The Mighty Weight of Tradition

An Evaluation of Grammar Exercises in EFL Textbooks Based on Communicative and Cognitive Principles

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Master's Thesis

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UNIVERSITY OF BERGEN

Spring 2015

Summary in Norwegian

Formålet med denne masteroppgaven er å evaluere grammatikkoppgaver i utvalgte lærebøker for å få innsikt i kvaliteten på oppgaver, basert på prinsipp fra kommunikative og kognitive teorier om språk og språklæring. Målet mitt er å avdekke sider ved undervisningsmaterialene våre som kan forbedres, og ut fra dette foreslå endringer.

Jeg valgte å analysere lærebøker for 10. trinn i norsk grunnskole, ettersom dette er det siste obligatoriske skoleåret for norske elever. Bøkene som er analysert, *Crossroads 10B*, *New Flight 3* og *Searching 10*, er blant de mest brukte læreverkseriene for engelskfaget i Norge.

Masteroppgaven baserer seg på teorier om læring og lingvistiske teorier om språk og språklæring. Det kommunikative perspektivet jeg tar utgangspunkt i legger vekt på at språk er et redskap for å kommunisere med andre mennesker, og at pedagogikken som brukes for å støtte læring av språk dermed i størst mulig grad burde reflektere virkelige kommunikasjonssituasjoner. Problemstillingene som skal besvares i denne evalueringa av grammatikkoppgaver er som følger: 1) Hvilke syn på og tilnærminger til grammatikk ligger bak utforminga av grammatikkoppgaver i norske lærebøker for engelskfaget? 2) I hvilken grad følger oppgavene prinsipp fra kommunikativ og kognitiv språk- og læringsteori?

Analysen tar utgangspunkt i et rammeverk bestående av fire kategorier: oppgavens læringsmål, grammatisk emne, kognitivt læringsnivå, i tillegg til pedagogiske og kommunikative kriterier for å vurdere kvaliteten på språklæring. De pedagogiske og kommunikative kriteriene analyseres i henhold til en klassifikasjon av oppgavetyper.

Hovedtendensene i funnene mine er at grammatikkoppgavene i lærebøkene er ganske sterkt prega av "tradisjonelle" syn på grammatikk og mye brukte oppgavetyper. Resultatet av dette er at mange av grammatikkoppgavene i essens fokuserer på å *teste* elevens forklaringskunnskap (declarative knowledge) heller enn å tilrettelegge for *læring* av grammatikken. I tillegg, spesielt på lavere læringsnivå, krever oppgavene som regel lite mental aktivitet hos eleven og tar i liten grad høyde for elevens motivasjon for å utføre oppgaven. Flere følger av tradisjonelle tilnærmingsmåter til grammatikk er at prinsipp fra kommunikativ språkundervisning, som kontekst og bruk av språket i samspill med andre, blir tatt lite i bruk i undervisninga. Dette gjør at utførelsen av grammatikkoppgavene sjelden reflekterer hvordan grammatikken faktisk benyttes i virkelig språkbruk.

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to thank Professor David Newby for inspiring me as a scholar and future teacher by introducing me to his perspectives on what grammar is and how it may be taught. His lectures and written work triggered my interest in the teaching and learning of grammar. As my supervisor, I would also like to thank Professor Newby for expert advice and skilful guidance through the complicated academic fields of my research project and the occasional mess in my head and thesis drafts.

I am grateful to my family and friends for moral support and especially my brother Geir Ivar Johansen for his advice and assistance in the final lay-out process.

A final thank you is in place to Professor Aud Solbjørg Skulstad, who found time to meet me in my first year at master's level and discuss my ideas for thesis topic. She even let me borrow master theses written by previous students at the University. One of these, written by Eilén Askeland in 2013, became the initial inspiration for my own thesis.

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1. Introduction

The aim of this research is to find out of how well exercises found in currently used EFL textbooks in the Norwegian school support the learning of grammar. Based on pedagogical and linguistic insights, I shall evaluate the quality of the textbooks as tools for teaching and learning grammar. My hope is to reveal aspects of our teaching materials that could be improved and suggest changes that can be made.

This thesis presents an analysis of grammar exercises in EFL textbooks for Norwegian 10th graders. My focus areas are: Which aspects of English grammar do the textbooks teach? How are these grammatical objectives presented? To what degree are the exercises compatible with learning theories? How well do the exercises help the learners develop their communicative skills? What underlying view of grammar lies behind the choices of presentation and methodology?

In this introduction I will begin by explaining my fascination and initial motivation for the topic of this thesis, followed by a presentation of why I think grammar and textbook analysis is a necessary research area. Finally I will present my research question, analytical frameworks and explain the overall structure of this paper.

1.1 A changed perception

Something changed. It was during a lecture in English didactics, focusing on teaching grammar to foreign language learners. What changed was my idea of what grammar is and consequently how it should be taught. To be honest, before this lecture I had not really put much thought into how I would teach grammar to my future pupils. It had seemed a quite straight forward business. Teach the way I had been taught myself. That is, mainly by presenting rules and have the pupils practice them through textbook exercises. During this particular lecture, David Newby, who was a guest lecturer in that particular English didactics course, pointed out and described how grammar expresses meaning. He used an example of how an L1 learner may learn to perceive and use the present perfect form as an expression of recentness and the progressive as expressing an activity, ("I'*ve been* feed*ing* the ducks"). In other words, he described grammar not as detached *rules* that structure the vocabulary, but as items that carry a meaning of their own as part of the message being conveyed, more or less like vocabulary does. This changed my previous form-based idea of grammar. I started to consider whether grammar might become more engaging and easier to learn if we simply take

a different view on what it is and take a different approach to it than by following the traditional approaches that I encountered in my own EFL learning.

I would like to do the same for my future pupils. Unfortunately my pupils will have several years of education in English before they meet me, and the way they are taught grammar is likely to be shaped by the general understanding of what grammar is, which is based on a long-standing traditional view and traditional methods for teaching grammar. Many teachers, especially those who teach at lower levels in school, often have several subjects and are not required to have extensive knowledge in any of these, as they are only supposed to teach at or near beginner's level. Also, as Birketveit and Rugesæter point out (2014), since English is a mandatory subject in Norwegian primary and lower secondary school but only an optional subject in the general teacher's education in Norway, many teachers are required to teach English without any formal qualification in the subject. The consequences of this are that many EFL teachers have never had the theoretical resources and academic opportunity to consider how they view grammar and how this affects their teaching, and eventually their pupils' learning of grammar. These teachers will probably, as *I* unconsciously intended, teach the way they were taught themselves, and rely heavily on how the provided textbook teaches grammar.

Also, my future pupils will only constitute a very small amount of the total mass of students of English as a foreign language, and the few that I do come across will only be affected by my teaching for a very limited period of their lives. What I *can* do to reach out to more EFL learners is to affect the means which many, perhaps even most, teachers of English to a great extent rely on in their teaching of grammar: the textbooks and the way these present and teach grammar. If my thesis can suggest areas within the grammar teaching in textbooks that needs to be scrutinized and improved by the authors of EFL textbooks, if it influences EFL textbook writers to reconsider how they teach grammar in their books, I will consider my intention with this thesis successful.

1.2 Why communicative grammar?

Under the headline *Purpose*, the English Subject Curriculum for primary and lower secondary school in Norway (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013) states that

> To succeed in a world where English is used for international communication, it is necessary to be able to use the English language and to have knowledge of how it is used in different contexts. Thus, we need to develop a vocabulary and skills in using the systems of the English language, it`s phonology orthography, grammar and principles for sentence and text construction and to be able to adapt the language to different topics and communication situations.

Learning grammar is essential for language learning. As I mentioned in connection with Newby's description of how the concept may be understood, grammar expresses certain parts of the meanings of a message in communication. So in order to be able to express all the meanings that one intends to communicate in a message, it will not do to learn vocabulary exclusively.

Due to traditional views and methodologies in teaching grammar, most people who have learnt a foreign language at school do not regard grammar in a communicative fashion. Rather, grammar is commonly regarded among foreign language learners as a set of forms and rules that structure the words in a sentence. Because they have been taught to look at grammar this way, they fail to notice that these "forms" and "rules" also contain and express meanings. I think this misunderstanding may prevent the learners from fully understanding the purpose of grammar and thus its value for speech production. In effect they may lose an important source of motivation to learn grammar, and eventually become less competent in language production than if they were taught to understand grammar as part of the semantics of language. People should understand what it is they are learning and what purpose it has for practical use. Therefore, we need to be conscious of how we present grammar and which methods we use to teach it.

1.2.1 Grammar teaching practices in Norwegian schools

During my teaching practice periods, all the teacher supervisors I had that taught English used the textbook to teach grammar, and taught it as a separate part of the learning sessions. Most of the lessons I observed, however, did not include grammar as a topic. When I took on the role as teacher myself, grammar was not in my focus, and I half-consciously avoided it because I was not sure how to teach it. The National Subject Curriculum for English did not provide any support, as it gives few and very vague directions on how to teach grammar, and provide no guidelines on what to include. My own experiences lead me to wonder whether grammar is generally an avoided topic, and, if so, whether this is connected to uncertainty in one's own competence both on meta-level and in teaching methodologies of grammar? Birketveit and Rugesæter (2014: 63) explain the extensive use of old-fashioned methodology in the English education at Norwegian primary and lower secondary school by the lack of formal competence among many teachers. Grammar is an essential part of language, and necessary for language learning, so teaching grammar should not be a question of the teacher's knowledge, interest and engagement in grammar, and creativity in coming up with good exercises. But if grammar teaching in Norwegian schools is significantly affected by

variable formal qualifications among the teachers and their personal interest in grammar, it only increases the necessity of having good teaching materials available, such as in textbooks.

1.3 The necessity of textbook studies

§ 2-3 *Content and assessment of primary and lower secondary education* in the Norwegian Education Act (Government.no 2010) states that education in primary and lower secondary school must be in accordance with regulations issued by the Ministry, that is, the *National Curriculum for Knowledge Promotion in Primary and Secondary Education and Training* (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2007/ 2011). The National Curriculum comprises the core curriculum, the quality framework, the subject curriculum, and the framework regulating the distribution of teaching hours per subject. There is no law that requires the use of textbooks in English or any other subject. It is left to the teacher to decide whether to use them, and, if so, how much.

Summer (2011: 75) comments that during the last decades there has been a focus on and increasing popularity of self-made materials for teaching purposes. This is partly a result of the greater diversity of teaching materials, such as "innovations of electronic teaching resources", as Summer (2011: 77-78) points out. Still, I believe the dissatisfaction towards textbooks may also to some extent be a negative reaction to the "old and traditional". However, just because we have a broader spectrum for sources of teaching materials does not mean there is nothing good about the textbook. What if the home-made materials are of inferior quality to the textbook materials? It is obviously better to use good exercises from a textbook than to give the learners home-made ones that lack in quality. Many newly educated teachers do not have the experience to come up with a wide range of ways to teach grammar and make good grammar exercises, and both new and experienced teachers often complain that they do not have enough time to prepare lessons as well as they would have liked. Do they have the time to produce good grammar lessons and exercises on their own? Not everyone has the gift of creativeness that helps them come up with new methods and activities. These are cases where textbooks need to be used, and the quality of the textbook grammar exercises is essential.

Summer (2011: 4), who carried out research into grammar exercises in German textbooks, states that textbooks are the prime medium in EFL classrooms, and that German schools usually select a textbook series from a particular publisher. Like Germany, all Norwegian schools, at least state schools, tend to have full sets of a selected textbook series for each subject and grade, even though Norwegian Law does not require the use of textbooks

as teaching aids. In my experience, when the majority of EFL teachers in Norway teach grammar, the tasks and explanations they select are mainly taken from the textbook, which is the most easily available source. Also, Birketveit and Rugesæter (2014: 62) comment that their own observations through their roles as teacher educators and in research projects as well as other research studies show that the textbook is a primary source of teaching material in the subject of English. Many rely on using the textbook to guide their grammar teaching. With lack of time to plan lessons there is obviously a need for good learning materials as sources for instructional options and exercises.

The way grammar exercises are designed is, or should be, the result of underlying assumptions and beliefs in relation to theoretical linguistic, pedagogical and didactical views, ideas and hypotheses with regard to the learning and teaching of grammar. Thus, the views and theories the design of grammar exercises in textbooks are based upon will determine how well the textbooks support the learning of grammar. The importance of grammar exercise design in textbooks is demonstrated in Zimmermann's study of grammar teaching in German EFL classrooms, which revealed that 62 % of the teachers in the study adopted the grammar activities that figure in textbooks (Summer 2011: 78). Summer claims that the presentation and methods the textbook authors decide on to teach grammar can determine teaching practice, and argues that Zimmermann's results provide evidence for this claim: "Consequently, the quantity as well as the quality of the different types of activities provided in textbooks is likely to greatly determine the learning and teaching processes. (ibid: 78)"

1.4 Research question

The initial inspiration of my thesis came from a previous master's thesis written by Eilén Askeland (2013). Askeland's thesis is also a textbook analysis of grammar exercises. Her focus is on the number and quality of the grammar exercises in terms of the methodology used, more specifically "how grammar is presented and how the pupils are required to work with grammar based on the tasks provided in the textbooks. (ibid: 10)" For example, her criteria include *instructional language* and which *medium* (oral or written) the learner has to use in order to accomplish the exercise. I want to focus more on making a qualitative *evaluation* of the grammar exercises in terms of underlying principles which affect their quality rather than an analysis that concerns statistical analysis of the exercises which Askeland carried out. Thus, this thesis touches on some of the same aspects, but from a different viewpoint. What I analyze are underlying pedagogical and didactic principles within the exercises that direct learners towards understanding and acquiring the grammar. The

overriding aim is to create a framework which will help to ensure the quality of the exercises through specifically developed criteria, in order to provide the learners with the best opportunities for learning. Thus, my research questions are as follows:

- What views of and approaches to grammar lies behind the design of grammar exercises in Norwegian textbooks?
- To what extent do the exercises meet principles of communicative and cognitive learning theory?

In connection with these research questions I will investigate the following hypotheses:

- Traditional approaches, methods and views of grammar are still strong within grammar exercise design in Norwegian textbooks.
- There is little evidence of communicative and cognitive theory in the design of grammar exercises.

1.5 Criteria and framework

For the purpose of the analysis, it is important to have well defined categories and criteria for analyzing grammar exercises. This will help systematize the analysis and consequently improve the quality and validity of the results and conclusions. The categories and criteria I decided upon to conduct in-depth qualitative investigations of grammar exercises are the *grammatical objective*, the *learning aim*, and the *cognitive stage* (Newby 2013; 2014) the individual exercise covers. Following the evaluation of the three categories, the exercises will be examined according to certain "pedagogical principles" deriving from cognitive psychology. The criteria for this purpose are: *formative/ summative*, *commitment filter*, *depth of processing*, and *peer learning*. Then the exercise will be analyzed through linguistic perspectives, referred to as the communicative criteria: *interaction*, *authenticity of process*, *task-based*, *contextualization*, *complex encoding*, and *personalization*. All the criteria used for the analysis are taken from Newby (2013a; 2014).

1.6 Structure of thesis

In order to define the theory I base my research and analysis on, in chapter two I will begin by presenting the theoretical background of my work. This will include theories on language, language learning and teaching – especially with regard to grammar, and pedagogical approaches to grammar, that is, what these approaches entail and how they have developed through history into what they are today and to the position they have in contemporary understandings and teaching methodologies of grammar. Chapter three will present the

textbooks I have chosen to study, followed by a reflection on textbook analysis and a presentation of the frameworks I have constructed for the purpose of the analysis. The analysis will then be presented in chapter four together with a discussion of the findings. This includes a presentation and discussion of the grammatical objectives, learning aims and cognitive stages found in the textbooks, and individual analyses of each textbook according to the pedagogical and communicative criteria framework. Finally in chapter four I will present and discuss tendencies in the analysis findings. The final and fifth chapter will sum up and present my conclusions, as well as some thoughts on the relevance of my work and suggested further research.

2. Theoretical Background

The teacher's views on language and grammar in relation to teaching and learning will be an important factor in determining the form of the grammar instruction. It is therefore important that the teacher is conscious of her views and has some awareness of certain theoretical areas. Newby (1998) identifies three theoretical areas of grammar which shall steer grammar teaching. He maintains that in order to "apply the most efficient methodology and classroom techniques" (teaching), the teacher must have theories of "what grammar is and how it functions as a communication system" (language) and have an "understanding of learning processes and of the learner's functional and emotional needs" (learning) (ibid: 3). Theories of what grammar is and how it functions will help the teacher formulate teaching objectives and decide how to "present grammar and deal with rules", while an understanding of learning processes and the learner's needs "will determine the form that" the teaching takes (ibid: 3). This need for theory also applies to textbooks, as textbooks in many cases function as a substitute teacher, when teachers base their grammar teaching on how it is presented in the textbook. The theoretical areas mentioned by Newby thus present the core of the theoretical foundation of my thesis.

2.1 What is grammar?

Finding definitions of grammar is a difficult venture. Many books that teach grammar and even books that discuss theory on grammar do not present any explanation of how they define the concept (e.g. Swan 2005, in Newby in preparation: ch. 5). Among the few definitions that are to be found, the majority concern formal aspects of grammar, such as Batstone's definition in *Grammar* (1994: 4):

> At its heart, then, grammar consists of two fundamental ingredients - syntax and morphology - and together they help us to identify grammatical forms which serve to enhance and sharpen the expression of meaning.

As Batstones's definitions exemplifies, formal definitions of grammar only refer to grammar as a product (such as morphology and syntax). The semantics of grammar (the meanings that are encoded into forms) and its functional aspects (how grammar is used as a means in communication) are not taken into consideration. This is the basis for a theoretical distinction between analytical approaches to grammar, referred to as *formal* and *functional* grammar. Larsen-Freeman describes formal grammars as taking as "their starting point the form or structure of language, with little or no attention given to meaning (semantics) or context and language use (pragmatics)" and functional grammars as conceiving language "as largely

social interaction, seeking to explain why one linguistic form is more appropriate than another in satisfying a particular communicative purpose in a particular context. (2001: 34)" She also mentions *meaning* as central to functional grammarians, given that "grammar is a resource for making and exchanging meaning. (ibid: 36)". By ignoring the semantic and functional aspects of grammar, formal definitions such as Batstone's seem to define grammar exclusively from an external point of view, and as a consequence fall into what Newby calls the analysis fallacy, where "grammar is seen as a product to be analysed, rather than a system to be used. (in preparation: ch. 5)" The traditional way of teaching grammar, based on formal definitions, derives from analysis perspectives on grammar. That is, the belief that grammar is the *study* of language, which tends to take language out of context and operate at a sentence level (Newby, personal communication: 30.01.2015).

An interesting matter, which Newby points out, is that many books that explicitly claim to focus on *semantic* aspects of grammar suggest *formal* definitions of the concept. For example, Jackson's definition in *Grammar and Meaning*, "We refer to the structural or organising principles of language as grammar (1990: 3)" and Lock's definition in *Functional English Grammar* "Grammar includes two aspects: (1) the arrangement of words and (2) the internal structure of words (1996: 4)" (Newby in preparation: ch. 5). Despite the stated perspectives of the books, both of their definitions of grammar are clearly formal, without reference to either the semantics or the functional aspects of grammar.

The reason why formal definitions have such a strong hold on how people think of grammar may, at least partly, be ascribed to the traditions of grammar writing that described the classical languages, especially Latin (Aarts 2011). Aarts mentions that how we categorize grammar in English (and other languages) have been, and usually still is, based on how Latin grammar was categorized. Hinkel and Fotos (2002) claim that it turned out that these grammatical divisions proved less effective for analyzing living languages with the purposes of producing grammatical function. Even when grammarians of English increasingly found discrepancies between the Latin grammar categories and forms and structures in the English language, they continued to use the Latin categories and made up for the disparity simply by introducing new categories to the traditional system. An example of this is the English word *the*, which does not have a corresponding word class in Latin. This was solved by naming a new category, *determinatives* (Aarts 2011: 3). The development of methods for teaching Latin grammar may also be mentioned as a highly influential factor for popular ideas of what grammar is. Latin was taught with a strong emphasis on learning grammatical rules and translating texts (Ur 2012: 83). Even after it ceased to exist as a living language, Latin

continued to be a part of education meant to stimulate and develop the mind. Due to the prestigious position the language held in educated circles, the methods used for teaching Latin were adopted by the teaching of other foreign languages (Simensen 2007: 24). This has had a strong influence on how grammar is usually understood and thus how it should be taught. For instance, the custom to divide grammar into nouns, pronouns, verbs, adverbs, prepositions, articles and participles, and conjunctions and teach sets of rules concerning each of these was originally a part of the Latin approach to grammar, which was then adopted by the teaching of other languages (Hinkel and Fotos 2002: 1). Despite this, the Latin approach to teaching grammar and its accompanying *formal* view on grammar has remained the primary method for teaching English as a foreign language in many classrooms till this day. (ibid: 2).

Another way to define grammar is from the perspective of the language *user*, which sees grammar as part of communication. User-perspectives on grammar entail that definitions include the semantic and functional aspects of what grammar is. This requires grammarians to attempt to explain why speakers make certain choices in context. Newby argues that it is important to make the distinction between analyst- and user-perspectives, because pedagogical grammarians occasionally mix them up (ibid). The implication of applying analyst perspectives in grammar instruction may be that the learners are asked to perform tasks that do not relate to real language use: "For example, exercises requiring pupils to change an active into a passive sentence arises from the fact that grammarians have noticed a difference between these structures and have a quasi-mathematical formula for changing one into the other. But in actual language use, speakers never change an active into a passive. (ibid)"

User-perspectives began to appear in the 1960s and 1970s, especially in functional theories of language (e.g. Hymes 1972; Halliday 1978), and have been further developed within cognitive linguistic theory. Cognitive linguistic theory concerns itself with the cognitive/ psychological aspects of language, that is, *what* and *how* we perceive rather than confining itself to the linguistic product of our perceptions. From this point of view grammar may be regarded as processes which occur in the minds of users and result in encoding ideas into language. Newby explains that instead of taking an observer's perspective, which explains language "from-the-outside-looking-in", user-perspectives try to explain language from the speaker's viewpoint, "from-the-inside-looking-out" (in preparation: ch. 5). User-perspectives may be applied to both language analysis and language teaching. Newby argues that the grammarian should take a user-perspective on grammar for two reasons:

> The first is linguistic: that this is the only way to understand how grammar actually works and therefore to explain grammatical meaning accurately and coherently; the second is pedagogical: that this user-based perspective will help the learner not just to understand grammar in an external way, but to use it too. (ibid).

The second reason Newby mentions here refers to the relation between how grammar is defined by grammarians and how grammar is presented to learners of the language. It is important for teachers to be aware of this distinction between the perspectives because it has implications for how grammar is taught in class. Newby quotes Achard's statement that "[g]rammatical rules traditionally given in the language class are considered the property of the system, and not a result of the speaker's choice. (Achard 2004: 185 in Newby in preparation: ch. 5)" Grammar analysis based on user-perspectives, on the other hand, will result in rules that Newby argues: "[...] will not merely explain elements of a sentence, but will attempt to account for the speakers' perceptions of situations and the ongoing choices that they make when producing meaningful utterances. (in preparation: ch. 5)" In other words, if grammar is analyzed and taught through a user-perspective, the learning process will include both cognitive processes that occur in natural speech and factors that determine it such as speech context.

Adopting a user-based perspective on grammar does not mean that one has to abandon the idea of grammatical forms. Ur (2012) exemplifies this when she distinguishes between what she terms *focus on form* and *focus on forms*. The first "means paying temporary attention to a grammatical feature in the course of work on a communicative task (2012: 87)", while the latter refers to "the traditional systematic teaching of grammatical structures according to a predetermined grammatical syllabus. (ibid)" In other words, *focus on forms* is the traditional way of understanding and teaching grammar, while *focus on form* implies that form may be a part of grammar teaching even though one applies a communicative teaching strategy, and thus has one's main focus on grammatical meaning, not the linguistic form it embodies.

Grammatical meanings and their linguistic form are separate categories, but nevertheless part of a unified relation that the students of a language must learn to acquire. From this point of view, definitions of grammar may be perceived to form a continuum between form-focused analyst perspectives and meaning-focused user perspectives. Theorists may combine different elements of each to accommodate their focus, needs, and personal opinions on grammar as a concept. In the handbook "Grammar Practice Activities" Penny Ur (2009) combines an analytic and a user perspective on grammar:

> 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. (Ur 2009: 3)

In this definition she captures both the linguistic and cognitive essences of the concept, by referring both to how grammar is realized in language use and to the meaning aspects of grammar. One major flaw in this definition, though, as Newby points out, is that "language does not manipulate anything – it is people who combine words. (in preparation: ch. 5)" Ur's definition may include the meaning aspect of grammar but ignores the functional aspects of it by looking at it as detached from speaker and situation.

From a cognitive and communicative perspective Newby (in preparation: ch. 5) suggests a definition of grammar that combines semantic, formal and functional aspects of grammar:

> **Grammar is:**
>
> a) the knowledge of a system of **concepts** (i.e. **notions**) stored in the mind of speakers of a given speech community through which they express *how* they perceive lexical items
> → **semantic competence**
> b) the knowledge of the shared system for **forming** the words and morphemes which realise these concepts and for **patterning** them in ways which show their relation to each other
> → **formal competence**
> c) the **process** by which speakers apply this knowledge in actual situations to **encode** their perceptions into grammatical form
> → **performance**
>
> Grammar is the process by which speakers express concepts which show how they perceive entities, actions and properties, and the relations between them, and encode these perceptions into meaningful grammatical form.

In addition to include all three aspects of grammar, Newby's definition also categorizes these aspects according to the pedagogical terms *competence* and *performance* (see 2.2 Learning grammar), which emphasizes the user-perspective at the base of his definition. Grammar is seen as knowledge the speaker holds of meanings and how to express these in the language, as well as the speaker's ability to process and produce this knowledge in speech.

Newby's definition touches upon a major issue in user-based grammar definitions: what, specifically, is *grammatical meaning*? Both lexicon and grammar express meanings, but not meanings of the same kind. Lexical meaning seems fairly easy to define, but the conceptual meaning of grammar poses a problem for theorists. Newby (personal correspondence: 11.04. 2014) observes that pedagogical grammarians avoid the issue, and linguists have tended to provide inadequate and too vague definitions of grammatical meaning. As grammatical meaning is something constructed in the mind, answers may be sought within Cognitive Linguistics. One of the key claims of Cognitive Linguistics,

according to Littlemore (2009: 1), is that "language is inherently meaningful although grammatical meanings are more abstract than lexical meanings." *More abstract* is a very vague description. Grammatical meanings need to be defined more exactly if we are to understand what we are dealing with. In the definition given here, Newby attempts to give a more specific description of grammatical meaning by stating that grammar is used to "express how we perceive lexical items."

As demonstrated, grammar as a concept may be described in terms of *form/ structure*, *function* and *meaning*. It is important to note that there is nothing inherently wrong about the basis of any of these definitions, but *how* and *when* the differing definitions are used is a matter of significance. What definition of grammar is used is highly relevant with regard to the purpose one has for working with grammar. For instance, if the purpose has to do with teaching grammar those in favour of a communicative-based language perspective will claim a *meaning-focused* perspective is the best starting point for effective pedagogy.

