

Chapter 5

ELT materials as representing the personal perceptions of authors

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5.1 Introduction

It is of the nature of main course materials published for international markets that they will inevitably be used by teachers and learners whom the author has never met and, in all likelihood, never will. The geographical and cultural distance between author and users may be extreme - it is not uncommon, for example, for authors residing in southern England to find their materials being used as far afield as the Far East, Latin America and Australasia. Frequently working to a detailed brief supplied by the publisher, the main course author is thus required, on the basis of his or her experience, to envisage possible teaching situations of which he or she may have little or no direct experience and to design materials accordingly¹. In writing for such potentially divergent

¹As we shall see in Chapter 6, in the vast majority of cases (if not all cases), main course teaching materials are commissioned by publishers and written to order. In the field of ELT at least, the

situations, the materials designer will inevitably have to draw upon generalised images of the teachers and learners in those markets which the publisher has identified.² It would seem reasonable to hypothesize that the nature of these generalised images, together with the beliefs which individual authors may hold about how languages are most effectively learned in classrooms, may in no small amount account for the nature of the materials as they eventually appear.

This hypothesis, however, presents us with the immediate problem of identifying the precise manner in which generalised images may relate to an author's work and, additionally, the means by which these images may be investigated. My first task in this chapter, therefore, is to examine the theoretical context within which a study of the impact of generalised images may be located (section 5.2) and, from this, distinguish possible means for data collection and data analysis (section 5.3). The subsequent section will then report on the data gathered from the authors and set out what emerge as the authors' generalised images (which I will term 'typifications') of teachers, learners and successful classroom language learning (section 5.4). Section 5.5 will then turn, once again, to the description of the materials presented in Chapter 3 and discuss the extent to which the materials are explicable in terms of the views of their authors.

popular image of the creative author seeking a publisher for his or her completed work is almost entirely mistaken.

²This is not, of course, to suggest that materials will always be used in those markets. There is frequently a considerable mismatch between the intended market and the actual market, not only in geographical setting but also in the age range of the learners, the institution type and course type.

5.2 Investigating authors' perceptions: a theoretical context

5.2.1 Introduction

The notion that the nature of an individual's action is primarily influenced by perceptions personal to that individual has formed a central concern for a number of fields of enquiry. A major contribution to research in this area has been made by the study of perceptual and cognitive psychology in which, for example, concepts have been advanced to account for a discrepancy between the objective fact of something and the manner in which an individual perceives this fact. These concepts have focussed on the various strategies which the human brain may utilise in interpreting new events, and include *transfer*, in which previous knowledge/experience is carried over to new knowledge/experience, *generalisation*, in which an observation true of one particular instance is generalised to all apparently similar instances, and the condition of *perceptual readiness* in which transfer and generalisation prompt individuals to perceive something as they expect it to be rather than as it really is (see, inter alia, Wickelgren, 1979).

Concepts such as these indicate the basis of an approach which one may take to the study of why individuals respond in certain ways to particular situations. Focussing as they do, however, on the internal functioning of the human brain and the gap between perception and objective reality, such concepts of cognitive and perceptual psychology, will, in themselves, have only limited application in an investigation of the generalised images which authors may draw upon in their work. Of their nature, generalised images will be also *social*. They will be produced through the accumulation of social experience gathered by each author in their own teaching, in contact with other teachers and learners, discussions with professional peers and so on. The concept of a gap between perceived reality and objective reality in this case, therefore, will

be an inappropriate one, as there is unlikely to be a clearly defined objective reality against which perception may be measured. What is required, therefore, is a theoretical framework which sets generalised images in a social context but which also draws upon concepts similar to those of transfer, generalisation and perceptual readiness in attempting to account for the *social* action undertaken by an individual. Such a framework has been advanced within phenomenology, a branch within the sociology of knowledge, and it is therefore to this which I now turn .

5.2.2 A phenomenological perspective

Drawing initially on the work of Weber, Schutz (1962) set out the basis of an analytical frame which, in contrast with the then conventional Marxist positions within the field of the sociology of knowledge, emphasised a consideration of the 'common-sense' knowledge which social actors draw upon in the conduct of their everyday lives. In their influential work, *The Social Construction of Reality*, Berger and Luckmann (1971) developed Schutz's ideas still further and established what are now widely regarded as some of the defining concepts of a phenomenological perspective (Abercrombie, 1980).

According to this view, an explanation of why social actors behave in the ways in which they do can only be determined by recourse to an investigation of the 'world view' of those actors. In order to cope with the otherwise complex nature of the world in which they live, individuals 'take for granted' certain aspects of social life and construct typifications of the situations and roles with which they have recurring contact. For example, in appropriate situations, actors are able to see themselves as 'a customer' and their interlocutors as 'a shop keeper' and, unless challenged, adhere to socially agreed conventions about their individual rights and responsibilities in those situations. In face-to-

face interaction, these 'typificatory schemes' are negotiated in an on-going manner, with each utterance and/or action potentially reconfirming or challenging an individual's typifications of both the situation and the social roles of those involved. As Berger and Luckmann express it, "most of the time, my encounters with others in everyday life are typical in a double sense - I apprehend the other *as* a type and I interact with him in a situation that is itself typical" (1971:46).

These typifications, however, may be particularized ("that's just the way Henry would act") or, depending upon how far the interaction is away from face-to-face situations, may become progressively more anonymous ("that's just typical of the French"). In the everyday 'life-world' of individuals, typifications *appear* to have an objective reality and, together, are largely responsible for defining for individuals the limits of their own possible and acceptable social action. Language plays a key role in this, by functioning both as a means of typification and as a means for the transmission and maintenance of typifications, enabling the construction of shared assumptions or a common 'stock of social knowledge' about the world. Conversational exchange, for Berger and Luckmann, is the paramount means of constructing and maintaining social reality, thus necessarily presupposing these shared assumptions and implicitly invoking and confirming them with each utterance spoken. It is, in fact, through this process of continual verbal objectification that shared assumptions become part of individual consciousness. As Berger and Luckmann suggest:

We have seen how language objectifies the world, transforming the *panta rhei* of experience into cohesive order. In the establishment of this order, language *realizes* a world, in the double sense of apprehending and producing it. Conversation is the actualizing of this realizing efficacy of language in the face-to-face situations of individual existence. In conversation the objectifications of

language become objects of individual consciousness. Thus the fundamental reality-maintaining fact is the continuing use of the same language to objectify unfolding biographical experience. In the widest sense, all who employ this same language are reality-maintaining others.

(1971:173)

Whilst an individual's social stock of knowledge about the world fundamentally comprises typifications, Berger and Luckmann identify a further element of significance which, following Schutz, they term 'recipe knowledge'. Everyday life is dominated by 'the pragmatic motive'. That is, it is essentially oriented towards doing things and solving practical problems. Recipe knowledge is that which is "limited to pragmatic competence in routine performances" (1971:56) where the precise and particular details of the operations invoked by a routine act are unknown to the particular individual. One may, for example, know how to send a letter but have little idea how the postal system itself works.

Following Berger and Luckmann, in analysing the perceptions of individual authors we are faced with the task of revealing the nature of their assumptions or 'stock of knowledge' about the world for which they write and, in particular, the nature of the typifications they make. In the context of materials writing, I have suggested (in section 5.1) that authors' typifications of *teachers*, *learners* and *language learning* will be significant. As the above discussion has shown, however, these typifications are unlikely to occur as discrete entities within an individual author's consciousness nor are they, of themselves, likely to be readily available for an author's personal reflection. As components in a definition of reality as it appears to individual authors, these typifications will permeate the execution of an author's work, informing decisions which are made in the process of writing. In terms of materials design, this will

principally centre on selecting activities to propose for classroom work³. Since - as yet, at least - a precise determination of how learning takes place is unavailable, authors will be forced to make design decisions by employing devices (activity types, classroom techniques, etc) which, in common with the nature of 'recipe knowledge', are felt "to work". It would seem reasonable to suggest, therefore, that access to the nature of authors' typifications of teachers, learners, and language learning may initially be gained by investigating the basis upon which they select or reject various activity types for inclusion in their materials. It is, thus, to the methodological considerations involved in revealing the nature of these decisions to which I now turn.

5.3 Data gathering procedures

5.3.1 Outline of data-gathering procedure

As I explained in Chapter 1, it was during the data-gathering stage for what was eventually to become this chapter in the thesis that my focus on five particular authors and five particular coursebooks became clear. I began my research by sending out a letter to forty-five authors who had written teaching materials for the 9-13 age range, asking if they would be willing to participate in a research project, broadly defined as investigating the educational role of materials for that age range. Of those authors, only ten replied positively and to them I sent a brief questionnaire as a way of gradually involving them. The questionnaire included an invitation to meet for interview, where (as I explain below) I anticipated I would gather the main data for this part of my investigation. At this point, only five authors agreed to meet and it was thus with the work of

³ I am using the term 'activity' here in the sense in which it was used in Chapter 2, to refer to a general type of classroom work. This is distinct from my use of the term 'task' which operates at a much more detailed level of analysis. As Chapter 3 showed, an 'activity' may comprise numerous 'tasks'.

those particular authors that my thesis mainly became concerned. Figure 5.1 provides brief biographical notes on each author involved. As we can see, all but one of the authors has extensive previous publishing experience, two of them, in particular, commanding an international reputation for their work in materials development. Three of the five authors work full-time as materials writers, with the remaining two employed in university language institutes. Together, their teaching experience covers a wide range of geographical areas, including the UK, Europe, Africa and Asia.

	age-band/publications/current employment/other information
Author A	45-55; previous teaching materials for local markets; full-time author; teaching experience predominantly in UK and South East Asia.
Author B	45-55; numerous previous materials, including 2 main courses and various supplementary texts; particular involvement in materials for the Arab world; full-time author; teaching experience in Africa, Middle East and UK
Author C	35-45; previous materials in English for Special Purposes; current employment in a university language institute; internationally well-known, particularly for current 'secondary' level materials; teaching experience predominantly UK and Eastern Europe..
Author D	45-55; numerous previous publications, including 3 best selling main courses; full-time author; internationally known; teaching experience predominantly UK and France.
Author E	35-45; no previous publications; current employment in a university language institute; teaching experience predominantly UK.

