**Lecture one: Language teaching materials**

 It goes without saying that language teaching materials are an important aspect of the curriculum. They are the most observable feature of a course and they can contribute greatly to its implementation.

**Materials and media**

 Tomlinson (1998:11) defines materials as:

anything that is used to help to teach language learners .Materials can be in the form of a textbook ,a work book ,a cassette ,a C.D Rom ,a video , a photocopied handout ,a news paper ,a paragraph written on a white board :anything which represents or informs about the language being learned.

 In the same way Richards (2001:251) attempts to define commercial materials saying:

These (commercial materials) may take the form of (a) printed materials such as books ,workbooks ,worksheets ,or readers ;( b) nonprint materials such as cassette or audio materials ,videos ,or computer-based materials ;(c) materials that comprise both print and nonprint sources such as self-access materials and materials on the internet. In addition, materials not designed for instructional use such as magazines, newspapers and TV materials.

 The above authors have been criticized by Hamada (2007) on the ground that their definitions are rather confusing. He prefers the term media to call most items in Tomlinson’s definition except ‘a paragraph’ which is a material .According to him, Tomlinson uses the term ’materials’ to refer to the media that teachers use to present material . For example ,’a paragraph’ in Tomlinson’s definition is a material presented (written) in white board which is a medium .The same paragraph can be presented in another medium such as textbook .As for Richards’ definition , Hamada points out :

Richards (2001) makes an ambiguous use of the terms ‘materials’ and ‘sources’ to mean the same thing as ‘materials’ and ‘media’ (…..) He (Richards. ibid) interchangeably uses the terns ‘materials’, ‘sources’, and ‘forms’ to identify containers of scripted, nonscripted and a combination of both, as sources (written, oral and audiovisual language) of information .However, in the two last lines of this quote the anther identifies the mass media of communication as ‘materials’ and not sources from which a course designer can select some authentic materials (Hamada .2007:158).

 After this criticism, Hamada (2007) provides his own definition:

We can define materials as all aspects of language usage and use. All what the learners are exposed to inside or outside the classroom in terms of speech, writing and visual-paralinguistic- (…..)The forms and contexts of language usage and use, and the various tasks designed for teaching and learning are the materials .Presenting these materials to the foreign language learner in or outside the classroom through different pedagogical means requires the use of some tools that we call media. They include all kind of equipment that the teachers, or other pedagogues, use or outside the classroom.

 The distinction between materials and media was made clear by Candlin and Breen (1979:174) when they write: ’the term ‘materials’ refers to any published or unpublished data in any medium or collection of media used for the purpose of language teaching and learning’. Accordingly, materials are the language input that learners are exposed to in terms of phonology, morphology, lexicon, structural cohesion and logical coherence. This exposure requires the use of media which are the containers of the language input. For example, a conversation, a material, can be presented in two media. It can be written on a page of a textbook or recorded on a CD. Besides the same medium can present a variety of materials .For instance, a textbook, a medium, can present a poem, a letter, a speech …etc.

Furthermore, the previous examples cannot be considered as materials unless they are followed by some activities that learners are to perform .They may include comprehension questions, information retrieval and transfer and negotiation of meaning/

**Types of materials**

 Language teaching materials can be classified into three types aural, reading and paralinguistic materials.

**Aural materials**

 They represent language input that learners listen to in order to perform some activities, Hamada (2007:160) distinguishes oral materials according into their purpose into:

\_Materials to be listened to like interviews; conversations, dialogues, radio news broadcasting, related stories, songs, etc……

\_Materials to be noted down like lectures and dictations, etc…….

\_Materials to be performed like repetition drills, instructions, etc

**Reading materials**

 They represent written language input that learners read to do some activities .Hamada (2007: 161) classifies them into:

\_Materials to be read silently like stories, short stories, novels, letters, newspaper and magazine articles, etc….

\_Materials to be read aloud like poems and simulated news board-casting, etc…..

\_Materials to be read and performed or followed as instructions like cooking recipes and instructional leaflets, etc…

**Paralinguistic materials**

 To understand the message in an oral material, body language is quite helpful .For example, in a conversation, the participants’ gestures, eye contacts, etc, can tell a lot about their intentions. Likewise, reading materials are accompanied by visual materials like graphs, charts, maps, tables, pictures, which learners use together with the reading passage to perform the required tasks.

**Lecture two: the Textbook**

 Textbooks are at the heart of any language teaching course. They play a significant role in foreign a language classroom, in the professional lives of teachers and in the everyday lives of learners. Hutchinson and Torres (1994:315) point out:

The text book is an almost universal element in ELT teaching. Millions of copies are sold every year and numerous aid projects have been set up to produce them. (…..) No teaching-learning situation, it seems, is complete until it has its relevant textbook.