2.2 Learning grammar

> Broadly speaking, **learning** is what happens when experience causes a relatively permanent change in an individual's knowledge or behaviour. The change may be intended or not, for the better or worse, right or wrong, and conscious or unconscious. In order to qualify as learning the change must be the result of experience – of a person's interaction with the environments. (Woolfolk 2004: 128. *My translation*)

As an aspect of language use, and consequently language learning, grammar may be regarded as a skill. Grammar as a skill implies that the language user has the required knowledge of grammatical options to express what she intends in the most appropriate way and has the ability to produce it in language. These features of grammatical skill are usually referred to as *competence* and *performance* respectively. Newby explains the term *competence* as "what is in the head" and *performance* as "what comes out of the mouth in real interaction", or more specifically:

> Competence refers to a speaker's knowledge of the forms and meanings that exist in (English) grammar and a theoretical knowledge of how to use them. [...] Performance on the other hand refers to the ability to use grammar correctly and appropriately in real-life situations when the learner is exposed to all the psychological and physical pressures that accompany language use. (Newby 1998: 8)

Competence may refer to the underlying grammatical system, while performance refers to "what speakers say or understand someone else to say (Larsen-Freeman 2001: 35)". Grammatical performance may also be defined as "the process of utilising language knowledge in an actual context in order to encode a meaningful message (Newby 2006: 100)", which underlines the communicative aspect of grammar use. Other definitions of grammatical competence may include knowledge of rules and emphasize the knowledge as

'underlying' (ibid: 100), which implies that the language user does not have to be conscious about the specific grammatical competences she possesses.

Competence may include both implicit and explicit knowledge. According to Simensen (1995: 17), explicit knowledge refers to *conscious knowledge* about formal aspects of the language. This kind of knowledge enables one to describe and classify it, which she explains as a reason for why explicit knowledge of grammar often is developed along with a meta-language. Explicit knowledge may refer both to meta-language knowledge of grammar, but also general consciousness or awareness of how particular features of grammar function (ibid: 17). Implicit knowledge is described by Simensen as an *intuitive knowledge*, the kind of knowledge that makes the language user able to understand and produce new sentences without conscious effort or attention to the language. This knowledge cannot in principle be described or classified by the person who holds the knowledge. A common conception is that explicit knowledge may become implicit through practice, and thus serve as a short-cut to fluency in the language (ibid: 18). Native speakers mainly have implicit knowledge, and this is the knowledge that several of the different teaching methodologies the last decades have focused on acquiring, either directly, or indirectly through automatization processes of explicit knowledge (ibid: 18-19, 22).

Another set of terms often used in relation to competence and performance is *declarative knowledge* and *procedural knowledge*. Anderson (1990: 219) states that declarative knowledge concerns facts and things, while procedural knowledge concerns how to perform various cognitive activities. The terms thus represent different types of competences, at the same time as *procedural knowledge* also refers to the specific competences necessary for performance. According to Simensen, the main distinction between these two forms of knowledge has to do with the degree of control the language user needs to perform when using different knowledge (1995: 18). Declarative knowledge requires various degrees of conscious mental effort, while procedural knowledge may be used without any conscious effort or control, thus automatically. From this point of view procedural knowledge is a type of implicit knowledge. Newby (2006) emphasizes the importance the declarative-procedural knowledge distinction has for language teaching. He claims that "it provides a knowledge-based distinction between competence and performance and in turn supports a rationale of specifying the aims of learning grammar in terms of performance, rather than mere competence. (ibid: 99)" This, he suggests, is an essential basis for the skill based approach of communicative language teaching.

An important part of language learning is to acquire and develop grammatical skills in the target language. Krashen (1982) suggested that there is a difference between acquisition and learning. This division builds on the concepts of implicit and explicit knowledge. Acquisition is an unconscious process that leads to implicit knowledge, i.e. the ideal of having native speaker competence and performance. Learning, on the other hand, is a conscious process that will lead to explicit knowledge, though it has been argued that this explicit knowledge may become implicit through automatization processes, for instance through extensive practice (Simensen 1995: 18).

The focus on acquiring language as opposed to learning it through explicit methods has its basis in theories that compare second language acquisition (L2A) to first language acquisition (L1A) (Mitchell & Myles 1998: 61). No one goes to school in order to *learn* their L1, and several theorists have modelled ideals for L2 acquisition in a similar fashion. A much discussed theory is the L1=L2 hypothesis, which asserts that L2A corresponds to a large extent to L1A. Newby claims that the theorists who stress the similarities between L1 and L2 acquisition processes are of the opinion that "conscious knowledge of rules and explicit teaching of grammar contradicts natural acquisition processes and are of little use. (2006: 98)". This view implies that explicit knowledge of grammar and explicit teaching methods should be avoided. Ellis (1985) suggests that there is a strong and a weak version of the hypothesis. The strong version claims complete similarity between the acquisition processes, while the weak holds that there are certain similarities, but that there are also some differences due to different contexts of learning. For instance, that an L2 learner has learnt and knows a language previous to his L2 and this knowledge will to some extent affect the learning processes of the L2 through transfer, restructuring, and other cognitive processes at work in the intersection of two or more languages in one language user. The weak version is probably the most recognized in modern theories, and this is reflected in how grammar is popularly taught in foreign language classrooms, as well as presented in textbooks.

2.2.1 What motivates learning?

Motivation is what engages a person to go to certain lengths with the purpose of achieving something. It may establish itself for different reasons, which theorists discuss in terms of two main types of motivation: *inner intrinsic* and *outer extrinsic motivation*. Inner intrinsic motivation is "the natural tendency to seek and overcome challenges when we pursue personal interests and develop our skills", while outer extrinsic motivation is "created by external factors such as rewards or punishment. (Woolfolk 2004: 275. *My translation*)". I will

focus on inner intrinsic motivation, more specifically in terms of *interests*, as this is the type relevant for the analysis of grammar exercises.

Interests may be divided into the subcategories *personal interests* and *situational interest*. Personal interests are more or less permanent aspects of a person, while situational interest is temporary and may be invoked by elements of an exercise or activity that catches the learner's attention (Woolfolk 2004: 287. *My translation*). For example, motivation through personal interests may be achieved in exercises that allow the learner to express personal ideas, e.g. a grammar exercise which requires the learner to use verb tenses that express future in order to talk about her plans for the summer holiday. Motivation through situational interest may be achieved in exercises that inspire curiosity. Curiosity may be aroused if the learner is made aware of gaps in her knowledge structure. George Loewenstein claims that "[s]uch information gaps produce the feeling of deprivation labeled *curiosity*. The curious individual is motivated to obtain the missing information to reduce or eliminate the feeling of deprivation (1994: 87)". Examples of exercise types that make the learner aware of gaps in her knowledge structure and as a result inspire situational interest through curiosity are problem-solving exercises and awareness-raising exercises.

The advantage of exercises that inspire the learner's motivation, whether it is through personal or situational interests, is that the motivated learner is likely to put more effort into solving the exercise and as a result have a better chance at acquiring the new information – as Woolfolk puts it: "the more interest, the deeper processing and memory storage of the contents. (ibid: 287-9. *My translation*)"

2.3 Teaching grammar

Quite a few different approaches to teaching grammar have been implemented, especially during the last five decades. Starting with the Latin inspired approaches that emphasized memorizing rules, popularly referred to as the Grammar-Translation method, theories in language research have lead to what is sometimes referred to as pendulum swings in foreign language teaching methodologies (Simensen 1995). Some of these are the Natural Approach inspired by Krashen, the Audio-Lingual Method, and Communicative Language Teaching.

The Natural Approach and the Audio-Lingual Method had in common a focus on *acquisition* rather than *learning*, and thus emphasized implicit knowledge as opposed to explicit knowledge. *Implicit teaching* refers to a way of facilitating learning without making grammar explicit and pointing out specific rules. This can be accomplished for instance

through massive input, and is prominent in methodologies such as the Natural Approach and the Audio-Lingual Method. *Explicit teaching* is the opposite, and refers to a form of teaching where grammatical aspects of the language are pointed out to the pupils. This is what the so-called grammar-translation methodology based itself on. In a study of six contemporary grammar practice books, Ellis (2002: 160) found that explicit description and controlled production were predominant features of those investigated. He concludes his findings with: "Grammar teaching is still characterized as (1) explaining/ describing grammar points and (2) providing opportunities for controlled production practice."

Two well-known forms of explicit teaching are called *deductive* and *inductive* teaching methods. Deductive teaching methods represent a way of presenting a rule, which the pupils then practice through facilitative exercises that finally are supposed to make the pupils able to use the rule correctly in their language production. This method is a much used teaching principle, often referred to as 'Present-Practice-Produce' (PPP) (e.g. Larsen-Freeman 2001: 39). It is teacher-centred, as the teacher has a significant role in presenting the rule and correct mistakes, and this makes the deductive method a time-efficient way for the teacher to cover specific rules and have an overview of which rules are covered. Critics of deductive methods have pointed out among other things that language learning should be learner-centred, that they focus too much on the 'correctness' of language output, and that they are too rule-focused (Ellis 2002 (H&F): 165). Inductive methods allow the pupils to discover rules, or regularities, in the language by themselves, before they practice using the rules. This makes inductive methods more learner-centred. The discovery process may be facilitated by fellow pupils and the teacher, which allows for interaction as a part of the learning process.

Learner-centred teaching methodologies have been fronted as the better version as opposed to teacher-centred methodologies (e.g. Woolfolk 2004: 207). However, Newby (2014) argues that instead of seeing 'learner-centred' and 'teacher-centred' as being in opposition to each other, we should instead discuss the issues using the terms *teacher perspective* and *learner perspective* as these terms emphasizes the teacher and learner's complementary relationship as partners in the pupil's learning situation (Newby 2014: 2). He illustrates the possible differences in perspectives using the following table:

Table 1: Teacher's and learner's perspectives (Newby 2014: 4)

Category	Teacher perspective		Learner perspective
Overall aims	cover curriculum, get through school textbook		what will I need to be able to do in real life?
Grammatical objectives	input: what I am teaching in this lesson/unit		outcome: what am I able to do after this lesson/unit
Needs	grammar should be easy to teach and test		cognitive and affective needs should be met
Methodology	teaching methods	+	learning processes and strategies
Learning aims	why am I giving this exercise?		what contribution will this exercise make to my learning?
In class	instruction		reflection + action
Rules	explanation		discovery, learning by using
Interaction	teacher - student		student - student
Assessment	tests, examinations		self-assessment

Newby stresses that the teacher must be able to take both of these perspectives, and that "the teacher's perspective must be filtered through *that of the learner*. (ibid: 2)" This relates to the construction of grammar exercises as "[i]n designing pedagogical activities we, as teachers, are looking to **harmonise** these two perspectives. (ibid: 2)" Additionally, as table 1 shows, by applying learner's perspectives in their teaching, teachers may facilitate the learning processes in accordance with pedagogical and language learning principles.

2.3.1 Pedagogical grammar

De Knop and De Rycker (2008: 1) states that pedagogical grammar may refer to either processes such as research into grammar pedagogy, or the outcome of that research. The outcome concerns specific measures constructed to facilitate learning of a particular target language, adapted to the age and proficiency level of the learners. Newby, on the other hand, defines pedagogical grammar as grammar developed for learners of a second language (2000: 1), or more specifically as "measures taken by teachers, learners, materials designers, grammarians etc. to facilitate the development of grammatical competence and the skill of using grammar. (Newby 2008: 2)" That is, reference books of grammar, ways of teaching, etc.

Newby states that there are two theoretical areas that comprise pedagogical grammar – description and methodology. While *description* has to do with how grammar is presented, *methodology* concerns how grammar is taught, and includes among other things teaching aims, categorization of grammar, degree of integration/ separation from other aspects of language, the use of rules, exercise types for automatization (Newby 2013b: 1). The description of grammar may vary according to which purpose it is meant for. For instance, the *description* of grammar will be different for linguistic grammars directed at students of linguistics and for pedagogical grammars directed at learners of a foreign language. Newby (2008: 3) emphasizes that a theoretical model of both language and of learning is a prerequisite for describing grammar and devising methodology. Examples of such models could be communicative language theories and cognitive learning theories (these theories will be discussed in sections 2.5 and 2.6 respectively).

2.4 Grammatical objectives

Grammatical objectives describe which specific aspects of grammar are focused upon in exercises, and may be specified in different ways, depending on which view on grammar the objectives arise from. Traditionally, grammatical objectives have been defined in terms of grammatical *forms* and *structures*, such as verb tenses, articles, word order, etc. (see 2.1 What is grammar). Another way to define grammatical objectives is grammatical *meanings*. Grammatical meaning may be divided into two categories: *notions* and *functions* (Newby in preparation: ch. 2). Notions refer to the semantic meanings of grammar, while functions refer to pragmatic meanings expressed through grammar. In brief, these two terms may be described to categorize "*what* people can talk about in general" (notions) and "*why* they say things in a particular context" (functions) (ibid). Both terms will be defined more specifically in chapter 3.

Most textbooks base themselves on traditional grammar descriptions and use the formal objectives, termed and categorized as various word classes, clause structures, etc (e.g. Bromseth and Wigdahl 2007; Fenner and Nordal-Pedersen 2008; Heger and Wroldsen 2014). Newby (2014) proposes a different design, where the grammatical objectives are specified in terms of grammatical notions. This design is based on a communicative view on language and communicative and cognitive principles of language learning (see 2.5. The Communicative Approach and 2.6 Cognitive Learning Theories), i.e. the principles 'Language is a system for the expression of meaning, and 'The structure of language reflects its functional and

communicative uses' (Newby 2014: 5). Notional objectives is a better way to present grammar, he argues, because "grammar does not consist of a set of forms which can express certain meanings, [...] but it is a **set of meanings encoded** into forms. (ibid: 5)" The following table illustrates notions, how they may be expressed, and their equivalent formal categories:

Table 2: Present perfect notions (adaptation of table in Newby 2014: 5)

Notion	Expression	Formal category
[Experience]	I'**ve** never **been** to England.	Present perfect
[Changes/completion]	You'**ve had** a haircut!	Present perfect
[Duration - state]	I'**ve been** here since yesterday.	Present perfect
[Duration – activity]	They'**ve been playing** tennis for an hour.	Present perfect progressive
[Recentness – state]	I'**ve been** on holiday.	Present perfect
[Recentness – event]	I'**ve** just **seen** a car accident.	Present perfect
[Recentness – activity]	I'**ve been watching** television.	Present perfect progressive

This table presents examples of only two formal categories but all seven represent different notional categories! Is it logical to teach one form that may express several meanings, or would it perhaps be better to teach how to express a specific meaning and the form that serves to express this meaning?

Another of the arguments Newby (2014) puts forward in favour of a notional approach to grammar is that it makes it easier for the teacher to teach systematically and coherently as she can choose the notions that fulfils the learner's communicative needs. As table 2 illustrates, one form may express several meanings. By defining individual meanings and presenting them one at a time the objective of the lesson will be clear to both teacher and learner. This gives the teacher the possibility to decide which meanings to teach and when to introduce each meaning, as well as an overview of which exact meanings of a form have been covered (Newby 1998: 7). An additional benefit is that a notional approach serves to avoid the danger that the learner might confuse the different meanings of a form (ibid: 7).

Newby further argues that a notional approach to grammar "follows the 'meaning →
form' direction of the encoding process [...] (2014: 5)". This is helpful for two reasons: one is
that the learning resembles the cognitive processes of language production, i.e. from notion to
form, instead of reversing them, as teaching through formal categories does, and the second is
that

> notions can be specified as competences or skills by means of the kind of '*I can*' descriptors found in
> the *Common European Framework of Reference*, and can be used by learners for self-assessment:
>
> ✓ *I can talk about my experiences using the present perfect.*
> ✓ *I can express an intention using 'going to'.*
> ✓ *I can make predictions about the future using 'will'* etc. (Newby 2014: 5)

Newby lists various advantages of taking a notional approach to grammar (1998: 7-8):
it allows us to...

1) teach grammar through meaning categories,

2) make use of functional categories and teach grammar as speech functions, e.g. likes
   and dislikes,

3) use discourse categories and study how some grammatical items co-occur and work
   together,

4) teach grammar by means of 'communicative' activities that reflect how this grammar
   operates in actual use.

Newby also mentions one disadvantage, which I have encountered and still encounters
myself when working with grammar: a notional approach to grammar "requires us to rethink
grammatical categories and to re-orient ourselves towards meaning. (Newby 1998: 8)" The
problem about this is that it confronts us with a grammatical system that contradicts the
traditional form-focused system which represents "what at first sight we might believe to
represent the 'logic' of grammar. (ibid: 8)" In order to get past the "mighty weight of tradition"
Newby suggests that we need "a certain flexibility as well as willingness to question the dogma
of traditional grammar. (ibid: 8)"

2.5 The Communicative approach

Most teachers associate the label 'communicative' with methodology, according to Newby
(2008: 4). In other words, communicative language teaching concerns how language is
presented in teaching contexts, as well as activities and exercises, mainly where the pupils
have to use the language to communicate with each other in some way. The Communicative

approach arose in the 1970's and brought with it innovations in methodology such as semi-authentic tasks and communication in small groups (Newby 1998: 1). However, there is more to the Communicative approach than methodology: it also provides a theory of language deriving from linguists such as Hymes (1972) and Halliday (1978).

The basis for the Communicative approach is a view of language as a means for communication. This places a stress on the importance of meaning, contextual appropriateness and authenticity of the situation and language production. A consequence of this view on language is a theoretical perspective that affects how grammar is defined, how it is categorized and structured. Moreover, grammar is seen as a part of general skill development (Newby 2008) or a communicative competence which includes not only grammatical competences but also lexical, pragmatic competences etc.

Newby (ibid: 1) points out that grammar could have been implemented as a part of communicative language teaching, but unfortunately theorists did not manage to integrate grammar as a part of the Communicative approach. Consequently grammar became a problem area that was either avoided or taught as it had following traditional theories and methodologies. A negative effect of this is that grammar is commonly seen as something apart from communication: "Whilst the communicative approach brought many benefits in the areas of methodology, its failure to integrate grammar in a coherent way led to the widespread but quite false 'grammar vs communication' dichotomy. (Newby 2008: 2)"

Nevertheless, certain aspects of a communicative approach to grammar have influenced modern language teaching to some extent. One example of such an influence can be seen in the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge of grammar, in other words between "knowing about" and "knowing how" (Newby 2008: 2). In learning contexts this distinction has resulted in a shift from *analysis* of grammar to *use* of grammar. Newby (1998: 3-4) describes the changes that have taken place in descriptions of grammar by comparing traditional views on grammar and how these have affected the structures of grammar teaching with the correlating effects of communicative approaches to grammar:

> Traditional grammatical descriptions began by setting up form categories, only then looking at meaning; as a result, syllabuses were defined, and teaching materials organised, according to forms (present progressive, definite article, gerund etc.). 'Grammatical competence' was seen largely as the ability to master forms and recognize meanings, usually without much consideration of context, the role of the speaker etc.
>
> In the communicative approach, however, it was recognized that the forms of grammar represent the final stage of an interaction process, in which speakers communicate messages to other human beings in a context. It therefore seemed logical to begin at the beginning of this process and to attempt to define grammar in terms of context and meanings. This entailed taking a much broader view of grammar and attempting to relate grammar to other elements of the communication model such as context, speaker's purpose etc.

As a result of a more communicative orientation, Newby comments, the characterization of grammar as a skill was emphasized and objectives in syllabuses and course books tended to be redefined in terms more closely linked to meaning categories (ibid: 4). Developments in Norway's English Subject Curriculum may exemplify the emerging emphasis on grammar as a skill. A previous reform, the *L97* published in 1997, did not mention grammar in relation to communicative competences and meaning categories. The only explicit reference to grammar describes the objectives as follows:

> *During the training the pupils are supposed to*
> - learn about different types of sentence structures, clauses, word classes, their conjugation and function in the language, linguistic devices and become familiar with different variants of the English language. (Nasjonalbiblioteket 1996: 232book/ 238net. *My translation)*

This presents a clearly form-focused view on grammar with little or no focus on the meaning aspects and communicative aspect of grammatical competence. The currently used version from 2006, *Kunnskapsløftet*, on the other hand, shows traces of a communicative focus by incorporating grammar as a part of general communicative competence:

> Good communication requires knowledge and skills in using vocabulary and idiomatic structures, pronunciation, intonation, spelling, grammar and syntax of sentences and texts. (Utdanningsdirektoratet 2013)

As the examples show, the distinction between declarative and procedural knowledge of grammar proposed by the Communicative approach seems to have had an effect, if small, on the views on grammar in Norway's English Subject Curriculum. It has to be said, however, the Subject Curriculum hardly mentions grammar, and apart from the small tendencies of viewing grammar as a skill, it shows a formal – uncommunicative – perspective on this aspect of the language learning! Grammar is not defined in meaning categories, but seen in relation to sentence structure, as in "grammar and syntax of sentences and texts".

With regard to grammar teaching, the Communicative approach is a theoretical foundation with the over-all aim to "develop the learner's *communicative competence* (Skulstad 2009: 257)". Accordingly, the focus of communicative language teaching is on the speaker, her message and the context of the message and utterance, and on communicative competence and performance as the ultimate goal. Because of its emphasis on the communicative aspect and the message-exchanging purpose of language, communicative language teaching focuses less on errors in the assessment of learning than earlier approaches related to the grammar-translation methodologies tended to. This involves a shift of aim from formal correctness to communicative effectiveness (Newby 2008: 2), which entails that the

purpose of learning language resembles the purpose of using language, namely to be able to convey messages to a recipient.

As far as learning theory is concerned, there is little learning theory to find within this approach. Whereas in traditional approaches *use* of the language is the aim of learning, in communicative language teaching, language use is both *aim* and *means* for learning (Newby in preparation: ch. 2). It therefore adopts a predominantly 'learning by using' view, which is more relevant to skill development but is insufficient for learning grammar. Consequently, it needs to be supplemented by more substantial theories of learning (Newby in preparation: ch. 2), such as cognitive learning theory.

2.6 Cognitive learning theories

Cognitive may be defined as "the storage and processing of concepts, knowledge and information within the human mind [...] (Newby 2008: 6)". In order to fully understand what learning is, we need to have an idea of *how* we learn. A change in a person's knowledge requires that new information is acquired, processed and stored in the person's memory. These all concern mental activities, collectively known as *information processing* (Woolfolk 2004: 167), thus the natural source to look for an explanation is within cognitive learning theories and research.

2.6.1 Information processing – memory and methods

To begin with the last part of these processes, storage of new knowledge is realized in different ways depending on how the knowledge is focused upon and what purpose we have for acquiring the knowledge. Theorists classify knowledge storage strategies in categories usually known as *sensory memory*, *working memory*, *short-term memory*, and *long-term memory* (Woolfolk 2004). The sensory memory stores large amounts of information from the person's overall sensory experience, such as visual and auditory impressions, for a short time. This information storage does not require any specific focus. The working memory, on the other hand, may be defined as "the information you focus upon at a particular moment (ibid: 171. *My translation*). The storage of this information is initially short, between 5 to 20 seconds (ibid: 173). Since it concerns information that is focused upon, methods may be used to repeat and process it, which may serve to move the information from the short-term memory to the long-term memory. This property is what makes Woolfolk (ibid) describe the working memory as the "workbench" of our memory. The purpose of learning is to process information so that it enters into long-term memory, which is a relatively permanent storage

of knowledge. Theorists separate long-term memory into two categories of memories, *implicit memories* and *explicit memories* (c.f. 2.2 Learning Grammar). Explicit memory is knowledge that we are conscious of and may recall by will. Implicit memory is knowledge that we recall without being aware of it, and which unintentionally affects our behaviour and thoughts. (Woolfolk 2004: 175).

Saving and recollecting information from long-term memory depends largely on which strategies we use to process it. Woolfolk (2004) mentions three methods that may be used: *processing*, *organizing*, and *context*. *Processing* refers to the usually conscious strategies of repetition and elaboration. Repetition drills are much used strategies which make the new information stick a little longer, such as when you say a phone number over and over again to yourself in order to remember it long enough to enter it on your phone. Elaboration is the strategy of associating the new knowledge with something you already know, in other words integrate new information with knowledge that is already stored in the long-term memory. Relating it to previous knowledge will ensure that the new information makes more sense, and depending on how strong the information unit is associated with other units, the more paths you may be able to follow in order to get to the information you are searching for in your memory (ibid: 180). Consequently, the degree, or depth, of processing will determine whether the particular information unit is stored in the long-term memory and how accessible it will be when the learner needs to apply the knowledge. *Organizing* refers to an ordered and logical network of relations between knowledge units. Woolkfolk (ibid: 181) points out that well structured knowledge is easier to learn and remember than fractured pieces of information, especially if the information is complex or substantial. The structure serves as a guide to the information when you need it. *Context* is important because the physical and emotional frame – places, space, mood, who we are together with – is remembered together with other information. If you later try to recall this information, it will be easier if the context is similar to the original. It has been demonstrated in the lab that context may actually activate information (ibid: 181).

2.6.2 Constructivism

When our brain process new information it constructs and reconstructs it within a network of relations to information that is previously stored. This is the essential theoretical core behind constructivism, a central view within Cognitive theories on language and learning (Newby in preparation: Ch. 2). Constructivism is a paradigm based on theories of how knowledge is constructed. The basic idea is that people reconcile new information with their previous

experiences and knowledge, the result of which is that we all interpret and understand the world around us in different ways (Fenner 2006). That means that all knowledge is subjective to some extent. Woolfolk (2004: 250. *My translation*) explains that the personal constructivist approach

> [...] sees the human brain as a symbol processing system. This system transforms sensory impressions to symbolic structures (meanings, images or schemas), and next processes these symbolic structures for knowledge to be stored in memory and be recalled. The outside world is regarded as a source of input, but as soon as the sensation proceeds to the working memory, the important work is assumed to take place 'inside the head' of the individual.

Thus, most cognitive theories relate to constructivist theories, one way or another.

The implication a constructivist view has with regard to learning is that learning is seen as a process in which knowledge is constructed differently in the individual learners, even though they are exposed to the same instruction and information (Fenner 2006). Selinker's (1972) interlanguage theory, which suggests that the language learner constructs and reconstructs her own version of the target language continually as she learns more and more about it, is an example of a constructivist perspective on learning.

Because of their emphasis on the individual learner's own knowledge construction, constructivist approaches to learning "emphasize the learners' active role in understanding and making sense out of information. (Woolfolk 2004: 249. *My translation*)" It follows that the learner needs to actively engage her mental resources in order to learn. This means that exercises which require little processing on the part of the learner, such as gap filling exercises, are not likely to facilitate learning well. Discovery exercises, on the other hand, which require the learner to actively use her mental resources in order to solve the exercise, are promoted by constructivist views on learning.

Since constructivist theories base themselves on the idea that individuals construct their own structures continually as they interpret their experiences in different situations (ibid: 249), *personalization* becomes an important principle for learning (Newby in preparation: Ch. 2). This implies that the learner must be allowed to apply her own ideas and previous knowledge as part of the learning process.

2.6.3 Social constructivism

The constructivist theories discussed so far have seen learning from a purely individual perspective. The problem with this is that learning is not isolated from society. Cognition may be something that goes on inside our heads but it is directly related to what goes on *outside* our heads. Through his sociocultural perspective on learning, Vygotsky (1978) emphasizes the effect aspects of our social environment have on our learning. When learning a second

language at school, these environments will mainly be the teacher and fellow students. Vygotsky states that the learners need assistance and guidance in order to discover insights and knowledge, and thus that it is the teacher's task not only to facilitate learning, but to supervise the classroom activity (Woolfolk 2004: 75). This theory on assisted learning has later been named *scaffolding*, and can be realized as "information, hints, reminders and encouragement to the pupils at the right time and to the right extent. (ibid: 74. *My translation*)"

The theory of *scaffolding* relates to another theory introduced by Vygotsky (1978), the *zone of proximal development* (ZPD). He argues that at each stage of its development a learner will encounter some problems that it almost, but not entirely, is able to solve by herself. ZPD is the area in which the learner is unable to solve a problem on her own, but may succeed with the help of the teacher or in collaboration with a more skilled peer. Woolfolk (2004: 76) claims that according to Vygotsky's theory, ZPD is the area in which teaching may be successful, since this is where learning is possible.

Social learning theory emphasizes that people learn through the observation and imitation of others, by being instructed, and through cooperation (Woolfolk 2004: 75). Woolfolk (ibid: 242) claims observation learning can be very effective, and refers to a research project where one group of students observed another group of students' teaching a mathematical topic, while a second group of students observed the teacher's demonstration. The first group showed better results in the topic and also demonstrated more confidence in their learning abilities. According to the theory of ZPD, the student teachers' proximity to the learner group's academic level may explain the results of this research project. The results also emphasize how peer learning may affect the acquisition of new information.