Figure 5.1 Brief biographical notes on the five authors

In choosing a technique for gathering my main data, one of the most important concerns that confronted me was the need to provide a means by which the authors could 'speak for themselves'. A major risk in any form of data-gathering is the imposition of the 'world view' of the researcher through the structure and content of questionnaires, interview schedules, attitude clines, etc., which topicalise particular aspects of the researched area and particular ways of thinking about those aspects. In investigating the typifications of teachers, learners, and language learning held by the authors, I thus wanted to

find a means of data gathering which was as 'open' as possible. As I explain below, given the small number of respondents involved, this suggested the use of informal interviews as the main basis for data-gathering. In order to make it more likely that the content of the interviews focussed on issues which the authors themselves identified as significant, I decided to first ask each author to complete a personal construct repertory grid which could form the basis for the interview discussion. Before considering the data which I gained through the repertory grids and the informal interviews, I will first outline in more depth the background to my use of each of these devices.

5.3.2 The repertory grid technique

The repertory grid technique, now widely used in management training and social science research, was originally developed by George Kelly as a device for the analysis of how patients undergoing psychotherapy construe the significant people in their lives. The theory which Kelly elaborated in support of the technique, Personal Construct Theory (Kelly, 1955), bears remarkable similarities to the phenomenological notion of 'typifications' which it pre-dated. According to Kelly, people act as 'personal scientists' who, in making their own interpretations of the world, place constructions upon events and the behaviour of others, anticipating and acting upon subsequent events on the basis of those constructions. Action undertaken by an individual, therefore, will be directly influenced by the manner in which the individual construes his/her immediate reality.

Events, however, may challenge or reconfirm personal constructions, requiring individuals continuously to modify the way they construe the world, although, at each point in time, individuals are likely to believe that the world as they

have construed it is 'the world as it really is'. Anxiety, however, may result where an individual's constructions do not apply to the events in hand. In ideal situations, this will signal the need to revise one's way of construing things but where an individual's constructions are impermeable to change personal difficulties are likely to develop. Kelly's intention via the repertory grid technique, then, was to aid patients in gaining as an awareness of how they viewed the world as a precondition to making changes. One is reminded here once again of the phenomenological position on the relationship between 'objective reality' and personal perceptions: "The objectivity of the social world means that it confronts man (sic) as something outside of himself. The decisive question is whether he still retains the awareness that, however objectivated, the social world was made by men - and, therefore, can be remade by them" (Berger and Luckmann, 1971:106).

As Pope and Keen (1981) explain, in use, the repertory grid technique typically involves asking individuals to focus on three 'elements' or aspects of their lives (for example, significant people, such as 'Mother', 'Father', and 'Aunt Lou') and to decide in which way two of the three are alike and the other one different. 'Mother' and 'Father', for example, may be seen as having a 'happy disposition' whilst 'Aunt Lou' may be seen as 'boring'. This will produce a dichotomous construct 'happy disposition/ boring' which may be placed as poles on a continuum on the grid. Further triads would then be chosen, building up a range of constructs against which all of the elements listed can eventually be graded, typically using a numbered scale to reflect either ends on the continua, or arrow heads to show the general direction in which elements tend to be seen (i.e. as 'more this' or 'more that'). The example below, taken from Pope and Keen shows the first stages of completing a grid.

Good company	1	4	5	2	5	3	Boring
Happy disposition	1	5	4	2	4	1	Bad tempered
etc							

Having completed the grid, various methods of analysing the results exist. Considerable insights can be gained by simply reviewing the range of constructs themselves, which may reveal the principal basis on which individuals tend to interact with the elements listed, and, in therapeutic use, indicate the source of problems. Additionally, grids may be subjected to statistical analysis to discover the extent to which certain constructs co-occur, perhaps indicating that, at root, those constructs share the same underlying nature for the particular individual. To this end, various computer programmes have been developed to assist in the analysis of grids (see, inter alia, Thomas, 1978).

In the context of the present research, the repertory grid technique offers a potentially fruitful means of investigating the various constructs which authors may employ in the course of their work and, I have argued, in their typifications of teachers, learners, and classroom language learning. Since, as I suggested, the central concern of an author designing teaching materials will be the selection or rejection of particular activity-types for inclusion in the materials, it was upon this decision-making area which I chose to focus my use of the repertory grid technique. To this end, each author was asked to build a repertory grid using eight given activity-types as a basis for forming the triads, consecutively choosing any three activity-types and endeavouring to identify similarities and contrasts between them. Once a reasonable number of

constructs had been elicited (eight or more), each of the activity-types was then rated against each construct as being more towards one end of the construct continuum or more towards the other. (This polar contrast was chosen in preference to a numerical grading in order to facilitate subsequent mapping; see below). The activity-types chosen for the grid were ones which were evident in the materials produced by the authors, thereby strengthening that the claim that the constructs revealed would be among those utilised by the authors in the course of their work⁴. In order to avoid confusion over terminology, definitions and examples of each activity-type were supplied to the authors, together with step-by-step instructions for building the grid (see Appendix II).

As I noted earlier, the process of building the grid and the identification of authors' personal constructs in materials design was intended to provide a rich, respondent-centred basis for a subsequent interview in which the authors constructs and views on English language teaching and materials design could be explored further. Interpretation of the repertory grids themselves, however, can offer considerable insights and, to this end, I subjected the grids to closer examination. The procedure chosen was one devised by Bannister for calculating coordinates and plotting constructs to form a 'map' of the repertory grid⁵.

To do this, the extent of match between each construct is calculated. In the example below, taken from Author A's grid, the total number of matches between the first two constructs is 1.

⁴ The activity types selected were: gap filling, comprehension questions, information gap pair work, choral repetition, role play, oral drills, grammar transformation, substitution tables. See Appendix II for definitions and examples of the activity types.

⁵ This procedure is more fully described in Cohen and Manion (1980:270-274);.

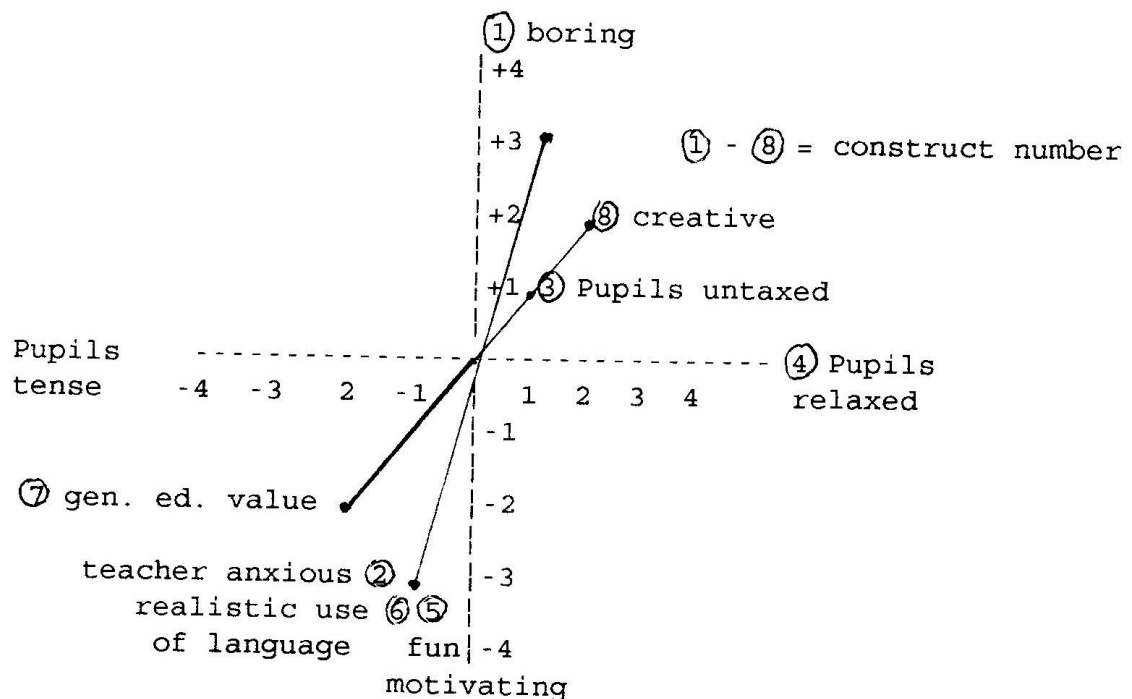
Construct	Activity type	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 boring <-> motivating		->	<-	<-	->	->	<-	<-	<-
2 teacher anxious <-> confident		->	->	->	<-	<-	->	->	->
3 Pupils untaxed <-> taxing		->	<-	->	->	->	<-	->	->
4 Pupils relaxed <-> tense		->	<-	->	<-	->	<-	<-	<-
5 fun <-> not fun		->	->	->	<-	<-	->	->	->
6 realistic use of language <-> unrealistic		->	->	->	<-	<-	->	->	->
7 general educational value <-> little ed. value		->	->	<-	<-	<-	->	->	->
8 creative <-> non-creative		->	->	->	->	->	<-	<-	<-

By chance, one would expect 4 matches (out of 8) and this figure is then subtracted from the actual number of matches to give a score showing the degree of significant matches (-3, in the case of construct 1 and construct 2 above). Scores are then calculated for the degree of significant match between each of the remaining constructs on the grid such that a matrix can be built up. Totals for each column in the grid are then calculated (ignoring the sign) to reveal the construct which causes the greatest variance. If two or more constructs produce the same total, any one of them may be chosen. In the matrix below, for example, Construct 1 may be selected.

constructs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1		-3	+1	+2	-3	-3	-2	+2
2	-3		0	-1	+4	+4	+3	-1
3	+1	0		+1	0	0	-1	+1
4	+2	-1	+1		-1	-1	-2	+2
5	-3	+4	0	-1		+4	+3	-1
6	-3	+4	0	-1	+4		+3	-1
7	-2	+3	-1	-2	+3	+3		-2
8	+2	-1	+1	+2	-1	-1	-2	
Totals	16	16	4	10	16	16	16	10

The construct which has the highest non-significant match with the chosen construct is then identified (+/-2 or less in this example). In the example matrix, Construct 4 (or 7 or 8) may be chosen. The two chosen constructs

then form the axes against which other constructs are mapped, reading off their coordinates from the body of the matrix and plotting mirror coordinates for the other end of each construct. The result is a 'psychological map' which may be interpreted as graphically representing the relative proximity of the informants' constructs and the extent to which they share the same underlying basis. Below is an example map based on the above matrix.



