to state a rule or find a pattern are actually supplied with a detailed explanation as well, although I have decided to include them

⁷ The numbers in the tables represent the exact number of tasks in the respective categories.

in these sub-categories to show the occurrence of these descriptions too. *Searching* has, as already mentioned, a grammar part towards the end of the book, and *New Flight* has a separate book called *Grammar* where the detailed descriptions of the rules are given. In some of the tasks the pupils are asked to look at the rules before they perform or after they have performed a task, or they are asked to check the rules if they are uncertain. A large number of the tasks in *New Flight* are not supplied with grammatical descriptions. If a description is given, it is minimal in most cases. Nearly half of the tasks in *Searching* are provided with an explicit description, which are mostly detailed in these cases.

Although the grammatical descriptions are available for the users of all textbooks, there is a stronger focus on rules in *Crossroads*, as the rules are always presented preceding the tasks, i.e. the rules are very noticeable (on the same or previous page as the grammar task(s) they refer to). This might give a strong focus on forms and structure (see section 2.2.1 about formal grammar). Regarding the manner in which the rules are presented, *Crossroads* is perhaps the most deductive textbook, as to the fact that explicit grammar explanations, which encourage the study of rules, precede all tasks. This is similar to the traditional PPP approach, where grammar is presented, then practiced before it is used in more authentic language use. The main focus was traditionally more on the two former than the latter. The first, i.e. presentation, is the part that is the most comparable here. The tasks used with a PPP approach are typically drills and pattern practice tasks, which is not necessarily the case here, although grammar is presented first (see task types, section 4.6). The focus on language forms is strong, and although language comprises forms, scholars since the 1970s in general advocate a meaningful and functional view on language. The view that grammar should not be explicitly taught, which existed for a while, is by most scholars traded with the view that some grammar teaching is beneficial. Experiences from both the audio-lingual method and strong CLT approaches were that doing away with explicit grammar teaching is unfortunate (see sections 2.3.3 and 2.4.1). The way in which grammar is presented could decide whether the pupils are most likely to learn the forms of the language, or whether they become able to transfer this knowledge into authentic use, although there are many other influential factors to this regard as well. Experience from the traditional approaches (e.g. the grammar-translation method) shows that the pupils were to a large extent unable to communicate well although they knew the forms of the language. Strong CLT versions, on the other hand, have shown that communicative activities without explicit grammar teaching have failed to teach pupils the language proficiency hoped for. It seems to be difficult to find a sense of balance between

communicative input and explicit grammar teaching. Although many scholars advocate grammar teaching that presents grammar in a more communicative and cognitive way, or more inductive grammar teaching, there is a tendency that grammar is presented in a quite traditional manner. Although the presentation is important, it is closely linked to what the tasks require of the pupils. I will come back to this in sections 4.6 and 4.7 of this chapter.

New Flight has by far the largest number of minimal supplied explicit descriptions (16, compared to three and none in *Searching* and *Crossroads* respectively). In these tasks grammar is presented more inductively, i.e. a grammatical structure is highlighted or exemplified as shown in Example 18 below. The grammatical structure is shown to the pupils, but it is not explained in great detail. The pupils get to practise the grammatical phenomenon, and although there is a focus on which form to use, there is also a focus on meaning, and the way in which this form is used to communicate something that “happens now”.

Imagine you are in a restaurant. Write a short text about what you are doing at the moment, and what the other people in the restaurant are doing. Be sure to use the present continuous tense.

Example: Just now I *am sitting* here.

Example 18: (New Flight, task 12b, p. 198)

On the whole, there are very few purely inductive tasks in the textbooks. Such tasks would perhaps engage the pupils more, since the pupils would potentially be more active in the process of grammar learning by finding a pattern and write their own rules, rather than memorising a rule which is already stated. A language awareness approach could be a decent starting point in focusing on grammar (e.g. Simensen, 1995 and Carter, 2003 bring to light advantages of this approach, see section 2.5.2). On the other hand, it is good that the pupils are familiar with what is correct and incorrect grammar to the extent that it helps them to use the language correctly. The question is to what degree they learn to use the grammar correctly in authentic-like use. The experience from the traditional approaches was that the pupils did not necessarily learn to use the language well in communication even though they knew the grammar of the foreign language formally (see section 2.3.1). This can be illustrated in the difference between grammatical competence and performance, and declarative and procedural knowledge. Detailed descriptions of grammar could, on the one hand, give a strong focus on

rules and on memorising these, and the pupils could end up with explicit knowledge about the language, but lack communication skills. Below is an example (19) of a task that illustrates this potential outcome. On the other hand, they can give a clear description of how the language works, and followed by communicative and cognitive tasks explicit descriptions can help the pupils to become good speakers of English. Again, other factors, such as task types, cognitive stages and how the pupils work, must be taken into consideration in order to give a fuller picture of what the pupils are likely to learn.

In Example 19, the focus on rules is strong. Especially in numbers 1, 3 and 4 the pupils are required to explain how grammar is used. The aim of learning grammar, which has been at the core of many language-learning theories in the past decades, is essentially to be able to use the language. Here, however, the pupils are required to find the answers in a passage above the tasks, where the topic (verbs) is described in detail. Thus, the pupils may find the answers without necessarily understanding how to use these in practice. The task works well at the conceptualisation stage, but it is necessary that the pupils get more practice in how to use verbs correctly and appropriately in order to internalise this knowledge.

- 1 Forklar kva som vi meiner med infinitiv.
- 2 Skriv verba i infinitiv: *thought, living, talked, woke*
- 3 Når bruker vi presens av verbet?
- 4 Når bruker vi preteritum av verbet?

Example 19: Crossroads p. 139

Explicit description of grammar can be linked to the discussion about whether explicit knowledge about grammar is needed. Some scholars (e.g. Krashen) believe that explicit grammar teaching is not necessary in the EFL classroom, because native speakers, although they can speak the language fluently, do not necessarily have this knowledge. The non-native speakers should learn language in a similar manner as the native speakers. However, others (e.g. the promoters of cognitive approaches) believe that there is a difference between native and non-native language learners, as mentioned in section 2.6. Explicit knowledge of grammar is perhaps necessary for the non-native speakers, despite the fact that not all native speakers have such knowledge. There is nothing fundamentally negative with explicit knowledge about the language. However, it is not enough that grammar is explained in order

for most pupils to learn it. Neither is it sufficient for the pupils to be able to explain grammar in order to learn the language. On the other hand, explicit knowledge may lead to implicit knowledge. This is similar to what Larsen-Freeman identifies as grammaring, i.e. the skill to use grammar (see section 2.2.4). The process of the initial explicit knowledge to become implicit knowledge requires practice. The grammar rules and descriptions are available in all textbooks of this analysis. To what extent the pupils become able to use grammar correctly, meaningfully and appropriately depends strongly on the practice they get in this area.

This is a theoretical analysis of the textbook and therefore the way in which grammar is really presented in the classroom is not known. Even the tasks in which grammar is not explicitly presented in the textbooks, could be approached with a grammar rule presented first if the teacher chooses to do so.

4.3 Work and Medium

How the pupils work, alone or together, can influence the learning. Some approaches and learning theories advocate the value of interaction and cooperation in the learning process. In approaches where drills and memorising grammatical patterns are widely used methods (e.g. the traditional approaches) the need for cooperation with other pupils is not necessarily emphasised. In other approaches, in which there is a stronger focus on communication, tasks, which require the pupils to speak the language, are emphasised. Some stress the importance of learning through social interaction. *The Knowledge Promotion* has a clear focus on English teaching for communicative purposes. Most Norwegian pupils communicate more in English now than ever before, through for example travel and the use of English in relation to the Internet, and it seems to be a strong focus on language use in the EFL classroom. However, some scholars (e.g. Newby) say that we have failed to integrate grammar in this communicative renewal of EFL teaching. This could mean that even though there are many communicative tasks in the textbooks, the grammar tasks are still influenced by traditional ideas. Whether the pupils work alone or together is strongly linked to whether the tasks are oral or written. The oral tasks are often tasks in which the pupils are required to work in pairs or groups. The results for the categories work and medium will be presented in this section. I have decided to present these two categories in the same section because they are strongly interrelated, i.e. the one is evidently very much dependant on the other. Below are the tables showing the results.