Social constructivist theories support learning through cooperation based on the argument that the learners obtain and internalize the results of the cooperation (Woolfolk 2004: 250). Peer learning, for instance through collaborative problem-solving, provides another benefit of learning through cooperation. In terms of the theory of ZPD, working together with more competent peers may enhance the development of the less competent ones. Such collaboration will also provide the opportunity for peer monitoring. Peer monitoring entails that the learners may comment on and correct each other during the work process. One advantage of peer monitoring rather than teacher monitoring is that it may feel less intimidating for the learner to receive criticism from a peer (Newby 2013a: 7), in addition to the ZPD argument that the peer is more likely to use words and speak in a manner which the learner understands better (not too academic language, as the teacher may use). What the

learner understands will naturally be easier to process and (re-)construct within her own network of knowledge.

2.7 Cognitive linguistics

Cognitive linguistics (CL) is a relatively new discipline which developed from the 1990's within the area of linguistic and psycholinguistic enquiry (Ellis and Robinson 2008: 4), and is "rapidly becoming mainstream and influential, particularly in the area of second language teaching. (Littlemore (2009: 1)" The main issues of CL are language, communication, and cognition (Ellis and Robinson 2008: 4). Like in communicative language theories, the function of language as a means to communicate is stressed. The CL perspective discusses this idea a little further and regards cognition as the basis for the messages we want to communicate, and language as the tool we use in order to achieve this. In addition to this, a central tenet in CL is that language may shape how we perceive the world around us and consequently our cognition, a theory referred to as the *principle of linguistic relativity* or the *Sapir-Whorf hypothesis*. CL perspectives may also take a reverse view of this, as Langacker states: "Language is shaped and constrained by the functions it serves. (Langacker 2013: 7)" Accordingly, CL regards language, communication and cognition as mutually inextricable concepts that participate in each other's creation and existence (Ellis and Robinson 2008: 3).

2.7.1 Cognitive grammar

One of the central areas of CL is named Cognitive Grammar (CG). According to Langacker CG is "a theoretical framework for describing language structure as a product of cognition and social interaction", and its "essential notion is that grammar is meaningful (not an independent formal system) and can only be revealingly characterized in relation to its conceptual import and communicative function (2013: v)" (see Newby's proposed *notional* approach to grammar in 2.4 Grammatical objectives). The main difference between CG and other, especially traditional approaches to grammar, is its view on the *nature* of grammar and its concern with the relation grammar has to other aspects of language (ibid: 5). Langacker (ibid: 5) explains that the most fundamental claim of CG is that grammar is symbolic in nature. In other words, grammar concerns the relation between a meaning and a phonological structure.

In section *2.1 What is grammar*, it was mentioned that cognitive linguistic theory defines grammar from the perspective of the language user, regards it "as it occurs in the minds of the users", and concerns "*what* and *how* we perceive rather than confining itself to

the linguistic expressions of our perceptions." This does not mean that CL disregards linguistic output, such as grammatical forms, entirely, though. Cognitive linguistic theories may be said to focus on the concepts and processes in the mind, but it is the relation between the cognitive processes and the linguistic output that is their main concern. Achard and Niemeier's (2004) claim there are two conceptions which all the various cognitive linguistic theories have in common. These are "the inherent symbolic function of language" and "that the cognitive processes that enable speakers to understand and *produce* language represent the acute specialization of more general cognitive abilities (Achard and Niemeier 2004: 1. *My emphasis*)". Even though CL focuses mainly on the cognitive aspects of language, these cannot be seen and analyzed in isolation from the "actualized outcome" aspects of language.

Much of the CL view on language learning is grounded on usage-based models, which maintain that "[w]e learn language while processing input and *doing* things with words and gesture in socially conventionalized ways (narratives, conversations) to communicate intentions and ideas to others. (Robinson and Ellis 2008: 489)" The consequence of this is that the methodology proposed by CL is built on views which are "primarily concerned with the characterization of language as it is spoken and understood, as well as the dynamics of its use (Achard and Niemeier 2004: 4)". One such aspect of language is its semantics, which is also a central concern of communicative language teaching principles (see 2.5 The Communicative Approach). Achard and Niemeier (2004: 7) comment how this emphasis on semantics may affect the teaching of grammar:

> The recognition of the centrality of meaning to linguistic organization provides pedagogical insights to second language teachers on several levels. First, the symbolic character of a linguistic system, and this the absence of a strict delineation between the lexicon, morphology, and syntax, provides interesting methodological possibilities for grammatical instruction in a second language. In this volume, Archard argues that the symbolic nature of grammatical constructions (and therefore their semantic import) affords a kind of grammatical instruction perfectly congruent with the goals and practices of the communicative models of language instruction.

The relation between CL and communicative learning theory is evident in their common focus on usage-based models. The most interesting thing Achard and Niemeier mentions here are the methodological possibilities this view provides. They point out how there may be different approaches to grammar instruction than the strict classifications and isolated way in which grammar has been taught traditionally (see 2.4 Grammatical objectives). A focus on "the symbolic nature of grammatical constructions" may serve as a different and more authentic approach to language, and specifically *grammar*, learning.

2.8 The Cognitive+Communicative approach

Newby (2014: 2) remarks how both cognitive linguistic theory and general language teaching during the recent decades have developed towards a usage-based, or contextualized, view of language learning. He has woven insights from these two approaches into a theoretical model which he has called Cognitive+Communicative Grammar (ibid: 2). The approach is based on a communicative view on language and a cognitive view on learning, which sees the students as both learners and users of language (Newby 2008: 9). This view, Newby states, recognizes the potential importance of conscious learning, though "criteria must be applied both from a communicative and from a cognitive perspective in order to assess the efficiency of grammar activities. (ibid: 9)" Language use and especially the mental processes related to this are in focus. Newby points out that "the word 'mental processes' figures in both models and represents a core category of any Cognitive analysis. (Newby 2014: 3)" This is evident in the examples Newby presents of language processes: "focusing on and categorising what is perceived; planning an utterance; mapping perceptions onto grammatical forms; retrieving word forms from long-term memory etc.", and his examples of learning processes: "noticing and attending to a new item of grammar; making a generalisation (i.e.) recognising a rule about new grammar; analogy – comparing the new grammar with other L1 or L2 grammar; activating schematic knowledge to make sense of new grammar etc. (ibid: 3)" These examples show how learning and communicating through language is inextricably bound to processes of mental activity. In short, Newby describes the essence of Cognitive+Communicative Grammar (C+C) as follows: "A C+C approach to learning will focus on mental processes that are activated when grammar is learned (Cognitive) and explores how grammar can be developed as a skill (Communicative) by means of pedagogy. (Newby 2013: 1)"

The C+C view entails the following perspectives and theories on language and learning (Newby 2014: 3):

Language:
- 'Grammar is conceptualization' (Croft and Cruse, 2004: 1)
- 'Language is a system for the expression of meaning
- The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
- The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.' (Richards & Rodgers, 2001: 161)
- Grammatical knowledge is embedded in other types of knowledge – schematic, contextual etc.

The essence of these statements is, according to Newby, that grammar primarily must be regarded as a meaning-centred phenomenon, and secondly as a "dynamic, action-oriented

system of use, or act of performance. (ibid: 3)" The C+C perspectives on learning clearly states its usage-based premise:

Learning:
- 'Knowledge of language emerges from language use' (Croft and Cruse, 2004: 1).
- 'Learning is an active and dynamic process in which individuals make use of a variety of information and strategic modes of processing' (O'Malley and Chamot 1990: 217).
- 'Learning a language entails a stagewise progression from initial awareness and active manipulation of information and learning processes to full automaticity in language use' (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990: 217).

Based on these principles, Newby suggests that grammar learning follows a certain set of stages. These he have called awareness-raising, conceptualization, proceduralization, and performance.

Figure 1: A cognitive model of learning stages (Newby 2008: 11)
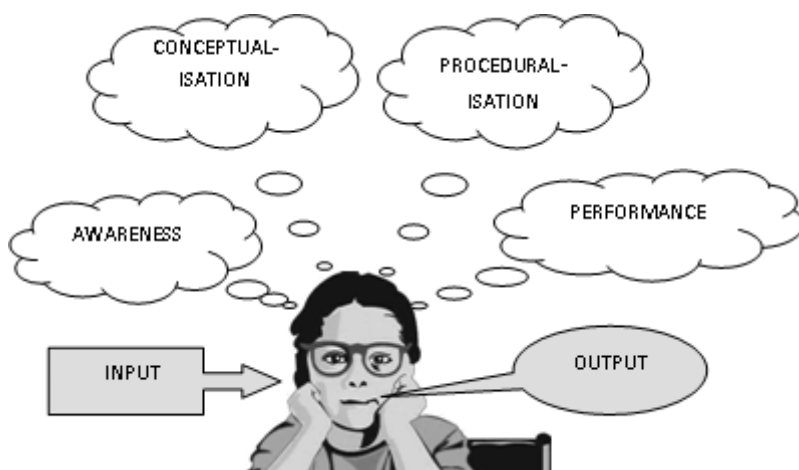
As the figure illustrates, the theory of cognitive learning stages starts out at a point where the learner receives input which serves to make her aware of certain aspects of the language (the awareness-raising stage), then the learner proceeds by gaining insight and understand the concept she has become aware of (the conceptualization stage). When the learner understands it she advances by working on her ability to use it in language production (the proceduralization stage), and finally the knowledge is automatized and the learner is able to use it in her output (the performance stage).

Newby's model bears quite obvious resemblance to more general models of learning stages. Psychologists tend to divide the process of learning an automatized skill into three stages: the cognitive stage, the associative stage and the autonomous stage (Woolfolk 2004: 193) The first refers to when we initially in the learning process support ourselves to declarative knowledge and general problem-solving strategies in order to achieve our goal. At the associative stage the single steps are combined or grouped into larger units. Through

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practice, the associative stage passes to the autonomous stage, where the learner is able to accomplish the whole task without much effort. (ibid: 193). Though Newby's model is specific to *language* learning, the progress from conscious effort to effortless use of the acquired knowledge is the same in both models.

In *Future Perspectives* (2008) Newby elaborates on the elements of his model of the cognitive stages. He defines *input* in broad terms (ibid: 12), and states that it does not only refer to teacher input, but also to learner input; that is to say, the cognitive resources the learner uses to process the input. Another aspect of his definition of the term is that it incorporates the perspective that language is seen as a *process* not only a *product*. With regard to the *awareness stage* Newby puts emphasis on the active engagement of the learner's mental resources. If the learner is shown examples and told about rules that relate to the examples, the information may go 'in-one-ear-and-out-the-other', if the exercise is not designed to make the learner somehow actively process the information adequately (ibid: 12-13). Newby explains that the *conceptualization stage* concerns how the learner internalizes the rules. This requires the learner to process the language input in two ways: first of all the learner needs to understand the overall message, and in addition to this the learner must "build a hypothesis about the nature of a grammatical concept or pattern which has been registered during the awareness stage – a new notion, a new form, a new discourse structure etc. (ibid: 12-13)" Next, when the learner reaches the proceduralization stage, the learner will have internalized the rules, which means that she does not have to retrieve declarative knowledge in order to process language. This results in that the learner's processing of language becomes more efficient and the amount of attention the learner has to employ in the process diminishes (ibid: 14). Finally, when the learner proceeds to the performance stage, she will be able to accomplish tasks that encompass all co-occurring language processes that a speaker has to undergo in spontaneous interaction, without any scaffolding or pedagogical structuring (ibid: 15).

There are a couple of issues with these stages. One is that there is no definite line between them. It may be fruitful to talk about them as areas on a continuum between no knowledge and full mastery of the relevant objectives. Consequently it may be difficult, if not impossible, to measure and isolate which learning stage the learner is at with regard to i.e. a specific grammatical notion. Askeland (2013: 53-4) suggests the use of transitional stages, such as a *conceptualization-proceduralization* stage, in order to increase the accuracy of the analysis. This leads to another issue, which is that in real-life a learner's progress does not necessarily follow these stages in a linear fashion. The process may jump back and forth as

the learner may have proceeded to the proceduralization stage with regard to a grammatical notion, but then becomes aware of a new aspect of how that notion may be used in certain contexts. Newby (in preparation: ch. 11) addresses this issue, and points out that "[l]earning stages are not discrete but are **interconnected**. [...] While the 'left-to-right'' directionality of the cognitive learning stage model reflects the progressive nature of skill development, learning will often proceed in a **cyclical** fashion." As a result of this reasoning, Newby suggests that "[a]ny grammatical syllabus will need to have a **spiral** design, with repeated inputs so that grammar is constantly re-cycled." He proposes the following model to illustrate the cyclical nature of learning:

Figure 2: The cyclical nature of learning stages (Newby in preparation: ch. 11)
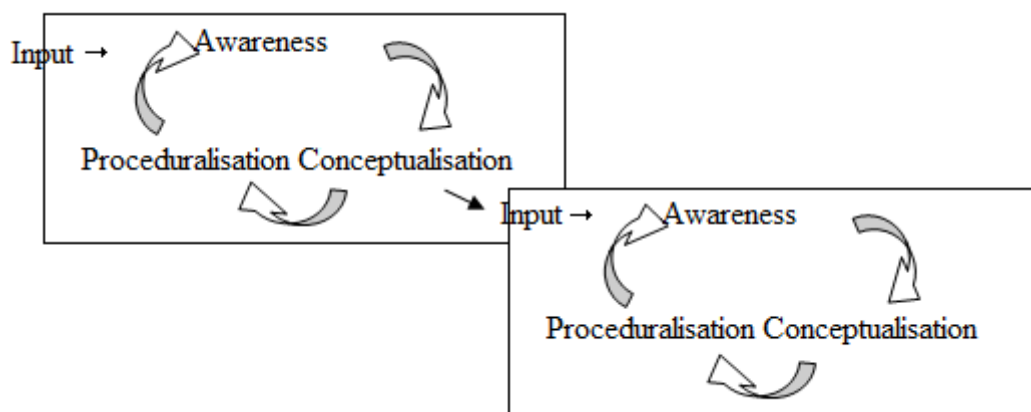
The recognition of the cognitive stages of language learning is important as this will affect teachers' and textbook writers' pedagogical design. Newby (2014: 3-4) expresses the view that increased knowledge about how new information is perceived by the learner, how the learner stores this information in memory and then uses it in performance, may provide "a framework for the design of grammar activities which seek to stimulate and optimise the use of learning processes and the learner's cognitive resources."

2.9 Exercise methodology

2.9.1 Principles

Insights from cognitive learning theory provide some principles for how to organize instruction in order to facilitate the students' learning. Such insights may be valuable in relation to the construction of grammar exercises, especially as teachers do not always think about the quality of the grammar exercise which they give to their students. For example, with

regard to the development of declarative knowledge, one of the principles is to make the topic meaningful to the learners. Another principle is that there ought to be a structure and coherence between elements in the lesson, and the instruction should make use of terms and ideas that are known to the learners (Woolfolk 2004: 189). In addition to this, utilization of new information is considered an effective way to learn (ibid).

For example, one well known principle of language learning is *repetition*. Traditionally, repetition may be associated with *drills*, that is, frequent repetition believed to lead to automatization (Newby 1998: 11). From the perspective of cognitive learning theory, however, many drills do not contribute to very deep processing of knowledge (see 2.6.1 Information processing – memory and methods). Newby (ibid: 11) therefore argues for the use of *communicative drills*:

> Communicative drills are those which entail repetition but include two additional elements: firstly, students practise not just a form but a meaning embedded in a situation; secondly, students make meaningful statements which they relate to their own knowledge or experience.

The advantage of communicative drills as opposed to traditional drills, according to principles from cognitive learning theory, is that the learning process is contextualized, the topic is meaningful to the learner, and the learner learns through utilization of the grammar.

2.9.2 Processes

In order to reach the autonomous stage, where the learner is able to handle the acquired knowledge in complex cognitive processes, the learner first needs not only to *remember* the information, but *understand* it. This relates to the *conceptualization* stage of the cognitive learning stages (see 2.8 The Cognitive+Communicative approach). In order to make sense and actually understand the information the learner needs to make use of the elaboration strategy of information processing. It requires that we associate and integrate the information into knowledge structures that already exist in our minds. There are several ways to accomplish this.

One of the methods to manage the necessary depth of processing is problem-solving. This method entails that the learner is presented with a problem and has to work her own way towards a solution to the problem. Woolfolk mentions that some psychologists claim that most human learning happens through problem-solving (2004: 210). One of the advantages of this method is that the learner needs to understand relevant underlying and related issues in order to progress towards the solution. Understanding these things will help the learner create associations and knowledge structures for the information unit that is at the base of the problem. If the learner does not understand these issues, she will have to learn these basic

steps before she can continue towards the solution to the problem. The learning process requires the learner to understand, or learn to understand, step by step towards the solution. Since it is the learner who is in charge of the problem-solving task, there is no risk of the teacher skipping steps that the learners might not really understand, and leave them with a hole in their knowledge structures, as the learners need to know these things in order to find a correct solution to the problem.

The problem-solving method is in many ways similar to *discovery learning*, an approach that Jerome Bruner (1961) has called attention to. The essence of discovery learning is that the learners actively work on their own in order to discover basic principles of the subject (Woolfolk 2004: 207). The teacher may present examples, but not explanations. Bruner's argument is that this makes learning more meaningful, useful and easier to remember, as it helps the learners to understand the inherent connections, the structure, of the subject. In addition to this, one may argue that it personalizes the learning process and provides the learner with better opportunities to construct personal cognitive connections to the acquired knowledge.

One of the essential arguments for such exercises is that they lead to applied knowledge, as opposed to knowledge the learner has memorized, for instance by reading it over and over again, but seldom or never applied. Also, Woolfolk points out that it is more likely that the learners will transfer the information to new situations if they have been actively engaged in the learning process (2004: 231). There are some potential problems with these kinds of exercises, though. The tasks need to be properly planned and organized, so that learners who do not have the necessary basic knowledge to complete the task have the possibilities to acquire this knowledge and get something out of the work.

2.9.3 Aims of an exercise

The over-all aim of an exercise is either to support the learning process or to test the learner's competences. Exercises that aim to support the learning process are referred to as *formative*, while exercises that test the learner's knowledge are referred to as *summative*. A potential pitfall with regard to grammar pedagogy is that there are too many exercises that are summative, that is, they *test* the pupils' grammatical competence by requiring them to demonstrate abilities to apply the correct forms in pre-structured exercises and too few exercises which help pupils to acquire this grammatical knowledge. Summative exercises may give the learner some feedback, but contribute otherwise little to the learning process, give unfortunate focus on the learner's *lack of competence*, and mainly offer a tool for the teacher

to assess how well the pupils have understood the grammar focused upon. Newby refers to such exercises as the *minefields* of grammar exercises (1998: 11). He argues that grammar exercises rather ought to be formative, and function as *bridges* between the unfamiliar grammatical topic in focus and the learner's goal to achieve competence and performance in it. In other words, they ought to develop grammatical competence instead of *test* it. The purpose and general objective of teaching is, after all, the students' learning, not to test what they already know. Newby (2014: 4) points out that the learner's aim of becoming able to express her own ideas in real situations requires the learner to achieve the ability to "**generate ideas** and **encode** them into grammar", an aim that does not match well up with the 'fill-in-the-gap' exercises which he claims are the most common type of grammar exercises in many textbooks. Such exercises, he argues, simply require the learners to "add discrete items of grammar to other people's – textbook author's, teacher's – pre-fabricated ideas. (ibid: 4)"

Formative exercises aim to develop the learner's ability to use grammar and build up her confidence concerning that grammar (Newby 2013a: 4). In relation to the performance aspect of language learning, *confidence* is an important principle. As part of his discussion of *communicative drills* (see 2.9.1 Principles), Newby (1998: 11) argues:

> These are activities in which there is not much chance of making mistakes but which serve to build up the students' confidence. It is interesting that teachers often regard as 'too easy' - and therefore tend to reject - exercises which all or most of the pupils get right, a belief that stems from the confusion between teaching and testing. I feel this is fundamentally wrong: this confidence-building stage is an important part of learning.

If the learner is going to proceed to the *performance* stage of her language learning, she needs to be confident in using the grammar which she has learnt. This requires exercises that build up the learner's confidence for using the grammar in real-life language use, rather than exercises which test the learner and as a result may put focus on her lack of competence.

2.9.4 Learning vs. rehearsal function of exercises

Traditionally, the language learner is seen exclusively as a *learner*. Communicative methodology spotlights another role of the language learner: as a language *user*. Newby (2014) states that the learner plays both of these roles when acquiring grammar, and is aware that different aspects of the materials and activities given by the teacher fulfil two functions: a pedagogical function and a rehearsal function. The pedagogical function refers to the fact that materials and activities are constructed in order to accelerate and optimize the learner's acquisition of the language (ibid: 2). The communicative function, on the one hand, puts the learner in the role of a language user, in which the learner communicate her ideas, needs, and

so on in ways that come close to real-life language use. This role makes the learner see the materials and activities as means to rehearse and develop her abilities to express herself through the language in real life (ibid: 2).

It is important to be aware of both functions of grammar exercises, perhaps especially the rehearsal function, which Newby claims is lacking in many grammar exercises and textbooks:

> It is important to state this since an analysis of many exercises in commercially available grammar practice books will clearly show that the learner is seen almost exclusively as a learner of grammar but not as a user of grammar; as a result of this, most exercises have a learning function but not a rehearsal function (Newby 2014: 2)

From this point of view, it is important that the learners are given not only grammar exercises that facilitate the internalization of grammar but also exercises that facilitate their competences as language users through rehearsal of the grammar in language use. That is, exercises that facilitate the *proceduralization* and p*erformance* stages of learning (See 2.8 The Cognitive+Communicative approach).

3. Materials and methods

This chapter will present the materials I have analyzed and the methodology I have based my research on. Dörnyei states that the function of a qualitative study report is to "provide the technical information that is necessary for the evaluation of the subsequent findings and to serve as a reference section (2007: 295)". Similarly, the purpose of this chapter is to provide the technical information that is necessary for my evaluation of grammar exercises. I will start out by presenting the materials, then go on to describe and explain my choices of methodology, and finally present my analysis framework and define the criteria I have used.

3.1 Material

I have decided to focus on 10th grade textbooks because 10th grade is the final mandatory school year for all Norwegians. In order to decide which textbooks to analyze, I called publishers for information on the most used English textbooks used in Norwegian schools. The marketing consultant at Gyldendal Undervisning told me they did not have an overview of the currently most widely used English textbooks in Norway (personal communication, 14.08.2014). When I called the Business Development and Analysis Department ("Avdeling for forretningsutvikling og analyse") at CappelenDamm, I was told they could not give me the information due to the Competition Law (personal communication, 14.08.2014). However, they provided me with a list of currently used textbooks for 10th grade English. These were: *Searching* (Gyldendal), *New Flight* (CappelenDamm), *Voices in Time* (CappelenDamm), *Stages* (Ascheough), and *Crossroads* (Fagbokforlaget). In order not to overdo the scope of my thesis, I decided to analyse one textbook series from three different publishers. My choices fell on *Searching*, *New Flight*, and *Crossroads*, as Askeland (2013) claimed these were the most widely used EFL textbook series in Norway at the point of her thesis work.

3.1.1 Crossroads 10

Crossroads is written by Halvor Heger and Nina Wroldsen for the publisher Fagbokforlaget. It includes six components: Student's book *A* and *B,* a simplified student's book, CDs (sound materials), a resource folder for the teacher, as well as websites. There are materials for all three grades, 8th, 9th and 10th, separately. I have used *Crossroads 10B*, as this is the learner's book where the grammar exercises are incorporated.

      Crossroads is divided into two sections, "Enjoy Reading" and "Grammatikk" ("Grammar"). In the introduction of the grammar section, the authors mention that many topics in this version (*10B*) are repeated from *Crossroads 8B* and *9B*, though most examples and all exercises are new (*Crossroads 10B*: 103). They state that some of the material on

language learning is repetition from the previous years' books, and the rest is progression. The grammar section starts out by suggesting some language learning strategies, followed by a topic on text writing. After this, the rest of the section is concerned with presenting grammar and grammar rules, followed by relevant exercises.

3.1.2 New Flight 3

New Flight is written by Berit Haugnes Bromseth and Lisbeth Wigdahl for the publisher Cappelen, and was published in 2007. The series consists of textbooks, workbooks, a grammar, a CD, a Teacher's Book, and a website. There is also a subseries called *New Flight Extra*, which presents simplified versions of the materials, made for learners who have a need for adapted education. Since I focus on the textbooks aimed at the majority of learners, I have not included *New Flight Extra* in my analysis. I have used the work book for the 10th grade, *New Flight 3 workbook*, as this is where the grammar exercises are incorporated. I have not concerned myself with the grammar, which is a separate book that only contains rules that the learners may look up if they want or need to.

The *New Flight 3 workbook* has eight chapters. The tasks are colour-coded according to level of difficulty for the teacher and learner to be able to choose an appropriately challenging task for the learner. Some exercises are marked to suggest that everyone ought to do these. Each chapter presents specific topics under the headings "Language and structure" and "Communication". "Language and structure" concerns grammatical forms and structures, while "Communication" deals with words, phrases and expressions. Beneath the "Language and structure"-heading there are sub-headings: "Work with words", "Let's write!", "Lets talk!", "Grammar", "Listen!", "Let's think!"

3.1.3 Searching 10

Searching is written by Anne-Brit Fenner and Geir Nordal-Pedersen, and published by Gyldendal Undervisning in 2008. I have used an example of the fourth print from 2010.

Searching consists of seven components: *Learner's Book*, *Teacher's Resource File*, *Read and Write*, *Teacher's CDs*, *Learner's CD*, *Read and Write CD*, as well as a website. The grammar exercises are found in *Learner's Book* and *Read and Write*. *Read and Write* is a booklet that contains simplified texts and exercises, and is meant for learners who need to improve their reading comprehension. I chose to evaluate grammar exercises in *Learner's Book* only, as this is the book meant for the majority of learners, not only a smaller group at lower levels.

There are 10 chapters in *Learner's Book*, as well as two final sections called "Individual Reading" and "Focus on Language". In the latter the learners can look up grammar rules as well as a few other language related topics. The grammar tasks and exercises are all presented in a section called "Focus on Language" at the end of each chapter. Each of the chapters presents a specific topic in this section, such as "Speaking strategies" or "Prefixes and suffixes". Sometimes short versions of rules are presented and then followed by exercises, other times there are some examples of the forms or expressions.

3.2 Methods

3.2.1 Textbook analysis

There are several reasons for analyzing textbooks. Summer (2011: 5) suggests two main purposes. One is that the analysis may be a tool for teachers when they try to decide which textbook is the best choice for their needs. The other is that the analysis may contribute to improving the quality of the instruction materials. The purpose of this thesis lies primarily within the latter category. The specific aims of the analysis, as defined by research questions and hypotheses, will determine the nature of the analysis.

Tomlinson (2003) makes a distinction between analysis and evaluation. He explains this as a difference in focus. While an analysis "focuses on the materials" and "aims to provide an objective analysis of them", an evaluation "can include an analysis or follow one, but the objectives and procedures are different. An evaluation focuses on the users of the materials and makes judgements about their effects. (ibid: 16)" This is not only a descriptive analysis, but a critical evaluation of the grammar exercises in the textbooks, where the ultimate aim of my analysis is the students' learning. My focus is thus on the users of the textbooks and the outcome of the exercises, which makes this an *evaluation* in Tomlinson's terms, even though I use the words *analysis* and *evaluation* interchangeably throughout the thesis.