Looking at the map, one can see how the constructs tend to cluster together in two particular areas of the map, with three constructs in particular occupying the same plane (constructs 2, 6 and 5). From the point of view of construct theory, such clustering would tend to suggest that the constructs share the same underlying basis, such that in a situation where one construct is relevant for the respondent, the other constructs will also tend to apply. Thus, in the case of the example map, where the learners are having 'fun' (construct 5), the teacher, in the respondent's view, is likely to be 'anxious' (construct 6). Seen this way, repertory grids, and the 'psychological maps' which can be developed from

them, may have a powerful role in explaining the manner in which individuals perceive the world and thus the forces which guide their action.

5.2.3 The use of interviews

As I mentioned earlier, my main concern in investigating the typifications of teachers, learners, and language learning with which the authors approach their work, was to enable the authors, as far as possible, to 'speak for themselves'. As a starting point for this, I chose, as I have described, to make use of repertory grids, which I saw as a respondent-centred means of gathering my initial data and as a respondent-centred basis for gathering my main data through interview. In selecting interviews, however, as a means of data collection, the researcher is presented with a number of alternatives. Interviews may be more or less formal or more or less structured (see, inter alia, Cohen and Manion, 1980) . In a formal, structured interview, the researcher may simply read off a prepared list of questions and multiple-choice answers from which the respondent is to choose - a format commonly encountered, for example, in opinion polls. In less formal, less structured interviews, the researcher has a series of questions which he/she wishes to ask but allows the respondent to answer in his or her own way, asking further questions to clarify the responses given. Clearly, the type of interview adopted depends to a large extent on the number of respondents involved and the purposes of the research. Opinion polls, for example, taken over a short space of time with a large sample size, are likely to make impractical anything but formal, structured interviews. In the case of my research into authors' typifications, however, I was concerned to reveal their perceptions and their ways of expressing them. This, in my view, precluded any set series of questions or set responses.

In preparing for the interviews with the authors, I felt, in addition, that I was likely to gain 'richer' data if I approached them, not so much as 'a researcher' but more as a fellow ELT professional, with whom they could discuss their work on equal terms. The basic approach I therefore adopted in the interviews was a relatively informal one, where I discussed with them their views on English language teaching. As a stimulus for this, I planned to begin each interview by first looking at the repertory grid the author had completed, asking questions to clarify my understanding of what they meant by each construct listed. Having done that, my next step was to ask each author to say which pole of each construct would characterise what they would see as their "ideal ELT classroom". I chose these two particular steps not because I was interested in the particular responses they would give to my questions but because they appeared to me open-ended questions which would allow a broad discussion of their views of English language teaching, revealing their underlying perceptions. I was interested, then, not so much in discovering the precise definitions of their constructs nor in how exactly they saw their 'ideal ELT classroom', but rather in the opportunities which the discussion would give for exploring the underlying typifications of teachers, learners and classroom language learning with which they approach their work. Having gathered the interview data, however, I was then presented with the problem of how exactly I would go about examining it, that is, how I was to treat the data.

5.3.4 Data treatment

Any interview carries with it a number of problems for understanding the data gathered. Interviews are, above all, social events. They are concerned, not simply with 'information transfer', but with the maintenance and negotiation of the self-images of both researcher and respondent and the accomplishment of the varying goals their each may have. As I have argued at length elsewhere

(see Littlejohn, 1988), this will mean that data gathered through interview (or, for that matter, through questionnaire response - see Slembrouck, 1988) will be intimately related to the particular social situation in which it arose. For the researcher, this will signify that the primary task in examining the data will be one of interpreting, rather than reporting what was said.

With this in mind, I adopted a number of strategies to support my reading of the data. Firstly, I was concerned that any general conclusions to which I might come were supported by evidence throughout the data, that is, that I was able to identify similar views expressed in different parts of the interview. Secondly, in reading and listening to the interview data, I looked for signs where the interviewees appeared to be adjusting what they were saying to match their perception of my expectations, 'hardening' or 'softening' their expressed views during the progress of the interview. Thirdly, and connected with the previous strategy, I looked carefully not only at what was being said but also how it was being said, that is, the particular phrasing which the interviewees adopted in expressing themselves and the particular meanings which such phrasings might carry.

In formulating my findings from both the interviews and the repertory grids, I have chosen, as we shall see, to adopt an approach consistent with my treatment of the materials analysis data, presented in Chapter 3. This involves synthesizing the views expressed by the authors, but noting where individual authors appear to depart from the position commonly taken. My purpose in treating the data in this way is to arrive at a statement of the key features of the authors' typifications of teachers, learners and language learning, such that I will then be able to make direct comparisons with my description of the materials, thereby facilitating my aim of explaining their nature. It is thus

important to recognise in the presentation of the data which follows, that the key features which I set out represent the overall picture, one which may or may not be true in its entirety for any one author.

5.4 Investigating authors' perceptions: the data

5.4.1 *The repertory grids*

Of the five authors contacted for interview, only four agreed to complete a repertory grid. Author D felt he had insufficient time to devote to the grid although he was willing to meet for an interview. The data which I shall present in this section, therefore, relates only to Authors A,B, C and E. As indicated earlier, the focus of attention in constructing the grids (and in the interviews) was the teaching of English to 9-13 year olds. It is not inconceivable that a different focus - for example, teaching adults - would reveal a different set of constructs.

The four authors who agreed to complete repertory grids produced a total of 43 personal constructs in respect of the eight activity types with which they were presented. As I have explained, the principle function of the repertory grid was to provide a basis for a subsequent interview in which the *personal* nature of the constructs could be explored further. Initial inspection of the constructs, however, revealed a significant degree of commonality between authors in the *terminology* used to describe their constructs, suggesting at least the existence of shared ways of describing and, perhaps, shared priorities in decisions about materials design.

Most of the constructs identified can be grouped into four main categories as shown in Table 5.1:

- (i) Constructs relating to what is required of teachers and how they may respond (7 constructs: A2, B1, B14, C9, C10, E1, E8).
- (ii) Constructs relating to what is required of the learners and how they may respond (16 constructs: A1, A3, A4, A5, B5, B15, C4, C5, C6, C7, C9, C12, E2, E3, E5, E7,)
- (iii) Constructs relating to the nature of the language to be produced or worked upon by the learners (12 constructs: A6, A8, B2, B3, B4, B6, B9, B10, C1, C3, C8, E2,).
- (iv) Constructs relating to implications for classroom organisation (7 constructs: B7, B8, B10, B11, B13, C11, E4).

Two further constructs relate to the educational value of an activity type and parents' familiarity with it (constructs A7 and B12 respectively).⁶ I will now turn to each of the four main categories identified.

In terms of (i) *what is required of teachers and how they may respond*, two main areas of concern are evident, as Table 5.1 shows. Firstly, a number of constructs focus on the issue of 'control', whether the teacher has 'more' or 'less' (B1, E1) or whether it is indeed the teacher (rather than the learner) who has control (C9). Secondly, teachers are also considered in respect of their feelings of personal security or anxiety (A2, C10) and their ability to cope with the demands placed on them (B14, E8). These two areas stand in contrast to the main issues in respect of (ii) *What is required of learners and how they may respond*. Here, the main emphasis appears to be in terms of their affective response and whether they are being 'taxed'. In connection with learners' affective response, for example, constructs A1, A5, C4, E3

⁶Construct E2 refers both to the demand placed on the learners and the nature of language worked upon. Thus, the total number of constructs cited here is 44 and not 43.

Table 5.1 Authors' Personal Constructs grouped by topic

(i) WHAT IS REQUIRED OF TEACHERS AND HOW THEY MAY RESPOND		
A2 teacher anxious-teacher confident	B1 teacher control or control by materials: relaxed - tight	B14 demand made on teacher's own proficiency in English: high - low
C9 teacher control - pupil control	C10 teacher feels secure - teacher feels less secure	E1 "safer" more teacher control - less "safe" less teacher control
E8 easier for teacher to manage - difficult for teacher to manage		
(ii) WHAT IS REQUIRED OF LEARNERS AND HOW THEY MAY RESPOND		
A1 boring - motivating	A3 pupils untaxed - untaxing	A4 pupils relaxed - tense
A5 fun - not fun	B5 scope for self-monitoring accuracy of output: high-low	B15 use of problem-solving strategies: minimal - maximal
C4 child oriented - adult academic oriented	C5 imitation - analytic	C6 little demand placed on pupils - demand placed on pupils
C7 non-threatening - threatening	C9 teacher control - pupil control	C12 highly artificial, pretending - more 'natural', does not pretend to be anything else than it is
E2 more attention to meaning, more challenging - less (or no) attention to meaning	E3 more potential for boring learners - less potential for boring learners	-E5 more satisfaction for the learner - less satisfaction for the learner
E7 more fun for learners - less fun for learners		
(iii) THE NATURE OF THE LANGUAGE PRODUCED OR WORKED UPON BY LEARNERS		
A6 realistic use of language - unrealistic	A8 creative - non-creative	B2 language focus: broad, imprecise - narrow precise
B3 nature of output: predictable - unpredictable	B4 attention to meaning: essential to success - inessential to success	B6 language skills used: all - some
B9 students' output: homogeneous - heterogeneous	B10 dependence of quality of output on matching students: dependent - independent	C1 manipulating given information - potential for information gathering
C3 focus on form - communication potential	C8 artificial - attempts to replicate language use	E2 more attention to meaning, more challenging - less (or no) attention to meaning
(iv) IMPLICATIONS FOR CLASSROOM ORGANISATION		
B7 locus: anywhere incl. at home - only in class (ie needs teacher's immediate supervision)	B8 preparation at home: possible, desirable - impossible, undesirable	B10 dependence of quality of output on matching students: dependent - independent
B11 amount of time required: predeterminable, activity can be cut off at any time - indeterminable, activity must go on till natural conclusion	B13 scope for individualisation: considerable - slight	C11 solitary - social
E4 potentially noisy and unruly - quiet and disciplined		
OTHER		
A7 general educational value - little educational value	B12 parents' experience and understanding of activity: familiar - unfamiliar	

and E7 highlight the interests and enjoyment level of the learners (whether they might have 'fun', be 'bored', be 'motivated' etc), whilst constructs A4 and C7 consider whether the learners might feel relaxed or not. Constructs C12 and E5 also seemed to fall into the category of the learners' affective response, by considering whether the learners are required to 'pretend' (C12) and whether they might derive satisfaction from what they are to do (E5). The question of what demands are placed on learners appears in constructs A3, C6 and E2 in terms of whether they are 'challenged' or 'taxed', and in constructs B15 and C5 in terms of the extent to which cognition is required.