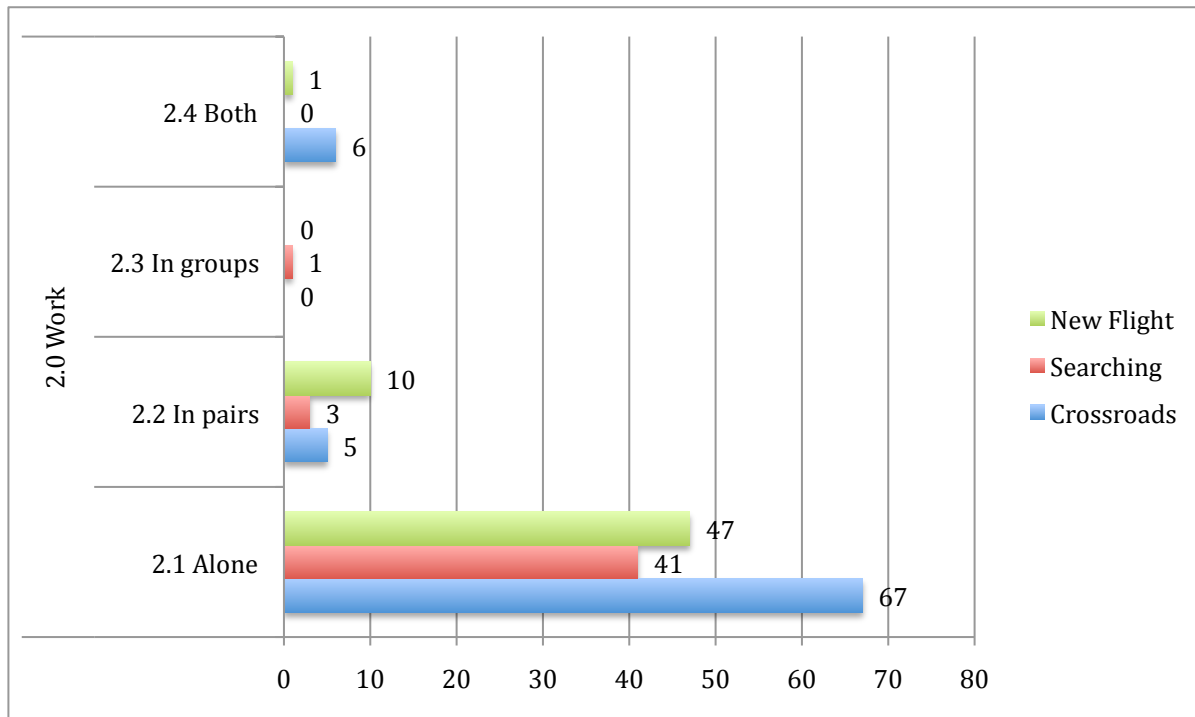


Table 3: The results for the category work

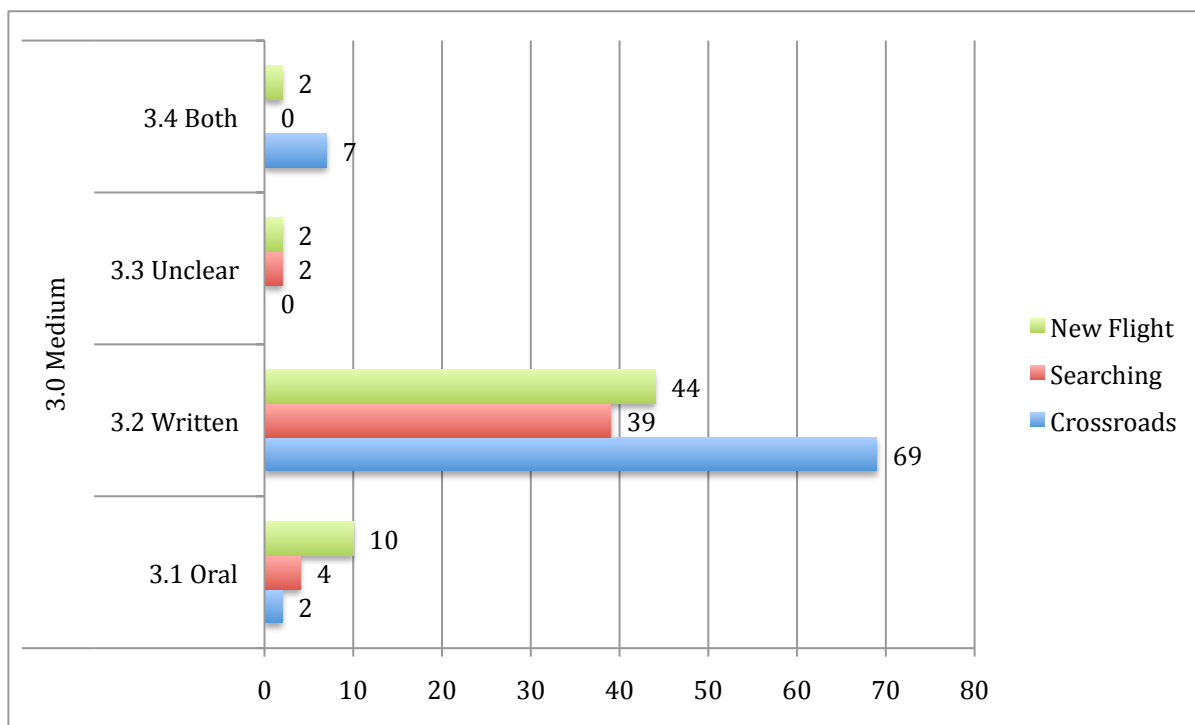


Table 4: The results for the category medium

There is an overall tendency that the pupils are required to work alone, although there are tasks in which the pupils are asked to work together in pairs or groups in all textbooks. *Searching* has the least of these (pair/group) tasks, while *Crossroads* has the most tasks where the pupils are required to perform a part of the tasks alone, and then cooperate with other pupils for the other part. *New Flight* has the highest number of tasks where the pupils are intended to work together in pairs. Despite this, the number of tasks where the pupils work alone is very high in all textbooks. In the group and pair tasks, the pupils are asked specifically to work together. For this reason they are easily identifiable. They are not asked explicitly to work alone in most of the alone tasks. The pupils may of course talk together and help each other when accomplishing these. This sort of information could be gathered in an experimental textbook study. However, the alone tasks are observably designed for working alone, they are typically written and the pupils are not dependent on anyone else in order to complete them. In all textbooks there is a strong emphasis on written grammar tasks.

In *Crossroads* it is very clear which tasks are intentionally written and which are intentionally oral as they are provided with a sign at the top, i.e. a pencil or a speech balloon. In *Searching* and *New Flight* there are a few cases of “unclear” tasks. These could have been accomplished both orally and written, and thus I did not want to assume either. In these books the pupils are typically asked to work together with one more pupil for the oral tasks, and it is otherwise quite straightforward to distinguish what the intention of the task is. The pupils may use the language orally while accomplishing the written tasks, and speak the language beyond what is intentionally proposed, but for a theoretical analysis it is sufficient to observe what is likely to happen through the way in which the tasks are designed. *New Flight* has the largest amount of oral tasks, while *Crossroads* has the largest amount of tasks where both oral and written operations are needed in order to perform the tasks as intended.

The social and communicative aspects are important in language learning, according to the basic characteristics of CLT approaches (e.g. communicative competence, authentic language use and interaction) and Halliday’s functions of communication (e.g. the interactional, the representational and the personal functions) (see sections 2.4.1 and 2.2.1). If an aim of language teaching is that the pupils learn to communicate in authentic-like contexts, oral practice is important, and they need practice in the area of communication. For this practice they need to interacting with other people. To develop their grammatical skills, and to be able to use grammar correctly, appropriately and meaningfully, they need practice in using English

grammar in oral contexts. It is of course equally important to be able to use grammar well in written contexts, and this is not to be underestimated, as the pupils need to be proficient in writing as well. However, according to Krashen (see section 2.5.1) the pupils have less time to think, evaluate which forms to communicate their messages in, and make linguistic choices without having the rules in front of them when communicating orally. It is much less opportunities to practise this in the grammar tasks provided in the textbooks in this study.