It should be stressed prior to carrying out the analysis that it is not essentially a study of the grammar teaching methodology, as, for instance, Ellis' analysis of *Methodological Options in Grammar Teaching Materials* (2002). This study is an analysis of underlying principles that affect not only the overt choices of methodology, but also the general presentation of the grammar, the contents of the exercise, and the decisions of whether or not to provide rules and explanations. Methodology is secondary: one of the results of the

underlying principles. In this thesis, I study the sources – how perspectives on grammar and on learning affect the exercise and its potential learning outcome. The difference between this and analyses such as Ellis' may be seen in the respective frameworks for analysis. His terms are more descriptive and focus on methods, such as 'explicit description: supplied/ discover' and 'controlled/ free production' (ibid: 157), while my terms are more evaluative, being based on criteria taken from learning theories such as 'commitment filter' and 'personalization'. He describes the exercise methodology. I evaluate its potential learning outcome according to pedagogical and communicate criteria.

3.2.2. Qualitative research

Since the analysis primarily takes the form of an evaluation, in Tomlinson's (2003) terms, research contained in this thesis accordingly is what I will define as a primarily qualitative research project. In order to explain what qualitative research is, it may be fruitful to compare it to quantitative research, which it is usually opposed to. The differences between these concern data materials, methods for data collection, and data analysis.

As its name suggests, *quantitative research* is concerned with measuring and numbers. Quantitative researchers "emphasize the measuring of outcomes (Heigham & Croker 2009: 7)". Their focus is to seek the general tendencies within the mass, so their methods are normally related to statistics. The mass is the stereotypical material of quantitative research. *Qualitative research*, on the other hand, focuses on the individual instances within the mass, and the numbers are mostly replaced by written text.

Collecting the materials differs between the methods in what is considered its ideal procedure. The ideal research cycle of quantitative research is a linear process where each stage is accomplished before the next begins: the researcher formulates the questions, then collects the data, analyzes the data statistically, and finally writes down the findings (Heigham & Croker 2009: 10). In qualitative research these stages are usually performed simultaneously, the researcher may collect, analyze and interpret the data more or less at the same time (ibid). The qualitative research cycle is consequently nonlinear. These characteristics of qualitative research methods is the reason why qualitative research is often referred to as exploratory (e.g. Heigham & Croker 2009). Heigham & Croker explains the emergent nature of qualitative research by describing how qualitative researchers often start out "with only a research purpose and conceptual framework, and a sense of the initial focus of interest (ibid: 10)", then gradually during the work they develop, modify and redefine their specific research questions and research design. This contrasts to quantitative research

processes, where the specific questions and research procedure must be strictly set before the research begins.

The data analysis differs between the two methods in that quantitative research will make a more descriptive analysis that seeks results that can be generalized to other contexts, while qualitative research makes in-depth analyses that focus on "understanding the particular and the distinctive (Heigham & Croker 2009)" and use interpretive analysis to "reflect on and explore what they know, search for patterns, and try to create a full and rich understanding of the research context (ibid: 3-4)" – the qualities of the individual instance is in focus. Heigham and Croker (ibid) explain the difference between quantitative and qualitative research as basically different sets of ways to view the world. They claim quantitative methodology builds on a positivist view of the world, where the researchers search for a singular, universal "truth", while qualitative builds on a constructivist view of the world, where everyone develops and creates their personal and unique understandings of the world which results in multiple constructions and interpretations of reality (ibid: 6). The qualitative investigates the individual worlds and looks at the particular contexts and other factors that contribute to create this exact situation. This is important since it teaches us some fundamental aspects of why something has become what it is. Still, the quantitative is also important as it tells us how the things interact with each other in a larger picture.

The differences that are presented here are the ideal end-points of a scale between qualitative and quantitative methods. Most research projects will have elements or nuances of elements from both ends of the scale. It is the extent and manner of these elements that decide where on the continuum the particular project places itself. For instance, "[s]ome qualitative researchers do consider the extent to which their findings may be generalizable, but many leave it up to the readers to decide to what degree the features of the setting are relevant to their own context. (Heigham & Croker 2009: 9)" Qualitative research may also use numerical data, but the purpose of this is supplementary rather than central, as it is in quantitative research (ibid: 9).

Studies that can be placed in the mid-section of the continuum may be referred to as *mixed methods*. Mixed methods are combinations of qualitative and quantitative methods that may either emphasize the methods equally, "or give one type greater emphasis. (ibid: 15)" The research presented in this thesis may be referred to as a mixed methods analysis as it is primarily based on qualitative methodology but has a few elements of quantitative methods.

What makes this project qualitative research is first of all my focus on evaluations of the exercises rather than an analysis focused on numbers and statistics. It is, therefore, far

more an interpretive analysis rather than a descriptive analysis. I search for patterns, but do so with the individual contexts of the exercises in mind. Also, since I consider each exercise in relation to its context, some of the analysis and interpretation runs parallel to the collection of further data. In other words, the method for data collection is not strictly linear. The quantitative part of the analysis has the purpose of seeing general tendencies of the exercise evaluations, which is to help me consider how well the textbook as a whole, not just its individual exercises, facilitates the learning of grammar.

The reason why I chose to use predominantly a qualitative approach to my research questions has to do with the essence of my research questions. Whether an exercise is 'good' depends on many factors, so it is important to look at it in context, and evaluate it within this context. Only then is it possible to evaluate whether it qualifies as a good exercise or not. By allowing myself to go in depth and consider the exercises in their contexts, I open up the possibility to discover factors that contribute to the quality of learning which the individual exercise facilitate.

3.2.3 Framework for evaluating exercises

My analysis of the exercises is based on four categories: the *grammatical objective* of the exercise, the *learning aim* for this objective, at which *cognitive learning stage* the learning is meant to take place and finally communicative and cognitive criteria for evaluating the effectiveness of exercises (see Newby 2014: 7). Newby claims that his communicative and cognitive criteria, together with these three aspects, provide the analysis with means to perform an effective and qualitative evaluation of grammar exercises, which is my exact intention. Each of these four categories is important with regard to the overall analysis. An analysis of the grammatical objectives may reveal which aspects of grammar are focused upon in the textbook, and as a consequence which view of grammar the textbook holds. The learning aim of an exercise is important to know in order to see whether the methodological choices actually facilitate the learning processes to fulfil the exercise aims. The learning aim will also reveal whether the exercise focuses on the learner's knowledge about grammar or her ability to use grammar. Cognitive stages are relevant to the analysis because the cognitive stage reveals which level in the language learning process the exercise facilitates. Which cognitive learning stage the exercise facilitates is important to know as this will help the teacher to decide at what stage of language learning she might give a particular exercise to her students. An analysis of cognitive learning stages may reveal whether the textbook focuses on a specific level of the learning process, and thus emphasizes either competence or

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performance of grammar. Moreover, the stage model gives an insight into whether the grammar methodology used by a teacher or textbook supports the learner from initial awareness of grammar to the stage when she can actually use grammar in free contexts.

3.2.3.1 Grammatical objectives

As mentioned in chapter 2, grammatical objectives may be expressed in terms of either *forms* or *meanings*, where the latter includes *grammatical notions* and *grammatical functions*. Traditionally, grammatical objectives of exercises in EFL learning materials have been defined in formal terms, that is, as *forms* and *structures* (see 2.4 Grammatical objectives). In order to reveal whether the exercise focuses on formal, notional or functional aspects of grammar, I will analyze which category the grammatical objective of the exercise belongs to:

Table 3: Categories of grammatical objectives (Newby 2008: 5)

Category of objective	Specific objective	Examples
grammatical function	describing/modification	- **pretty**, **with a nice face**
general notion	expressing location	- **next to, opposite, over there**
specific grammatical notion	arranged activity	- I**'m playing** tennis tonight.
	expressing intention	- I**'m going to use** my new racket.
	making a prediction	- I**'ll** probably **be** back by six.
process	passive	- **We were beaten 3-0.**
	indirect speech	- **He said he was** ill**.**
communicative function	likes - dislikes	- I **like** swimm**ing**
pattern (syntax)	question form	- What **did** he **say**?
form (morphology)	irregular past tense	**was, had, went, saw, gave**
	plural forms	- **boys, men, ladies, kisses**

As the examples in table 3 illustrates, general notions refer to "abstract concepts which denote general, and possibly universal, categories of human experience, such as time, space, quantity, location etc. (Newby 2003: 516)". Functions "describe a speaker's purpose in making an utterance, including the effect that it is intended to have on the listener (or reader) (ibid)". A further grammar-related category is that of the communicative function of an utterance, for example, expressing likes and dislikes.

Instead of following the traditional approaches to the objectives, I will focus particularly on *meanings*, or to be more exact *specific grammatical notions*, which Newby

(2008: 34) defines as 'the grammaticalized meaning of a single concept which is encoded within an actual utterance'. The reason for this is my acceptance of a communicative perspective on language, according to which the language user expresses grammatical meaning through grammatical forms, and not the other way around (see 2.4 Grammatical objectives). By focusing on which *notions* are included in the textbooks, I will be able to discover whether the objectives of the exercises make clear which notions the exercises teach, and whether the textbooks present notions systematically and coherently, as Newby stresses the importance of (ibid; 1998:6). The notional categories and terms I have used for this purpose are acquired from "Grammar for Communication" by David Newby (2002), for instance, "Referring to future actions: intentions and plans" and "Describing people and things".

3.2.3.2 Learning aims

The learning aim reveals the specific purpose of the exercise, and is partly shaped by the perspectives on grammar and pedagogical theories that lie at its base. As specific learning aims are normally not stated before a grammar exercise, the learning aim of an exercise must be extracted and evaluated from exercise content and context. Having a clear learning aim for a grammatical objective makes it easier for teachers to choose appropriate methodology and activities with regard to the particular learning processes their students are meant to go through. Thus, by identifying the learning aim the exercise evaluation can make evident how well the methodology used in a particular exercise fulfils its learning aim.

The learning aims of grammar exercises may focus on pedagogical or communicative functions (Newby in preparation: ch. 12), or in other words, the learning functions and rehearsal functions of exercises (see 2.9.4 Learning vs. rehearsal function of exercises). Pedagogical learning aims focus on *learning about* grammar or the acquisition of grammar rules; for example, by developing the learner's explicit knowledge of grammar (see 2.2 Learning grammar), while communicative learning aims focus on developing the learner's ability to *use* the grammar in her own language output, i.e. provide opportunities to rehearse using grammar. By analyzing the exercises with regard to pedagogical and communicative functions, it may be revealed whether the textbooks view the learner mainly as a *learner* of language, as traditional approaches do, or include a view on the learner also as a *user* of language, as reflected in communicative approaches to learning.

3.2.3.3 Cognitive learning stages

Cognitive learning stages refer to the different stages in the language learning process (see 2.8 The Cognitive+Communicative approach), and will also be referred to simply as cognitive stages. In terms of grammar acquisition, these stages include the initial stage *awareness-raising* of a grammatical item, which is followed by *conceptualization* of the item, *proceduralization* or automatization of producing the grammatical item in linguistic contexts, and finally *performance*, which refers to production of the item together with other items of grammar in realistic contexts. Accordingly, an analysis of which cognitive stages an exercise facilitates may reveal an emphasis in the textbooks on simply developing the learner's competences or whether they support the skill of grammatical performance within the overall process of grammar acquisition.

Askeland (2013: 53) states in her thesis that some exercises seem to facilitate learning somewhere between two stages. For the same reason I decided on the same solution as Askeland: to include transitional stages, namely *awareness-conceptualization*, *conceptualization-proceduralization*, and *proceduralization-performance*.

3.2.3.4 Criteria for evaluating the quality of exercises

My analysis is based on a Cognitive+Communicative view of language and language learning (see 2.8 The Cognitive+Communicative approach). This entails, as Newby (2008: 9) states, that "[...] criteria must be applied both from a communicative and from a cognitive perspective in order to assess the efficiency of grammar activities." He further defines these criteria:

> "**Communicative criterion** – to what extent does an activity support the development of both grammatical and communicative performance by simulating its conditions?
>
> **Cognitive criterion** – to what extent does an activity support learning by activating learning processes and thus contribute to the overall aims of learning grammar? (ibid: 9)"

As these definitions suggest, communicative criteria roughly concern learning with a focus on how authentic language production works, while cognitive criteria concern more general aspects of learning processes.

Newby (2008: 10) lists some of the main principles of communicative language teaching that may be applied to assess grammar activities:

1. Clear and realistic context
   - grammar arises from an actual situation;
2. Realistic use/processing of language (authenticity of process)
   - grammar is communication, not mathematics;
3. Meaning, and meaningfulness of grammar stressed

- grammar helps to convey messages;
4. Personalisation (students link grammar to their own knowledge, ideas, experience, wishes etc.)
   - grammar is a way of encoding experience;
5. Open-ended exercises
   - grammar is part of a creative process;
6. Task-based
   - grammar is a means to an end;
7. Integrated skills (vocabulary, speech acts, speaking, writing)
   - grammar works with other linguistic sub-systems and skills to generate meaning.

These principles have implications for grammar instruction in several ways. They affect the definition of grammar, the aims of instruction, as well as methodology and exercise construction. With regard to methodology, the principle of *personalization*, for instance, entails that the learner should be allowed to use her own language instead of pre-structured sentences, and the principle of *authenticity of process* entails that the tasks given to learners require them to use language in authentic, language-like ways; for example, composition exercises fulfil the criterion of authenticity of process, whereas transformation or fill-in-the-gap exercises do not.

These principles are the basis for the language specific category of my criteria for the exercise analysis, namely the *communicative criteria*. These are complemented in my analysis by a category of criteria which relates to learning: pedagogical criteria, referred to as the *learning criteria*. Since both language processing and learning are basically is something that goes on in a person's head, there are criteria in both the communicative and learning categories that can be considered cognitive. The difference is that the cognitive learning criteria may be applied to any learning situation, while the cognitive communicative criteria are exclusively linguistic in nature.

I have based the learning criteria of my framework for analysis on criteria suggested by Newby (2013a: 6; 2014: 6-7). My set of criteria is basically the same as those presented in his article "Do Grammar Exercises Help?: Assessing the Effectiveness of Grammar Pedagogy" (2013a: 6). However, I have made an adjustment to his categories. I have removed one learning criteria, *Do you know/ Can you use* since this category is discussed in connection with the cognitive stage model to be used in my analysis.

Learning criteria used to evaluate exercises in addition to the communicative criteria are:

- formative/ summative

- commitment filter

- depth of processing

- peer learning

- interaction

- authenticity of process

- task-based

- contextualization

- complex encoding

- personalization

The two sets of communicative and learning criteria will be explained in the following sections.

3.2.3.4.1 Formative/ summative

This distinction is commonly used in the field of language testing and assessment. These categories can also be applied to the analysis of grammar exercises. Newby (2013: 4) describes summative exercises as exercises that test the learners' declarative knowledge, that is, whether the grammatical objective has been learnt. Formative exercises, on the other hand, are exercises that promote learning, the ability to use the grammar, and build up confidence in using it. Thus, the difference may be described using the terms *test* and *teach*. Testing whether knowledge is or is not already acquired by the learner does not facilitate learning well (see 2.9.3 Aims of an exercise).

Summative exercises usually test *declarative* knowledge when it comes to grammar (Newby 2013: 4), while formative exercises may teach (i.e. help to develop) both *declarative* and *procedural* knowledge (see 2.2 Learning grammar). This is another important reason to advocate formative exercises, as procedural knowledge is an essential part of producing language.

3.2.3.4.2 Commitment filter

This learning criterion concerns whether and how the learner feels engaged by the exercise and committed to accomplish it (see 2.2.1 What motivates learning?). A lack of motivational features in grammar exercises will impede learning processes (Newby 2013: 4). I decided to divide the criterion into three types of reasons the learner may have for committing to the exercise, namely fulfilment of *cognitive needs*, *affective needs*, and *communicative needs*,

which are suggested and described by Newby (2013: 4; 2014: 7; in preparation: 6-7). *Cognitive needs* concerns mental states and processes, such as curiosity about the grammar focused upon and its part in the language, problem-solving, interest in acquiring knowledge, etc. *Affective needs* may be covered by feelings of enjoyment and fun due to the nature of the task, and Newby also mentions 'resultative motivation', that is, feelings of achievement following successful accomplishment of an exercise. *Communicative needs* have to do with the learner's drive for communication, for instance through a desire to express personal ideas during classroom interaction.

My reason for having three subcategories of this criterion was that I wanted to get an idea of which kind of commitment is best supported by an exercise, and whether there is any correlation between type of commitment and other aspects of the exercise.

Similarly to the identification of the *learning aim* of the exercises, I had to make my own assessments and evaluations of the *commitment filter* of the exercises. Clearly this is speculative since it is not possible to know whether the learners actually will experience the commitment that I expect them to, or if some learners are more likely to feel certain types of commitment than others.

3.2.3.4.3 Depth of processing

This is a learning criterion firmly based on cognitive language learning theory, as it deals with the learner's mental activity while performing a task (see 2.6.2 Constructivism). "A cognitive view stresses the *maximising* of mental resources […] (Newby 2013a: 4)" In other words, a cognitive perspective on language learning will maintain that the more mentally active the learner is required to be, the better the quality of the learning process. Cognitively shallow exercises, where the learner is required simply to fill in a correct form or replicate a rule recently presented by the teacher or textbook, increases the possibility that the learner does not process the input properly, resulting in the information going "in-one-ear-and-out-the-other" (see 2.8 The Cognitive+ Communicative approach). If the depth of processing is too shallow, the exercise lacks a major factor for providing the learner with possibilities for good quality learning, as well as a factor for motivation that would encourage the learner to accomplish the exercise. This relates to the *cognitive needs* of the *commitment filter* criterion. Discovery activities (2.6.2 Constructivism) and open-ended activities (Newby 2014: 7) are examples of exercise types that may provide deeper processing of the learning material.

3.2.3.4.4 Peer learning

Newby stresses interaction between learners and their peers, especially in the shape of peer monitoring, as an important factor that might contribute to the learning process (2014: 7). This view is supported by social constructivist theory, such as Vygotsky's theory of ZPD (see 2.6.3 Social constructivism). Shared knowledge and ideas through cooperation with peers may enhance the learning process, and where language production is involved the peers may assess and correct each other's language output. Peer support may be preferable to teacher monitoring. As Newby puts it: "Peer support is often more useful than teacher correction since not only is peer correction less threatening but also peers are better able to identify with difficulties that may be experienced. (2013a: 7)"

Exercises that qualify for this criterion involve pair or group work where the learners are encouraged to solve the exercise together or have the opportunity to monitor each other's language output.

3.2.3.4.5 Interaction

The previous criterion concerned interaction from a pedagogical point of view. This criterion looks at interaction through a communicative view on language learning. Exercises that qualify for the *interaction* criterion require the learners to perform acts of real communication in the target language. This means that the learners need to produce language with a purpose, through meaningful and personalized messages. The implication of this is that the learners must use language for the purpose of interacting with real respondents. Accordingly, the exercise must include either pair or group work and will probably be task-based. Exercises that involve interaction may also contribute to increase the learner's motivation by appealing to the learner's *cognitive needs*, for example by creating a 'drive to communicate'.

3.2.3.4.6. Authenticity of process

Communicative learning theory stresses that language learning should reflect real language use. The implication this has for grammar teaching is that grammar should not be taught as rules the learners have to memorize, "[g]rammar is communication, not mathematics (Newby 2008: 10)". *Authenticity of process* refers to the processes that take place in the speaker's mind when she produces language. Exercise types that resemble the processes that may go on in real language production, such as paraphrasing tasks, comply with this communicative criterion, while exercise types that are artificial to authentic communicative situations, such as transforming tasks, do not.

3.2.3.4.7 Task-based

Ellis (2003: 3) describes *tasks* as activities that require "the participants to function primarily as 'language users' in the sense that they must employ the same kinds of communicative processes as those involved in real-world activities." This, he claims, makes any learning that takes place incidental. To contrast, he describes *exercises* as requiring "the participants to function primarily as 'learners'; here learning is intentional. (ibid: 3)" In this thesis the term *exercises* includes both types, but Ellis' distinction is useful in order to explain the criteria *task-based*.

According to communicative learning theory, exercises should resemble authentic communication. In real-world communicative processes, the speakers always have some intentions when they speak – they have a goal to achieve with the language they produce. In *task-based* exercises there is a task "outside" the learning aim of exercise, the learners are not only expected to *produce* language, but also to achieve something through the language production. *Task-based* exercises concerns something that goes beyond just practicing, it entails that the learners need to have a purpose with their communication, so the process becomes meaningful. *Task-based* is a necessary criterion to develop proper communicative skills. In order to qualify for this criterion the completion of the exercise must result in an outcome, or end-product, apart from the language learning (Newby 2014: 7).

3.2.3.4.8 Contextualization

Real-world communication always takes place in a context, such as previous utterances and topics of conversation, the roles of the participants, the type of conversation (e.g. degree of formality), etc. Similar to the process of learning vocabulary, Newby observes that "[g]rammar is partly acquired by relating new notions to contexts of use. (2014: 7)" This statement is supported by pedagogical theory. Alongside *processing* and *organizing*, *context* is one of the strategies for how our brains save and recollect information by associating physical and emotional aspects of the learning situation with the information processed and stored at that particular moment (see 2.6.1. Information processing – memory and methods). Communicative learning theory emphasizes the value of *context* through its argument that learning language needs to resemble authentic language use, and thus take place in a context that resembles authentic language use. For these reasons grammar exercises should be presented in a clear, embedded context, or require the learner to imagine a context (Newby 2014: 7). Exercises which qualify for the *contextualization* criterion must either provide a context, e.g. by giving some lines in a dialogue which the learner must add more lines to, or

require the learner to imagine a context, e.g. by providing a topic which the learner may communicate her thoughts and ideas about.

3.2.3.4.9 Complex encoding

Principles of communicative language teaching stress that language use requires integrated skills (see 3.2.3.4 Criteria for evaluating the quality of exercises), that is, the ability to combine knowledge and use of different aspects of language in order to communicate a message. It follows that grammar exercises must provide the learner with the opportunity to use knowledge of both the grammatical objective and other elements of the language. This combined and creative use of different aspects of the language results in a mental processing referred to as *complex encoding*.

The opposite, simple encoding, denotes exercises that only require a focus on and production of one item at a time. Focus on one item at a time may be helpful at the lowest learning stages, especially at the awareness-raising stage, when the learners are supposed to focus their attention towards *one* item. On the other hand, in order to proceed to the higher learning stages, the learners must be challenged to process several items at the same time, as in real-life language production. It is therefore necessary for the learners to have the opportunity to rehearse complex encoding. Newby states that such opportunities ought to be given as early in the learning processes as possible, " […] that is to say, they must not only be required to add grammar to prefabricated sentences but to encode utterances. (Newby 2013a: 5)"

The criterion *complex encoding* applies to exercises that require the learners to use more than one type of linguistic item in the same utterance, for example two grammatical items or both grammatical items together with vocabulary. For even more complex encoding the learners may be required to produce a whole utterance. In other words, there are several degrees of complexity.

As it requires the learners to activate several aspects of their linguistic knowledge at the same time, this communicative criterion relates to the learning criterion *depth of processing*. Both criteria require the learners to maximize, or at least increase, use of their mental resources.

3.2.3.4.10. Personalization

Personalization has to do with another aspect of authentic communication. When we produce language, we express ideas and information from our own experiences, our own world-view or perspective. This principle of communicative language teaching relates to constructivist

theories of learning, which stress that the learner interprets and constructs knowledge on the basis of her own previous knowledge and experiences (see 2.6.2 Constructivism). Together these theories require that the learner is given the opportunity to apply her personal thoughts and ideas as part of the learning process. This criterion thus applies to exercises that give the learners the opportunity to employ their own ideas and thoughts, based on their own schematic constructs (Newby 2013a: 5).

Exercises where the learner is supposed to manipulate pre-constructed sentences have little to do with the communication of ideas. Open-ended exercises, on the other hand, where the learner is free to create utterances herself are communicative according to the *personalization* criterion. Newby maintains that personalization and creativity are such important elements of human communication that they should be integrated into teaching methodology at as early learning stage as possible (1998: 12).

Since the learner may have personal opinions and thoughts that she wishes to express, and consequently is motivated to perform the exercise because of the opportunity to do so, the *personalization* criterion relates to *cognitive needs* within the learning criterion *commitment filter*.

3.2.3 Exercise types

The exercises were analyzed according the following types suggested by Newby (in preparation: ch. 12):

Awareness-raising/ discovery
- The focus is on making the learner aware of particular aspects of a grammatical objective, usually presented in a given example, such as text or sentences. *Discovery* is when the learner has to "discover and formulate a rule on the basis of data"

Multiple choice
- The learner has to choose the correct answer from a list of two or more alternatives.

Gap filling
- Provides sentences, texts or dialogues with gaps which the learner is required to fill. These exercises may include prompt words in brackets, a set of words provided above the exercise, or a picture prompt.

Matching
- The learner is required to match two parts of a sentence.

Ordering

- Provides a set of disordered words, which the learner is required to form a coherent sentence from

Selection

- Provides substitution tables or dialogue charts. The learner has to produce utterances based upon these tables or charts

Transformation

- The learner is either required to change one grammatical form into another form, or to change one sentence structure into another

Reformulation

- Requires the learner to paraphrase a sentence, or use a different construction in order to communicate an idea similar to the one in the original sentence

Expansion

- Provides cue words or pictures which the learner is required to expand into sentences or dialogues

Composition

- Open-ended exercises. They may provide a chart or picture cue which the learner has to interpret and explain, or cues, partial phrases or sentences, or parts of a dialogue which the learner is required to expand or complete using her own ideas.

Games

- May resemble other exercise types, but include additional ludic elements, such as "miming, guessing, problem solving, winning and losing."

During the analysis I found that there were exercises that did not correspond to Newby's list of exercise types, so I added a few more to the list:

Translation

- Requires the learner to translate words or sentences from Norwegian to English

Search and categorize

- The learner has to search for specific types of words in a text and categorize them, e.g. by listing the words in columns

Correction

- The learner has to find grammatical errors in provided text or sets of words and correct them

Association

- The exercise requires the learner to associate information with something else

Noticing

- Requests the learner to notice a particular pattern or other aspects related to the grammatical objective. Relates to awareness-raising.

3.2.4 Steps of analysis

I analyzed the exercises of each book separately, in order to be able to evaluate how well each book facilitates grammar learning and to what extent and how each of them apply communicative and cognitive learning theory to the grammar exercises they provide. I chose to exclude exercises style (formal/ informal language) as I consider style to be part of the pragmatics of language in general rather than as a part of grammar in particular. I also decided not to include exercises that concerned phrases and idioms either, as these were taught as set phrases and therefore would have no grammatical objective: "A grammatical exercise entails that students should understand underlying grammatical systems and choices. (Newby, personal communication 05.03.2015)"

After analyzing the exercises in each of the textbooks, I did a quantitative analysis of which learning stages the exercises in each textbook facilitate and which exercise types the textbooks include, and qualitative evaluations of the exercises in terms of grammatical objectives, learning aims, as well as the learning criteria and the communicative criteria. The final part of the analysis was to consider tendencies observed in the results of the evaluations made of the three textbooks.

3.3 Limitations of the analysis

The main advantage of applying qualitative methods is that it allowed me to reflect on and analyze the data immediately as I collected it, which gave me the opportunity to jot down my immediate reflections without losing track of their contexts, and thus improve the accuracy of my interpretation (Heigham & Croker 2009: 11). The most significant disadvantage lies in the analysis process, which to a great extent relied on my professional but yet subjective evaluations. In other words, the evaluations I make are coloured by my attitudes, impressions, perspectives on language learning and grammar. I cannot account for the absolute accuracy and objectivity of the opinions that have shaped my interpretation and analysis of the data.

An example of this, with perhaps the most subjective evaluations, was the learning criterion *commitment filter*. How do I know how the learners will react to the exercise? Does

the exercise invoke the learner's curiosity, enjoyment, resultative motivation, etc.? This is very difficult to assess or predict, particularly as it may be very individual. My solution is to evaluate how the learner's brain is likely to react to the stimulation provided by the exercise, according to cognitive learning theory.