With respect to the (iii) *the nature of the language produced or worked upon by the learners*, the main concerns appear to be whether it is 'realistic' (A6, C8), whether the focus is on meaning or form (B2, B4, C3, E2) and whether it involves varied and 'creative' output on the part of the learners (A8, B3, B9). The issue of the 'quality' of the output produced by learners also features in one construct (B10), as does the extent to which activities make use of the 'four skills' (B6).

A variety of issues arises in relation to (iv) *implications for classroom organisation*. Echoing, perhaps, the concerns with teacher/learner control and teacher anxiety noted above, a number of constructs relate to implied constraints within the classroom such as a need to maintain discipline (E4), to operate within time limits (B11), to ensure the smooth running of a lesson in school (B8) and to monitor what the students are doing (B7). Four further constructs concern the grouping of students (B10), whether the activity type could be done alone or in groups (B7), whether there exist possibilities for individualised work (B13) and whether the activity-type may be done inside or outside the classroom (B7).

The extent of convergence of issues identified by the authors is further confirmed by the 'psychological maps' showing how an author's personal constructs stand in relation to one another⁷. Figure 5.2 shows the maps for each of the four authors. Turning first to the map produced from the constructs of Author A, one can see that the constructs tend to cluster together, occupying two distinct areas within the grid and suggesting the existence of a perceived general dichotomy in the nature of the eight activity types presented. From the map, one can see that activities tend to be seen as **either:**

boring, untaxing, unrealistic, not fun, having little educational value but allowing the teacher to be feel confident

or as:

motivating, taxing, realistic, fun, having general educational value, but making the teacher feel anxious.

The co-occurrence of the '*teacher anxious-confident*', '*realistic-unrealistic language*' and '*fun-not fun*' constructs along the same plane in the map reveal particularly strong associations between those constructs, suggesting that the presence of one of those constructs in relation to an activity will tend to imply the presence of the other constructs. This would also be true of two further constructs occupying the same plane '*little-general educational value*' and '*creative-non-creative*'. The co-occurrence between the latter constructs is interesting, raising as it does questions about the manner in which the author perceives 'educational value'.

⁷These maps, it will be recalled, are plotted by first building a matrix of matches between each construct and then identifying the two constructs which appear to have the highest number of non-significant matches. These constructs are then taken as axes for a map, and values are read from the matrix as coordinates for the plotting the remaining constructs. See section 5.3.2 above for a fuller explanation.

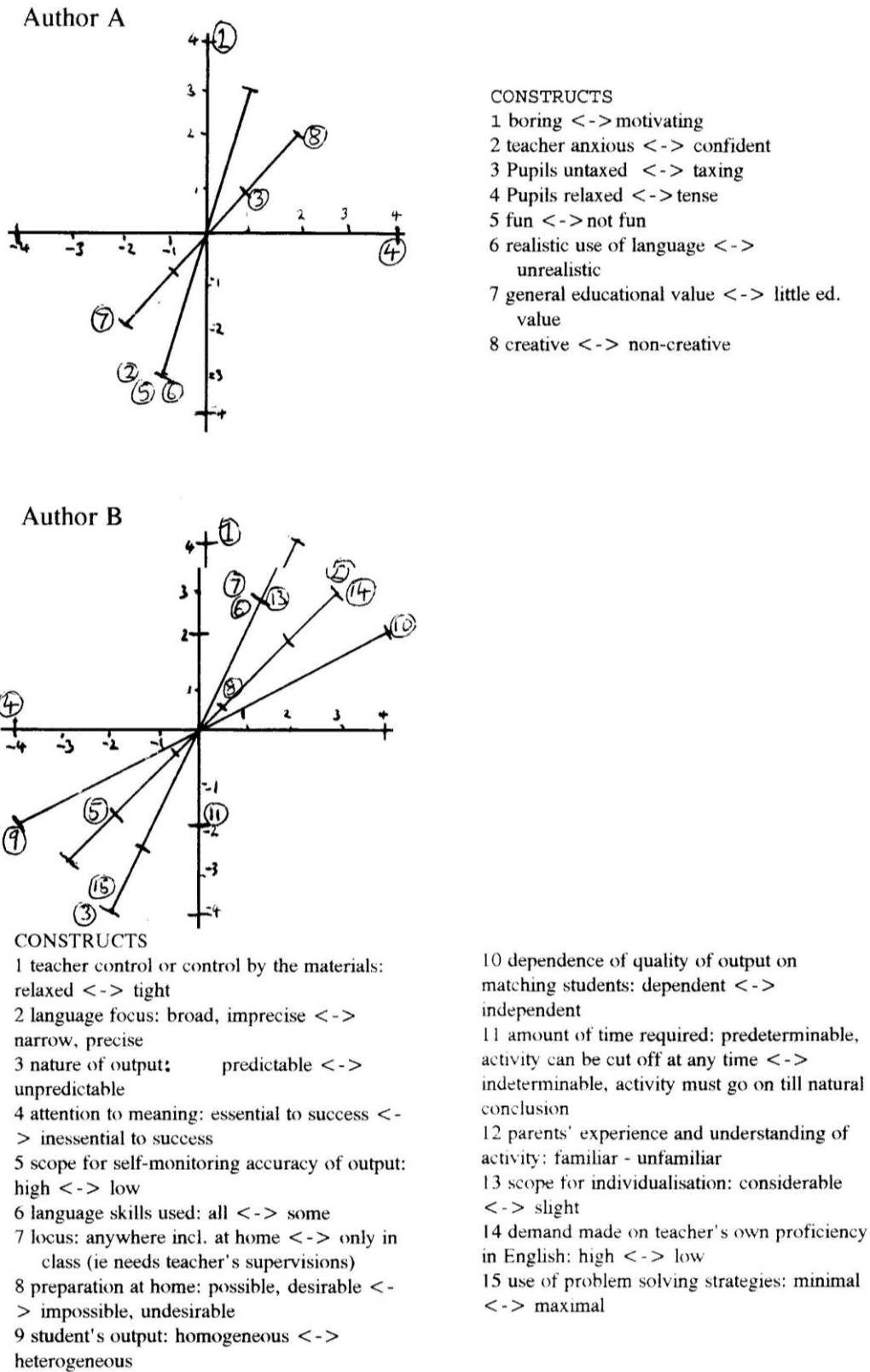
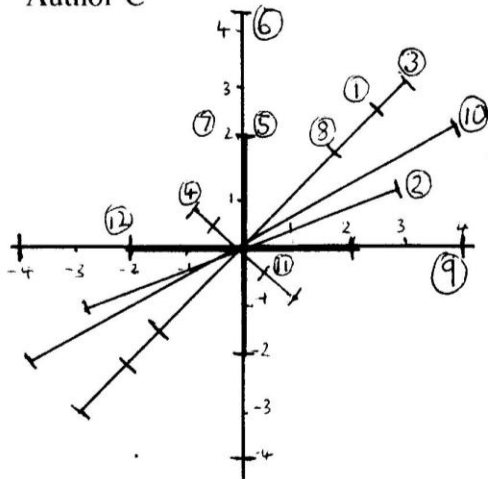


Figure 5.2: Maps of the authors 'psychological space'

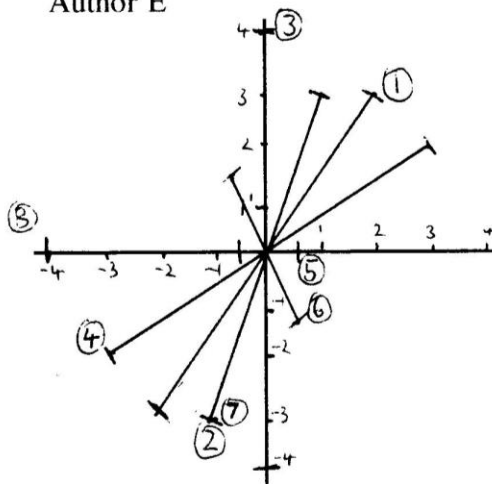
Author C



CONSTRUCT

- 1 manipulating given information <-> potential for information gathering
- 2 cognitive (mechanical) <-> whole person, affective element
- 3 focus on form <-> communication potential
- 4 child <-> oriented <-> adult academic oriented
- 5 imitation <-> analytic
- 6 little demand placed on pupils <-> demand placed on pupils
- 7 non <-> threatening <-> threatening
- 8 artificial <-> attempts to replicate language use
- 9 teacher control <-> pupil control
- 10 teacher feels secure <-> teacher feels less secure
- 11 solitary <-> social
- 12 highly artificial, pretending <-> more 'natural', does not pretend to be anything else than it is.