The pupils must automatise and internalise the rules in order to be able to use them freely when speaking. Some SLA promoters (see section 2.5.1) believe this is best done through exposure to and experience with the language, but not all agree on which methods are most effective. Still, if the tasks are mainly written the pupils may develop a skill to perform grammar well in written contexts, without getting the practice they need to use grammar in spoken, authentic-like contexts. Although Krashen's views have been criticised, aspects of his theories can be taken into consideration when it comes to how grammar is worked with. Even though comprehensible input most likely is not enough for non-native speakers to learn a foreign language, experience with the language (e.g. by listening and speaking) is significant in order to achieve an authentic-like proficiency in the language. Even though the starting point is explicit description, as it is especially in *Crossroads*, the tasks can be designed in a way that enables authentic-like experience with the language. When looking at work and medium in these textbooks, it is obvious that the balance between tasks that require the pupils to work alone in contrast to in pairs or groups, and orally in contrast to written is uneven.

Some pupils are unwilling to speak English in class, and as a result of this they may develop their written skills more easily than their oral skills. These pupils need to learn to speak the language, through interacting orally with others. Even though they may have many opportunities to work together in pairs or groups when performing tasks not directly connected with grammar, they could benefit from working with tasks that integrate a grammatical focus with real life language practice (e.g. to focus on the past simple through photos of the pupils where they have to talk about what happened, who they were with, etc. (Ur, 2009) rather than filling in the gaps in sentences). It is the teacher's responsibility to create situations that promote learning. The tasks are significant facilitators in this respect. If the tasks are well designed, they may help the teacher to create these opportunities for learning, which is after all the aim of teaching. In my opinion, there should be more tasks in which both grammar and communication are incorporated. These tasks are potentially more

engaging than traditional written grammar tasks, in which the pupils' minds are not necessarily very active, especially if they are required only to fill in the gaps (see section 4.6). The cognitive level of the mind while accomplishing the tasks is of importance for the ways in which grammar is learnt (e.g. whether the grammar learning stops at knowing the rules, or whether the pupils learn to use it in spoken and written communication). I will come back to the cognitive stages in section 4.8.

Some teachers may find it difficult to use oral grammar tasks because they cannot as easily control whether all the pupils use the grammatical structures correctly. If the teacher has decided upon a structure that the pupils should use in an oral grammar task, they may end up not using that structure. However, the tasks can be designed in such a way that the pupils are likely to practise what is intended (Ur, 2009). Oral tasks potentially give the teacher less control, and perhaps this is one of the reasons why written tasks accomplished by each pupil alone are still dominant in grammar teaching. The traditional approaches were typically teacher-centred, i.e. the teacher was in control of everything that happened in the classroom. The more recent communicative and cognitive approaches are much more pupil-centred. When the pupils work together they are given the opportunity to learn from each other. This makes learning more meaningful (see section 2.2.2). Tasks that require the pupils to communicate (oral tasks accomplished together with other pupils) are more engaging, and the pupils are given the opportunity to focus on the overall message, at the same time as they are asked to use a specific grammatical structure. Hence, this can potentially contribute to bridge the gap between what the pupils know about grammar and what they can perform. Furthermore, the pupils should be given opportunities to practice the skill aspect of grammar (grammaring) in communicative, interactive contexts as well as in written contexts.

Vygotsky, stressed the idea of language as a social and cultural phenomenon, and that language is acquired through social interaction. Vygotsky's idea of language and his *zone of proximal development* favour the idea of pupils working together in pairs or groups. The *zone of proximal development* is the area in which the pupil cannot solve a problem alone, but in which he is able to solve the problem under the guidance of a teacher or in cooperation with a pupil who is slightly more competent than he is. According to Vygotsky, this is the zone in which successful teaching can happen, because it is here that learning is possible (Woolfolk 2004; Vygotsky, 1986). The importance of social interaction should not be underestimated in the EFL classroom, as language learning is a social and cultural process. Grammar is an

important element in learning the language and should be integrated with processes of social interaction. Woolfolk (2004) says the pupils should be put in a place where they are challenged to reach out to understand something, at the same time as they find support in the teacher and other pupils. Sometimes the best teacher may be a fellow pupil, who has just understood a phenomenon or task, because this pupil is likely to be on the same zone of proximal development. This requires social interaction in the EFL classroom, and according to Vygotsky learning will happen through the means of dialogue and discussion.

Communication is the overall goal in EFL teaching, and the grammar tasks should be designed to reach aims that are more communicative in nature. Although communication may be implicit in other tasks, an integration of grammar and communication seems to have failed to some extent, i.e. no decent ways to integrate these have yet been found, at least when regarding the medium used for accomplishing the tasks. This must be viewed in relation to other factors as well, for example task type, cognitive stage, and how the pupils work.

In Examples 20 and 21 below, the pupils work with asking questions in two quite different ways. In Example 20, the pupils are required to use the language orally (mostly) in order to accomplish the task. Consequently, they must communicate with other pupils in the class by asking and answering questions. In Example 21, the pupils accomplish the task in writing. There is no need to work together with another pupil for performing this task.

Make five questions by using the expressions above. Do a survey in class about what pupils like or dislike. Ask questions like: "What kind of music do you like the most?" or "List three pop stars that you can't stand."

Example 20: Medium, oral (Searching, task EFL, p. 24)

Fyll ut det tomme feltet med eitt eller to ord slik at spørjesetninga blir rett:

- a) ... the dog recognize its mother?
- b) ... she scared of spiders?
- c) ... you been to Kolkata?
- d) ... he late for work this morning? (...)

Example 21: Medium, written (Crossroads, task 1, p. 134)

Example 20 shows an information gap task. Information gap is when one pupil knows something that the other pupil does not know. They need to communicate in order to convey this information (Ur, 2009). Example 21 can be a useful task for sharpening the awareness of interrogative forms. However, the task is somewhat uninteresting, as the content of the answer is known in advance. Example 20 is more engaging as the outcome of the answers is not known. A feeling of purpose, challenge and authenticity is added to the task.

Tasks, which are designed somewhat similar to the one in Example 20, give the pupils opportunities to use the language communicatively and learn through social interaction. On the other hand, some pupils may need the written task in order to pay enough attention to the way in which to ask questions. Since the learning preferences of pupils differ, it is difficult to give one correct answer as to how tasks should be designed. However, a range of tasks, in which different ways of working with grammar are used, should be promoted.

4.4 Instructional language

The language in which the instructions are given is presented in this section. An analysis of data collected through classroom observation could give insight into how teachers use English in the classroom (e.g. English in all contexts, a mix of English and Norwegian). What is of interest here is which language is used for presenting the grammar tasks in the textbooks. The table below shows the results of this category.