**What is a textbook?**

In his glossary of terms, Tomlinson (1998:04) defines a course book as:

a textbook which provides the core materials for a course. It aims to provide as much as possible in one book and is designed so that it would serve as the only book which the learners necessarily use during a course. Such a book usually includes work on grammar vocabulary, pronunciation, functions and the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking.

 Thus, the text book is a key component in most language programmes because it serves as the basis for much of the language input that learners receive and the language practice that occurs in the classroom.

 **Text book: pros and cons**

 Many studies have discussed the advantages and disadvantages of a using a textbook. These studies revealed that the use of textbooks has its proponents and opponents. Tomlinson (2001:67) summarizes the issue saying:

Proponents of the course book argue that it is the most convenient form of presenting materials, it helps to achieve consistency and continuation, it gives learners a sense of system, cohesion and progress and it helps teachers prepare and learners revise. Opponents counter that it is inevitably superficial and reductionist in its coverage of language points and limits provision of language experience, it cannot cater for the diverse needs of its users, it imposes the uniformity of syllabus and approach and it removes initiative and power from teachers.

 **In favour of using a textbook**

 The centrality and dominance of textbooks has been stressed by various writers and researchers. Hutchinson and Torres (1996) argue that a well prepared textbook is more than just a set of potential lesson plans. They (ibid) suggest that both teachers and learners see textbooks as providing framework or guidance that can help them teach and learn effectively. From a survey of teachers’ views, they report that managing lessons is the primary need for teachers, who see the text book mainly in a facilitating role such as saving time, giving directions to lessons, guiding discussion and providing homework. This facilitating role contributes to “making teaching easier, better organized, more convenient and learning easier, faster and better” (ibid:318). They also believe that textbooks provide confidence and security.

 According to Richards (1998), textbooks used in the classroom embody the curriculum. They reflect the objectives of the language programme, the kind of syllabus used, the skills being taught, the methodologies being implemented and also function as a “mediating object” between the teacher and the learner. They represent the foundation of school instruction and the primary source of information for both students and teachers especially the novice ones for whom the textbook is a source of guidance, support and training.

 Similarly Harmer (1991) suggests that where a textbook is involved there is obvious advantages for both teachers and students. Good textbooks often contain lively and interesting materials, they provide a sensible progression of language items clearly showing what has to be learned in terms of grammar, lexis, functions skills, etc. Good textbooks also relieve the teacher from the pressure of designing their own materials.

 In the same line of thought Sheldon (1988:237) states that textbooks “represent the visible heart of any ELT program” and argues that teachers use textbooks because materials development is extremely a difficult and time consuming task. Another proponent of the use of textbooks in language classrooms is Cunningsworth (1995). He states that textbooks have important multiple roles in ELT. He summarizes these roles as follows:

- a source for the presentation materials (spoken and written)

- a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction.

- a reference source for learners on grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and so on.

- a source of stimulation and ideas for classroom activities.

- a syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined.)

- a resource for self-directed learning or self-access work.

- a resource for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence. (ibid: 07)

 O’Neil (1982) provides four justifications for the use of the textbooks. First, a large part of a textbook’s materials can be suitable for students needs, even if not specially designed for them. Second, textbooks allow students to look ahead or revise previous lessons. Thus, they remove the element of surprise in students’ expectations. Third, textbooks have the practical aspect of providing materials which are well presented and less expensive than other materials. Finally, and we believe more importantly, well designed textbooks allow for improvising and adaptation by the teacher as well as encouraging students to interact actively in the class.

 To sum up, yielding many pedagogical benefits for both the teachers and learners, textbooks play a significant role in English language teaching.

**Against using a textbook**

 However, many practitioners and educationalists see textbooks as an impediment to effective teaching and suggest that they rather have a negative impact on both teachers and learners. Allright (1982), for example, suggests that textbooks are too inflexible generally, reflect the pedagogic, psychological and linguistic preferences and biases of their authors. In addition, the proponents of the use of authentic materials in language classrooms believe that textbooks are too artificial in their presentation of the target language. They argue that it is crucial to introduce learners to real life examples of both spoken and written discourse.

 Another drawback of the use textbooks in language classrooms was suggested by Littlejohn (1992) cited in Hutchinson and Torres (1996:325) who states: “the development of a more highly structured textbooks leads to the deskilling of teachers”. In other words, using a textbook can cause the lowering and reduction of the level of cognitive skills involved in teaching which results in a level of teaching in which the teachers’ decision are largely based on the textbook. Thus, the teacher becomes like a blind slave to the textbook, which was designed by others, leaving the teacher with little or even no control over his or her teaching and allowing the textbook to make most of the decisions for him or her.