4. Results and discussion

The purpose of this thesis is to evaluate the quality of grammar exercises in EFL textbooks for Norwegian learners. This chapter is going to present the analysis and discussion of findings in relation to the following categories and criteria presented in chapter 3 (see 3.2.3 Framework for evaluating exercises):

Categories:

- Grammatical objective
- Learning aim
- Cognitive stage

Learning criteria

- Formative/ summative
- Commitment filter
- Depth of processing
- Peer learning

Communicative criteria

- Interaction
- Authenticity of process
- Task-based
- Contextualization
- Complex encoding
- Personalization

The exercises will be categorized and analyzed according to the following exercise types (see 3.2.3 exercise types):

- Awareness-raising/ discovery
- Multiple choice
- Completion (gap filling)
- Matching
- Ordering
- Selection
- Transformation
- Reformulation

- Expansion
- Composition
- Games
- Translation
- Search and categorize
- Correction
- Association
- Noticing

First, the categories *grammatical objective*, *learning aim*, and *cognitive stage* will be discussed in relation to all the three textbooks. Then an analysis of each textbook respectively will follow. The analyses which discuss the textbooks separately will concern how they present grammar, *learning criteria*, and *communicative criteria*. Finally, the findings in the separate textbook analyses will be summed up and further discussed according to the most common exercise types observed.

4.1 Grammatical Objectives

Grammatical objectives refer to what item of grammar is being introduced or practised. The grammatical objective may be stated explicitly or be implicit in a particular exercise. This section will first discuss how the grammatical objectives of the grammar exercises are explicitly stated in the textbooks and whether they do so in formal, notional or functional terms (see 3.2.3.1 Grammatical objectives). There will also be a short discussion on the correlation between which objective the textbooks explicitly state for an exercise and which objective(s) the exercise actually includes. Finally, a quantitative analysis of which categories of objectives each textbook includes will be presented. The categories of grammatical objectives include *form/ morphology*, *pattern/ syntax*, *general notion*, *specific notion*, *process*, *grammatical function*, and *communicative function* (see 3.2.3.1 Grammatical objectives).

4.1.1 Explicitly stated objectives

All three textbooks state grammatical objectives for the exercises, and do so in similar ways. The objectives are presented as headings of sets of grammar exercises, such as "The passive voice" in *New Flight 3* and "Prefixes and suffixes" in *Searching 10*. As these examples show, the headings do not present specific grammatical objectives, such as a particular tense, but rather general objectives, or topics, for the sets of grammar exercises. In other words, the specific grammatical objectives of the exercises are not stated. The teacher or learner is left to extract the specific grammatical objective of the exercise by analyzing its contents. *Crossroads 10B* is a little more specific by presenting main topics in headings, e.g. "Substantiv – Nouns", and more specific objectives in sub-headings, e.g. "Utellelige substantiv – Uncountable nouns". In addition, the rule explanations presented before the exercises in *Crossroads 10B* suggest the focus of the exercises.

What may be observed in the headings is that they are all expressed in formal terms. The headings in *Crossroads 10B* refer to and presents word classes and *form/ morphology*, such as "Pronomen" (pronouns) and "Eiendomsord" (possession words). The headings in *New Flight 3* express grammatical objectives by referring to *form/ morphology*, *pattern/ syntax*, and word classes, e.g. "The continuous tenses", "The passive voice", and "Interjections". *Searching 10* express most of its objectives in terms of *form/ morphology* and *pattern/ syntax*, such as "Different types of –ing form" and "Word order". There are two exceptions in *Searching 10* though, "Speaking strategies", which focuses the *communicative function* of grammar for expressing likes and dislikes, and "Talking about the future", which focus on *specific notions* concerning future.

The exercises also tend to express the grammatical objectives in formal terms. For instance, the following exercise in *Crossroads 10B* requires the learner to practise the notion of 'expressing scheduled and arranged events', applying previously explained rules:

Example 1: exercise 21 p. 157 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

> Write three sentences where you use the present tense in order to express future.

This exercise refers to meaning, but by focusing on *form/ morphology* (the present tense) it formulates the notion in a rather vague way. 'Future' expressed through the present tense may refer to several specific notions. It would perhaps be better to refer explicitly to the notion expressed through the present tense, e.g. "Write three sentences where you talk about scheduled/ arranged events". Consequently the objective of the exercise will be expressed as *specific notion* instead of *form/ morphology*. The advantage of this is that the learner is seen as a user of language and has meanings to express – a purpose for producing language. Moreover, a focus on notions would strengthen the learner's association between a specific notion and the form it is expressed through. Only referring to the grammatical objective by its form may make the learning process more confusing as one form may express a variety of specific notions.

Sometimes an exercise will practise more than one notion. This may be intentional, such as in exercises that include the notions 'habits' and 'present activities' expressed through the forms present simple and present progressive respectively, as in the following example:

Example 2: exercise 11 p. 197 in New Flight 3

> Put the verb in the right tense.
> Example:
> walk: I walk to school every day.
> write: He is writing to his uncle right now.
>
> A   go: We ... to Canada every year
> Etc

A potential problem is if an exercise practises several different *unrelated* notions, such as the following exercise from *Crossroads 10B* which focuses on modal meanings:

Example 3: exercise 17 p. 155 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

Translate into Norwegian:

a) May I sit down here?

b) He must be extremely glad.

c) Could you open the window, please?

Etc.

This exercise appears below the heading "Modale hjelpeverb" (modal auxiliary verbs) and focuses on the specific notions 'probability', 'politeness', and 'habit'. Rather than focus on one notion and teach the learner how to express this, the exercise focuses on several forms that express a variety of notions. If the purpose of the exercise in example 3 is to make the learner aware of which meanings the forms express, it would be better to focus on the notions the English forms are used to express.

Another potential problem about exercises that include several notions is if it is not made clear in the exercise that the objective includes more than one notion. Grammatical objectives that are not clearly stated in headings and exercises where the exercise includes more than one notion were discovered. Some of the exercises state one grammatical objective but includes several specific notions. An example of this is the formal objective stated in the heading "When to use the determinative "the"" p. 97 in *New Flight 3*. One of the exercises that follow, exercise 19 p. 97-98, presents a text example in which "the" is used to express several notions: 'definite reference', 'general reference', and 'referring to names'. Exercise 19 asks the learner to compare the English use with the Norwegian use of the determinative. Neither of the notions is explained previous to the exercise, but the learner is asked to look up rules in the textbook series' grammar book after accomplishing the exercise. A focus on notions would make it easier for the learner to understand when to use the target language forms and consequently support her ability to use the forms correctly. If the learners are presented with several notions at once, especially when the different notions are not clearly stated, there is a danger that the learners will confuse the notions, which will impede the effectiveness and outcome of the learning process.

4.1.2 Categories of grammatical objectives

4.1.2.1 Crossroads 10B

Crossroads 10B clearly has a strong focus on form:

Table 4: Categories of grammatical objectives in Crossroads 10B
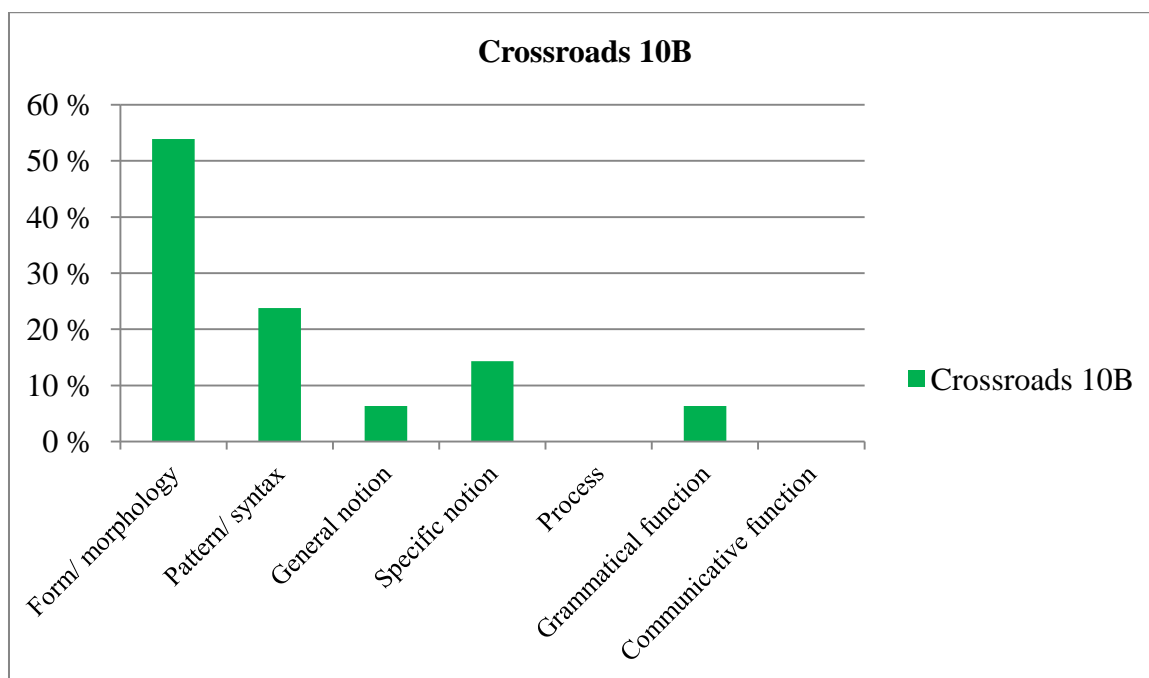
A great majority of the grammatical objectives in *Crossroads 10B* can be placed within the *form/ morphology* category, such as:

Example 4: exercise 3 p. 132 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

Fill in the right form of the word:

a) Robert has two ... (child) and George has three.

Etc.

There are also many objectives within the *pattern/ syntax* category, e.g:

Example 5: exercise 2 p. 137 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

Explain in your own words what a subject pronoun is and what an object pronoun is.

None of the exercises express grammatical objectives in terms of *communicative function*. There are a few exercises that focus on *specific notions*, though all of these teach several notions at once rather than focus on one. For example, the exercise in the following example includes the notions 'deciding' (*will*) and 'intention and plans' (*be+ going to*).

Example 6: exercise 18 p. 157 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

Explain the difference between *will* and *be + going to*.

Some of the many exercises within the *form/ morphology* category could have facilitated learning better if they focused on notion or function rather than form. For example, the exercise in the following example has formal objectives but could have facilitated learning better if the objectives focused on communicative function:

Example 7: exercise 1 p. 140 in Crossroads 10B *(My translation)*

Fill in the empty field with one or two words to make the interrogative sentence correct:

a) …… the dog recognize its mother?

b) …… she scared of spiders?

Etc.

In the rule explanations preceding this exercise, there are listed many *wh-* questions words and question sentences starting with *be*, *have*, or *do*. There are no explanations of which contexts the particular words are used in (i.e. which function the particular words have in question sentences). The exercise simply tests whether the learner is able to fill in the right form. Testing the learner's ability to apply the right form does not help her acquire new knowledge or develop her skills in using the grammar. By focusing on the communicative function of the grammar, this exercise could have supported the development of the learner's competences concerning the function each of the words have and when to use each of them.

4.1.2.2 New Flight 3

The same tendencies are evident in *New Flight 3*:

Table 5: Categories of grammatical objectives in New Flight 3
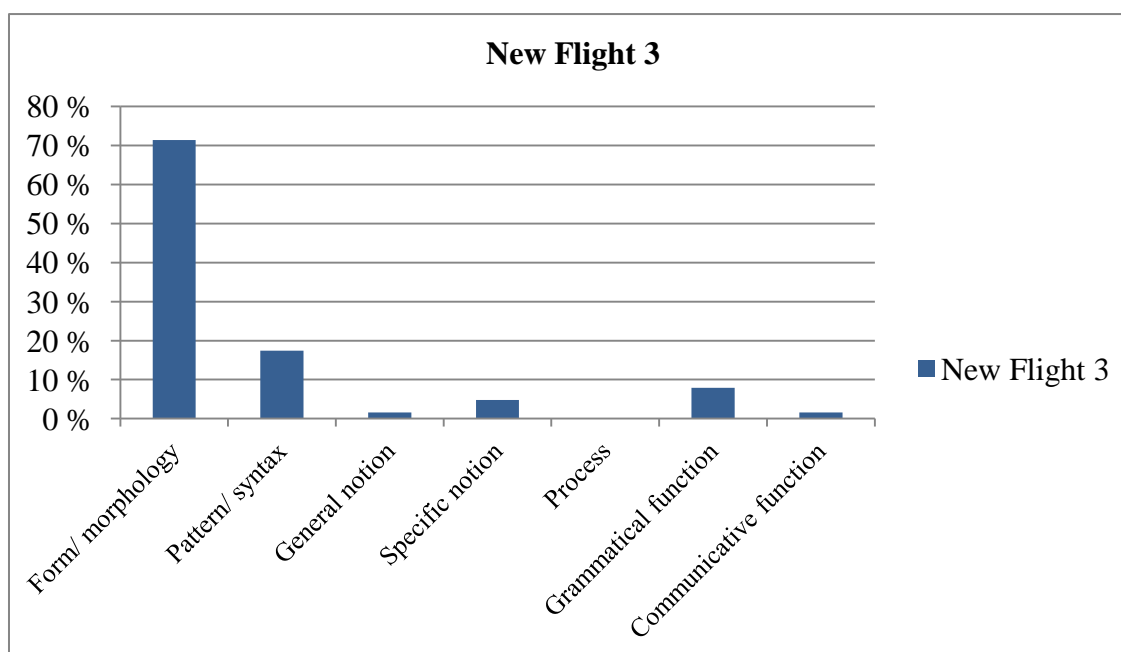
The number of grammatical objectives within the *form/ morphology* category is considerably higher than the number of objectives within any of the other categories. One example is the following, where the focus is on the *–ly* ending which differs the form of adverbs from adjectives:

Example 8: exercise 36 p. 209 in New Flight 3

Pair work

Make the following adjectives into adverbs, and say a sentence each where you use the adverb.

Example: slow – slowly　　A: My father always drives *slowly*

　　　　　　　　　　　　B: They did their homework very *slowly*.

Quiet, careful, nice, beautiful, bad, awful, happy, noisy, loud, (etc.)

Some objectives in *New Flight 3* are within the *pattern/ syntax* category, such as the exercise in example 9 which focuses on the position of adverbs in sentences:

Example 9: exercise 37 p. 209 in New Flight 3

Write these sentences with the adverb in the correct place.

Example: often Matt visits us → Matt *often* visits us.

a　　　never　They do their homework on time.

Etc.

There are also a small number of objectives within the *notion* and *function* categories. For example, the exercise in the following example focuses on the notion 'habits' expressed through the expressions "used to" and "usually":

Example 10: exercise 25 p. 74 in New Flight 3

Used to can only be used in the past tense. If you want to express habits in other tenses, *usually* is a good alternative.

Translate these sentences into English:

a　　　Vi pleier å reise til Sverige om sommeren.

b　　　Det regner vanligvis mye der jeg bor.

c　　　Vi pleide å se hverandre hver dag da jeg var liten.

The exercise in example 11 requires the learner to consider which grammatical function the grammar expresses, whether the word describes a person/ thing or an action:

Example 11: exercise 38 p. 209 in New Flight 3

Adjective or adverb? Write the sentences correctly:
a   John has a (beautiful) wife. She dances (divine).
Etc.

Many of the objectives within the *form/ morphology* category could have focused on other aspects of the grammar, such as notions, and many of the exercises that had formal objectives included several notions:

Example 12: exercise 8 p. 64 in New Flight 3

Change these sentences from the past perfect continuous tense into the future continuous tense.
a   They had been studying hard.
b   Lea had been travelling around for a year.
Etc.

In this exercise the learner is required to work with the formal objectives *past perfect continuous tense* and *future continuous tense*. The focus is entirely on the differences between the forms of these objectives. There is no focus whatsoever on the notions these forms express. From a communicative perspective, there is no use in being able to construct a form if there is no notion to relate it to. In other words, the exercise would have facilitated learning better if it focused on the notions expressed through the form *future continuous tense*.

4.1.2.3 Searching 10

Searching 10 shows the same pattern as the other textbooks:

Table 6: Categories of grammatical objectives in Searching 10
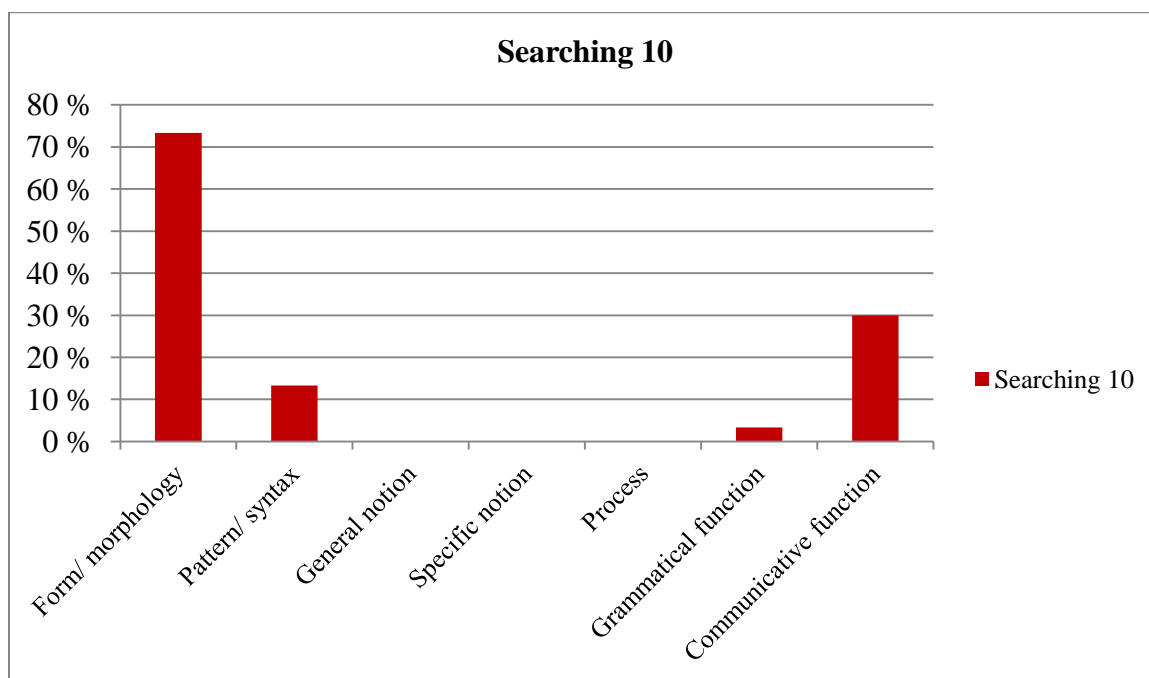
The focus on formal aspects of grammar is expressed by a high number of grammatical objectives within the *form/ morphology* category, such as:

Example 13: exercise L3 p. 95 in Searching 10

Translate the sentences using –ing forms.
A   Å spise for fort er udannet.
Etc.

The *pattern/ syntax* category is the second largest group, although the exercises within this group are considerably fewer than the exercises within the *form/ morphology* category. One example is exercise L4 p. 199, where the objective of the exercise concerns the syntax of the passive construction:

Example 14: exercise L4 p. 199 in Searching 10

Put the words in these sentences in the correct order.
A   in fleet Japan was Harbor attacked the American by Pearl.
Etc.

The textbook could have facilitated learning better with more focus on notional and functional objectives. The following example presents an exercise with a formal objective:

Example 15: exercise L2 p. 95 in Searching 10

> Fill in the –ing form of the verb in brackets.
>
> A   The Khoikhoi began – (farm) the land in AD 200.
>
> B   The settlers had problems – (protect) their cattle against native Xhosas.
>
> Etc.

Here, the learner is simply required to add a suffix to the word in brackets. The focus is entirely on how the formal objective is expressed, not in the slightest on what it expresses (notions) or why (functions). As a result, the learner will know how to express a form, but not when to use it.

None of the exercises in *Searching 10* focus on *specific* or *general notions*. *Searching 10* includes only one exercise that focus on *grammatical function*:

Example 16: exercise L1 p. 72 in Searching 10

> dis-   **dis**honest
>
> in-   **in**secure
>
> im-   **im**possible
>
> un-   **un**happy
>
> il-   **il**legal
>
> How do the prefixes above change the meaning of the words?

This exercise makes the learner focus on the function the prefixes have to modify the meaning of the words. There are a few exercises that have grammatical objectives within the *communicative function* category, though. Such as:

Example 17: exercise L1 p. 24 in Searching 10

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

The exercise focuses on the communicative function of expressions that enable the learner to express emotions, more precisely *like/ dislike*.

4.2. Learning aims

The learning aims of the exercises in the three textbooks include:

- "Awareness-raising of...,"
- "Focus attention to...,"
- "Understand...,"
- "Internalize...,"
- "Rehearse...,"
- "Practise using..."

For instance, the learning aim of the exercise in example 13 was evaluated as "Practise using the form" and the learning aim of the exercise in example 12 was evaluated as "Internalize the rules". Both "practise" and "rehearse" entail learning grammar through language use, but I have used "practise" to describe the learning aims of exercises which require the learner to do something over and over again in order to acquire or master a grammatical objective, and "rehearse" for the learning aims which focus on repetition in order to prepare for and improve performance in realistic contexts with regard to the grammatical objective.

The analysis and discussion of these learning aims will first concern whether the learning aims reveal a pedagogical or a communicative focus on grammar learning (see 2.9.4 Learning vs. rehearsal function of exercises). That is, do the textbooks focus on learning *about* grammar or on the learner's ability to *use* grammar? After this, there will be a discussion on the relation between the learning aims and the learning criterion *summative/ formative*. The criterion will help teachers and textbook writers to decide how well the methodological choices facilitate the learning process the exercise aims for. Finally I will comment on the relation between the learning aims and the analysis of cognitive learning stages.

4.2.1 Focus of learning aims: pedagogical or communicative

The learning aims which have a pedagogical focus (learning *about* grammar) include "awareness-raising of...", "focus attention to...", "understand...", and "internalize" particular grammatical elements. For example the exercise from *Searching 10* in example 16, which requires the learner to *focus attention to* the relation between the grammatical elements *prefixes* and the meanings expressed by a word with and without a particular prefix. The exercise does not teach the learner how to *use* the prefixes, but fixes her attention to the grammatical element and makes her reflect on rules related to it. As a result, the learner develops explicit knowledge of a grammatical element. *Crossroads 10B* includes some

exercises that focus on developing the learner's knowledge about grammar through reflection on rules, such as:

Example 18: exercise 4 p. 145 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

When do we use the past tense of the verb?

Both *Searching 10* and *New Flight 3* include exercises that make the learner focus attention to aspects of English grammar through comparison with Norwegian grammar, e.g. the following exercise from *New Flight 3*:

Example 19: exercise 33 p. 21 in New Flight 3

Study these examples:

The first thing he did that morning was to read the paper.

That's *the most awful thing* I've ever heard!

She's *the only one* for me!

Translate the passages in *italics* into Norwegian. Can you see the difference?

[…]

In Norwegian, the noun phrases in italics are realized as adjective phrases, i.e. without the noun (e.g. *thing*). Thus, comparative exercises such as the one in the example above teach the learner *about* English grammar (that a noun is required in such phrases).

There are many exercises in all three textbooks which focus on "internalizing" the learner's knowledge about grammar. For example, the exercise in example 20 requires that the learner has some knowledge about how the passive strucure is formed and focuses on internalizing this knowledge by producing the structure in very controlled forms:

Example 20: exercise 21 p. 47 in New Flight 3

Turn these sentences into the passive voice. Start with the words in *italics*.

Example: Sally brings *our mail*. *Our mail* is brought by Sally.

A The warden locks *the gate* at 11 pm.

Etc.

The theory behind learning aims such as "internalizing" is that practice may lead to the automatization of explicit knowledge so that it becomes implicit to the learner. This way,

explicit knowledge is thought to serve as a short-cut to develop the learner's ability to use the grammar in language production (see 2.2 Learning grammar).

The learning aims which have a communicative focus (ability to *use* grammar), include "Rehearse..." and "Practise using..." grammatical objectives. For example, the learning aim of the exercise in the following example was evaluated as "Rehearse the rule":

Example 21: exercise 8 p. 135 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

Write seven sentences using the 's-genitive.

By requiring the learner to repeatedly produce sentences that contain the grammatical objective, this exercise facilitates the learner's ability to use the grammar under relatively controlled circumstances, which makes it easier for the learner to focus on the grammatical objective while producing language output. The exercise in the following example requires the learner to practise using proper names that are preceded by the determinative 'the':

Example 22: exercise 21 p. 98 in New Flight 3

Pair work

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

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

The learning aim of this exercise was evaluated as "Practise using the rule to perform a task", which may facilitate the development of the learner's implicit knowledge. Similarly, the learning aim of the exercise in example 23 was evaluated as "Practise applying the rules":

Example 23: exercise L2 p. 173 in Searching 10

Here are some uncountable nouns. Use them as the subject in present tense sentences.

water	music	news	information
homework	furniture	rain	luck

There are some exercises in each textbook which have a rehearsal function, and thus focus on the learner as a *user* of the language, but all three textbooks include a significantly higher number of exercises which focus on the pedagogical function of exercises, i.e. the learner is mainly viewed as a *learner* of grammar, as in traditional approaches. From the

perspective of the Cognitive+Communicative approach both pedagogical and communicative functions should play a role.

4.2.2 Formative/ summative

The difference between formative and summative exercises is basically that formative exercises support the learning process, while summative exercises test the learner's knowledge (see 2.9.3 Aims of an exercise). However, the categories are overlapping; a summative exercise may support learning processes to some degree, but its focus on testing leaves it with little formative value.

My evaluation of exercises in terms of the criterion *formative/ summative* largely depended on the learning aim of the respective exercise, as summative exercises include an additional element to their learning aims: "test..." understanding or competence (knowledge/ skills) or "prove ability to..." Examples of formative exercises and their learning aims are:

- Example 16: "Awareness-raising of the relation between form and meaning"
- Example 22: "Practise using the rule in conversation"
- Example 21: "Rehearse the rule"

In comparison, the learning aims of summative exercises include elements of testing:

- Example 18: "Internalize the rule and test declarative knowledge"
- Example 20: "Practise and prove ability to form the structure"

The problem about a focus on testing the learner's knowledge is that it contradicts the very purpose of the first part of the learning aim. For example, the learning aim of the exercise in the following example was evaluated as "Internalize the rules and test understanding":

Example 24: exercise 9 p. 150 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

Fill in the present simple or the present continuous tense.
a) Try not to disturb your dad. He .... (work) on his new invention.
b) Please come and join us. We .... (have) tea at four o'clock most days.
Etc.

The methodology of this exercise, to fill in the correct form, requires that the learner already knows the grammar if she is going to accomplish the exercise successfully. Such methodology does not make much of a contribution to facilitate the learning process,

"internalizing the rules", which the exercise aims to do. It goes without saying that methodology which requires that the learner *already knows* the grammar she is supposed to learn does not contribute much to facilitate *learning* of that grammar. By evaluating the learning aim with regard to the *formative/ summative* criterion it may thus become evident how well the methodological choices for the exercise facilitate the learning process aimed for. If the exercise is evaluated as formative, the methodological choices are consistent with the learning aim. If the exercise is evaluated as summative, the learning aim is not likely to be achieved as well.

Evaluations of the exercises with regard to the *formative/ summative* criterion will be further discussed in the individual analyses and discussions of the textbooks (see 4.4 Crossroads 10B; 4.5 New Flight 3; 4.6 Searching 10).

4.2.3 Learning aims and cognitive stages

I soon found that some words I often used to describe the *learning aims* of the exercises correlated with certain *cognitive learning stages*. If the learning aim includes "Awareness-raising of..." the correlating cognitive stage is, naturally, the *awareness-raising stage*. Exercises where the learning aim contains "internalize rule", the cognitive stage is likely to be the *conceptualization stage*. "Practise using" mostly occurs in exercises at the *proceduralization* stage, while "rehearse" occurs in both exercises at the *conceptualization stage* and at the *proceduralization stage*.