Author E



CONSTRUCTS

- 1 "safer", more teacher control <-> less "safe", less teacher control.
- 2 more attention to meaning, more challenging <-> less (or no) attention to meaning
- 3 more potential for boring learners <-> less potential for boring learners
- 4 potentially noisy and unruly <-> quiet and disciplined
- 5 more satisfaction for the learners <-> less satisfaction for the learner
- 6 seem more purposeful and real to learners <-> don't have a clear purpose for learners
- 7 more fun for the learners <-> less fun for the learners
- 8 easier for the teacher to manage <-> difficult for the teacher to manage

Figure 5.2: Maps of the authors 'psychological space'

The map of Author B's constructs similarly shows a clustering of constructs into two main areas of the map, with activities tending to be seen as **either:**

broad in language focus, unpredictable, demanding of the teacher (yet requiring relaxed teacher control), involving problem-solving, and leading to heterogeneous student output

or as

narrow in their language focus, predictable, making low demands on the teacher's proficiency in English (yet requiring tight control), involving minimal problem-solving and leading to homogeneous language output.

Once again, very strong associations are evident in respect of two particular sets of constructs. As can be seen, the three constructs 'little-general scope for individualisation', 'requires teacher supervision-can be done anywhere', and 'predictable-unpredictable language output' lie on the same plane, as do the two constructs 'homogeneous-heterogeneous output' and 'quality of output dependent - independent of matching of students'. Presence of one of the constructs in each of these sets would thus tend to imply the presence of the remaining constructs in the set.

The maps for Authors C and E confirm the clustering of constructs and the perceived general dichotomy in the nature of the activity types presented but both also show the existence of constructs which lie outside this dichotomy. Author C's map shows a clustering in which the activities presented to him tend to be seen as involving **either:**

a focus on form, teacher feels secure, cognitive (mechanical) work, and artificial (i.e. does not attempt to replicate language use)

or

communicating, teacher feels less secure, whole person affective involvement and replicating language use.

Lying approximately perpendicular to this dichotomy, however, are two further sets of constructs, each of which contain constructs associated with one another (i.e. they lie on the same plane). These show that activities are also seen as being either *adult oriented and solitary* or *child-oriented and social*, and involving either *pretending and learner control* or *being more natural, not pretending and involving teacher control*.

The final map, Author E's, shows similar placings of the constructs as for the other authors. Activities tend to be seen as being **either**

safe, more teacher control, quiet, boring, and having less attention to meaning

or

less safe, less teacher control, noisy and unruly, fun, and having more attention to meaning.

Lying approximately perpendicular to this dichotomy are two further sets of constructs. These show that activities are seen as involving either *less satisfaction for the learner and difficult for the teacher* or *more satisfaction for the teacher and easier for the teacher*, and having either *no clear purpose* or *being purposeful*.

In summary, the identification of personal constructs reveals a significant degree of commonality in the terminology which the authors use to describe the various features of the eight activity types and in the manner in which they tend to see these features occurring together. From the evidence available in the range of constructs produced, it appears that the main concerns of the authors are in connection with the degree of control exercised by teachers and their feelings of personal security, the extent to which learners enjoy their classroom work and are 'taxed', how far the language produced or worked upon by

learners is 'realistic' or meaning/form focussed, and the implications that activity types may have in terms of lesson planning and the running of a lesson. In addition, many aspects of activities tend to be strongly associated with each other and they, in turn, cluster in contrast to other aspects. Features such as teacher control, teachers' sense of personal security, a focus on form, boredom for the learners, low demands on learners and quiet, disciplined classroom work, are together seen in contrast to learner control, teacher anxiety, a focus on meaning, motivating work, learners being taxed and a noisy and unruly classroom. Table 5.20 summarises these points.

Table 5.21: Summary of findings from the authors' personal repertory grids.

1. The constructs fall into four main categories concerning:
 - teachers
 - learners
 - the language produced or worked upon by the learners
 - implications of an activity for classroom use
2. Teachers are considered in terms of:
 - the extent of their control within an activity
 - their feelings of security
3. Learners are considered in terms of:
 - the extent to which they enjoy an activity
 - the extent to which demands are placed on learners
4. The language produced or worked upon by the learners is considered in terms of:
 - the extent to which it is 'realistic'
 - the extent to which it is focussed on meaning or form
5. Implications for classroom use of an activity are considered in terms of:
 - time constraints
 - maintaining discipline
 - lesson planning
6. Activities tend to be seen as involving *either*:
 - teacher control, teacher personal security, a focus on form, boredom for the learners, low demands on learners, discipline
 - or*
 - learner control, teacher anxiety, a focus on meaning, enjoyment for the learners, demands on the learners, noise and unrulyness.

5.4.2 The interviews

5.4.2.1 Introduction

From the inspection of the repertory grids, it is clear that it is possible to make a number of claims concerning the extent to which the authors share perceptions of the activity types presented to them and the manner in which they see aspects of the activities co-occurring in contrast to other aspects. These claims, however, relate mainly to the *terminology* used by the authors, rather than the actual nature of their perceptions. For this reason, the data gathered from the interviews proved particularly valuable in exploring the authors' perceptions further. As I have explained, the data was analysed for evidence which it offered in relation to the three sets of typifications in the teaching of 9-13 year olds. These were:

- the authors' typifications of the teachers for whom they write;
- the authors' typifications of the learners for whom they write;
- the authors' typifications of what is required for successful classroom language learning.

As mentioned earlier, whilst only Authors A, B, C and E agreed to complete a repertory grid, all five authors were happy to be interviewed. The interview data which I shall present below, therefore, relates to all the authors involved. Due to time pressures on Author C, the repertory grid itself was completed during the interview. Since no repertory grid was available from Author D, the approach I took in that particular interview was to look back at his coursebook and to ask what his intentions were with the materials and why he had chosen to include particular texts and activities.

The following sections 5.4.3.2 to 5.4.3.4 set out my findings from the interviews in relation to the authors' typifications. At the end of each of the sections, I will summarise my findings before drawing these together and

discussing them in section 5.4.3.5. As stated earlier, I will present my findings in a manner consistent with the approach I adopted in Chapter 3 and synthesize the views of the authors, noting where individual authors appear to depart from the position commonly taken.

5.4.2.2 Authors' typifications of the teachers for whom they write

A common position taken by the five authors interviewed is that they feel constrained by the nature of the teachers who will use their materials.

Teachers, in fact, are viewed by the authors as an obstacle, placing more limitations on what it is feasible to propose in materials than do the learners.

Teachers, in the authors' view, have certain expectations about what should be in a language course and will reject anything that differs markedly. The remarks by Authors A and B, below, are representative of this view.⁸

A1: One thing about writing books is that you've got to get through the teachers. It's OK thinking about what the children like but if the teachers don't buy it, they don't buy it.... You've got to consider what the teachers will teach apart from what the pupils can accept. I find that the big problem in writing material is what teachers can handle, not what the pupils can handle.

A2: I've been trying to aim to the pupils but through the sort of teachers who are likely to use the course... as far as possible it's giving them something interesting to do that the teacher will accept, you've got to work through the teacher.

B1: (*On his desire to include questions asking learners their opinions about what happens in a text*) I think you could put them into the pupils' books. I think you do. But I mean they tend to be the odd question among ten. I think it isn't just the pupils that you can't lead by the nose, it's also teachers. I mean they have an expectation of what the apparatus of questions on a text will be and if there are too many which are about attitudes they will probably find

⁸A1, B1 etc = author and extract number; AL = interviewer (Andrew Littlejohn);... = one or more words omitted within the sentence; = one or more sentences omitted. _____ = end of extract

something odd about it. I mean they will object. Especially as they may not be yes/no, with a clearly defined answer.

Teachers are seen as either 'traditional' or 'more modern' in orientation, and, because of perceived limitations in the nature of 'traditional' teachers, the authors sometimes feel forced to design activities which can be done in either what are termed 'traditional ways' or in 'more advanced ways'. 'Traditional' teachers, according to the authors, tend to be those who rely heavily upon the coursebook, give few opportunities for their learners to work together or to work without the teacher's direct supervision. 'More advanced' teachers, on the other hand, plan their lessons ahead, take varying learner abilities into account and encourage learner-learner interaction.

AL: (*Asking about a particular exercise*) How do you see this as working, as pairwork across the class?

A3: Well it depends on the teacher. The idea was also to cater for pairwork, sort of communicative. It can be across the class. I mean ideally with more advanced, more enlightened teachers, modern teachers, it can be done as simultaneous pairwork. It has that scope. But it can be used in fairly traditional ways. You can Pupil 1, first two in the class, then the next two and the next two. So the idea was the sort of exercise that was capable of being used in traditional ways or more advanced ways.

A4: [*talking about the recurring pattern within the units in his books*] the idea was to strike a balance between teachers who want, well most teachers teach straight through a book, but they want to plan a lesson so you want something they can teach straight through and still get a reasonable balance of skills. But on the other hand [there may be] a reasonably enterprising teacher or a teacher fresh from training college at least who has been trained that he should plan every lesson for themselves and that it depends on the class, so we were trying to evolve a framework which would allow for both.

The overwhelming majority of teachers, in the eyes of the authors, however, do not fall into the 'modern, enlightened, enterprising' category but into a category of 'mediocre' and it is to these teachers that the authors feel that they ultimately have to address themselves. According to the authors, 'mediocre' teachers are, at best, boring and, at worst, waste both their time and their learners' time.

They are typically untrained and have a poor command of English. The result is that, for many learners, according to the authors, the experience of learning English will be entirely negative.

B2: I suppose one aims at a fairly mediocre teacher. In most countries this will account for 60-70% of the teachers. There is no point in writing material for the teacher who is not a trained English teacher, not a trained teacher, doesn't have the language. These are [indistinct]. It goes against one's sentiments to write off classes as bound to be failures but you are failing other people and failing the future if you didn't because there is no way in which any course you write can be taught by them with any success.