 Furthermore Hutchinson and Torres (ibid) believe that a textbook can neither meet the needs of any individual teaching-learning situation nor the needs of the individuals within it. In the same line of thought, Allright (1982:10) asserts that: “the whole business of the management of language learning is far too complex to be satisfactorily catered for by a prepackaged set of decision embodied in teaching materials”. This entails that no single textbook can possibly work in all situations even if it was well designed.

 In sum, both the benefits and limitations of the use of textbooks need to be considered .If the textbooks that are being used in a language programme are judged to have negative consequences, remedial actions should be taken. This may include using supplementary books, providing appropriate guidance and support for teachers on how to use them appropriately, or adapting the textbook materials to meet one’s own setting. Furthermore, Graves (2000) compares a textbook to a musical instrument like the piano which provides the musician with the means to produce music but does not provide the music on its own .Graves (ibid; 175-176) states: “just as a piano does not play music, a textbook does not teach language. The textbook is a stimulus or instrument for teaching and learning”. Therefore, it is the teacher’s use of the textbook that makes it a useful tool for teaching and learning a language.

 In fact, making the best use of textbooks is a pre-requisite to effective teaching and to getting over textbook deficiencies. Many educationalists stress the importance of changes that teachers bring into the textbook materials and that all the processes of adaptation they make are at the heart of teaching and make it possible for teachers to devise effective lesson out of the materials they make use of. O’Neil (1981:111) believes that if teachers don’t bring change and improvements to textbooks in order to achieve “a spontaneous, creative interaction in the classroom (……), textbooks are simply pages of dead inert written symbols”. In short, what makes a textbook suitable or relevant to a particular teaching-learning situation is not the textbook itself, but rather its effective use by teachers.

**Lecture three: authentic materials**

 It is widely acknowledged that authentic material are beneficial to the English language learner. Authenticity is, in fact, one of the claims of communicative language teaching. Widdowson (1990) states:

It has been traditionally supposed that the language presented to the learners should be simplified in some way for easy access and acquisition. Nowadays there are recommendations that the language presented should be authentic.

 **Authentic texts authentic tasks**

 Richards (2001:252) distinguishes between authentic materials and created materials.

 An authentic material refer to the use, in teaching, of texts, photo- graphs, video selections and other teaching resources that were not specially prepared for pedagogic purposes. Created materials refer to textbooks and other specially developed instructional resources.

 In a similar way Tomlinson (1998:8) defines an authentic text as:

a text which is not written or spoken for language teaching purposes. A newspaper article, a rock song, a novel, a radio interview and a traditional fairy story are examples of authentic texts. A story written to exemplify the use of reported speech, a dialogue scripted to exemplify ways of inviting and a linguistically simplified version of a novel would not be authentic texts.

 Thus, an authentic text is a piece of genuine language input produced by a native speaker. (a real speaker or writer) for a real audience to convey a message in a specific situation. Taking this text form its real context to a classroom setting will automatically deprive the text of its authenticity because the foreign language learners are not the real audience of the message and the classroom is not its real setting.

 Yet, authenticity is not just an aspect of texts but of tasks as well. Authentic texts are used in foreign language classrooms in order to expose learners to real world language so that they can perform communicative activities. Thus, what matters most is not the text itself but what the learners do with the authentic text. Task authenticity, then, is an important aspect of materials authenticity. In this respects, Tomlinson (1998:08) distinguishes between authentic tasks and pedagogic tasks. He defines an authentic task as:

a task which involves learners in using language in a way that replicates its use in the ‘real world’ outside the language classroom. Filling in blanks, changing verbs from simple past to simple present and completing substitution tables are, therefore, not authentic tasks. Examples of authentic tasks would be answering a letter addressed to the learner, arguing a particular point of view and comparing various holiday brochures in order to decide where to go for a holiday.

 For a pedagogic task, Tomlinson (ibid: 11-12) gives the following definition:

 a task which does not replicate a ‘real world’ task, but which is designed to facilitate the learning of language or skills which would be useful in a real world task. Completing one half of a dialogue, filling in the blanks in a story and working out the meaning of ten nonsense words from clues in text would be examples of pedagogic tasks.