4.3 Cognitive stages

The following discussion of cognitive learning stages will concern general tendencies discovered in the three textbooks, and thus present a quantitative element in this textbook analysis. The percentages in table 4 refer to the number of exercises analyzed in each book respectively: 63 exercises in *Crossroads 10*, 63 exercises in *New Flight 3*, and 30 exercises in *Searching 10*.

Table 7: Percentage of each cognitive stage in all three textbooks compared
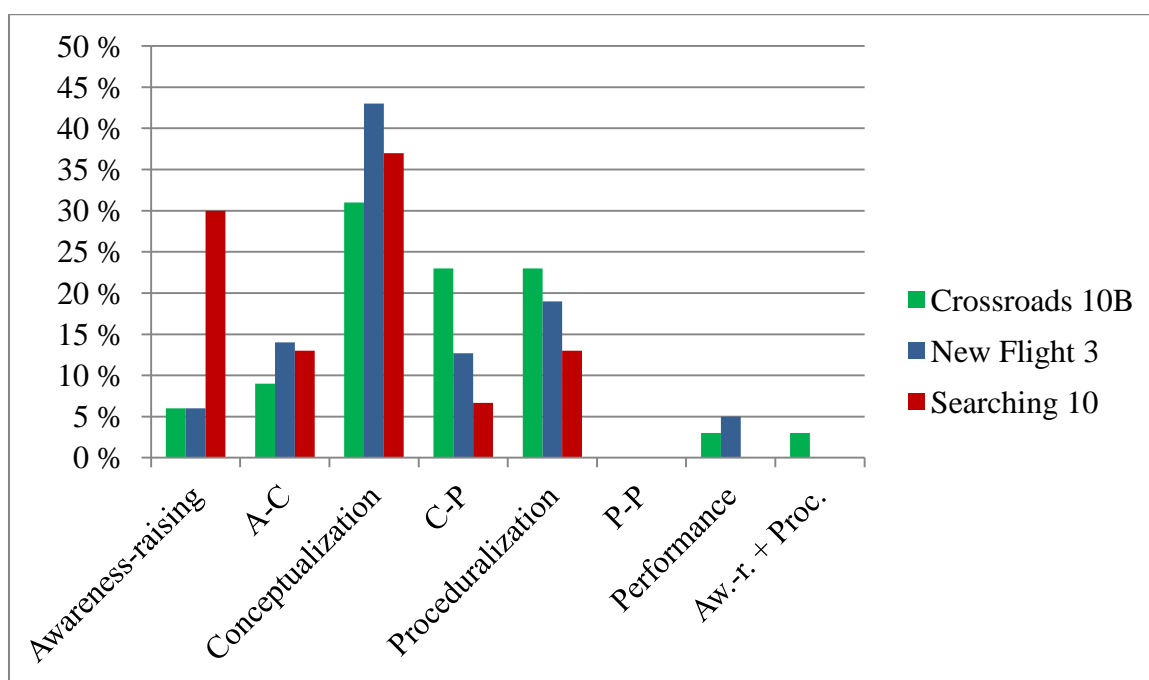
A significant number of the grammar exercises in each of the three analyzed textbooks are at the *conceptualization* stage. As the table illustrates, in all the textbooks more than 30 % of the exercises facilitate the *conceptualization* stage. For instance, the exercises in examples 4, 5, and 6 from *Crossroads 10B*, examples 2, 8, 9, 11, and 12 from *New Flight 3*, and examples 13, 14, and 15 from *Searching 10* all facilitate the *conceptualization* stage. The high number of exercises which facilitate the *conceptualization* stage, compared to the other stages, may suggest influence from traditional views on grammar teaching, which emphasized the internalization of rules rather than practise using the rules (see 2.1 What is grammar?).

There are relatively few exercises in both *Crossroads 10B* and *New Flight 3* which facilitate the *awareness-raising* stage, as example 3 from *Crossroads 10B* and example 19 from *New Flight 3*. *Searching 10*, on the other hand, has a high percentage of exercises which facilitate the *awareness-raising* stage, e.g. the exercise in example 16. The high number of exercises in *Searching 10* which facilitate the *awareness-raising* and *conceptualization* stages, as opposed to the *proceduralization* and *performance* stage, suggest that *Searching 10* focuses on developing the learner's competences, rather than performance skills, with regard to grammar.

Both *Crossroads 10B* and *New Flight 3* have a relatively high number of exercises that facilitate the *proceduralization* stage, which shows that the textbooks have some focus on developing the learner's performance skills with regard to grammar. For example, the

exercise in example 1 from *Crossroads 10B* and the exercise from *New Flight 3* in the following example, both facilitate the *proceduralization* stage:

Example 25: exercise 15 p. 116 in New Flight 3

Pair work

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.

Only *Crossroads 10 B* and *New Flight 3* include exercises that facilitate the *performance* stage, as in the following two examples:

Example 26: exercise 1 p. 187 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

Write a short text in which you argue why it is important that rich countries help poor countries economically or in other ways. Use various connectives in the text.

Example 27: exercise 31 p. 50 in New Flight 3

Pair work

Join a friend and make questions to go with these answers.

A: ....?   B: Last night? I was at the cinema.

(Etc.)

Now, make some questions and answers of your own.

There are very few exercises in the textbooks which facilitate the *performance* stage. *New Flight 3* has the highest number of exercises at the *performance* stage, though only three in all. *Searching 10* has the least focus on facilitating both the *proceduralization* and *performance* stages. Four exercises facilitate the *proceduralization* stage – three that focus on how to express emotions of like/ dislike and one that focus on practicing expressing future actions, e.g. example 17. No exercises in *Searching 10* facilitate the *performance* stage.

It is a little alarming that there are so few exercises in *Searching 10* which facilitate the *proceduralization* stage and hardly any exercises in any of the three textbooks which facilitate the *performance* stage. These stages develop the learner's language performance skills, which make such exercises important, especially as the learners have been taught

English for nearly ten years and should be challenged in their performance skills, not only their competences.

4.4 Crossroads 10 B

This section will discuss the presentation of grammar in *Crossroads 10B*, followed by a presentation of the exercise types used in the textbook and evaluations of the exercises in terms of the learning criteria and the communicative criteria. Finally, there will be a summary of the findings.

4.4.1 Presentation of grammar

The authors of *Crossroads 10B* have chosen the strategy to initially present grammar rules to the learners, followed by exercises for internalizing these rules. By presenting rules and then following up with exercises, *Crossroads 10B* reveals a trait well known from traditional grammar instruction, the *PPP* method – presentation, practice, production – which shows a deductive, as opposed to inductive, route to knowledge acquisition (See 2.3 Teaching grammar). It may be argued that this is a very straightforward and time-efficient way to go through many different grammatical objectives, but whether it is efficient in terms of *learning* is another matter. As the learners are made aware of the rules before doing exercises, the *PPP* method prevents the use of discovery learning and problem-solving, methods which require a high degree of mental activity of the learner and thus assist in building cognitive structures for storing and retrieving information (see 2.6.1 Information processing – memory and methods; 2.6.2 Constructivism).

4.4.2 Exercise analysis

As the following table shows, there are relatively few exercise types in *Crossroads 10B*, most of which are either *gap filling* or *composition* exercises, and also a few *awareness-raising* and *transformation* exercises:

Table 8: Number of exercises in Crossroads 10B according to exercise type
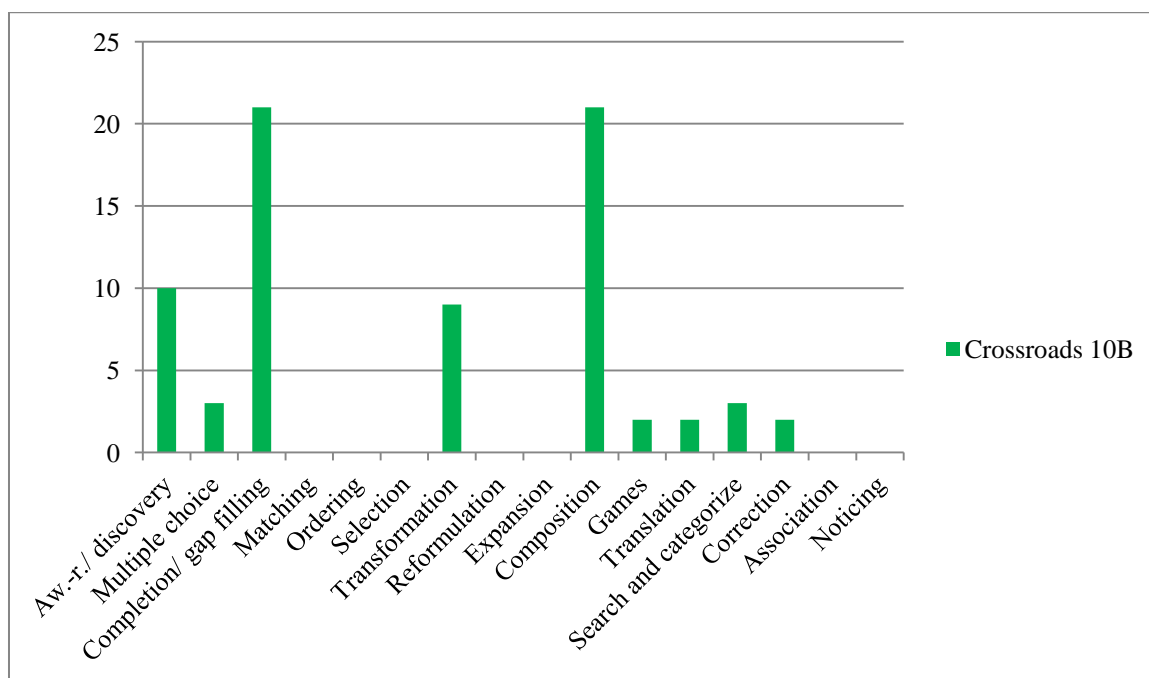
4.4.2.1 Formative/ summative

Most of the exercises in *Crossroads 10B* test the learners' competences, as there are twice as many summative exercises as formative exercises. Thus, the learning aims of many exercises are not facilitated well by the chosen methodology (see 4.2.2 Formative/ summative). An explanation to this finding is the number of gap filling and transformation exercises, the exercise types which coincide with most of the summative exercises. Both gap filling and transformation require the learner to demonstrate her knowledge and ability to apply the correct forms and structures to other people's pre-fabricated ideas (see 2.9.3 Aims of an exercise). In other words, these exercise types *test* the learner's competences, as for example the gap filling exercise in example 4 and the following transformation exercise:

Example 28: exercise 2 p. 132 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

Find all the nouns (common nouns) in the sentences and write them in their plural form

a) The party took place in the city

Etc.

Due to the *PPP* methodology, where rules are presented before the exercises, many exercises which could have been formative become mainly summative, such as the awareness-raising exercise in example 18. This could have been a formative exercise which made the learner reflect and discover rules on her own, but due to the preceding rule explanations the exercise simply tests whether the learner has understood the rule explained.

As the awareness-raising exercises were evaluated as mainly summative, there were only composition exercises in *Crossroads 10B* which were evaluated as formative exercises, e.g. examples 22 and 27. Almost all of the summative exercises facilitate the *conceptualization stage* or its related transitional stages, *awareness-raising/ conceptualization* and *conceptualization/ proceduralization*.

4.4.2.2 Commitment filter

There are few exercises in *Crossroads 10B* that are likely to lead to a high degree of commitment on the part of the learner. All the exercises which do qualify are composition exercises. Exercises which focus on language production tend to involve factors that trigger traits of the *commitment filter* criterion since they allow the learner to express her personal thoughts and ideas. However, having the opportunity to communicate does not necessarily mean that the learner will feel a need to communicate anything. The learner must have a message to express, which may be provided by contextualization of the exercise. This is reflected in *Crossroads 10B* where *communicative needs* is the most frequent variant of *commitment filter*, triggered by composition exercises which require the learner to express her ideas in a written story or text, e.g. the exercise in example 26. Still, one may wonder how well even the contextualized composition exercises will support commitment, such as "Write a story about a nature or holiday experience". The learner might regard the setting as artificial rather than an opportunity to express her thoughts and ideas. One may also question how well this kind of composition exercises fulfils communicative needs as the learner is not communicating to anyone.

There are two composition exercises which additionally involve discussions between peers on how the grammatical objective affects a text, e.g.:

Example 29: exercise 3 p. 183 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

You need two sheets of paper. On one paper write a text using a lot of prepositions. Then write the same text over again on the other paper, but this time draw a line where the prepositions were. Give the text without the prepositions to another student. Tell him or her to fill in the appropriate prepositions.
- Are these the same prepositions as the ones you wrote on the first paper?
- Discuss which text is the best, and why it is the best
- Agree which prepositions fit best in the text. Then rewrite the text and show it to your teacher for comments.

The peer discussions may trigger curiosity about the grammatical objective and as a result a *cognitive need* for acquiring knowledge. A *cognitive need* for acquiring knowledge, or problem-solving, could have been facilitated by the awareness-raising exercises in *Crossroads 10B*, but then the learners would have had to be presented with examples of the grammar in use (context) before the exercise instead of pre-fabricated rules according to the *PPP* methodology.

4.4.2.3 Depth of processing

Crossroads 10B only requires deep processing of grammatical objectives in relation to language production, as all the qualified exercises are composition exercises. The composition exercises are evaluated to qualify for *depth of processing* as they require the learner to use the grammatical objective together with other aspects of language, such as lexicon and sentence structure, and thus lead to some elaborate processing (see 2.6.1 Information processing – memory and methods) through complex encoding. A consequence of the fact that only composition exercises require *depth of processing* is that deep processing is required mainly at the highest learning stages, *proceduralization* and *performance*. In other words, exercises in *Crossroads 10B* which facilitate the *awareness-raising* and *conceptualization* stages, which also require high mental activity from the learner, do not qualify for the criterion as they only require shallow processing.

The possibility to copy rules from the textbook prevents some exercises which facilitate the *awareness-raising* and *conceptualization* stages from qualifying for *depth of processing*. For instance, exercises which ask the learners to explain aspects of the grammatical objective may have provided the learner with an opportunity for elaborate processing. The problem is that those exercises ask the learners questions to which they can easily copy the answers from the rule explanation just above on the same page. For example:

Example 30: exercises 1, 3, and 4 p. 145 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

1. Explain what is meant by *infinitive.*
3. When do we use the present tense of the verb?
4. When do we use the past tense of the verb?

These three exercises could have been discovery or problem-solving exercises, but basically just ask the learner to replicate rules that are presented above. The textbook also include exercises which ask the learner to explain differences between two word classes or grammatical forms, but the textbook provide the relevant rules prior to all exercises. Copying

hardly requires any mental activity of the learner, and the result is an exercise which requires shallow processing.

4.4.2.4 Peer learning

There are few exercises in *Crossroads 10B* which qualify for the *peer learning* criterion. All except a search-and categorize exercise are composition exercises. These either ask the learners to discuss matters concerning the grammatical objective, as in example 29, or to compare answers, as in the following example:

Example 31: exercise 5 p. 139 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

> Make ten sentences with *it is/ was, there is/ are, there was/ were*. Discuss with your partner whether the sentences are right before you ask your teacher to comment the sentences.

The search-and-categorize exercise asks the peers to compare answers:

Example 32: exercise 1 p. 142 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

> Find the adjectives in the text below and write them down. Compare with another student.
> *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. (etc.)*

The composition exercises which qualify for peer learning facilitate the *proceduralization stage*, while the search-and-categorize exercise facilitates the awareness-raising stage. As the learners may help each other discover and understand the notions and their relations to forms, there ought to be a higher number of exercises facilitating the *awareness-raising* and *conceptualization* stages that qualify for *peer learning*.

4.4.2.5 Interaction

Crossroads 10B does not include a single exercise which qualifies for the *interaction* criterion; that is to say, in which students use the grammar to communicate their ideas to each other. This makes little sense from the perspective of communicative language teaching. As most real-life language use occurs as oral communication the learners should be given the opportunity to practise using the grammar in interaction with real respondents.

4.4.2.6 Authenticity of process

In order to qualify for *authenticity of process*, an exercise must require the learner to process language in a way similar to how language is processed in real-life language production. This means that the many exercises in *Crossroads 10B* which require the learner to transform

words or sentences or to fill in gaps in a sentence do not qualify for this criterion. All exercises in *Crossroads 10B* which qualify for *authenticity of process* are composition exercises, such as examples 29 and 31. By using other types of exercises *Crossroads 10B* could have given the learners the opportunity to acquire the grammatical objective through authentic linguistic processes at lower learning stages as well. Paraphrasing, for instance, is an authentic process in language use, and paraphrasing exercises may be used to facilitate the internalization of grammar, i.e. facilitate the *conceptualization* stage.

4.4.3.7 Task-based

There were no *task-based* exercises in *Crossroads 10B*. Some composition exercises require the learner to use a text they produce for a purpose, but this purpose only has to do with the language learning, as in the following:

Example 33: exercise 7 p. 143 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

> Write a story about a nature or holiday experience. Do not use adjectives. Write the story again, but this time use at least ten adjectives.
>
> - Read your stories in a group
>
> - Discuss which story is the best one
>
> - What do the adjectives do to a story? Discuss.

The purpose in this exercise is to make the learner concentrate on the grammatical function of adjectives, to describe or modify things, and their effect on the overall message. For an exercise to qualify as *task-based* it needs to have a purpose *outside* the language learning, that is, the learner must use language in order to achieve something.

4.4.2.8 Contextualization

There are many composition exercises in *Crossroads 10B*. The majority of these qualify for *formative*, *depth of processing*, *authenticity of process*, *complex encoding*, and *personalization*. What is interesting to see is that only two of them qualify for *contextualization*. One of the contextualized composition exercises provides a setting for writing a story, "a holiday experience". The second exercise supplies the learner with a topic, "rich countries' support of poor countries", and a text type, "argumentative".

The reason why most of the composition exercises in *Crossroads 10B* do not qualify for the *contextualization* criterion is that these exercises simply ask the learner to make sentences that contain the grammatical objective, e.g. "Make ten sentences with [grammatical objective]" as in example 31. This does not provide any context nor is the learner inspired to

imagine a context, in other words, the majority of composition exercises in *Crossroads 10B* basically just ask the learner to come up with sentences out of nothing! Such composition exercises could have facilitated learning better if they included contexts, as the learner may relate the grammatical objective to contexts of use (see 3.2.3.4.8 Contextualization). Including a context in the exercises would also make the learning process resemble real-life communication to a higher degree. From a communicative perspective, exercises which focus on the performance aspect of language learning ought to include a context for the language production, as "[g]rammatical knowledge is embedded in other types of knowledge", among other things contextual knowledge (Newby 2014: 3; see 2.8 The Cognitive+Communicative approach).

Variants of composition exercises which require the learner to "interpret or explain information in a chart of picture cue" or "add one or more lines to a dialogue" (see 3.2.3 Exercise types) could have made many of the composition exercises in *Crossroads* more communicative by giving the learner a context for the language production.

By providing a context in exercises which facilitate lower learning stages as well, *Crossroads 10B* could have given the learners a valuable tool, associative processing, in their acquisition of grammatical competence.

4.4.2.9 Complex encoding

The exercises which require *complex encoding* on the part of the learners are all composition exercises. All of these require the learner to construct whole sentences, and facilitate accordingly the highest cognitive learning stages, e.g. examples 26 and 31. If *Crossroads 10B* had applied other variants of composition exercises, the textbook may have facilitated grammar learning at the lower learning stages better. For instance, if the textbook had included exercises which required the learner to complete partial sentences with own ideas, which would involve a lower degree of complex encoding than producing whole sentences, composition exercises could have been used to facilitate the *conceptualization* stage of a grammatical objective.

Crossroads 10B use *gap filling* exercises for learning stages which ought to involve *complex encoding*, such as in the following example, which aims for the learner to practise using question tags:

Example 34: exercise 12 p. 150 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

> Insert question tags:
>
> a) Mum will be late for work, ... ?
>
> Etc.

This *gap filling* exercise simply tests whether the learner is able to apply the correct form/ structure, which is easily done by looking at the rules explained above the exercise. The exercise hardly requires any mental activity of the learner. If the aim is to rehearse the rules, the exercise would facilitate learning better if it required the learner to apply the grammatical objective together with other aspects of language, for instance by constructing the whole sentence rather than just the question tag.

4.4.2.10 Personalization

Again, only composition exercises qualify for the *personalization* criterion. There are two awareness-raising exercises which offer the learner the opportunity to express the rule in her own words, but the possibility to copy recently stated rules from the textbook disqualify these exercises from the personalization criterion.

Gap filling exercises may to a small extent qualify for *personalization* if the learner is required to use her own ideas to fill the gaps, but all the *gap filling* exercises in *Crossroads 10B* provide either prompt words or a bank of words above the exercise, e.g. the exercises in examples 4 and 24. By providing prompt words there is no possibility for the learner to use her creativity and apply personal ideas. I.e. prompted gap filling exercises apply to neither communicative language teaching nor cognitive learning theory (see 3.2.3.4.10 Personalization). Furthermore, such exercises make the learner focus entirely on form, detached from other aspects of language use.

4.4.3 Summary

As a consequence of the *PPP* methodology, as well as a high number of gap filling and transformation exercises, there are many summative exercises in *Crossroads 10B* and few exercises which qualify for *depth of processing*, *commitment filter*, *complex encoding*, *authenticity of process*, and *personalization*. There are mainly composition exercises which qualify for these criteria. Despite the number of composition exercises, there are no exercises which qualify for *interaction* or *task-based*. Hardly any of the composition exercises provide a context, and no other exercise types provide context either. Few exercises qualify for *peer learning*.

4.5 New Flight 3

This section will discuss the presentation of grammar in *New Flight 3*, followed by a presentation of the exercise types used in the textbook and evaluations of the exercises in terms of the learning criteria and the communicative criteria. Finally, there will be a summary of the findings.

4.5.1 Presentation of grammar

In the introduction of the book the authors state:

> "In this book you will find lots of different exercises. Some of them are there to help you learn the *structure* of the English language, like grammar, sounds and symbols. Others will help you *communicate* better in English. They will help you learn new words and expressions and to practice using them. (*New Flight 3 Workbook* : 5)"

This statement suggests an uncommunicative view of grammar detached from other aspects of language, not as a part of what helps you "*communicate* better in English", but simply a part of how English is structured.

There are some exercises in *New Flight 3* which I immediately identified as grammar exercises, but which do not appear below the heading "Grammar". These exercises appear below other headings, most often "Work with words", and cover general notions such as "Possession and connection", "Describing actions", and "Positions and locations", among other. One grammar exercise, with the learning aim "practise making questions", is found under the heading "Let's talk!" I decided to include these exercises in my analysis, since this thesis is based on my definition of grammar and not the textbook writers'.

Either at the beginning of an exercise or between the first exercises of a set *New Flight 3* tends to ask the learner to "revise" grammar in the *New Flight* series' grammar book. Even though *New Flight 3* do not present rules on the same page as the exercises, as *Crossroads 10B* did, the approach by which the learner is asked to revise grammar rules before doing the exercise complies with the traditional *PPP* methodology.

4.5.2 Exercise analysis

Similar to *Crossroads 10B*, *New Flight 3* adheres to a few exercise types, especially *gap filling* and *composition* exercises. The gap filling exercises provide prompt words or a bank of words, as in *Crossroads 10B*. What makes *New Flight 3* differ from *Crossroads 10B* with regard to exercise types is that it uses a lot of translation exercises:

Table 9: Number of exercises in New Flight 3 according to exercise type
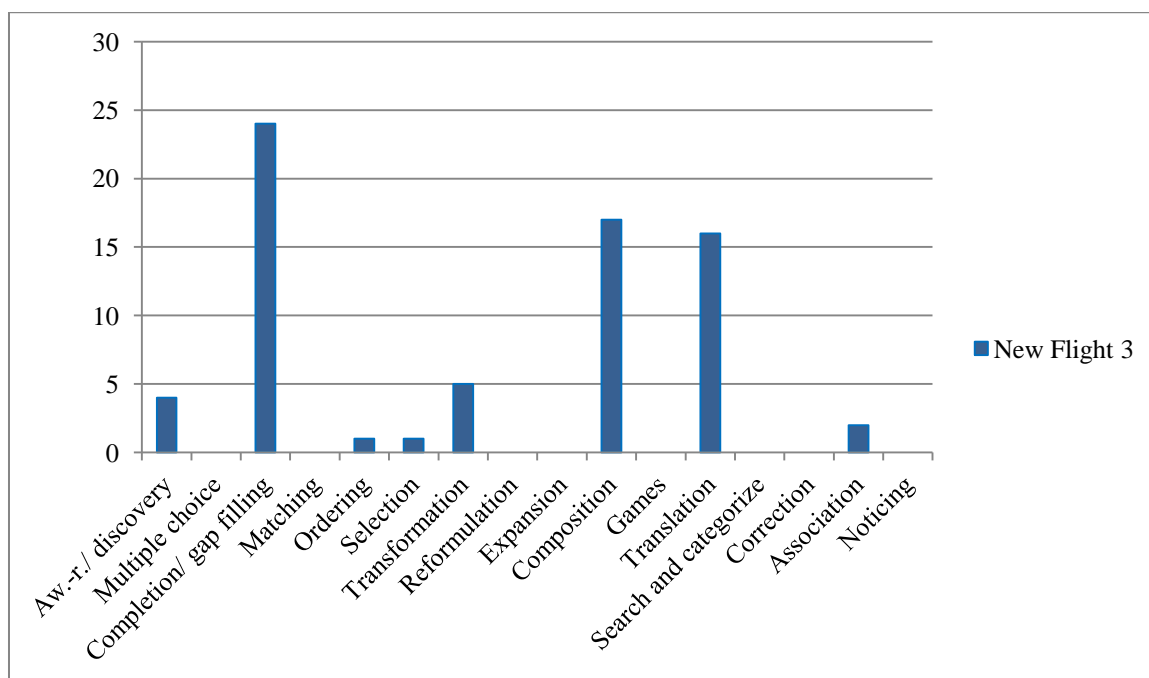
4.5.2.1 Formative/ summative

There is a much higher number of summative than formative exercises in *New Flight 3*. Most of the summative exercises are of the type gap filling, translation, and transformation exercises, e.g. examples 2 and 12, and the following translation exercise, the purpose of which is to practise using the passive structure:

Example 35: exercise 23 p. 48 in New Flight 3

Translate these sentences:
a   Denne bilen er lagd i Japan.
Etc.

Rather than facilitate practise in using the grammar in self-constructed sentences, translation exercises such as this require the learner to show that she is able to apply the grammar in other people's pre-fabricated ideas. Such exercises may have a practice function through repetition of the structure, but they basically just test whether the learner has understood the rule, instead of supporting the acquisition and the learner's ability to use the grammar in her own language output. The formative exercises consist for the most part of composition exercises, such as examples 8 and 22, as well some awareness-raising exercises, e.g.:

Example 36: exercise 27 p. 121 in New Flight 3

Read this text:

- Yesterday I saw a film that I truly liked!

(Etc.)

Which words are used as subjunctions (Norwegian: som) in English? What does the word *whose* mean?

The formative exercises facilitate all learning stages, while almost all of the summative exercises facilitate the *conceptualization stage*.

4.5.2.2 Commitment filter

By applying elements of entertainment, such as comic strips and jokes, the authors of *New Flight 3* seem to have made an effort trying to make some of the grammar exercises more engaging to the learners, e.g.:

Example 37: exercise 21 p. 15 in New Flight 3

Put the words of each line in the correct order and you will find some riddles.

a   – peach the Why the marry banana wouldn't?

         – heart a it stone of had Because!

Etc.