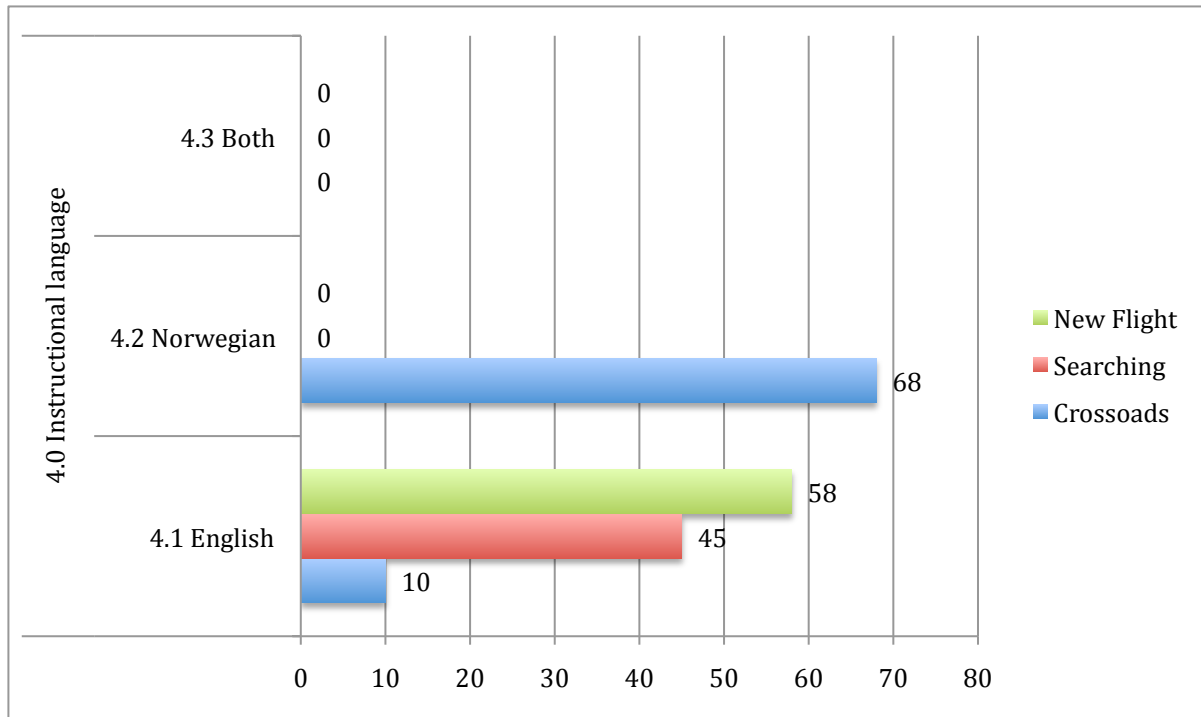


Table 5: The results for the category instructional language

In *Crossroads* all the grammar tasks are explained in Norwegian. The maths tasks on the other hand, are explained in English, hence the ten tasks in this category. In *Searching* and *New Flight* all task descriptions are given in English. In the grammar sections (given in the back of the textbook in *Searching*, and in a separate grammar book in *New Flight*) Norwegian is used. What are the reasons for explaining grammar in Norwegian when all other tasks are explained in English? The pupils should be able to understand grammar explained in English as well as they understand English in relation to other topics.

Forklar med dine egne ord kva eit subjektspronomen og eit objektspronomen er.

Example 22: Instructional language, Norwegian (*Crossroads*, task 2, p. 131)

In some tasks in *Crossroads* (see Example 22 above), the pupils are asked to explain a grammatical phenomenon using their own words. The task description is written in Norwegian. The language in which the pupils are required to answer is not made clear in the instructions. In my opinion, the pupils are likely to answer in Norwegian, because this is the easiest solution, and because it is normally expected to answer in the same language as the question is asked. An issue here is what the intention of the task is. Are the pupils supposed to

work with grammar in their native language? If so, why? Is grammar more easily understood in Norwegian than in English? In my opinion, it is not necessarily so. Some grammatical terms actually make as much, if not more, sense in English than in Norwegian. The meaning of the words is more logical (e.g. present tense vs. *presens*; future vs. *futurum*). This depends obviously on the general understanding of English, and on the pupils' level of proficiency. In the grammar-translation method, grammar was dealt with in the native language. In later methods (e.g. the direct method) the native language should not be used at all. With the influence of communicative approaches, the teacher and the teaching material should give opportunities for authentic language use. Although, many other tasks (not directly related to grammar) have this focus, grammar is perhaps the area in which it has been the most difficult to make changes in a communicative direction. When it comes to language this is mostly evident in *Crossroads*, but also in *Searching* and *New Flight*, where grammar is explained in Norwegian in the grammar sections. This is not necessarily wrong, however it is a fact that the native language is used mostly in relation to grammar. This might have to do with the grammar-communication dichotomy. Even though communication is the aim of EFL teaching, the opportunities for using the target language in relation to grammar are fewer than those in relation to other topics in the subject. Although grammar is a means to communication, it seems difficult to integrate grammar and communication, and they are perhaps still viewed as separate entities. This may cause and uphold a view on grammar as mechanical, mathematics-like, and static, and not really communicative, despite the fact that grammar has much to do with communication, as it is the form in which messages are communicated.

4.5 Context

The category context shows whether grammar is worked with in isolated sentences or whether it is placed in some sort of discoursal context. The results are presented in Table 6 below.

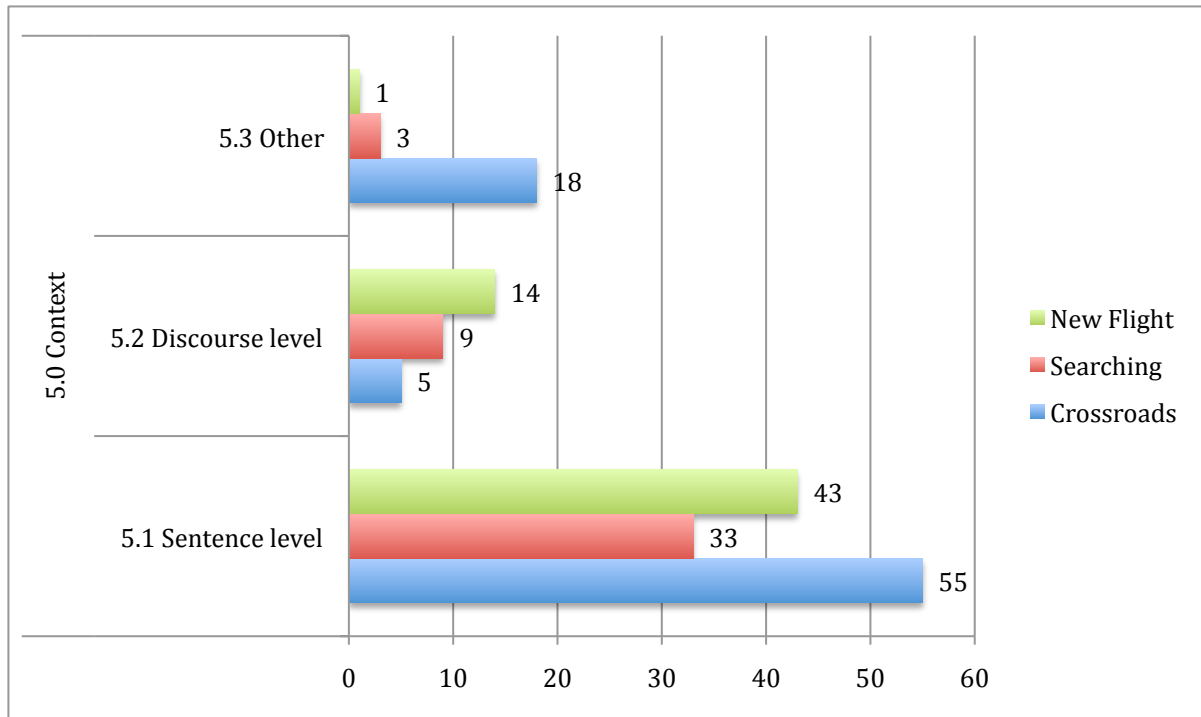


Table 6: The results for the category context

The overall tendency regarding context is that the grammar tasks operate at the sentence level. Tasks that operate at a word level (e.g. change a British word into the American equivalent) are also included here, as the words are not placed in a context, which they would be if they were presented in discourse. The percentages for sentence level tasks are respectively 73,3% in *Searching*, 74,1% in *New Flight* and 70,5% in *Crossroads*. 23 % of the tasks in *Crossroads* are categorised as *other*. The tasks in this sub-category are of two different natures. First, there are some tasks in which the pupils are required to explain a grammar rule. This was also the case with the tasks in *Searching* that fell into this category. Second, the other tasks here are related to maths. These are not, as mentioned earlier, technically grammar tasks, but they are included in the grammar section, and hence I have counted them as part of the grammar tasks. *New Flight* has one task in this category. The reason for categorising this task as *other* is that the pupils can choose to write either sentences or a text as an answer to the task. Hence, it could not be categorised in either without skewing the results slightly, and it was thus placed in the category *other*. When it comes to discourse level, *New Flight* has the largest number, followed by *Searching*. The lowest number of discourse level tasks is found in *Crossroads*.