 In other words, authentic tasks, on the one hand, are the ones that learners need to accomplish beyond the classroom in everyday life. Thus, the ultimate goal of language instruction is to enable learners to accomplish this kind of tasks successfully in the real world using the target language. Pedagogic tasks, on the other hand, are the ones which form the basis of classroom activities during instruction. These tasks facilitate the development of learners’ language proficiency. Consequently the successful completion of pedagogic tasks would enable learners to acquire the skills needed to accomplish authentic real world tasks that they will use outside the classroom. Authentic task pedagogy, thus, makes use of authentic materials which consist of engaging learners in activities that would help them develop the communicative proposes they will need outside the classroom.

 **Authentic materials: pros and cons**

 Of the many benefits of using authentic materials in the classroom is the exposure of learners to as much real language as possible. Even if the classroom is not a real life situation, authentic materials do have a very important place within it. Yet, it has been argued that by taking a text out of its original context, it loses its authenticity. Using authentic materials in language classrooms, thus, has raised a debate among authors; some are in favour of their use while others criticize them, opting for teacher generated materials. Philips and Shettlesworth (1978), Clarke (1989) and Peacock (1997) cited in Richards (2001) advocate the use of authentic materials in foreign language classroom because they are a source of motivation for learners, they reflect the target culture, they provide exposure to real language, and they respond to learners’ needs and promote a creative approach to teaching. Authentic texts increase learners’ motivation by giving them the feeling that they are learning the real language as it is used by the community which speaks it. Besides, authentic materials are more interesting because they can be more up-to-date and relate to every day issues and activities because they are obtained from the media and the internet which offers students a valuable source of language input. In this way, links are made between the classroom and learners needs outside it. Authentic materials are a rich source of cultural content. They reflect the native speakers’ beliefs, life styles, traditions, etc. An extract from a novel, a film or a rock song would familiarize the learners with a lot of aspects of the target culture. By exposing the learners to cultural feature in a text a deeper understanding of the topic can be generated and, thus, interest in the text may be raised.

When using authentic materials, teachers can raise their learners’ interest and motivation and give a sense of achievement. Thus, teachers who opt for authentic materials are said to be creative and reflective not relying on the materials from the textbooks. Selecting authentic texts and designing authentic tasks is a sign of effective teachers who have an eclectic, innovative approach towards their work.

 In spite of their benefits, authentic materials have been criticized because they may create some problems for both the learners and the teachers. For examples, authentic texts tend to be linguistically difficult, not being simplified, with more complex syntactic patterns and vocabulary. Thus, the use of authentic texts may prevent the learners from responding in a meaningful way. Therefore, they can cause frustration, confusion and automatically they may be demotivating.

 In addition, some teachers would prefer using materials from text- books because they correspond to the course they are implementing and, thus, they guarantee covering all the course elements. Besides, teachers may have neither the will nor the skills to use authentic materials. They may regard the selection of authentic texts and the design of relevant tasks demanding and time consuming activities.

 After discussing their advantages and potential problems, Richards (2001) points out that in many language teaching programmes, teachers use both authentic materials and created materials because both have benefits as well as limitations. Moreover Richards (ibid: 253) states: “the distinction between authentic and created materials is becoming increasingly blurred, because many published materials incorporate authentic texts and other real world resources”.

 In sum, since the selection and design of authentic materials is rather challenging, some factors are to be taken into consideration. The selection of texts should not be made in a random way: there has to be an aim behind it and the materials must correspond to the objectives of the course. Besides, the selected texts should be carefully examined for their lexical and grammatical difficulty. In addition, learner’s age, level, interest and needs must be taken into account in the selection of theme and topics of the authentic texts. In short, in spite of the availability and accessibility of authentic texts nowadays, thanks to the worldwide media, they should be selected in such a way that fits them into the learning teaching context with teachers constantly providing pedagogical support to the learners for a successful implementation of authentic materials.

**Lecture four: textbook design**

**Decisions in the process**

1-Needs analysis

2-Developing aims and objectives

3-Develpoing a syllabus

4-Organizing the course into units and developing a structure for the units

5-Sequencing units

6-Choosing imput and sources

7-Selecting exercise types

8-Managing a textbook writing project

**Needs analysis /Situation analysis**

Gathering information about teachers, learners, class size and status of the foreign language

**Developing aims and objectives**

It is not easy to write aims and objectives. Sound aims and objectives in language teaching are based on :

-an understanding of the subject matter being taught

-an awareness of the attainable levels of learning

-the abilitry to express aims and objectives in terms of logical and well-structured units of organization

**Examples** : compare

1-students will learn how to understand lectures in English (**aim**)

2-students will learn how to recognize the following aspects :cause and effect, comparision and contrast, main points and supporting details…..etc (**objective**)