The jokes in this exercise may appeal to the learner's *affective needs* of "enjoyment" and "having fun". However, apart from exercises which apply such elements of entertainment, there are relatively few exercises in *New Flight 3* which qualify for the *commitment filter* criterion. Most of the exercises which are likely to engage the learner's commitment to any significant degree are composition exercises which appeal to the learner's *communicative needs* by providing the opportunity for the learner to express personal ideas, such as the exercise in example 27. This exercise requires the learner to formulate questions in order to get information from her partner and thus use grammar in order to express messages she is likely to express in real life, which encourages to a high degree of commitment. However, there are quite a few composition exercises in *New Flight 3* which simply require the learner to write uncontextualized sentences, for example:

Example 38: exercise 23 p. 202 in New Flight 3

Join a partner and say or write as many sentences as possible that start like this:

I enjoy ...

It's no use ...

Etc.

On the surface, this exercise looks as though it is interactive, but it is not. The partner has no reason to listen and does not respond to the utterance. As a consequence of the artificial and pedagogical setting, such exercises are not likely to appeal to the learner's communicative needs even though they give the learner an opportunity to express herself.

In addition to composition exercises, there are a few awareness-raising/ discovery exercises that encourage commitment. These exercises present examples and ask the learner to look for specific patterns and reflect on these, such as example 36, which may appeal to the learner's *cognitive needs* by inspiring curiosity about the grammar and interest in acquiring knowledge about it.

4.5.2.3 Depth of processing

Most of the exercises in *New Flight 3* which qualify for *depth of processing* are composition exercises which require the learner to produce language within a provided a context, such as a topic for conversation, as in example 38. This gives the learner the opportunity to associate the grammatical objective with the context she has used it in. The associative processing is not very deep, but may create some connections in the learner's brain which can come to use when the learner at a later point needs to retrieve the information acquired. There are also some awareness-raising/ discovery exercises which facilitate elaborate processing by requiring the learner to reflect on aspects of grammar presented in a text, e.g. example 36. Reflection involves deep processing and may assist awareness-raising and understanding of rules.

The number of gap filling exercises prevents many exercises, especially at the lower learning stages, from providing deep processing of the grammar.

4.5.2.4 Peer learning

A small number of exercises in *New Flight 3* qualify for *peer learning*, e.g. examples 8, 25 and 27.

All the exercises which qualify for *peer learning* are composition exercises which facilitate the *proceduralization* and *production* stages of learning, except for the exercise in

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example 8 which facilitate the *conceptualization* stage. *New Flight 3* may have facilitated learning at the lower learning stages better by applying this criteria in exercises for *awareness-raising* and *conceptualization*, as peer support may be a valuable tool for the learner at all stages of learning.

4.5.2.5 Interaction

A small number of exercises qualify for the *interaction* criterion, all of which are composition exercises which facilitate the highest cognitive stages, e.g. examples 25 and 27.

4.5.2.6 Authenticity of process

All of the exercises which qualify for *authenticity of process* in *New Flight 3* are composition exercises. Most of these require the learner to produce full sentences, and qualify for a high degree of *authenticity of process*, such as example 25. There are also some composition exercises which require the learner to make sentences based on cues or missing lines in a dialogue, such as example 38. These exercises, on the other hand, do not qualify for a high degree of *authenticity of process*, as constructing sentences from given language and based on other people's ideas is not authentic.

4.5.2.7 Task-based

There are no exercises in *New Flight 3* which require the learner to construct sentences for a particular purpose. In other words, no exercises in *New Flight 3* qualify as *task-based*. Some of the many composition exercises could have qualified, but do not. For instance, the following composition exercise asks the learners to construct sentences related to the topic 'plans for the weekend', but has no purpose outside the language learning:

Example 39: exercise 9 p. 64 in New Flight 3

Pair work
What will you be doing this weekend? Take turns asking and answering.
Example: A: What will you be doing this weekend?
B: I will be studying for my English test the whole time!
Use these verbs in your answers:
a   wash
b   work
Etc.

What prevents this exercise from qualifying as *task-based* is that the partners do not need the answers to do anything. If, for example, the exercise had asked the learners to 'find out if there is anything they could do together', the exercise would have provided a purposeful task and thus qualified as *task-based*.

4.5.2.8 Contextualization

New Flight 3 offers a broad variation of composition exercises, for example exercises which require the learner to add lines to a dialogue (e.g. example 27), describe information on a map (example 22), or which involve conversation on a provided topic (example 39). As a result, most of the composition exercises qualify for *contextualization*. There are a few composition exercises which do not qualify for the *contextualization* criterion, e.g. example 10. These are of the same type as most composition exercises in *Crossroads 10B*, which require the learner merely to construct sentences which contain the grammatical objective.

In addition to the composition exercises, there are also a couple of awareness-raising/ discovery exercises which qualify for *contextualization*. These present dialogues which illustrate the grammatical objective in use, and ask the learner to study the grammatical objective as it occurs in the presented context, as in example 36. There are also two gap filling exercises which qualify for *contextualization*, e.g. the following:

Example 40: exercise 22 p. 47 in New Flight 3

Put the verbs in brackets in the right form of the passive voice:

Compton Manor (visit) by thousands of people every year. The house (build) n 1550, but it (destroy) by a fire in 1630. (Etc).

What makes this gap filling exercise differ from the other gap filling exercises is that it requires the learner to fill in gaps in a text, rather than in separate unrelated sentences. The two gap filling exercises, as well as the awareness-raising/ discovery exercises in *New Flight 3*, demonstrate how exercises that facilitate the *awareness-raising* and *conceptualization* stages may contextualize the grammatical objective.

4.5.2.9 Complex encoding

Many of the composition exercises in *New Flight 3* require very complex encoding, as they require the learner to produce whole sentences, e.g. examples 8, 22, and 39. There are also some composition exercises which require a little less encoding as they only ask the learner to complete partial sentences, e.g. example 38.

The many translation exercises in *New Flight 3* contribute to quite a few instances where the learner has to construct whole sentences, e.g. examples 10 and 19. In order to translate a Norwegian sentence into English the learner has to have some knowledge of lexicon, grammar and sentence structure in English and use this knowledge in the construction of the English version of the sentence. As a result, such exercises require some complex encoding. However, since the learner bases and can support her processing of the English sentence on the Norwegian version, I would argue that translation does not lead to a high degree of complex encoding. For an exercise to involve a high degree of complex encoding it would have to require the learner to construct sentences based on her own ideas.

4.5.2.10 Personalization

The exercises which qualify for *personalization* in *New Flight 3* are mainly composition exercises which allow the learner to apply her own ideas in the language production. The exception is an association exercise which asks the learner to suggest some things she relates to *the butcher's*, *the baker's*, *the florist's* etc.:

Example 41: exercise 15 p. 142 in New Flight 3

In expressions like *the butcher's, the baker's* and so on the word *shop* has been omitted. Write down three things you can buy at

a   the butcher's

Etc.

This exercise allows the learner to apply personal ideas at the lower learning stages and, as a result, supports associative processing in the learner's brain and creates connections with previous knowledge which may help the learner remember that the occupations combined with the genitive-'s may refer to a shop. Accordingly, the exercise requires mental activity of the learner, leads to deeper processing and consequently supports the acquisition grammatical competences.

None of the gap filling exercises in *New Flight 3* provides any opportunity for applying personal ideas, as they either are prompted or have only one possible correct lexical option, as in the following example:

Example 42: exercise 16 p. 116 in New Flight 3

Fill in the right nationality word.

a ... come from Sweden

(Etc)

4.5.3 Summary

As a consequence of many gap filling exercises, as well as translation and transformation exercises, there is a high number of summative exercises in *New Flight 3*. The authors seem to have made an attempt to appeal to the learner's *affective needs*, and included a few awareness-raising/ discovery exercises which may appeal to the learner's *cognitive needs*, but the *commitment filter* criterion is mainly qualified for as a result of a few composition exercises which trigger the learner's *communicative needs*. The awareness-raising/ discovery exercises provide the opportunity for elaborate processing, and some associative processing is provided through contextualization of exercises, but the many gap filling exercises limit the number of exercises which may have qualified for *depth of processing*. There are some exercises which provide for *peer learning*, all of which facilitate the highest learning stages. Only composition exercises qualify for *authenticity of process* and most of the exercises which qualify for *contextualization, complex encoding*, and *personalization* are also composition exercises. The exceptions are some awareness-raising/ discovery exercises which provide a context through examples presented before the exercise, and some translation exercises which are evaluated as providing a small degree of complex encoding. A small number of the composition exercises require *interaction*, and *New Flight 3* include no task-based exercises, which suggests that little attention is given to the *performance* stage of learning.

4.6 Searching 10

This section will discuss the presentation of grammar in *Searching 10*, followed by a presentation of the exercise types used in the textbook, and finally evaluations and short discussions of the exercises in terms of the learning criteria and the communicative criteria.

4.6.1 Presentation of grammar

In the Teacher's Resource File, the authors of *Searching 10* state a view on grammar learning and teaching which emphasizes meaningful contexts, and both formal and functional aspects of grammar. They particularly stress the functionality of grammar:

> "The functionality of the grammar is also emphasized in order for the pupils to gradually understand the profits of acquiring knowledge about the language. [...] Hence, *Searching* provides the pupils with the opportunity to learn how the language functions in written and oral communication. (Teacher's resource file, Searching 10: 7-8. *My translation*)"

This makes a positive first impression with regard to principles of communicative learning theory.

Searching 10 includes a section at the end in which it presents grammar rules. In the introduction of the textbook the authors explain that this section may be used if the learner needs help with grammar and words she does not understand. Only one of the textbook exercises, an exercise which covers irregular verb forms, refers to the grammar rules listed at the back of the book. In its presentation of grammar exercises *Searching 10* tends to present examples of the grammatical objective in use and in some cases the textbook explain rules before the exercises.

The number of exercises in *Searching 10* is surprisingly small. The 30 exercises provided in the Learner's Book hardly give the possibility either for a variety of grammatical objectives to be dealt with or a progression through cognitive stages within the selected objectives. However, there are additional grammar exercises available in the Teacher's Resource File and online. Thus, it must be taken into account that working with grammar in other ways and through other media than the textbook may be part of the authors' grammatical concept.

4.6.2 Exercise analysis

Searching 10 differs somewhat from the other two textbooks with respect to exercise types. *Composition* exercises are one of the most used types here as well, but there are significantly less *gap filling* exercises, more exercises which involve transformation of words or sentences, and a more even distribution between different exercise types:

Table 10: Number of exercises in Searching 10 according to exercise type
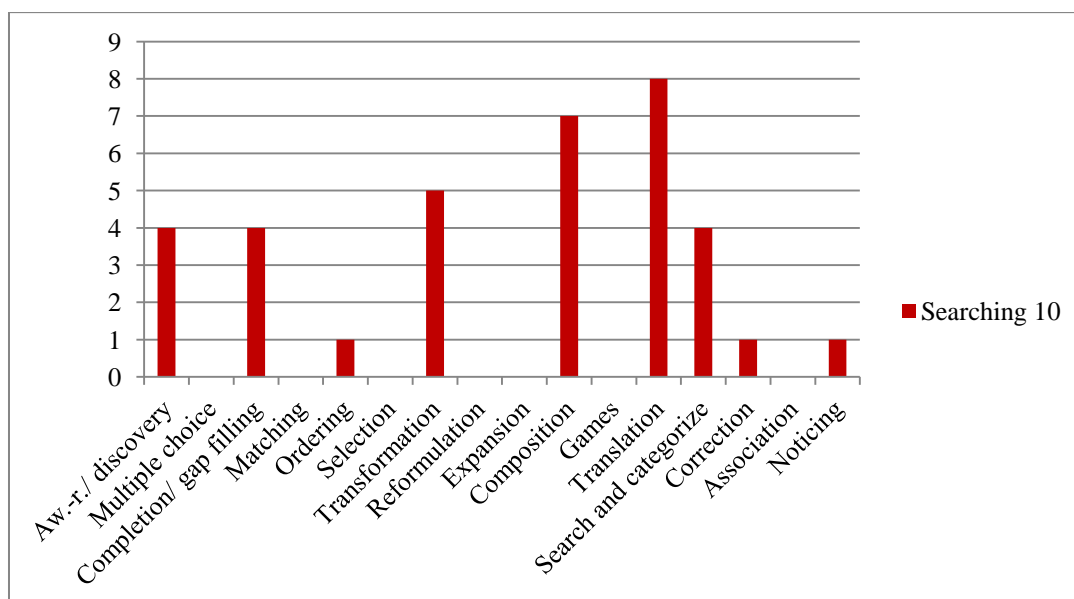
4.6.2.1 Formative/ summative

The exercises in *Searching 10* are quite evenly distributed between formative and summative exercises. The relatively high number of summative exercises is a consequence of many gap filling exercises, e.g. example 15, the ordering exercise in example 14, translation exercises from Norwegian into English, e.g. example 13, as well as many transformation exercises, such as the following:

Example 43: exercise L3 p. 198 in Searching 10

Rewrite these sentences in the active.
A   The Red Cross was founded by Jean-Henri Dunant.
B   This story is told by a girl who, at the time of the events, was only fifteen years old.
C   Etc.

The formative exercises are composition and awareness-raising exercises, e.g. 23 and 16, as well as search-and-categorize and noticing exercises. There are some exercises which require translation into Norwegian, e.g.:

Example 44: exercise L1 p. 94 in Searching 10

Translate these sentences into Norwegian. How do you translate the –ing form in each sentence?
A The Lion starts walking towards the jeep.
Etc.

These aim at awareness-raising of how the English forms are realized in Norwegian. Such exercises do not *test* the learner's competence as such, but I will argue that awareness of how the grammatical objective is realized in Norwegian does not teach the learner much about the notion expressed through the English form, not to mention *how* to express it. Besides, I question whether a focus on the Norwegian form may confuse the learner more than facilitate learning of the English grammar?

The formative exercises facilitate various cognitive stages, while the summative ones all facilitate the *conceptualization stage*.

4.6.2.2 Commitment filter

Many of the exercises in *Searching 10* do not qualify for fulfilling the *commitment filter*. These are gap filling, transformation, and translation exercises, as well as exercise types

which require very simple processing, such as the ordering exercise, and thus do not trigger curiosity or a need for communication.

A few of the composition exercises qualify as they appeal to the learner's *communicative* needs, e.g. example 17. There are some composition exercises in *Searching 10*, though, which require the learner simply to create sentences which contain the grammatical objective, e.g. example 23. Such exercises might have encouraged more commitment if they included a context, for instance by requiring the learner to express personal ideas or opinions on a topic. There are also a few exercises which appeal to the learner's *cognitive needs*. These are exercises which involve awareness-raising of and reflection on grammar, as in example 16.

One of the exercises in *Searching 10* appeal to all three categories of needs:

Example 45: exercise L2 p. 24 in Searching 10

> 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."

This exercise covers the learner's *communicative needs* by allowing the learner to express her own questions and opinions, it covers the learner's *cognitive needs* of curiosity of getting to know her peers, and it may also cover the learner's *affective needs* of enjoyment through the social task.

4.6.2.3 Depth of processing

Many exercises belong to exercise types which require shallow processing, such as gap filling and translation exercises. Among the exercises which do qualify for *depth of processing* there are composition exercises and awareness-raising exercises. The composition exercises require the learner to use the grammatical objective in order to communicate ideas and in most cases also provide a topic for conversation, e.g. examples 17 and 45. Consequently, these exercises cover both elaborate and associative processing, as the learner would have to use the grammar in complex encoding processes in order to construct sentences, and also may come to associate the objective with its context (topic) of use.

The awareness-raising/ discovery exercises offer the possibility for elaborate processing by requiring the learner to reflect on aspects of the grammatical objective, e.g. how the meanings of words change when certain prefixes are added to the words in example 16. The advantage of such exercises is that reflection requires the learner to use knowledge she

already possesses and connect it with the new information. This leads to a deep processing where connections between old and new information are made, which will help the learner's brain store the new information. In comparison, there are exercises in *Searching 10*, such as the following correction exercise, which provides unnecessarily shallow processing:

Example 46: *exercise L4 p. 95 in* Searching 10

Correct these sentences.

He has great difficulty to learn French.
She was very pleased to seeing them.
I'm looking forward to hear from you.
Etc.

This exercise simply requires the learner to search for the main verb and transform it into the infinitive or the progressive. The learner does not have to consider the grammatical meaning of the forms – why those particular forms are used in those particular contexts. What is more, this exercise illustrates *wrong* use of the grammar! This provides the learner with a mental image of the incorrect, which may be confused with the correct use of the grammar.

4.6.2.4 Peer learning

Few exercises in *Searching 10* include *peer learning*. Those that do are composition exercises which require the learners to hold a conversation, e.g. example 17, and an awareness-raising/ discovery exercise which ask the learners to discuss meaning differences between grammatical forms. The composition exercises merely give the learners the *opportunity* for peer learning as the learners will be able to help or correct each other during the conversation. The awareness-raising/ discovery exercise, on the one hand, *requires* peer learning, as it involves collaborative problem-solving:

Example 47: exercise L3 p. 121 in Searching 10

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

1 Skal du virkelig se den filmen?

(Etc.)

B Work together in groups. Discuss your translation of the sentences. If you have two or more different translations, is there any difference in meaning between them? Explain the differences.

Exercises which involve collaborative problem-solving, such as this, give the learners the opportunity to benefit from each other's competences and ideas (see 2.6.3 Social constructivism).

4.6.2.5 Interaction

There are only two exercises in *Searching 10* that require *interaction* between the learners. Both are composition exercises which facilitate the *proceduralization* stage of their grammatical objectives. One of these is the exercise in example 17, and the other is the following:

Example 48: exercise L3 p. 25 in Searching 10

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.

4.6.2.6 Authenticity of process

The exercises in *Searching 10* that qualify for *authenticity of process* are all composition exercises where the learner either has to produce language based on a cued situation, e.g. example 45, or come up with sentences out of nothing, e.g.:

Example 49: exercise L4 p. 72 in Searching 10

Write down five new words with prefixes. Use each one in a sentence.

All the composition exercises in *Searching 10* qualify for a high degree of *authenticity of process* as they require the learner to construct whole sentences.

4.6.2.7 Task-based

Only one exercise is *task-based*. This is the exercise in example 45, in which the task is to make and use a survey with the purpose of getting to know likes and dislikes of the learner's peers. This is a good exercise in terms of principles of both cognitive learning theory and communicative language teaching, as the task inspires several aspects of the learner's commitment filter (see 4.6.2.2 Commitment filter), and creates a real communicative situation where the learner has to use the language for the purpose of getting information she may be personally interested in getting to know.

4.6.2.8 Contextualization

A very small number of exercises in *Searching 10* qualify for the contextualization criterion. These are composition exercises which provide topics for conversation and discussion, e.g. examples 17 and 45. There are some composition exercises in *Searching 10* which simply ask the learner to make sentences, and thus do not provide a context, such as the exercise in example 23. These composition exercises could easily have offered a context for the language production, and thus complied with principles of communicative language teaching, for instance by providing topics to discuss, partial sentences to complete, or a picture the learner would have to describe.

In the *Teacher's Resource File* the authors of *Searching 10* claim that the book provides a focus on meaningful contexts (see 4.6.1 Presentation of grammar). This does not correspond to my findings. The reason for this is probably a difference in definition of *context*. Their understanding of contextualization apparently refers to the exercise content/ text rather than the learner's language production:

Example 50: exercise L2 p. 95 in Searching 10

Fill in the –ing form of the verb in brackets.
A   The Khoikhoi began – (farm) the land in AD 200.
B   The settlers had problems – (protect) their cattle against native Xhosas.
C   etc.

The contents of this exercise relates to literary texts in *Searching 10* ch. 4, "Voices of Africa." According to the definition of context applied in this thesis, the context provided in the exercise needs to provide a framework for the learner's language processing in order for the

exercise to qualify for *contextualization*. The type of context defined by the authors of *Searching 10* does not.

4.6.2.9 Complex encoding

Most of the exercises in *Searching 10* which qualify for *complex encoding* are composition exercises. All of these exercises require the learner to construct whole sentences, e.g. examples 48 and 49. However, *Searching 10* does not provide the opportunity for less extensive complex encoding, for instance in composition exercises that require the learner to complete partial phrases, which may be used to facilitate lower learning stages.

There are some translation exercises, e.g. 13 and 47, which qualify for complex encoding, but as stated in section *4.5.2.9 Complex encoding*, translation exercises are evaluated to qualify only for a lower degree of complex encoding as the learner bases her processing of the English sentence on the Norwegian version.

4.6.2.10 Personalization

The exercises that require *personalization* are composition exercises which allow the learner to express her own ideas, e.g. example 48, and awareness-raising exercises which require the learner to reflect and express her own thoughts on aspects of the grammatical objective, e.g. example 16.

4.6.3 Summary

There are a relatively large number of summative exercises in *Searching 10*, due to exercise types which tend to test the learner's competences, such as gap filling, translation, and ordering exercises. Additionally, exercises of these types do not qualify for *commitment filter*, *authenticity of process*, *contextualization*, *personalization*, and *complex encoding*. There are mainly composition exercises in *Searching 10* which qualify for these criteria, by appealing to the learner's *communicative needs*, contribute with opportunities for some elaborate processing of the grammatical objective through complex encoding, and allow the learner to apply personal ideas as part of accomplishing the exercise. However, some of the composition exercises simply instruct the learner to "make sentences" which contain the grammatical objective and do consequently not qualify for *contextualization. Searching 10* also includes some awareness-raising/ discovery exercises which allow the learner to apply personal ideas as part of accomplishing the exercise, and which may appeal to the learner's *cognitive needs* and require more elaborate processing through reflection and problem-solving. Few exercises qualify for *peer learning*, and except for an awareness-raising/ discovery exercise which

facilitates the lowest learning stages, these are composition exercises which facilitate the *proceduralization* stage. There is only one task-based exercise in *Searching 10*, and the only exercises which qualify for *interaction* are both composition exercises.

4.7 Summary and further discussions

In this section the findings of the analysis of three textbooks concerning the learning criteria and communicative criteria will be summed up with regard to the most common exercise types found in the textbooks. Following this, the exercise types will be further discussed.

4.7.1 Most common exercise types

Table 11: percentage of exercises according to exercise type
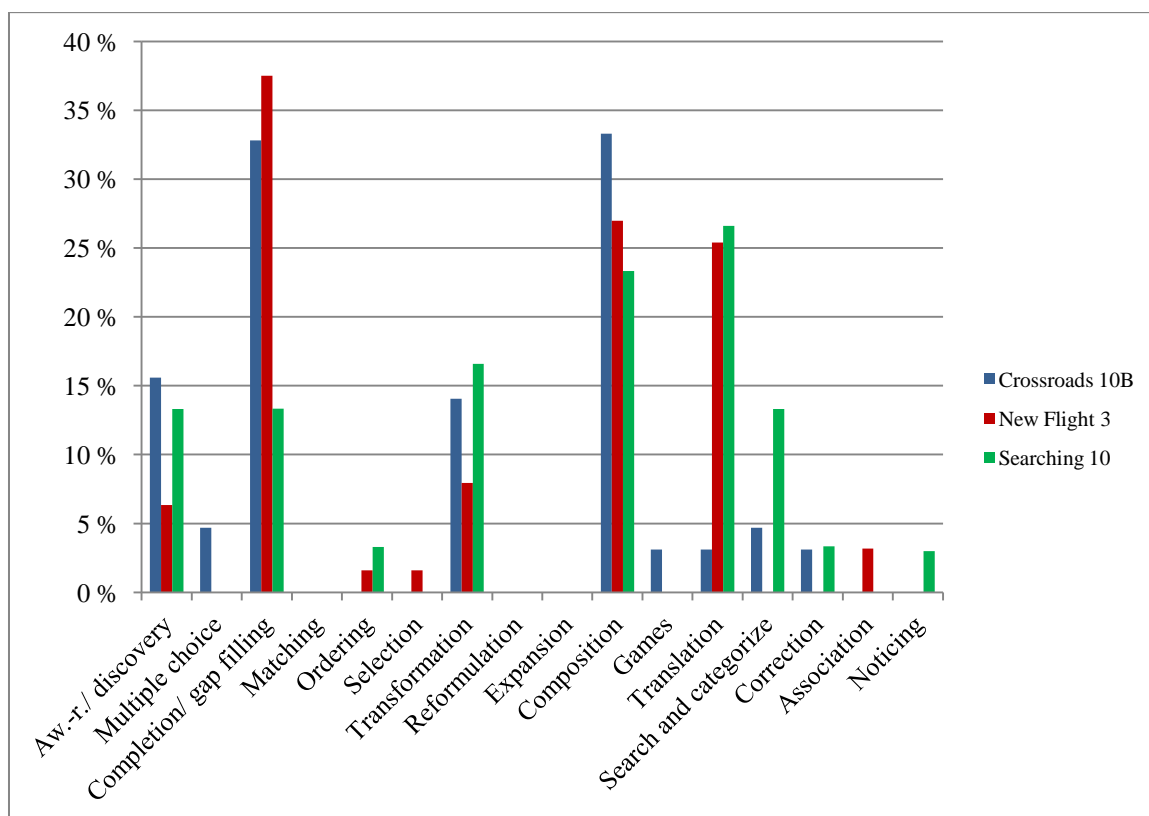
4.7.2.1 Gap filling exercises

One of the most frequently used exercise types is gap filling exercises. Gap filling is an exercise type much used in traditional approaches, which requires little processing on the part of the learner. These exercises tend to be summative, i.e. they make it easy for the teacher to see if the learner has understood the rule, rather than support the learner to actually *learn* the rule. Newby (2013a: 7) argues that gap filling exercises have little support in learning theory:

> Since learners are presented with pre-fabricated sentences, processing is limited to applying a rule deductively and is, as a result, very shallow. The fact that so much language is provided precludes the need for or the possibility of schematisation. Such exercises are, of course, fairly boring and satisfy neither cognitive nor affective needs. Commitment is therefore likely to be low.

He further argues that "[a]n analysis based on the communicative criteria will show how and why this type of exercise can be regarded as 'uncommunicative': none of the criteria is fulfilled. (ibid)", a statement supported by my analysis of the gap filling exercises in *Crossroads 10B, New Flight 3* and *Searching 10*. To illustrate the lack of meaningful processing required by gap filling exercises, Newby suggests that prompted words in gap filling exercises may be changed into nonsense-words (ibid). For example:

Example 51: exercise 11 p. 197 in New Flight 3

Put the verb in the right tense.
a   go: We ... to Canada every year
b   visit: and we always ... Toronto
c   etc

If the verbs provided in this exercise are exchanged with the nonsense-words *blonk* and *ving*, the learners will still be able to get the answers right:

Example 52: nonsense-word gap filling exercise

Put the verb in the right tense.
a   blonk: We *blonk* to Canada every year
b   ving: and we always *ving* Toronto
c   etc

4.7.2.2 Transformation exercises

Transformation exercises, another exercise type known from traditional pedagogy, are one of the four most used exercise types in all three textbooks. Many of these exercises concern single words, such as 'transform an adjective into an adverb', while some concern transformation of structures. There are several issues about transformation exercises. One is that they focus entirely on form and structure. Grammatical meaning and function is left out. Secondly, similar to gap filling exercises, transformation exercises do not reflect authentic language use and require nothing more than shallow processing:

> In traditional fill-in-the-gap or transformation exercises, cognitive resources are likely to focus on the metalanguage of a rule and on applying this rule deductively - for example, in artificial pedagogical procedures such as changing one tense into another when transforming direct into indirect speech - rather than on encoding utterances using the new grammar. (Newby in preparation: ch. 12)

All the three textbooks I analyzed use transformation exercises to teach the passive construction, e.g. example 43 from *Searching 10*. Newby (in preparation: ch. 12) argues that this is a bad choice of exercise type for teaching difficult structures, as transformation exercises require the learners to "apply a set of procedures they have been taught and apply them deductively – as a kind of pseudo-linguistic mathematics." In other words, transformation exercises do not reflect authentic language use and result in the fact that the learner uses artificial processes in order to produce language. Instead, Newby suggests exchanging such transformation exercises with reformulation exercises:

Example 53: reformulation exercise (Newby in preparation: ch. 12)

Paraphrase the idea of the sentence using a passive form:

The author of Julius Caesar was William Shakespeare.
→ Julius Caesar was written by William Shakespeare.