If grammar is thought of as a complex process where the choices made by the speakers are based on context, syntax, vocabulary as well as the intended message, it is insufficient to practise grammar at the sentence level, as well as learning grammar rules in isolation. The promoters of communicative and meaning-based approaches to grammar believe that sentences should never be worked with in isolation, as this rarely happens in authentic use. Still, the overall tendency in these textbooks is that grammar is dealt with at a sentence level. It can be useful to work with single sentences sometimes. It can give a stronger focus to a specific feature; it can be analysed and changed easily; and it can easily be written on the board. Nevertheless, there should be a much higher number of discourse level tasks, considering the importance of discourse, context, and pragmatics as a part of the ability to communicate meaningfully, appropriately as well as correctly. As early as in the direct method (see section 2.3.2) it was believed that vocabulary was better acquired in sentences rather than in isolation. This was an early acknowledgement of the need for context in the learning process. In later approaches, the idea of discourse, and the significance of this, has been further developed. Discourse level tasks could be one possible way to bridge the gap between what the pupils know and what they are able to perform when using the language. When the grammar practice mainly happens at the sentence level, the pupils are, in my opinion, likely to learn grammar and be able to use grammar correctly in that particular context. However, they do not obtain adequate practice in using grammar in larger contexts, (e.g. communication, written texts), where it is more difficult to use the language grammatically correct in a native-like manner, as the focus is not mainly on grammar, but on the overall message. If the view is that grammar should be learnt by heart by the pupils, the sentence-level is a place to start focusing on this, but it is not sufficient in order to teach the pupils to use the language authentically. The mastering of the language is the main aim of EFL teaching, not the mastering of grammar, although grammar is a means to communication. The advantages and disadvantages of both sentence level and discourse level tasks are discussed in section 2.2.3. The two are not mutually exclusive, and in my opinion, both sentence and discourse level grammar tasks should be included for all grammar topics. The advantages of both levels can be brought into play. Specific language features can be given attention, and the use of English can be more fully understood through discourse.

Regarding pragmatics, the teaching of grammar in discourse is important. Pragmatics has to do with language in social interaction and is therefore not well practised in isolated sentences. The pupils should learn appropriate social and grammatical behaviour. These are interrelated.

Not only grammatically correct utterances must be learnt (e.g. the focus in traditional approaches), but also what is socially and culturally appropriate (e.g. in communicative and acquisition-based approaches). Samuda and Bygate (2008) (see section 2.2.6) believe that holistic activities, which involve knowledge of sub-areas (e.g. culturally or socially related), are meaningful and make learning more effective. Grammar can also be taught through analytical tasks, where grammar is worked with separately. Holistic tasks, which involve discourse, are probably more effective when it comes to learning compared to analytical tasks, they are more meaningful and have the potential to integrate form and use. Clearly, pragmatics has to do with more than grammar and spoken language. Nevertheless, it is important to know this to communicate meaningfully, fluently and to know the nuances of the language, which include the pragmatic choices of the speakers. In order to speak a language accurately and fluently, it is not enough to know its grammar only. There is a tendency that the focus on rules is stronger at a sentence level than at a discourse level. At a discourse level, the pupils get to practise grammar with a focus on the message and the context as well, and pragmatic factors can more easily be incorporated. According to the CEFR (2001), pragmatic competence is the ability to use and interpret communicative language functions, and comprises discourse competence, functional competence and design competence. The pupils should learn to produce coherent stretches of languages (discourse competence). They should also learn to use spoken discourse and written texts in communication for particular functional purposes and experience how interaction moves on according to its purpose (functional competence). The pupils should also learn how messages are sequenced according to interactional and transactional schemata (design competence). The pragmatic and communicative purposes of language learning show that it is inadequate to teach grammar in isolation. The use of grammar is closely linked to for example the communicative function and the context in which something is said or written.

In Example 23, the pupils are required to work with cohesive ties.

Sett inn rett bindeord:

- a) We've run out of cash, ... we'll have to sleep rough tonight.
- b) I cannot do anything about it ... you tell me what is going on.
- c) We do not usually employ young men with tattoos and pierced noses here. ..., we are willing to give you a chance. (...)

Example 23: Context, sentence level (Crossroads task 1, p. 179)

The task is sentence based, which works well, because the pupils practise connecting clauses together. Still, the task could have been designed slightly different, for example as a text instead of many sentences, in order for the pupils to see how the text flows better with the use of these cohesive ties, an aspect that is not as well illustrated with isolated sentences. Again, this could depend on the proficiency level of the pupils, and this task could for example be followed by a task where the pupils are required to work with cohesive ties in discourse.

Finn adjektiva i teksten nedanfor og skriv dei ned. Samanlikn med ein medelev:

I love boats. They don't have to be big or fancy as long as they are comfortable and I can rely on the engine. The point of having a boat is not necessarily to go a long way, but to enjoy the peace and quiet away from the hectic pace of city life. (...)

Example 24: Context, discourse level (Crossroads, task 1, p. 136)

In the example (24) above, the pupils are required to find the adjectives in a text. This shows how the adjectives are placed in discourse, where the focus is also on the meaning, and on the function of the adjectives.

4.6 Type of task

In this section the results of which task types are found in the textbooks will be presented. The distribution of the various task types is presented in the table below.

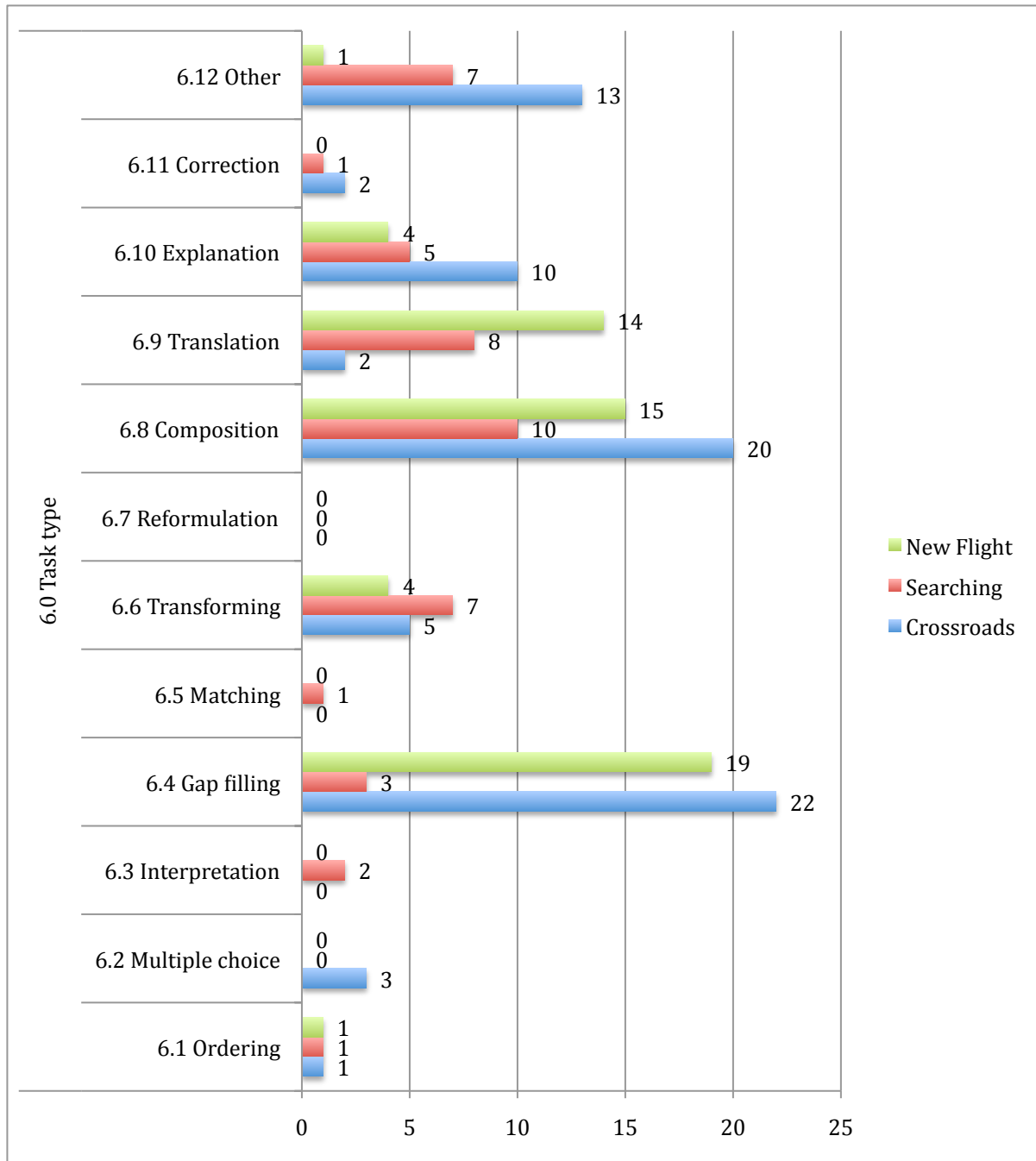


Table 7: The results for the category task type

In all textbooks composition stands out as one of the main task types. In addition, *Crossroads* and *New Flight* have gap-filling as an equally significant task type (there are actually a few more gap-filling tasks than composition tasks in these textbooks). Other main types are: explanation in *Crossroads* and translation in *Searching* and *New Flight*. A note is needed on the sub-category *other*, in which tasks that did not fit into any of the other sub-categories went. In *Searching* the tasks in this sub-category were either pronunciation tasks, or tasks where the pupils were required to read a text and discover a grammatical feature. In

Crossroads these were tasks in which the pupils were required to conjugate verbs or nouns, pronounce something, or find a grammatical feature in a text. The maths tasks are included here as well. Hence, there are quite a few tasks in this sub-category.