Objectives must be **SMAERT**

**S**: specific

**M**: measurable

**A** : achievable

**R** : realistic

**T** : time-bound

**Develpoing a syllabus**

**Types of syllabuses**

Structural

Lexical

Functional

Situational

Topical

Competency-based

Skill-based

Task-based

Integrated/ multidimensional

Decisions about the syllabus to be applied reflect the designers’ assumptions about

1. The nature of language
2. Language learning
3. Language use
4. What the most essential elements of language are
5. How these can be organized as an efficient content for learning

**Organizing the course into units and developing a structure for the units**

Units are instructional blocks. A unit is a self-contained learning sequence with its own objectives very often organized around a theme

**Criteria of a successful unit**

-length : short but including enough materials

-development : smooth movement , gradation of activities

-relevance ; topics related to the theme of the unit

-pacing : ballance of time devoted to different activities

-outcome : a project for example

A textbook is divided into units which are intern divided into lessons which consist of different activities around different aspects of language

**Sequencing units/ordering**

There are different ways of ordering units in a textbook such as :

1-Chronological order

**Example**: in a writing course,

 brainstorming, drafting, revising and finally editing

2- The principle of need

**Example** : in a course for immigrants,

basic literacy skills, personal identification, money, shopping and social language

3-Part to whole

**Example** : writing a paragragh before writing an essay

**Choosing imput and sources**

Selecting content and materials

What type of imput ? on which basis ? from where ?

**Selecting exercise types**

-Creating activities : engaging learners in skills

-Sequencing acivities through the PPP (presentation, practice, production)

Another way is in skill-based courses : pre, while, post

**Guidelines**

-Variety in order to cater for learners’ different styles and strategies

-Interaction pattern : individual, pair, group work

-Intensity of the learning load : ballanced according to learners levels(not cognitively demanding)

**Managing a textbook writing project**

1-Selecting the project team : in large scale projects, the following people might be involved :

director, writers, media specialist, editor, illustrator, designer,

2-Planing the number of stages involved :

-First draft

-Comments on the first draft

-Second draft

-Further comments

-Tryout of materials

-Final revision of materials

3-Identifying reviewers (feedback)

4-Planing the writing schedule (time frame)

5-Piloting the materials : trying with a representative group of teachers and learners

6-Design and production

**Lecture five: textbook evaluation**

 Materials play an undeniable role in language classrooms. Foreign language teachers use either institutionally designed textbooks produced by educational authorities such as ministries of education or commercial materials which are designed for a wide audience. Teachers’ attitudes towards the materials differ from one teacher to another. Reflective teachers with a critical stance towards their teaching materials use them in a selective way. Thus, it has been argued that special attention must be paid to evaluate language teaching materials in order to choose the most suitable one for one’s teaching-learning situation. In this respect, Nunan (1991:209) states:

The selection process can be greatly facilitated by the use of systematic materials evaluation procedures which help ensure that materials are consistent with the needs and interests of the learners they are intended to serve, as well as being in harmony with institutional ideologies on the nature of language and learning.

 **Definition of materials evaluation**

 Materials evaluation has been defined by Tomlinson (1998:06) as: “the systematic appraisal of the value of materials in relation to their objectives and to the objectives of the learners using them”. Another definition given by the same author (2003:5) is: “a procedure that involves measuring the value of a set of learning materials”. Thus, materials evaluations is a dynamic process which aims at investigating the suitability and appropriateness of the language teaching materials . It is a useful device for both teachers and materials designers as a prerequisite for making innovation and modifications within the teaching learning context.

**Types of evaluation**

 Ellis (1997) distinguishes two types of materials evaluation, namely predictive and retrospective evaluation. A predictive evaluation is designed to make a decision regarding what materials to use. Teachers who are required to carry a predictive evaluation determine which materials are more suitable to their purpose. Once the materials have been used, further evaluation may be conducted to find out whether the materials have worked out for them, and this type of evaluation is called retrospective evaluation.

 Another classification was made by Tomlinson (1998:06) when he says:

Evaluation can be pre-use and therefore focused on prediction of potential value .It can be whilst-use and therefore focused on awareness and description of what the learners are actually doing whilst the materials are being used .And it can also be post-use and therefore focused on analysis of what happened as a result of using the materials

 It is clear that the main aim of per-use evaluation is to measure the potential of what teachers and learners can do with the materials in classrooms, while in use and post use evaluations are important in establishing how successful learning materials are.