The difference between this and the transforming exercise is that the transformation exercise focuses on the structure alone, which makes the learner simply "move words around", while the reformulation exercise requires the learner to understand the basic meaning and message expressed by the utterance and express it in another way. (Newby in preparation: ch. 12)"

4.7.2.3 Translation exercises

Both *New Flight 3* and *Searching 10* include many translation exercises. These exercises involve either translation from Norwegian to English or the reverse. It is interesting to see that translation exercises are used so frequently in the textbooks, as this exercise type was much used in the grammar-translation method. Newby (in preparation ch. 12: 26) observes:

> One of the central tenets of the grammar-translation approach was that insights provided by translations of sentences from or into the foreign language would help learners to acquire the grammatical system of the FL. With the advent of the communicative approach, translation went out of fashion, not for any particular theoretical reason other than it was 'not communicative'.

Since translation exercises have 'fallen out of fashion' in grammar teaching, it would be interesting to consider whether the translation exercises in *New Flight 3* and *Searching 10* can be perceived as remnants of the grammar-translation approach or whether they are simply an unquestioned aspect of Norwegian teaching and learning culture. Either way, the most important question is whether the translation exercises facilitate learning well. Newby mentions the point that translation is not *communicative*, i.e. translation is not a part of how the language is used to communicate in real-life. This is important to bear in mind with regard

to the *proceduralization* and *performance* stages of learning grammar. In the following exercise translation is used simply in order to provide pre-structured sentences in order for the learner to rehearse the form:

Example 54: exercise 10 p. 65 in New Flight 3

Translate these sentences into English. Use continuous tenses!
a   Myra er enig. Se, hun nikker!
b   etc.

This is almost equivalent to *gap filling* or *transforming* exercises. The exercise would facilitate the learning of the grammatical objective much better as a *composition* or *reformulation* exercise, where the learner would have to construct sentences herself and as a consequence have the meaning of the form in mind. This would help the learner understand and process knowledge of when to use the form.

One may argue that translation exercises can be used to facilitate the *awareness-raising* and *conceptualization stages*. The question is, though, what effect the focus on the learner's L1 may have on the learner's acquisition of English? Does it support or impede the learner's L2 competence and performance?

4.7.2.4 Composition exercises

All of the three textbooks include a large number of composition exercises, which could be mistaken to reflect a communicative approach to grammar, but when analyzing these composition exercises vis-à-vis their grammatical objectives, it was revealed that the majority of them focus exclusively on formal aspects of the language, ignoring the notional and functional aspects of the grammatical objective. In addition to this, nearly all the composition exercises in *Crossroads 10B* and many of the composition exercises in *Searching 10* simply request the learner to make sentences that contain the grammatical objective; i.e., they do not provide any context for the language production. Most of these composition exercises work on sentence-level. That is, the learner is required to make separate sentences that do not have to relate to each other in any way. Newby (in preparation: ch. 12) points out that it is less easy to provide contexts for sentence-level exercises than for exercises that involve extended texts. However, it is not impossible, as Newby illustrates in the following example:

Example 55: exercise 13 in Newby (in preparation: ch. 12 Appendix)

Nobby's father is very strict and his mother is very lenient. They always disagree about how Nobby should behave. You can join in their arguments by doing the exercise. Write down what the mother says.

1. Father: Nobby, you must go to bed immediately!

   Mother: *Nobby, my darling, you needn't go to bed yet*!

2. Father: Nobby mustn't stay out so late.

   Mother: *He can stay out as long as she wants to*!

3. Father: Nobby, you must eat up all your spinach.

   Mother: ....

4. Father: Nobby, you mustn't wear jeans to school.

   Mother: ....

Etc.

The language production required by the learner in this exercise are all separate sentences and are not connected with each other as part of a discourse. Thus, this exercise demonstrates one possible way to relate separate sentences to one specified context. The advantage of this is the reason stressed by communicative learning theory that "[g]rammar is partly acquired by relating new notions to contexts of use. (Newby 2014: 7)"

In fact, contextualization could have been easily provided if *Crossroads 10B* and *Searching 10* had included other forms of composition exercises, such as "complete partial phrase or sentences with own ideas", "add one or more lines to a dialogue", "cued situation", or "interpret or explain information in a chart of picture cue" (see 3.2.3 Exercise types). All of these variants of composition exercises inherently include a context for the language production.

4.7.2.5 Awareness-raising/ discovery exercises

Awareness-raising/ discovery exercises are used in all three textbooks. Quite a few of these exercises require the learner to reflect on aspects of grammar. The awareness-raising/ discovery exercises in *Searching 10* and *New Flight 3* require the learner to reflect on aspects of forms presented in examples, or to discuss meaning differences between different forms. This requires elaborate processing of the learner, a feature stressed by cognitive learning theory. Unfortunately, by adopting the *PPP* methodology, *Crossroads 10B* prevents its awareness-raising/ discovery exercises from providing both *depth of processing* and

commitment (cognitive needs). What should have made the learner reflect on the grammatical objective simply requires the learner to replicate rules just given. *Replication* rather than *reflection* does not facilitate learning well. Rather than integrating the rules into the learner's interlanguage through deep processing, the exercises and their function are transformed to assist the drilling of set rules.

4.7.2.6 Search and categorise exercises

Searching 10 includes some search-and-categorize exercises, e.g. this search-and-categorize exercise which focuses on verb forms which express future:

Example 56: exercise L1 p. 221 in Searching 10

Here are some sentences. Divide them into the four groups above.

> I'm going to have you put in the booby-hatch.
>
> I'll see you back to the lamp-post
>
> Etc.

This exercise serves to raise the learner's awareness of the grammatical objective and help the learner separate different objectives from each other. If the learning aim concerns awareness-raising, as in the example above, search-and-categorize exercises may be useful. It is possible to use search-and-categorize exercises in order to categorize forms, as in example 56, and to categorize meanings/ notions. However, a focus on forms simply requires shallow processing, as the learner may scan the text for similar forms and place these within the same category [see 2.6.1 Information processing]. If the exercise requires the learner to search for and categorize meanings/ notions, on the other hand, the learner will discover the relation between notion and form as she searches for similar notions and discovers which forms are used to express these notions.

4.7.2.7 Other exercise types

None of the textbooks use expansion or reformulation exercises, and selection exercises are only used once, in *New Flight 3*. These exercise types are all communicative; they make the learner focus on expressing meanings rather than forms, and include contexts, require complex encoding and authenticity of process.

Crossroads 10B is the only one of the three textbooks that includes an exercise with ludic elements, i.e. grammar games. The ludic element in this exercise is guess work:

Example 57: exercise 2 p. 186 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)

Write one sentence with each of the connectives on pp. 183-185. When you have finished, join a partner and shift between reading one of the sentences to each other, without reading the connectives. You partner is going to guess which connectives belongs in your sentences. You are going to guess which connectives belong in your partner's sentences.

The advantage of grammar games is first of all that they appeal strongly to the learner's engagement with grammar. The ludic elements, such as winning and losing or guess work, appeal to the learner's *cognitive* needs. Newby suggests that a game also "reduces the negative stress that often accompanies grammar exercise and thus leads to high *affective commitment* (in preparation: ch. 12)". By including ludic elements, the grammar exercises may consequently avoid boredom. According to Newby, boredom "will lead to alienation and will prevent learners from engaging with language (ibid)". It is therefore important that grammar exercises include elements which make the learner commit to solving the exercise and that grammar may be associated with something that provides fun. Other reasons to include grammar games are that games may lead to a deeper quality of processing and they may make the learning highly personalized. From a social constructionist viewpoint, the learners may also profit from the benefits of pair/ group work. However, Newby stresses that grammar games are not only for fun. It is important that the learning aim of the exercise is made clear. If there is too much focus on the ludic elements in contrast with the learning aim, or the instructions for the game are too complex, this may take focus away from the grammatical objective and the learning processes (ibid).

5. Conclusion

This thesis has evaluated grammar exercises in textbooks in order to discover which views of and approaches to grammar lies behind the design of grammar exercises in Norwegian textbooks, and to what extent the exercises meet principles of communicative and cognitive learning theory. The results of the evaluation have been discussed in the previous chapter. This chapter will present a summary and conclusion to the findings in chapter 4 and suggest further research in the area of grammar instruction in Norwegian EFL textbooks.

5.1 Summary and conclusions

An evaluation of the grammatical objectives in the textbooks revealed a strong focus on formal aspects of grammar, and the objectives are mostly stated in formal terms in headings and exercise texts. In a substantial majority of exercises in all of the textbooks learning aims focus on the learner as *learner* of language rather than as a *user* of language. Additionally, a qualitative analysis of which cognitive learning stages the exercises in each book facilitate revealed little focus on the *performance* stage, some focus on the *proceduralization* stage in *Crossroads 10B* and *New Flight 3*, though hardly any focus on this stage in *Searching 10*. These findings suggest that the textbooks, and especially *Searching 10*, do not focus much on facilitating the learner's development of communicative skills with regard to grammar. Moreover, the high number of summative exercises in all textbooks suggests that the methodological choices, i.e. exercise types, of many exercises do not facilitate their learning aims well.

5.1.1 Crossroads 10B

The findings in section 4.4 suggest that the grammar exercises in *Crossroads 10B* meet neither cognitive nor communicative principles of language learning to any great extent. Concerning the *cognitive* principles, the exercises do not facilitate well deep processing at any learning stage nor do they engage the learner's commitment to learning grammar. There are many summative exercises and few opportunities for peer learning. The cognitive principles seem to be facilitated the least at the *awareness-raising* and *conceptualization* stages of learning.

Similarly, the findings suggest little focus on communicative principles at the *proceduralization* and *performance* stages of learning, and hardly any at the lower stages. The criteria *authenticity of process*, *complex encoding*, and *personalization* are only qualified for by the many composition exercises in *Crossroads 10B*. The principle of *contextualization* is

hardly taken account for at all, and the learner is not given any opportunity to use the language in *interaction* with a real respondent or given any realistic task, external to the langage learning, for producing language.

5.1.2 New Flight 3

The analysis of grammar exercises in *New Flight 3* revealed that the textbook meets principles of cognitive learning theory and communicative language teaching to some extent, but that there is much room for improvement. The textbook includes many composition exercises and a few awareness-raising/ discovery exercises which may appeal to the learner's commitment filter and provide deep processing. However, the many gap filling, translation, and transforming exercises result in a very high number of summative exercises, and limited coverage of the learner's *commitment filter*, especially in terms of *cognitive needs*. There are few exercises which qualify for *peer learning*, and with one exception these facilitate the highest learning stages, and not the earlier stages where peer support might be most needed.

A positive aspect, from a communcative perspective on language learning, is that *New Flight 3* includes a variety of composition exercises, which qualify for *authenticity of process*, *contextualization*, and *personalization*. On the other hand, these criteria were found only to a very small degree in other exercise types. *New Flight 3* includes some awareness-raising/ discovery exercises which provide a context and require elaborate processing. A few exercises involve *interaction* and no exercises are *task-based*. In order to facilitate the *performance* stage of learning better, the textbook should have included *task-based* exercises and exercises which require interaction with real respondents.

5.1.3 Searching 10

The grammar exercises in *Searching 10* meet principles of cognitive learning theory and communicative language teaching to various degrees. There are quite a large number of exercises of types such as gap filling and translation exercises, which were evaluated as summative and qualify neither for *commitment filter* nor *depth of processing*. *Searching 10* also includes many composition exercises, as well as a few awareness-raising/ discovery exercises which require elaborate processing of the grammatical objective and appeal to the learner's commitment to accomplishing the exercise. The awareness-raising/ discovery exercises in *Searching 10* thus apply principles of cognitive learning theory to facilitate learning at the lower learning stages. The few exercises which provide for *peer learning* are composition and awareness-raising/ discovery exercises.

It is mainly composition exercises which contribute to fulfilling principles of communicative language teaching, such as *authenticity of process* and *contextualization*, though not all qualify for the latter. In addition to composition exercises, which all require very complex encoding through the construction of full sentences, there are also some translation exercises which to a small extent provide complex encoding. Both composition exercises and awareness-raising/ discovery exercises provide the opportunity for the learner to communicate her personal thoughts and ideas, but there are also many exercise types, including prompted gap filling exercises, which limit the opportunities for *personalization*. The small number of exercises which qualify for *interaction* and *task-based* suggest that there is little focus on the *performance* stage of learning in *Searching 10*.

5.1.4 Answers to research questions and hypotheses

The analysis presented in chapter 4 was made on the basis of the following research questions:

- What views of and approaches to grammar lies behind the design of grammar exercises in Norwegian textbooks?
- To what extent do the exercises meet principles of communicative and cognitive learning theory?

In relation to the first research question, I formulated the hypothesis "Traditional approaches, methods and views of grammar are still strong within grammar exercise design in Norwegian textbooks." The findings in chapter 4 suggest that my hypothesis is correct: the evaluation of grammatical objectives revealed a strong focus on formal aspects of grammar, and all three textbooks include high numbers of traditional exercise types, such as gap filling, transformation, and translation exercises, not to mention the *PPP* methodology used in *Crossroads 10B*. In other words, grammar is mainly perceived and presented as forms and structures, and the focus of grammar teaching seems to be on grammatical competence rather than performance.

The textbooks revealed more variation with regard to my second research question. My hypothesis for this question was "There is little evidence of communicative and cognitive theory in the design of grammar exercises." *Crossroads 10B* confirmed the hypothesis, as the textbook showed little evidence of communicative and cognitive theory in its design of grammar exercises. All the three textbooks include many exercise types which comply with neither cognitive nor communicative principles; however *Searching 10* and *New Flight 3*

include a number of exercises which reveal traits of both cognitive and communicative principles of language learning.

Some modifications which may improve the grammar instruction in the textbooks would be

1) to focus more on notions and functions when formulating grammatical objectives,
2) to apply other exercise types which correspond with principles of cognitive and communicative theory to a greater degree, such as reformulation exercises, awareness-raising/ discovery exercises, problem-solving exercises, expansion exercises, and selection exercises (see 3.2.3 Exercise types),
3) to provide the opportunity for more pair or group work, especially in exercises which facilitate the lower cognitive learning stages,
4) to require interaction in more exercises,
5) to provide clearer contexts to support the learner's language processing of grammar, and
6) to include realistic tasks external to the language learning in exercises.

Adopting a cognitive and communicative view on language and language learning, requires the teacher and textbook author to reconsider the grammatical categories and the exercises we use for learning and teaching. The changes I have suggested above may assist this process. My hope and ambition is that grammar teaching and learning eventually will get past the "mighty weight of tradition", both in terms of which grammatical categories we use to define and teach grammar and in terms of the methodology applied in our teaching materials.

5.2 Shortcomings

By looking at the underlying principles which affect the learning quality of the exercises, this thesis has provided new insights into presentation forms and exercises to facilitate the learning of grammar in Norwegian textbooks. The new insights may be useful for textbook writers who want to improve the quality of the grammar exercises in existing textbook series or who want to create new exercises based on cognitive and communicative learning theory as opposed to the traditional views on grammar and approaches to grammar instruction.

The advantage of having a main focus on qualitative methodology is that the topic has been covered in depth, but concerning the scope of the thesis there are weaknesses with the

method. With regard to the length and depth as well as time aspect of the thesis, it was not possible to cover the research questions optimally. It is therefore important that the topic is further studied.

One weakness of my research is that due to its limited scope, it was not possible to analyze additional exercises in teacher's resource files and net resources which the textbook series' also provide. These additional exercises would have given my analysis more material to support my evaluation and conclusions, as they are part of the grammar exercise materials the teacher may use from the textbook series. I decided not to include the additional exercises due to the time limit of my project. My reasoning is that the learner's textbook and the additional exercises are part of the same series and constructed by the same authors. Thus, the exercises in the textbook and the additional exercises should reflect the same perspectives on and approaches to grammar, as well as meet principles of communicative and cognitive learning theory to approximately the same degree. The textbook exercises therefore ought to be sufficient to provide answers to my research questions and hypotheses. Though, it would have been interesting to analyze the teacher's resource files as well, in order to confirm whether there is a difference between the exercises included in the learner's textbook and the teacher's resource file.

5.3 Further research

The publisher *Gyldendal* is from 2015 introducing a new set of English textbooks, called *Enter*, for the Norwegian lower secondary school. It would have been interesting to analyze *Enter* as well, to see how it presents and makes the learners work with grammar, especially since *Enter* claims to focus on communicative abilities, such as creativity and context (Gyldendal Undervisning). It may be valuable to see if they have managed to do this any differently than the older textbooks which are analyzed in this thesis.

While reading and evaluating exercises I noted the use of meta-language in explanations of grammar rules and exercises, and began wondering how the textbook series' use of meta-language affects the learners' perceptions of grammar and their learning processes. Does extensive use of meta-language assist the learner or does it make grammar appear more complex and inaccessible to the learners than it should be? Furthermore, analyzing how the grammar rules are formulated could reveal whether meaning is prominent, or if the learner is presented with a formal perception of what grammar is.

Finally, it would be of interest to examine which grammatical objectives the textbooks include, in order to get an idea of which areas of grammar are covered; this analysis would also show which objectives tend to be taught at specific cognitive stages; i.e. how grammar is graded.

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Appendix – List of exercise examples

Example 1: *exercise 21 p. 157 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Write three sentences where you use the present tense in order to express future.

Example 2: *exercise 11 p. 197 in New Flight 3*

Put the verb in the right tense.

Example:

walk: I walk to school every day.

write: He is writing to his uncle right now.

A   go: We ... to Canada every year

Etc

Example 3: *exercise 17 p. 155 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Translate into Norwegian:

a) May I sit down here?

b) He must be extremely glad.

c) Could you open the window, please?

Etc.

Example 4: *exercise 3 p. 132 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Fill in the right form of the word:

a) Robert has two ... (child) and George has three.

Etc.

Example 5: *exercise 2 p. 137 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Explain in your own words what a subject pronoun is and what an object pronoun is.

Example 6: *exercise 18 p. 157 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Explain the difference between *will* and *be + going to*.

Example 7: *exercise 1 p. 140 in* Crossroads 10B *(My translation)*

Fill in the empty field with one or two words to make the interrogative sentence correct:

a) …… the dog recognize its mother?

b) …… she scared of spiders?

Etc.

Example 8: *exercise 36 p. 209 in New Flight 3*

Pair work

Make the following adjectives into adverbs, and say a sentence each where you use the adverb.

Example: slow – slowly   A: My father always drives *slowly*

                                          B: They did their homework very *slowly*.

Quiet, careful, nice, beautiful, bad, awful, happy, noisy, loud, (etc.)

Example 9: *exercise 37 p. 209 in New Flight 3*

Write these sentences with the adverb in the correct place.

Example: often Matt visits us → Matt *often* visits us.

a   never   They do their homework on time.

Etc.

Example 10: *exercise 25 p. 74 in New Flight 3*

Used to can only be used in the past tense. If you want to express habits in other tenses, *usually* is a good alternative.

Translate these sentences into English:

a   Vi pleier å reise til Sverige om sommeren.

b   Det regner vanligvis mye der jeg bor.

c   Vi pleide å se hverandre hver dag da jeg var liten.

Example 11: *exercise 38 p. 209 in New Flight 3*

Adjective or adverb? Write the sentences correctly:

a   John has a (beautiful) wife. She dances (divine).

Etc.

Example 12: *exercise 8 p. 64 in New Flight 3*

Change these sentences from the past perfect continuous tense into the future continuous tense.

a   They had been studying hard.

b   Lea had been travelling around for a year.

Etc.

Example 13: *exercise L3 p. 95 in Searching 10*

Translate the sentences using –ing forms.

A   Å spise for fort er udannet.

Etc.

Example 14: *exercise L4 p. 199 in Searching 10*

Put the words in these sentences in the correct order.

A   in fleet Japan was Harbor attacked the American by Pearl.

Etc.

Example 16: *exercise L1 p. 72 in Searching 10*

dis-   **dis**honest

in-   **in**secure

im-   **im**possible

un-   **un**happy

il-   **il**legal

How do the prefixes above change the meaning of the words?

Example 17: *exercise L1 p. 24 in Searching 10*

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

Example 18: *exercise 4 p. 145 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

When do we use the past tense of the verb?

Example 19: *exercise 33 p. 21 in New Flight 3*

Study these examples:

The first thing he did that morning was to read the paper.

That's *the most awful thing* I've ever heard!

She's *the only one* for me!

Translate the passages in *italics* into Norwegian. Can you see the difference?

[…]

Example 20: *exercise 21 p. 47 in New Flight 3*

Turn these sentences into the passive voice. Start with the words in *italics*.

Example: Sally brings *our mail*. *Our mail* is brought by Sally.

A The warden locks *the gate* at 11 pm.

Etc.

Example 21: *exercise 8 p. 135 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Write seven sentences using the 's-genitive.

Example 22: *exercise 21 p. 98 in New Flight 3*

Pair work

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

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

Example 23: *exercise L2 p. 173 in Searching 10*

Here are some uncountable nouns. Use them as the subject in present tense sentences.

water	music	news	information
homework	furniture	rain	luck

Example 24: *exercise 9 p. 150 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Fill in the present simple or the present continuous tense.

a) Try not to disturb your dad. He .... (work) on his new invention.

b) Please come and join us. We .... (have) tea at four o'clock most days.

Etc.

Example 25: *exercise 15 p. 116 in New Flight 3*

Pair work

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 26: *exercise 1 p. 187 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Write a short text in which you argue why it is important that rich countries help poor countries economically or in other ways. Use various connectives in the text.

Example 27: *exercise 31 p. 50 in New Flight 3*

Pair work

Join a friend and make questions to go with these answers.

A: ....?   B: Last night? I was at the cinema.

(Etc.)

Now, make some questions and answers of your own.

Example 28: *exercise 2 p. 132 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Find all the nouns (common nouns) in the sentences and write them in their plural form

a) The party took place in the city

Etc.

Example 29: *exercise 3 p. 183 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

You need two sheets of paper. On one paper write a text using a lot of prepositions. Then write the same text over again on the other paper, but this time draw a line where the prepositions were. Give the text without the prepositions to another student. Tell him or her to fill in the appropriate prepositions.

- Are these the same prepositions as the ones you wrote on the first paper?

- Discuss which text is the best, and why it is the best

- Agree which prepositions fit best in the text. Then rewrite the text and show it to your teacher for comments.

Example 30: *exercises 1, 3, and 4 p. 145 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

1. Explain what is meant by *infinitive.*

3. When do we use the present tense of the verb?

4. When do we use the past tense of the verb?

Example 31: *exercise 5 p. 139 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Make ten sentences with *it is/ was, there is/ are, there was/ were*. Discuss with your partner whether the sentences are right before you ask your teacher to comment the sentences.

Example 32: *exercise 1 p. 142 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Find the adjectives in the text below and write them down. Compare with another student.

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. (etc.)

Example 33: *exercise 7 p. 143 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Write a story about a nature or holiday experience. Do not use adjectives. Write the story again, but this time use at least ten adjectives.

- Read your stories in a group

- Discuss which story is the best one

- What do the adjectives do to a story? Discuss.

Example 34: *exercise 12 p. 150 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Insert question tags:

a) Mum will be late for work, ... ?

Etc.

Example 35: *exercise 23 p. 48 in New Flight 3*

Translate these sentences:

a   Denne bilen er lagd i Japan.

Etc.

Example 36: *exercise 27 p. 121 in New Flight 3*

Read this text:

- Yesterday I saw a film that I truly liked!

(Etc.)

Which words are used as subjunctions (Norwegian: som) in English? What does the word *whose* mean?

Example 37: exercise 21 p. 15 in New Flight 3

Put the words of each line in the correct order and you will find some riddles.

a   – peach the Why the marry banana wouldn't?

         – heart a it stone of had Because!

Etc.

Example 38: *exercise 23 p. 202 in New Flight 3*

Join a partner and say or write as many sentences as possible that start like this:

I enjoy ...

It's no use ...

Etc.

Example 39: *exercise 9 p. 64 in New Flight 3*

Pair work

What will you be doing this weekend? Take turns asking and answering.

Example: A: What will you be doing this weekend?

                   B: I will be studying for my English test the whole time!

Use these verbs in your answers:

a   wash

b   work

Etc.

Example 40: *exercise 22 p. 47 in New Flight 3*

Put the verbs in brackets in the right form of the passive voice:

Compton Manor (visit) by thousands of people every year. The house (build) n 1550, but it (destroy) by a fire in 1630. (Etc).

Example 41: *exercise 15 p. 142 in New Flight 3*

In expressions like *the butcher's, the baker's* and so on the word *shop* has been omitted. Write down three things you can buy at

a   the butcher's

Etc.

Example 42: *exercise 16 p. 116 in New Flight 3*

Fill in the right nationality word.

a ... come from Sweden
Etc.

Example 43: *exercise L3 p. 198 in* Searching 10

Rewrite these sentences in the active.

A   The Red Cross was founded by Jean-Henri Dunant.

B   This story is told by a girl who, at the time of the events, was only fifteen years old.

C   Etc.

Example 44: *exercise L1 p. 94 in Searching 10*

Translate these sentences into Norwegian. How do you translate the –ing form in each sentence?

A The Lion starts walking towards the jeep.
Etc.

Example 45: *exercise L2 p. 24 in* Searching 10

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 46: *exercise L4 p. 95 in* Searching 10

Correct these sentences.

He has great difficulty to learn French.
She was very pleased to seeing them.
I'm looking forward to hear from you.
Etc.

Example 47: *exercise L3 p. 121 in Searching 10*

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

1 Skal du virkelig se den filmen?

(Etc.)

B Work together in groups. Discuss your translation of the sentences. If you have two or more different translations, is there any difference in meaning between them? Explain the differences.

Example 48: *exercise L3 p. 25 in Searching 10*

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 49: *exercise L4 p. 72 in Searching 10*

Write down five new words with prefixes. Use each one in a sentence.

Example 50: *exercise L2 p. 95 in* Searching 10

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

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

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

C   etc.

Example 51: *exercise 11 p. 197 in New Flight 3*

Put the verb in the right tense.

a   go: We ... to Canada every year

b   visit: and we always ... Toronto

c   etc

Example 52: *nonsense-word gap filling exercise*

Put the verb in the right tense.

a   blonk: We *blonk* to Canada every year

b   ving: and we always *ving* Toronto

c   etc

Example 53: *reformulation exercise (Newby in preparation: ch. 12)*

Paraphrase the idea of the sentence using a passive form:

The author of Julius Caesar was William Shakespeare.

→ Julius Caesar was written by William Shakespeare.

Example 54: *exercise 10 p. 65 in* New Flight 3

Translate these sentences into English. Use continuous tenses!

a   Myra er enig. Se, hun nikker!

b   etc.

Example 55: *exercise 13 in Newby (in preparation: ch. 12 Appendix)*

Nobby's father is very strict and his mother is very lenient. They always disagree about how Nobby should behave. You can join in their arguments by doing the exercise. Write down what the mother says.

5. Father: Nobby, you must go to bed immediately!

     Mother: *Nobby, my darling, you needn't go to bed yet*!

6. Father: Nobby mustn't stay out so late.

     Mother: *He can stay out as long as she wants to*!

7. Father: Nobby, you must eat up all your spinach.

     Mother: ....

8. Father: Nobby, you mustn't wear jeans to school.

     Mother: ....

Etc.

Example 56: *exercise L1 p. 221 in* Searching 10

Here are some sentences. Divide them into the four groups above.

I'm going to have you put in the booby-hatch.

I'll see you back to the lamp-post

Etc.

Example 57: *exercise 2 p. 186 in Crossroads 10B (My translation)*

Write one sentence with each of the connectives on pp. 183-185. When you have finished, join a partner and shift between reading one of the sentences to each other, without reading the connectives. You partner is going to guess which connectives belongs in your sentences. You are going to guess which connectives belongs in your partner's sentences.