There is a considerable number of gap-filling tasks in the textbooks. These tasks are typically associated with traditional approaches to grammar teaching. They still seem to be popular, although there are many other task types in the textbooks as well. The gap-filling tasks are typically sentences in isolation. According to scholars who promote meaningful learning, sentences should never be worked with in isolation. The traditional approaches often had form as the starting point to language teaching, whereas advocates of communicative, acquisition-based and cognitive approaches believe that forms represent meaning (see figures 1 and 3 in chapter 2), and thus meaning should be the starting point. Meaningful learning happens, among other things, when the pupils learn from each other; when they solve a problem; when their curiosity is satisfied; or when grammar and context, i.e. the way in which grammar is used in real life, is integrated (see section 2.2.2). Gap-filling tasks are not the tasks in which these requirements are best fulfilled. Also, there is a tendency that the gap-filling tasks have a strong focus on rules, because the pupils are often required to fill in the correct grammatical forms, as illustrated in Example 25 below. Obviously, the focus on rules in the gap-filling tasks is closely linked to how grammar is presented (e.g. in *Crossroads* the rules are explicitly described in detail prior to the tasks). However, it seems that the starting point in these tasks is form rather than meaning. The gap-filling tasks can sometimes be useful though. The pupils do not have to spend time on surrounding text, solving problems, etc. that may potentially take their attention away from the grammatical feature that is to be dealt with.

Complete these sentences with a passive construction, using the verbs given in brackets.

- A Norway and Denmark (invade) by Germany.
- B Britain (bomb) by the Luftwaffe, the German airforce.
- C The novel (write) by a young girl. (...)

Example 25: Task type, gap-filling (Searching, task L5, p. 199)

There are fairly many translation and explanation tasks as well. There are more examples of the former in *New Flight* and *Searching*, whereas the latter is more strongly represented in

Crossroads. Together with gap-filling tasks, these are quite traditional task types. This indicates that grammar is a field in the EFL classroom that is still, to some extent, traditionally approached. If grammar is learnt well this way, there is no obvious need to change the tasks considerably. However, according to input from communicative and cognitive theories; along with the experience with pupils who often have troubles using grammar correctly in authentic-like situations (e.g. the inert knowledge problem, see section 2.2.4), there is still need for improving grammar teaching. Most of the task types that are heavily represented in the textbooks (except composition) have a relatively strong focus on form. When considering the communicative and cognitive views on grammar teaching, a larger number of tasks should have meaning as the starting point. Meaningful tasks are not drills and memorisation. Gap-filling tasks, for example, are associated with drills as the requirement often is to fill in the missing grammar, which the pupils insert as they have learnt the forms and structure of the language. However, many scholars (e.g. Newby, Halliday) believe that meaning happens before form, and consequently meaning should be the starting point of grammar teaching. According to Samuda and Bygate (2008) (see section 2.2.6) holistic tasks promote the most meaningful and effective learning. In these textbook however, some of the main tasks types (gap-filling, translation, explanation) are more similar to analytical tasks.

The number of composition tasks, i.e. tasks where the pupils are required to use their imagination to create their own sentences or small texts, is also large. See Example 27 below.

Write ten new sentences using some of the idioms above.

Example 27, Searching, task L1, p. 146

In these tasks the pupils must use their imagination to create language through various sorts of tasks. In the composition tasks in these textbooks the pupils are typically asked to create their own utterances by using a particular grammatical feature, which allows them to focus on grammar in a meaningful way in which the message is in focus as well as the forms. Here, the pupils are likely to be more active than with the gap-filling tasks for example, and this could give a foundation for more meaningful learning. The composition tasks give opportunities for language use, and can thus be one way to bridge the gap between grammar and communication, as they integrate form and use. The composition tasks are holistic tasks,

which are more effective in the learning process, according to Samuda and Bygate (2008) (see section 2.2.6)

According to Ur (2009) (see section 2.2.6), grammar tasks should be engaging, interesting and challenging. Gap-filling, translation and explanation tasks are frequent in the textbooks. These task types are unlikely to meet Ur’s requirements very well. There are other tasks types that are much more engaging, interesting and challenging, in which grammar is perhaps learnt even more effectively. However, there is variation regarding task types in the textbooks in this study. Still, the variation should be much greater.

4.7 Open/close

Task types can be related to the open or close-endedness of tasks. The results of this category are show in the table below.

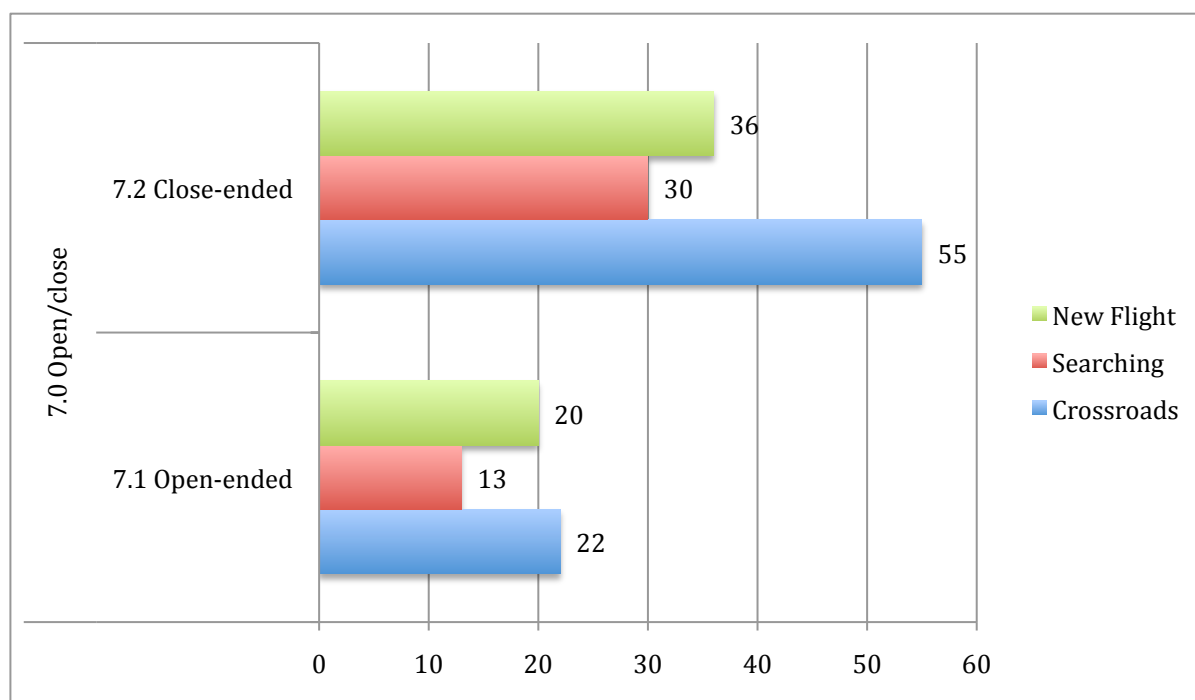


Table 8: The results for the category open/close

Overall, the number of close-ended tasks is highest. However, there is a fair number of open-ended tasks in all textbooks as well. Open-ended tasks will provide different, equally valid responses, depending on the topic and the pupils’ level of proficiency. The structural framework can be given in advance (e.g. a particular grammatical item to be practised). Still,

the open-ended tasks can be more motivating, as they are less predictable and more interesting (Ur, 2009). The open-ended tasks are likely to be at the proceduralisation and performance cognitive stages, as they require the pupils to use grammar in more free language production, even though the conditions under which they are accomplished are controlled and guided by the teacher or teaching material. The initial positive description of open-ended tasks, should not exclude the potential usefulness of close-ended tasks. Sometimes the accomplishment of these can give a clear description of what is correct and what is not for example. On the other hand, open-ended tasks provide better opportunities for language use, and the pupils are potentially more active during these tasks. Close-ended tasks tend to be more predictable, and demand little of the pupils' mental activity and imagination, and there are fewer opportunities to construct new knowledge.