 Moreover, Ellis (1997) suggests that in order to make textbook evaluation empirical, teachers are to investigate specific teaching tasks. He refers to this kind of evaluation as a micro evaluation which he distinguishes from a macro evaluation. He (ibid: 37) points out:

A macro evaluation calls for an overall assessment of whether an entire set of materials has worked. To plan and collect the necessary information for such an empirical evaluation is a daunting prospect .In a micro evaluation; however, the teacher selects one particular teaching task in which he or she has a special interest, and submits this to a detailed empirical evaluation. A series of micro evaluations can provide the basis for a subsequent macro evaluation. However, a micro evaluation can also stand by itself and can serve as a practical and legitimate way of conducting an empirical evaluation of teaching materials.

 To carry out a micro evaluation of a task, Ellis (ibid: 38) suggests the following steps : choosing a task to evaluate, describing the task, planning the evaluation, collecting the information for the evaluation, analyzing the information, reaching conclusion and making recommendations and writing the report. According to Ellis (ibid) a micro evaluation of a task can serve different purposes. It can show how effective is a task for a specific group of students. Besides, it can show problems in the task design and how it may be modified.

 **Criteria for materials evaluation**

 Richards (2001) stresses the importance of the teaching-learning situation for any attempt to evaluate materials. He (ibid: 256) states: “evaluation can only be done by considering something in relation to its purpose”. He believes that it is the teaching-learning situation which determines the suitability of language teaching materials. In other words, a textbook may be suitable on one situation because it matches its needs. Yet, the same textbook put in a different situation may not match its requirements and thus it will be judged as unsuitable. Richards (ibid) suggests that the following issues are to be taken into account before any textbook evaluation:

-The role of the textbook in the programme.

-The role of the teachers in the programme.

- The role of the learners in the programme.

 Furthermore, a number of factors are worth investigating. These factors depend on the particular situation and can help generate appropriate questions for textbook evaluation. Richards (ibid: 259) distinguishes the following factors:

**-** Programme factors: questions relating to programme concerns

- Teacher factors: questions relating to teacher concerns

- Learner factors: questions relating to learner concerns

- Content factors: questions relating to content and organization of the materials in the book.

-Pedagogical factors: questions relating to the principles underlying the materials and the pedagogical design of the materials, including choice of activities and exercise types.

 Similarly, Cunningsworth (2005) suggests four criteria for textbook evaluation. First, textbooks should match the learners’ needs and the aims and the objectives of the course. Second, they should help the learners use the language effectively for their own purposes, i.e., they should reflect the uses that learners make of the language. Third, they should facilitate the learning process. Forth, they should be regarded as a support for learning. Thus, they mediate between the target language and the learners.

 **Textbook evaluation checklists**

 Many experts advocate a very throughout examination of textbook. This has led to the creation of extensive evaluation checklists which provide criteria for a detailed textbook analysis based on asking appropriate questions and interpreting their answers.

 Cunningsworth (1995:03-04), for instance, provides an intensive checklist for evaluation and selection containing 45 questions covering the following criteria: aims and approaches, design and organization, language context, skills, topic, methodology, teacher’s book and practical consideration.

 Sheldon’s (1988:242-5) checklist is made up of 53 questions classified under the 17 major criteria including: rationale, availability, user definitions, layout and graphics, accessibility, linkage, selection/grading, education validity, stimulus/practice/revision, flexibility, physical characteristics, appropriacy, authenticity, sufficiency, cultural bias, guidance, and overall value for money .

 Skierso’s (1991:444-9) checklist consists of 59 questions which are grouped under 6 main criteria which are: bibliographical data, aims and goals, subject matter, vocabulary and structures, exercise and activities, and the art and physical make up .

 A review of the above ELT materials evaluation checklists reveal that they all have a global checklists set of features. Although the headings of the sections appear to be different, an examination of the items will show that they are more or less the same. For example, Skierso (1991) refers to the cost-effectiveness, of the textbook in the bibliographical data section while Cunningsworth (1995) considers it in the practical considerations section. Moreover, Sheldon (1998) and Cunningsworth (1995) realize that any checklist requires adaptation before being submitted to the personal requirements of individual teachers. Thus, they advise the latter to look at the evaluation process from a more subjective view. In this respect, Cunningsworth (1995) believes that the selection procedure is intended as a “framework not a straight jacket” and any procedure should be modified to suit personal circumstances. In the same line of thought, Sheldon (1998:245) explains: “course book assessment is fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb-activity, and that no neat formula, grid or system will ever provide a definite yardstick”.