A5: In my idealistic phase, when I started off on [book] there was a sort of 'absolve my conscience' for all the bad, boring teaching I had seen. I wanted to teach them something interesting even if they didn't learn any English from it. At least they might learn something else.

For these teachers, the vast majority of whom are 'mediocre' or 'boring', one of the most important considerations felt by the authors is that the teacher should feel confident and personally secure in the classroom for, unless the teacher feels confident, they are unlikely to offer learners opportunities to work without the teacher's direct supervision.

A6: It's very important, you can have all the latest communicative techniques in your books but if the teacher isn't used to using them or the tradition of the culture, as you were saying, means that the teacher is the fountain of all wisdom and the pupils sit and listen, the teachers aren't going to be happy using them, aren't going to be able to use them. You've got to work within what teachers can do or will accept. If the

teacher is not confident then the teaching is bad and the class is boring whatever the materials.

C1: ...it's only when he [the teacher] does feel secure that he is able to give meaningful control to the pupil. If the teachers don't feel secure then they won't do anything and they'll hide behind apparently active things such as drills.

Author E sees a significant threat to a teacher's confidence created by trying to do 'something different' in her book, in this case the integration of Mathematics teaching with English teaching.

E1: I think there is [a problem] in some teacher's minds, very probably. And I think that goes for all other subject matter. Some less competent teachers are just going to get very worried if what they are teaching isn't 'English' so I think there is a problem.

Author E's choice of words emphasises her perception of teachers as vulnerable and easily alarmed ("*they're just going to get very worried*"), a point confirmed by the image she invokes in describing the teacher's task in making use of the teacher's book accompanying her coursebook.

E2: they [the publisher] are, I think, producing the accompanying teacher's book in Spanish *so it's not so much to wade through*.
[my emphasis]

Given the typification of the majority of teachers as 'mediocre' and easily threatened by anything different from what they are used to and the importance the authors ascribe to the teacher's sense of security in the class, it emerges as the 'materials writer's duty' to help teachers, to minimise their problems and boost their sense of confidence. This requires practical consideration of the assumed realities of the classroom and a consideration of what is possible with certain teachers. For Author D, in particular, this entails the rejection of what he sees as unorthodox approaches to teachers and teacher training/development.

Teaching, in his view, is hard and most teachers have neither the time nor the resources to cope with anything much different from what they have always done. Authors B and E express similar reservations about what one can expect of teachers.

D1: As you get older you understand that teaching is very hard and it's not all rush in and do as these teacher trainers do. This teacher training development which seems to me all about how you make an inadequate feel more inadequate or less inadequate or something. You can't constantly rush in and have, lie on the floor and play bunnies and free role play. You've got to, you know, it's hard and you're doing eighteen hours a week and it's hot and your sweating and you haven't got video.

B3: [The materials writer's] duty must be to minimise the problems for the teacher. I mean the teacher may be able to cope with diversifications, putting different pupils together, but the materials writer can't assume this. He has to assume the worst situation, doesn't he?

E3: (*Talking about her construct 'easier - difficult for the teacher to manage'*) I think I would want to go towards the easier scale obviously, which links up with the earlier one of 'safer, towards teacher control' bit. That you want to have exercises that are manageable in terms of classroom organisation.

As Author E's remark demonstrates, the issues of teacher confidence and minimising problems for the teacher are often seen as related to the extent to which classroom control remains in the hands of the teacher. Control is primarily seen as the capacity to decide over who will speak when, to whom and what precisely they would say. 'Total control' in the hands of the teacher, for example, is suggested by choral repetition whilst control by the learner is suggested by pairwork activities, as Author B explains below. It is interesting to note, however, that the situation in which Author B describes the teacher as

having 'almost lost control', still involves the determination of language content and form by the teacher or materials writer.

B4: I mean if it [a classroom activity] was a sort of 'look and say' drill cued by pictures, then I suppose progressively the control would shift from the teacher to the class, and you would begin with the teacher modelling, it's 'listen to me' so that the class is inactive, he has total control, you listen to me, now you respond, I'm going to say this sort of thing and you're going to say that sort of thing, but they're not going to say anything until I've said it and then, OK, Teacher-Pupil it's the same degree of control, then, alright, group 1, group 2. Group 1 is me and Group 2 is what the rest of the class so, from that point onwards, the teacher is only waving a baton occasionally, he is not giving the cues. If it's the right kind, well if it's the kind of activity where the initiator has a choice of cues then the control is fairly relaxed, then going on to pair work where the teacher has almost lost control.

The movement from the teacher's 'total control' to more control (however limited) in the hands of the learners is, however, in the view of the authors, a problematic one. More learner control equates with more teacher anxiety, suggesting that, if the teacher is to feel comfortable and confident, then most, if not all, of the decisions concerning who speaks to whom, when and about what in the classroom will necessarily have to remain the preserve of the teacher. Activities which involve learners working simultaneously in pairs, for example, or which lead to a variety of learner responses, are seen as being threatening to teachers.

AL: So role play and information gap you see as possibly making the teachers anxious.

A7: Yes, again, it does depend on the teacher but in the sort of places we've been to, probably, a lot of teachers would be anxious about letting the kids have the lead too much, especially from the noise level point of view as well.

AL: Is it anxious because it's something that's new to them?

A8: Partly because it's new and partly because they feel the class isn't in their control. I think most teachers like to feel the

class is in their control, even in England, but much more the further East you go.

- C2: [The traditional teacher] may feel far more secure with gap-filling or oral drill than with the information gap network, pairwork, sorry
- AL: yes, so we could put risky for teacher here and what here? [pointing at the grid]
- C3: Well I think it's a matter of security actually. That the teacher probably feels more secure, teacher is secure with those [gap-filling and oral drill] and the teacher feels not secure or less with these ones [information gap pairwork].
- AL: Because it is out of his control?
- C4: Mmm, Mmm.
-

Teachers, the authors believe, feel that their responsibility is to oversee everything that goes on in the classroom, monitoring all language produced by the learners. Teachers are seen as holding the view that the learners are unlikely to do anything worthwhile if they not under the direct supervision of a teacher. Role play activities, for example, done in the class will make the teacher 'suspicious' whilst, if done at home, they will probably be 'a waste of time'.

- B5: (*Talking about opportunities for learners to monitor their own output*) I shouldn't think, I wouldn't feel I was often going to be able to produce material where that was possible I mean I think teachers normally expect to be doing it anyway.
- AL: So it's the teacher's role?
- B6: I don't think it is the teacher's role necessarily but teachers won't give it up so therefore one doesn't feel particularly constrained to producing self monitoring work.
- AL: Because the teacher will do it for the pupil.
- B7: I think so yes.
-

- A9: Very often [in] dividing things up into groups and pupil centred activities, the teacher is a bit suspicious.
-

- B8: I mean it's not impossible for something like a role play to be done at home but I think if you told people, if you told three

children go home and carry out a role play the teacher would think it was a waste of time because they don't know what happened, they have got to be able to listen to it.

In summary, the typifications of teachers which emerges from the interviews with the authors is, on the whole, rather a negative one. Teachers, to the authors, appear as obstacles to be overcome, with the majority largely untrained and inexperienced, and sometimes boring, unimaginative and counter-productive in their efforts. They are easily alarmed and prone to feelings of insecurity. Since the teacher's sense of security is seen by the authors as vital to successful language teaching and learning, the authors feel it their duty to minimise the problems for the teacher. This implies, for the authors, the provision of materials which maintain classroom control (over who does what, with whom and when) in the hands of the teacher, a position which, it emerges, receives further justification through the authors' typifications of learners.

5.4.2.3 Authors' typifications of the learners for whom they write.

As the quote from author B (B4) above shows, the authors can envisage some form of decision-making, albeit rather restricted, being placed in the hands of the learners. They believe, however, that there are severe limitations to what can be achieved with learners in the 9-13 age range. In the first place, it appears to the authors that this kind of learner is only able to handle what are seen as 'simple' ideas with very low cognitive demands.

B9: [In a] 'Read and say' [exercise] where they've got a picture cue, with some words as well perhaps, they, teachers and pupils, can cope with one manipulation at a time. It's disappointing but it seems to be the case, you know. ...where you can have a 'yes' or a 'no' response and if it's a 'yes' you'll have to do one manipulation, if it's 'no' then another manipulation and where in pairwork a pupil can decide whether to start with [prompt] 'd' rather than 'a' and sequence

in any way they like, all these variations which seem to be make it more interesting and therefore keep people alert and perhaps really employ an undercurrent of cognition seem to be fraught.... Like if you chose a female character then you've got to pronominalise her as 'her' or 'she' and if you chose a male you have to remember to pronominalise him as 'him' or 'he' so I mean although these are not new teaching points in that particular thing [*points to an exercise*], they do represent part of the permutations that they have to operate with. Disappointingly, one finds that they don't cope with many permutations.

The phrase '*employ an undercurrent of cognition*' is significant here since it suggests that the bulk of the learners' classroom work would necessarily have to be of a mechanical nature where they will not be called upon to think things through. Part of the reason for this, offered by Author B, is that the learners are unable to manage anything more demanding. However, an additional reason is that attempting to engage the learner's cognition will create difficulties for the teacher, as Author B further explains:.

B10:(*talking about an exercise where pupils are required to make two grammatical changes in a single sentence*). Yes well that is apt to prove to be more than they can handle. They take much more time than I predicted and they, as I say, they tend to be too complex which really shows how really difficult it is to, I mean this is in the direction of heterogeneity of responses, in the direction of individualisation yet it is difficult to achieve in a way which seems to the teacher manageable enough.

Author A expresses similar reservations in giving learners what he sees as 'intellectual problems' at the same time as 'linguistic ones'.

A10:Yes, a lot of people, including myself, write exercises which practice the language but which also make them use their intellect, and of course doing both things at the same time is not all that easy. If you overdo it, it can be demoralising. You can take materials where you've got so many things going on, intellectual problems as well as linguistic problems,

but the writer doesn't see the linguistic problems so much. But it's fairly impossible for kids, for pupils, to handle both things at the same time. I mean you have to down-grade the intellectual stimulus to a certain extent, so that they can handle the linguistic problem.