In Example 26 below the task is close-ended, with only one correct answer. This demands relatively little mental activity of the pupils, compared to Example 27, in which the pupils must use their imagination more and compose a text.

Fill in the –ing form of the verb in brackets.

A The Khokhoi began – (farm) the land in AD 200.

B The settlers had problems – (protect) their cattle against native Xhosas. (...)

Example 26: Close-ended (Searching, task EFL, p. 95)

Skriv ei lita forteljing om ein dag du var svært glad. Bruk adjektiv som uttrykkjer glede og lykke. Dersom du vil kan du skrive fem-seks setningar i staden.

Example 27: Open-ended (Crossroads, task 2, p. 137)

In Example 27, the pupils are still required to practise a particular grammatical feature, but rather in a way that activates their minds more, and is likely to be more engaging and meaningful as they, among other things, discover the usefulness of grammar.

4.8 Cognitive stage

Table 9 shows the results of the final category, cognitive stage. The emphasis of the tasks in these textbooks lies heavily on conceptualisation, proceduralisation, or somewhere between these two. *New Flight* and *Crossroads* have more tasks relating to the proceduralisation stage than those in *Searching*. *Crossroads* also has the highest number of conceptualisation stage tasks.

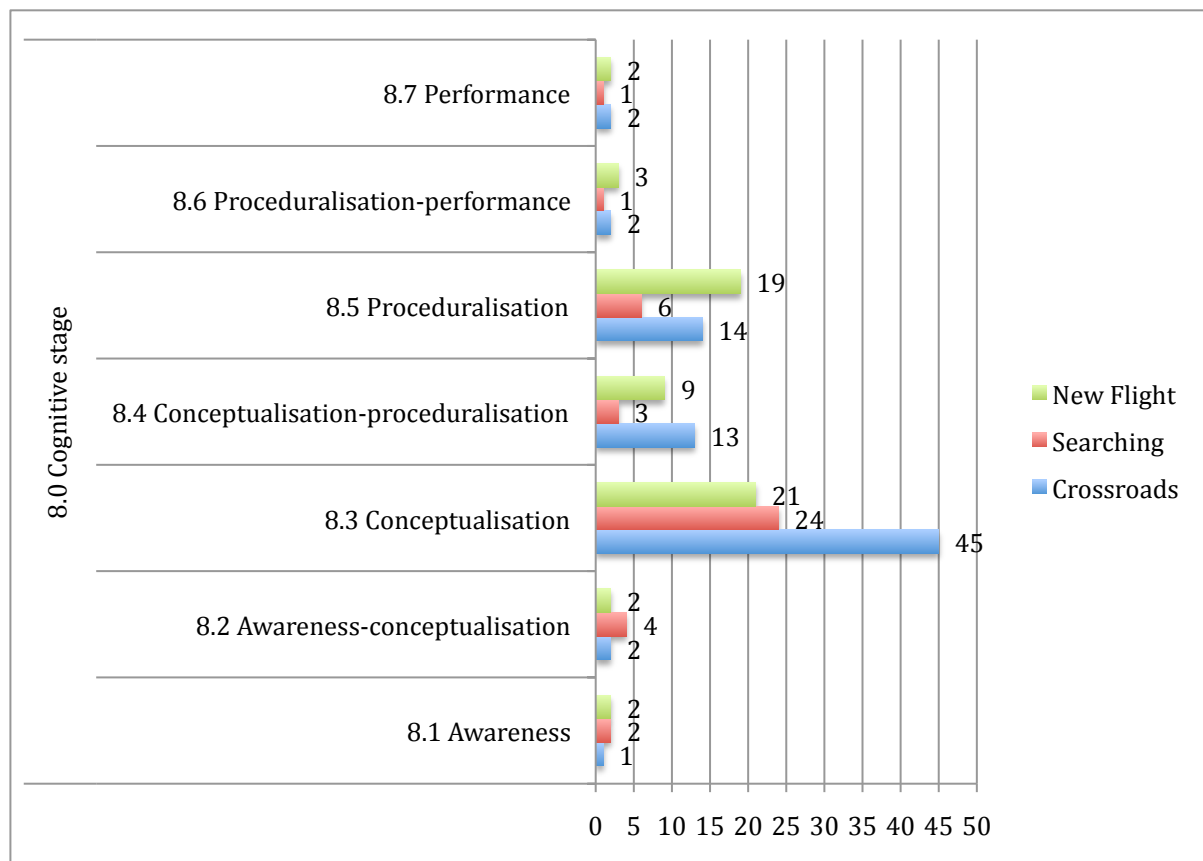


Table 9: The results for the category cognitive stage

A cognitive view on grammar teaching and learning requires the pupils to restructure and build on existing knowledge on the basis of new experience in grammar learning, i.e. the pupils should be given the opportunity to reflect on and activate their own knowledge when they learn new grammar. Many grammar tasks, according to Newby (2006), allow the pupils only to add the missing grammar. This is the case for some of the tasks in these textbooks as well, i.e. gap-filling, transformation, translation, and correction. According to a constructivist view on learning, which is in accordance with a cognitive view, the pupils should work with their own ideas in order to construct new knowledge. Though the pupils may work with their

own ideas in other tasks throughout the textbooks, many of the grammar tasks are still influenced by the ideas of the traditional approaches to some extent. At the proceduralisation and performance stages the pupils are able to use grammar in settings where they create utterances that encode their own ideas and finally use grammar in open settings where the focus of their attention is on the overall message. All stages are significant, and equally important, in the learning process. However, the tendency has been that conceptualisation is the stage typically supported by EFL textbooks. If the process stops here, the pupils are able to understand grammar rules, but not fully enabled to use grammar in freer contexts. Tasks that support the other stages, especially the proceduralisation and performance stages, must be sought. Composition tasks are highly represented in these textbooks, particularly in *Crossroads* and *New Flight*. These tasks require more of the pupils when it comes to mental activity, and are often at the proceduralisation stage. This stage is the bridge between conceptualisation and performance (the latter is the aim of the language teaching), the pupils' attention to rules is gradually reduced as they try to complete their own sentences and move towards free language use.

Translate the sentences using the –ing forms.

A Å ete for fort er udanna.

B Da eg gjekk heim, møtte eg ein venn av meg.

C Sidan ho var tørst, drakk ho opp heile flaska med mjølk. (...)

Example 28: Conceptualisation stage (Searching, task L3, p. 95)

Say as many endings to these sentences as you can. Begin your endings with *who*, *which* or *that*:

I like people...

I can't stand films...

The tiger is an animal...

Our teacher is a person...

The atomic bomb is a weapon... (...)

Example 29: Proceduralisation stage (New Flight, task 28, p. 122)

In Example 28, the pupils use the –ing form consciously, with a relatively strong focus on rules. Example 29 shows a more procedural task, as the pupils are required to use grammar (still under controlled conditions) with a less strong focus on rules, even though they are required to use particular grammatical forms.

4.9 Summary of findings

A brief summary of the main findings and tendencies will be given here. First of all, the place of grammar was indicated by the frequency of grammar tasks in the textbooks. *Crossroads* has the highest proportion of grammar tasks (35.6 %), and the two remaining textbooks have similar percentages of grammar tasks (15.3 % and 14.0 %) compared to the overall number of tasks. Second, the examination of explicit description illustrated that in *Crossroads* all grammar tasks are provided with an explicit description of the grammar, which potentially gives a stronger rule focus, compared to the other two textbooks, where the explicit descriptions are provided in separate sections of the textbooks. There are few examples of the category *discovery* in all textbooks. Third, regarding work and medium the overall tendency is that the grammar tasks are intentionally written and carried out alone, rather than in pairs or groups. Fourth, the instructional language is either Norwegian (*Crossroads*) or English (*New Flight* and *Searching*). Fifth, when it comes to context, the overall tendency is that most grammar tasks are not put into a discursive context, but rather worked with in isolated sentences. However, there are examples of discourse level tasks in all textbooks. *New Flight* has the highest number of these. Sixth, regarding task types, there are a few types that are dominating, i.e. *composition*, *translation* and *gap filling*. The task types *transforming* and *explanation* are also well represented, but these are less dominant than the former three. Seventh, there are more close-ended tasks, although there is a fair number of open-ended tasks in all textbooks. Finally, two cognitive stages are by far the most prevailing. The majority of the grammar tasks potentially trigger the conceptualisation or proceduralisation stages.