 In sum, materials evaluation is an inevitable element of teachers’ work. It informs them about the quality of teaching materials and the adaptations required. When done properly and systematically, it will stimulate teachers’ creativity in bringing about considerable change to the materials they make use of so as to make it more relevant to their teaching-learning situation

**Lecture six: textbook adaptation**

 The textbook is the most widely used medium to present language teaching materials. As mentioned in the previous sections textbooks, are either institutionally designed by ministries of education at national levels for teachers to make use of, or commercially produced for a wide audience. In the second case, teachers’ role is to select among the commercial textbooks those that best fit their teaching situation. After this analysis and evaluation, a textbook can be adopted or rejected, In case it is rejected, teachers would engage in the process of designing their own teaching materials. Yet, very few teachers are really capable of developing effective teaching materials. If teachers opt for adopting a textbook, this would be an initial step since it does not necessary mean that teachers are going to use the textbook they have adopted as it is. McDonough and Sow (2003:74) point out: “Adaptation is a process subsequent to and dependent on adoption. Furthermore, whereas adoption is concerned with whole course books, adaptation concerns the parts that make up that whole”. Therefore, whatever the merits of a particular textbook, change is to be brought in a way or another since textbooks can neither satisfy all the individual needs of learners, nor suit all the teaching learning situation. In this respect Candlin and Breen (1979:175) point out: “there can be no such thing as ideal or universally applicable language teaching materials (……) unless they are adapted and situationalised in some specific way”. Thus, adapting their materials allows teachers to achieve more fitness between the textbook and the teaching context. In other words, since there is no such “ideal” textbook, adapting the teaching materials is a useful way to make the textbook more suitable to the particular learners and the teaching situation in general.

 **Definition**

 In his glossary of terms, Tomlinson (1998:06) defines materials adaptation as:

Making changes to materials in order to improve them or to make them more suitable for a particular type of learner. Adaptation can include reducing, adding, omitting, modifying and supplementing. Most teachers adapt materials every times they use a textbook in order to maximize the value of the book for their particular learners.

 Materials adaptation is, in fact, very important to deal with deficiencies in some language teaching materials. It is an activity that devoted teachers carry out to make the materials more relevant to their teaching contexts. Yet, Nunan (1991) argued that materials developed by experienced and qualified designers are to be used as they were initially designed by their authors because their works are worth tried at least once before adapting them because they contain valuable materials for teachers. In the same line of thought, Richards (2001:260-1) writes:”Normally this process takes place gradually as the teacher becomes more familiar with the book ,because the dimensions of the text that need adaptation may not be apparent until the book is tried out in the classroom”.

 McDonough and Show (2003:74) argue that evaluation is a prerequisite for adaptation, because the former “can help teachers develop insights into the different views of language and learning and into the principles of materials design”. It is an activity carried out to check how suitable are the textbook materials to the particular learners and the teaching learning context. Materials adaptation is then the result of recognizing a mismatch between the teaching materials and the needs and objectives of the classroom. Thus, it aims at matching the textbook to the specific situation in which it is used.

**Reasons for materials adaptation**

 Textbooks are designed with one particular target population, one audience in mind, which is not necessarily one’s own audience and types of learners one may have. What might work with a group of learners in a specific area does not necessarily mean that it might also work elsewhere with the same success. Every situation requires different decision marking and actions which match its learners’ age, background, competency level, needs and interest, learning styles and strategies, etc. Therefore, flexibility on the part of the teachers is highly recommended. It is the teacher’s responsibility to adjust the teaching materials suggested in the books to meet students’ differences and to be responsive to their needs. They are in a better position to know what suit their students specifities and work accordingly by bringing the necessary changes in order to personalize the textbook content which students are exposed to ,i.e., to make it relevant to the learners interests and needs ; to individualize the content that the textbook embodies ,i.e., to address and attend to their learners learning styles and preferences and finally to localize it ,i.e., to make it appropriate to suit their own contexts (McDonough and show, 2003). Since no single textbook can cater for this, it is the teacher’s task to bridge the gaps noticed in the textbooks in use and supplement their materials by self-developed ones as a reaction to the deficiencies that materials might contain.

 Moreover, textbooks are not holly books. They are designed by human beings and so they are likely to contain some fault. There might be a mismatch between what they claim to achieve and what they actually do. Therefore, success or failure of textbooks depends on what teachers can make of them; they need to be adapted and refined to better serve one’s own specific group of students.

 Furthermore, teachers should go beyond the textbook because it helps them become reflective practitioners and foster critical thinking. The critical views they adopt towards the teaching materials contribute to professional development, self-directed growth, self-renewal and self-investment and allow teachers to demonstrate their potential talents, creativity and originality. In this respect, Harmer (1998:115) states:

Using textbooks creatively is one of the premier teaching skills. However good the material is; most experienced teachers do not go through it word for word. Instead they use the best bits, add to some exercises and adapt others. Sometimes, they replace the textbook material with their own ideas, ideas from other teachers and occasionally they may omit the textbook lessons completely.