The same general feeling is evident in the manner in which Author E talks about the work which the activities in her materials ask learners to do. The use of *little* in both of the quotes which follow indicate that she sees the activities as operating at a level of extreme simplicity.

E4: (*Talking about an exercise she had designed*). It was just *simply little sentences* which they had to put in order.
[emphasis mine]

E5: (*Talking about the satisfaction that learners may gain from 'getting things right'*)...Having done something correctly and therefore feeling that you are making *a little bit of progress*.
[emphasis mine]

As well as the belief that learners are only able to operate at a very low level of cognitive demand, the authors also suggest that that is what learners actually prefer. Many learners, they suggest, feel happiest doing 'straightforward', uncomplicated tasks where they feel secure and unthreatened. These can then be followed by 'lighter' classroom activities which provide learners with the opportunity to relax, as Author B explains.

B11: Many children don't like to be sort of talking all the time. They like quite predictable, straightforward exercises and then a song or game at the end.

In addition to having rather limited cognitive abilities, learners, in the view of the authors, also lack an understanding of what they are doing, or indeed, why they are doing it. Many learners, it appears, are simply content to be told what to do and do not much care why they are doing it.

E6: (*talking about an activity being 'purposeful'*). [I'm thinking of purpose] in relation to their needs.... this business of seeing where it's going, why we are doing this exercise. Now I know quite a lot of kids don't bother to think about that. They're quite happy to sit there and do whatever they are told to do.

B12: (*Talking about choral repetition*). Obviously this is a classic example where they can and do chant things back. If you said Monday, Tuesday, Oranges, Thursday, Friday then you'd get Monday, Tuesday, Oranges, Thursday without a blink of an eye and nobody would care.

B13: I mean currently I'm doing some English teaching in a local comprehensive with 12, 13 year olds and there you are always saying 'read it through and correct it'. They are just as likely to correct something that is right and put it wrong or not find anything. As soon as you point something out they say 'Oh I know that but I always do it. I know I always get it wrong.'

A11: If they [the pupils] are at secondary school, they're not particularly interested and they are not likely to need it [i.e. English] sometimes.

A12: (*Talking about why the units in his book have a consistent pattern*). For the teacher's sake we have adopted a far more regular pattern.

AL: For the teacher's sake. And the pupils, do think they need an identifiable pattern?

A13: Well the pupils aren't really aware of the pattern, I think so much. But the need, they need the variety. It's a way of making sure that they get variety.

Other learners, however, will be more hostile to the teacher's and/or materials writer's aims and refuse to cooperate with whatever is attempted in the classroom, a situation which appears to Author E, at least, as inevitable in many situations. Author E's description of '*the ideal teacher*' who has '*the gift of moving them* [the learners]', suggests a view of learners as essentially inert,

lacking both motivation and energy for language learning. Similarly, Author B's description of the situation suggests, for him, the inevitability of some learners lack of interest but attributes this more to their stage of personal development than simply to an unwillingness to cooperate.

E7: (*Talking about sending learners out of the classroom to conduct surveys.*) Obviously, I mean with all these things you can imagine some kids it's going to interest and some kids it's going to bore really and that's the problem. But if you've given me this situation of an ideal classroom then I've got this ideal teacher who has the gift of moving them. ...I mean if I take my experience of a comprehensive school here, then you're always going to have a nucleus who aren't going to be motivated or interested by anything.

B14: If you get to a certain age there are some pupils who will just not take part in certain activities, I mean you wonder whether you can do role play because you know three or four will not participate, not because they lack the proficiency to do it but because they are at a developmental stage where emotionally they can't or they can do it this Tuesday but they can't do it next Tuesday because of moodiness.

A similar recognition of the significance of stages of personal development is evident in Author B's explanation of why teachers need to maintain control over young learners. Whilst he recognises that too much teacher control prompts boredom for the learners, too little control induces 'silliness' and the teacher will then need to restore control by introducing, in all likelihood, a writing task to be done individually. His use of the phrase *restore control* is significant since it indicates that 'tight' control by the teacher is to be considered the usual condition in the classroom.

B15: I think that with young children they can perhaps only tolerate relaxation or tightness for a limited period and if you have too much tightness then you get boredom and if you have too much relaxation then you get silliness and perhaps you have

to use instruments like a workbook activity to restore control when you are beginning to relax things too much.

Whilst some learners, in the view of the authors, will refuse to cooperate at all or will 'get silly' if the teacher's control is relaxed too much, other learners will try to 'get away with' doing as little work as possible. This, as Author B explains, is something which the 'clever' learner might be able to arrange quite successfully.

B16: (*Talking about a pairwork drill exercise*). The pupil who starts off is in the saddle in a way because they can chose. They can think longest before they say anything. They can even if they are very clever think ahead for the problems it will create for them if it's an A-B-A type thing where their initial choice means that they've got to react afterwards...A-B-A seems to me on the whole a better formation than just A-B because then A can't get away with a rather easy cue which perhaps only involves making one choice and one or no manipulations.

The assumed lack of motivation in many learners and their inability to see the purpose of what they are doing means that, in the view of the authors, most, if not all, learners generally need to be 'pushed' or 'pressurized' in order to learn.

B17: Teachers are often surprised in exams, aren't they? They say 'Oh I didn't know he could'. Pupils tend to, there's the odd one who collapses completely in an exam situation but I think more suddenly produce work far superior to anything they've ever done, yet under rather inauspicious circumstances and I think it requires some kind of jolt like that to make, there isn't sufficient pressure in an ordinary teaching lesson to get that monitor working

AL: Pressure in that case is a good thing then?

B18: I think it probably is always, yes. I mean teachers tend to become bullies, don't they?

C5: (*Talking about his construct 'demand - less demand on learners*). I would like to see it more towards demand placed

on pupils, I genuinely believe that teachers don't push students enough.

It might also be necessary to place demands upon learners in a somewhat uncompromising fashion, as Author E indicates in connection with her teaching of Arab adult students. The phrase *they've jolly well got to understand* demonstrates again the view that the best way of achieving this is to have classroom control in the hands of the teacher.

E8: I suppose I would want, I mean my ideal ELT class would of course be held in English a large part of the time. And that in itself would involve challenge and meaning. I mean that's the way I run my Saudi classes that they've jolly well got to understand the instructions in English and if they don't understand them then we try again and we try again and we try again.

Partly for reasons of the assumed limited personal and cognitive development of many learners in the 9-13 age range and partly for reasons of their assumed lack of concern about the purposes of what they are doing in the classroom, it seems unlikely, to the authors, that learners can be involved in the running of their course to any great extent - that is, beyond limited aspects such as deciding turns for speaking. Author D, for example, feels that it is unlikely that learners can think about how they are learning and how they would prefer to learn and therefore rejects rather vehemently attempts which he believes try to go in that direction. His misunderstanding of the Bangalore project and the resulting passion with which he dismisses it demonstrates perhaps that he views the idea of greater learner involvement in classroom decision-making as largely a waste of time.

D2: I don't know how that [i.e. learner involvement in course management] would work. If someone's going to show me how, I would take it on. I'm not going to go along with the people who are apparently negotiating in Bangalore with Dr.

Prabhu where when you read what they offer it's the most ludicrous situational dialogue you've ever read in your life because it's total untrue because anyway they know the way to the railway station. Until someone shows me a way in which children should negotiate and I'm not going to play a game because all they say is whose turn is this? Project work? Well they're not going to because why should they?

D3: I don't think children at that level are at the stage where they can conceptualise what is an incredibly sophisticated thing. They wouldn't know what you meant and [be able to] stand back and tell me.

Whilst the problems posed by a possible lack of learner motivation and a low level of conceptual development appear, to the authors, significant ones, all of the authors nevertheless recognise the importance of endeavouring to make the classroom experience a satisfying one for the learners. Much of this satisfaction, according to the authors, may come from being able to 'do something right', it being something which the teacher has asked the learners to do. A 'good teacher', in this view, is one who can therefore match the demands of a task to the learners in order to ensure that they can 'get it right'. Author E's image of the teacher having *a good hold* on the learners' satisfaction and as *just balancing all these things all the time* indicates once again the importance given to the control exercised by the teacher, as does the use of the verb *allow* (suggesting the granting of permission) by both Authors E and C.

E9: I mean some children derive a lot of satisfaction from producing a nice neat piece of written work and others from producing it orally....there's a lot of satisfaction to be had in getting anything right for a start, isn't there? Whether they be standard comprehensions questions. I think that requires that your ideal ELT teacher has a good hold on the various kinds of satisfaction that exist in the classroom. ...Having done something correctly and therefore feeling that you are making a little bit of progress...I mean a good teacher is someone, is just balancing all these things all the time.

E10: (*Talking about a gap-fill exercise she had designed.*) ...it was, if you like, reusing new language by the way, sort of receptively and allowing them to get some satisfaction by coming up with the right word which, again, the words were supposed to be practising things which they had been taught, which they had learnt, so it was supposed to satisfy them in that sense.

C6: (*Talking about gap-fill exercises*) There's something quite nicely satisfying about writing something in a gap. I think children don't like doing gaps, or learners don't like doing gap filling exercises where they expected to write the whole thing out. Where they are allowed to actually write in the gap, I think they quite like doing that.

Learners also gain considerable satisfaction, in the view of the authors, by being able to 'show off' or 'shine' by displaying their abilities relative to others.

E11: ... you know, sending kids around to ask questions of other people and being in charge of their own activity, having their own information, it comes back to the personal in the end, there's something, you know, it becomes theirs, their possession and then there's some kind of pride in displaying it to people.

A14: (*Talking about whether learners like choral repetition.*) Yes, it's ambivalent. Sometimes you want to hide in a class but at the same time you don't always want to be one of the mob. Most of them [the pupils]. Here again it's a matter of balance. Chances to hide and chances to show off.