5. Conclusion

An examination of how grammar is presented to the pupils and how they are required to work with grammar has been conducted, based on tasks provided in the textbooks. The study comprises first, a quantitative part where the number of grammar tasks in each textbook compared to the overall number of tasks, was examined, and second, the main part of the examination, which was to study the quality of the tasks according to a set of specific criteria (see sections 1.3 and 3.2.4). The results have been presented in the previous chapter. A final summary, conclusions and suggestions for further research will be presented in this chapter.

5.1 Summary and Conclusions

There is a tendency that the grammar tasks require the pupils to work alone and to accomplish the tasks in writing. The findings show that there is a total⁸ of 155 tasks where the pupils are required to work alone, compared to 19 tasks where the pupils are required to work in pairs or groups. In addition there are 7 tasks where both operations are required. The total number of written tasks is 152, whereas 16 are oral, 9 include both oral and written work and 4 are unclear. The overrepresentation of written tasks and tasks in which the pupils work alone indicates a need for more communicative tasks, in which the pupils have the chance to combine grammar practice with language use. This might help them to overcome the inert knowledge problem (see section 2.2.4), and help them to bridge the gap between what they know about grammar and what they are able to perform in real-life language use. This concerns not only spoken communication, but also written language, which they need to practise in context, rather than by means of isolated sentences. In my opinion, there is also a need for more discourse level tasks. The pupils practise grammar in single sentences for the most part. The total number is 131, compared to 28 discourse level tasks and 22 unclear tasks. When the pupils write longer texts, or when they communicate orally in English, there is a greater chance of making language errors, because they focus more on the meaning of the message. For that reason, there is a need for grammar practice in discourse, both in writing and oral interaction, so that the pupils increase their ability to focus both on the meaning and at the same time write or speak English correctly as well as appropriately. Whether the pupils speak and write English in the classroom (e.g. when discussing, when answering questions, when accomplishing the tasks given) can depend on many factors. One factor, which has been analysed in this study, is the use of English and Norwegian in the instructions. *New Flight* and

⁸ The number of tasks in *Searching*, *New Flight* and *Crossroads*.

Searching use English, whereas *Crossroads* use Norwegian when giving instructions for the grammar tasks. The use of Norwegian in the textbooks can possibly cause the pupils to use more Norwegian when accomplishing the tasks, and thus the textbook could provide better opportunities for authentic-like language use when English is used in the grammatical context as well.

Regarding how grammar is presented (explicit description), it tends to be a stronger rule-focus in textbooks that have explicit detailed description prior to the tasks. There are quite few tasks in the category *discover* (a total number of 14 for both *stating explicit rule* and *finding patterns*). The category *supplied minimal*, has very few tasks as well. However, *New Flight* has 16 tasks in this category, which is relatively high compared to the overall number of tasks in this category. *Crossroads* is perhaps the most deductive textbook in this regard. There are few inductive grammar tasks in all textbooks, although this has the least. More tasks in the categories *supplied minimal*, *finding patterns* and *stating explicit rule* should be included.

Regarding task types, a few types are dominant in the textbooks in this study. Composition is a type that often involves open-ended answers and lets the pupils use the language more freely and focus on the meaningful message as well as grammatical structures. The other dominant task types, however, involve translating sentences into or out of the native language; filling in the gaps in sentences; transforming one sentence into another by changing the grammatical structure; or explaining a grammatical structure, all of which are influenced by the traditional approaches. These tasks can be useful, and have perhaps been used for so long because the teachers find them appropriate. However, a different view is that the teachers use these tasks because they are easy to execute and because they make it straightforward to control whether the pupils have performed them correctly. Another reason for applying such tasks is obviously that they are the ones available in the textbooks. Despite this, these task types are not necessarily the most effective for learning. Although they might be useful at some stages in the learning process (e.g. to understand the difference between Norwegian and English, to see what happens with the meaning of a sentence in the passive when it is changed to active, or to learn a grammatical rule), there should be more variation regarding tasks types. A few examples of the other categories are represented in one or more of the textbooks. However, these are quite few compared to the overall number of grammar tasks and the proportion of the dominating task types. Also, the categories used in this analysis do not cover the range of task variation that could have been provided in the textbooks. The call for more

communicative and discourse-based tasks, for example, would consequently result in a wider range of variation regarding the types of tasks presented in the textbooks. The task types are closely connected to whether the tasks require an open or close-ended answer. The total number of close-ended tasks is 121, whereas the total number of open-ended tasks is 55. Composition tasks are typically open-ended, whereas the other most prominent task types are close-ended. Open-ended tasks require more of the pupils, and such tasks are often more meaningful, engaging, and less predictable. Although the close-ended tasks are useful, there should be more open-ended tasks that also include a wider range of task types.

When it comes to the cognitive stages, conceptualisation and proceduralisation are by far the most represented stages. There are few tasks that trigger the awareness and performance stages. The awareness might be perceived as the least important one, as the pupils only need to notice new grammar. However, this is the initial stage, and well-designed awareness tasks could perhaps trigger the pupils' curiosity and make them aware of language features that they want to learn. The conceptualisation stage has the highest number of tasks (a total of 90) in all textbooks, followed by the proceduralisation stage (a total of 39). In addition, there are 25 tasks at the conceptualisation-proceduralisation stage, which contribute to a high proportion of tasks at these two cognitive stages. This means that the pupils learn to understand grammar rules consciously (conceptualisation). They also learn to use grammar in tasks in which the amount of attention to grammar rules are reduced (proceduralisation). At this stage they use grammar, still under controlled conditions, presumably by creating utterances that encode their own ideas. This is the stage that ties conceptualisation and performance. The number of tasks on the performance stage, on the other hand, is quite small (a total of 5 in all textbooks, in addition to 6 at the proceduralisation-performance stage). The aim of the teaching is that the pupils get to the performance stage, i.e. that they become able to use grammar well in open contexts with a focus on the overall message. Despite this, the pupils have few opportunities to practise grammar at this level. The overall tendency is that the textbooks typically support the conceptualisation and proceduralisation stages. This implies that tasks that support the other stages should be included in the textbooks.

It is important that English teachers have an awareness of the textbooks they use and the grammar tasks provided in these. The framework devised for this examination could be used by teachers as a means for analysing the grammar tasks in EFL textbooks, in order to make decisions on which textbooks to use, or to see whether they find it necessary to supplement

the textbooks with tasks they find missing. The textbook authors should also make sure that the grammar tasks are as good as possible. According to the examination of the grammar tasks in *Searching*, *Crossroads* and *New Flight*, the currently best-selling EFL textbooks in Norway, there is a need for grammar tasks that operate at all cognitive stages and are more communicative, more discourse-based, and more varied.

5.2 Further Research

Further research is needed in the field of grammar teaching. It would be valuable to investigate teachers' and pupils' views and opinions on grammar teaching, as it is they who use the textbooks and the grammar tasks in the EFL classroom. Their experiences, both challenges and successes with grammar teaching, could give valuable insight into grammar teaching practice. It would also be of interest to observe grammar teaching in practice through classroom research. This could give insight into how the textbooks and the tasks influence the teaching, to what extent they are applied in the teaching, in which ways grammar is presented by the teacher, and in which manner the pupils actually work with grammar. Further research could also be conducted on grammar in textbooks; there are for example other textbooks than the ones included in my study that need to be investigated. There are also resources for grammar teaching and learning on the Internet, and it would be of interest to examine whether these approach grammar differently than the textbooks. I have examined some aspects of grammar tasks, but other aspects should be examined as well, such as what grammatical items are included in the textbooks; and whether there is a correlation between grammatical topic and how it is approached (e.g. it seems that some grammatical topics are typically approached in a traditional manner, whereas other grammatical topics are easier to approach communicatively).

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