 McDonough and Show argue (2003:77) that adaptation can cover aspects such as skills, classroom organization and supplementary materials. They further suggest a list of reasons for adaptation which reflect their concern that communicative language teaching applies an unsystematic approach to grammar presentation as they believe that grammar should be systematically approached. Their list illustrates some areas of mismatch that can be identified in language teaching materials. These areas of mismatch are to be dealt with by adaptation. McDonough and Show’s (2003:77) list include:

-Not enough grammar in general.

-Not enough practice of grammar points of particular difficulty to these learners.

-The communicative focus means that grammar is presented unsystematically.

-Reading passages contain too much unknown vocabulary.

-Comprehension questions are too easy, because the answers can be lifted directly from the text with no real understanding.

-Listening passages are inauthentic, because they sound too much like written material being read out.

-Not enough guidance on pronunciation.

-Subject matter inappropriate for learners of this age and intellectual level.

-Photographs and other illustrative material not culturally acceptable.

-Amount of material too much or too little to cover in the time allocated.

-Amount of material too much or too little to cover in the time allocated to lessons.

-No guidance for teachers on handling group work and role play activities with a large class.

-Dialogues too formal and not representative of everyday speech.

-Audio material difficult to use because of problems to do with room size and technical equipment.

-Too much or too little variety in the activities.

-Vocabulary lists and keys to exercises would be helpful.

-Accompanying tests needed.

 **Principles and procedures of materials adaptation**

 According to Hamada (2007; 170), Tomlinson (1998:11), McDonough and Show (2003:78-75) and Richards (2001:260) suggest five techniques that teachers can use to adapt the language teaching materials they make use of. They include adding, deleting, modifying, simplifying, and reordering. McDonough and Show (ibid) argue that the choice of a particular technique depends on the nature of the content of the materials to be changed. Besides, teachers can adapt content using different techniques as they may use one technique to adapt different content areas. In addition, materials adaptation can be both quantitative and qualitative, i.e., change can affect the amount of the materials or its methodology. Moreover, techniques may be applied individually or combined with others.

 **Adding**

 Teachers may decide to add to the existing materials where there seems to be inadequate coverage taking into account time allocation. Addition can be in the form of texts, exercises or items within exercises.

**Deleting or omitting**

It is obvious that deletion is opposite to addition, Yet, deletion also can be both quantitative and qualitative and it can affect simple aspects of materials as it may affect complex ones

 McDonough and Shan (2003) suggest that addition and deletion are often applied together since when an item is left out it may be replaced by another. If the omitted and the added items are similar, it will not influence the methodology of the material. This can occur when teachers, for example, replace a reading passage with a listening one, or a communicative activity with a grammar exercise or vice versa.

 **Modifying**

 McDonough and Show (2003:81) define modification as: ’an interval change in the approach or focus of an exercise or other piece of materials.’ It is frequently used and can be applied to any part of the material. Modification is widely used and it can be applied to a text, an exercise or a classroom activity by changing the focuses so as to make the materials content more communicative.

**Simplifying**

 From a narrow point of view, simplification is a case of rewriting which is a type of modification. However, it is regarded as a separate technique because of the attention it has received. Simplification can be applied to the instructions of activities and exercises by offering learners more explanation to make them clearer. The layout of a material may also be simplified to achieve a better presentation of the different parts of materials.

 Yet, teachers should be careful when simplifying content because they may distort language with their over- simplifications of grammar or speech. In this case simplification can be counterproductive. McDonough and Show (2003:83) exemplify the over simplification of grammar by teachers’ explanation of the formation of adverbs by adding “ly” to adjectives which becomes quite misleading when learners encounter words like ”hardly” and “friendly”.

 **Reordering**

 As its name suggests, reordering refers to the change brought to the order of the different parts of a textbook. This can be done by changing either the order of units in a textbook or the different parts within one unit. This, of course, depends on the degree of freedom teachers have over textbook. In some teaching situations, like the Algerian one, reordering is limited to changes within units and teachers are not allowed to change the sequence of units within a textbook.

 Materials adaptations is, thus, an activity which is done by teachers who seek to achieve quality in their teaching. It shows that teachers do not use textbooks blindly, but rather in a reflective way taking into account the specifities of their teaching contexts. Any textbook whatever its merits need to be adapted in a way or another. In other words, reflective teachers often add things, delete others, modify and simply some parts of the textbooks and reorder others. These procedures can be applied to aspects of texts, activities and exercises, instructions and classroom management.

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