A15: (*Talking about whether Mathematics, for example, could be integrated with English teaching.*) Well, it depends. Some pupils who are good at Maths think 'Oh great, a change from doing just English. We can shine now'.

It is principally this opportunity to 'shine' which, for Author B at least, is what 'individualisation' means in language teaching. Learners, he believes can be divided into 'excellent' or 'mediocre', in much the same way as teachers can (see 5.4.3.2 above) - terms which appear to relate to the product of their work at any one time rather than their capacity for learning. It is also important to note that the concept of 'individualisation' is identified with providing opportunities to fulfil materials- or teacher-generated criteria for evaluation, rather than learners pursuing, for example, their own interests in language learning.

B19: [Individualisation for me means] setting the exercise at different levels of difficulty or levels of expectation and obviously [with] a gap[-filling exercise] there may be a unique word that fills the gap [so] there's no individualisation present because the excellent pupil can't do any better than the mediocre one, except perhaps find the word quicker

AL: So you're talking about room to do it better.

B20: Yes, I'm talking about opportunities for pupils to display excellence or to complete a task satisfactorily but at a lower level. So it's whether the performance is gradeable or not. Or the output can be at various levels of excellence.

In summary, the impression which emerges in relation to the authors' typifications of the nature of 9-13 year old learners is that they are largely considered as having limited conceptual abilities and as preferring uncomplicated tasks requiring little thought. 'Getting it right', that is, completing a task to the expectations of the teacher, is seen as one of the main sources of satisfaction for learners, as is being able to show that their abilities are superior to those of others in their class. Many learners, however, in the view of the authors, have little understanding of what they are doing and little real interest in learning the language and will thus require a teacher who has 'the gift of moving them'. There is, according to the authors, an inevitable tendency for some learners to reject whatever goes on in the classroom and to misbehave if they are not kept under the teacher's direct supervision. As a

result, learners need to be pushed in order to learn the language effectively. All of this makes unlikely, for the authors, the feasibility of involving learners more fully in decision-making in their course and appears, to the authors, to necessitate the provision of detailed plans for ways in which teachers and learners will interact in the classroom. This latter point, as we shall see, also receives justification through the manner in which the authors typify successful routes to classroom learning.

5.4.3.4 Authors' typifications of what is required for successful classroom language learning

The extracts quoted above have already given some indication of the manner in which the authors see classroom language learning necessarily proceeding. Each of the authors, for example, makes reference to a number of exercise types and mental operations which learners are required to accomplish. The authors speak of 'standard comprehension questions', 'the apparatus of questions on a text', 'situational dialogues', exercises to 'put sentences in order', and various kinds of oral drills, done perhaps by learners in pairs, which involve 'manipulations', listening and repeating, imitating, teacher modelling, cues to respond, and the monitoring of language output for accuracy. These, it may be recalled, represent the majority of activity types which were present in the materials produced by the authors (see Chapter 3, section 3.2.1.2ff). As I showed in my analysis of the tasks (section 3.2.2.2ff), these activities and their constituent tasks are characterised by the provision of text which learners are to reproduce either identically (as in the case of 'listen and repeat') or with various kinds of transformation (as in the case of substitution drills). Learning, I maintained, is essentially being proposed as the internalisation of presented knowledge through rehearsal (repetition) and the application of rules for

(grammatical) transformation. It is only once this knowledge has been internalised that it is to be put into use. There is, then, a suggested division between 'knowledge getting' and 'knowledge using'⁹.

This analysis is borne out in the interviews with the authors. Author A, for example, frequently uses computer metaphors to refer to the kind of mental operations necessary for language learning to take place. Language learning requires 'programming in set patterns', something which choral repetition enables learners to do in an unthreatening manner.

AL: What would you see them as learning through choral repetition?

A16: You're just sort programming in set patterns, aren't you, really. But it's reassuring. The fact that pupils can switch off means that they can relax a bit.... You do learn things through choral repetition. And languages are learning things by heart to some extent, programming things in.

The hallmark of this view of the learning process, however, is the 'presentation-practice-transfer' paradigm, evident in one form or another in the materials analysed (see chapter 3, section 3.2.1.2ff). To the authors, this appears as the most sensible way to organise classroom language learning. Indeed it is probably (in their view) the only way, and therefore represents a particular 'taken-for-granted' principle for language learning. The note of exasperation in Author D's reply to my question (below) supports this claim.

AL: Why have you gone for that particular sequence then?

D4: Because it's the only one we know (laughs). Why? Because that's how I know it works. You've got to present. You've got to put the language in a context and that context has got to have ah yes culture that's another thing. We always give our

⁹This would be in contrast, for example, to a view of learning which sees language knowledge (and its uptake) emerging *through* language use.

[indistinct: texts?] what I call local habitation and a name.
You can tell a [own name + co-author] book because it's set
somewhere. Now [name], a friend of ours tried to do it with
[book title] where there isn't a context, it sort of starts with an
exercise. Well it doesn't work. I mean, we know that
somebody has got to put the raw material into the classroom.

Contained within the 'presentation-practice-transfer' paradigm is the notion of mastery over 'low-level' operations before the learner is brought to using those operations in concert with other operations in a wider context. In materials design terms, what this suggests is the provision of classroom activities which attend first to the formal aspects of language (pronunciation, grammar, and so on) and then to the use of language in a wider, social context. Author C (below), for example, makes the distinction between a 'micro level' focussing on pronunciation as a step towards a 'macro level' in which language might be used for social purposes. Similarly, Author B (below) speaks of a 'narrow, precise' focus at the start of a lesson before

moving on to a 'broad, imprecise' focus and of the inevitability of 'homogeneous student output' when a new teaching/learning point is first introduced. Author D gives the specific example of an oral drill as preparation for 'open discussion'.

AL: What about if you think in terms of the sort of end goals of what you hope to come out of the classroom?

C7: Yes but I mean if you are talking about the end goals of any [classroom task] at a macro level or at a micro level, that for example if you want to do an oral drill that your aim is not for example for the students to do an oral drill, that your macro level is far beyond that. But at that micro level the ability of the students to form those sounds reasonably accurately, reasonably quickly, is what you are trying to achieve so you only have a mechanical view for that stage but it's only one stage.

B21: I would [want] a narrow, precise focus to be early in a lesson and the broader less precise focus to operate later. I would have thought that in most lessons where you are presenting something new you will begin with a narrow, precise focus and then relate it to things that they have learnt before so therefore the focus will broaden.

B22: I would like to go [in my teaching] in the direction of heterogeneous [learner language output] but again there will be times when you would like to have one and times when you would like to have the other.

AL: When would you see it as being necessary to have homogeneous students' output?

B23: Well in the early stage of teaching when you have presented a new item and you are practising it you probably want to. You're concentrating on one detail and it isn't that you actually want to have homogeneity but it is perhaps bound to be homogeneous. I mean there is a unique answer.

D5: Drilling is only part of that process [of language learning] so any child or person using our book I think or teacher quite clearly sees signposted the development but its always free and the outcome, wherever you go [in our materials], there's an open dialogue or project task ... but you can only do that

[when] you've got practiced by whatever means, by group sorry choral work and repetition and practice that to use in your open dialogue or to use in your open discussion.

For Author D, at least, there is no escaping the necessity of presenting the language and providing relevant exercises to work upon that language. This, for example, renders the provision of what he calls 'free-range methodology' (where the learners' route through language learning emerges as learning proceeds) impossible in the design of teaching material. The 'taken-for-granted' requirements of language teaching referred to above simply make such methodologies not worth the effort and it is difficult for him to imagine variability in learner route being accommodated by materials, as the following view makes clear.

D6: [*Talking first about interactive video*] They were going to argue with [interactive video disk] the learner could plot any way he wanted to go and I said well it's not worth it because wherever that learner wants to go, and maybe one in a million years, you've got to write as good a little dialogue or whatever. But how do you know what to write? You know you've got a menu 'Where would you like to go? Dialogue, Task, Exercises'. Now I know from materials writing as well as you do, you've still got to give that superstructure order. A learner can't go really where they want to go except with a person. Now that person can then invoke, as you have done, but you can't put it in a book ... shall I call it the free-range teaching methodology doesn't want to appear in pages because a book goes that way (*motions left to right*). I mean we know we say 'dip' but people don't dip and children want to know why and that's what we found. Maybe that's why we put the dialogues [at the beginning of the unit], because [if] we'd say 'skip the text' and they'd say why are we missing it? Is there something rude in it?

The implicit principle that the transmission and internalisation of knowledge precedes the development of abilities to use that knowledge, which emerged in my analysis of the tasks, is also confirmed by Author E's view of when learners

can become involved in the decision-making over their language course. They need, she feels, 'a very solid basis' provided by the teacher (or the materials via the teacher) before being able to work alone and therefore control has to be in the hands of the teacher initially.

E12: (*Talking about the 9-13 age range and her construct 'more teacher control - less teacher control'*). I think I would still want at that stage more teacher control. Towards that end of the spectrum...I think I would want to still be feeling I was giving them a very solid basis on which they could work in the next two to three years. They change school at the end of that period...I would feel on the whole that that would be necessary at that stage but that I would be pushing in the other direction as well [*less "safe", less teacher control*]. You know, gradually increasing that I suppose towards the end of the year.

The vocabulary used to describe the movement towards 'less teacher control' is interesting here since it confirms the image evoked earlier of teachers 'moving' learners. The teacher's task lies in *giving* the learners *a very solid basis* and *pushing* them (presumably) towards taking more control. Making a similar point, Author D specifically relates the presentation of knowledge to 'learning to be free'. Language knowledge is, in his view, much like any other knowledge in that an internalisation and understanding of that knowledge has to precede its use. The alternative, for him, has wide-ranging social implications. Presentation-Practice-Transfer not only has justification in a view of learning; it mirrors the foundations of democracy.

D7: one of our arguments is in order to be free you have to have to know the rules and you have to know the parameters. The thing about democracy is that you have to be taught about it. You have to know about both sides. That tends to be forgotten in the free-for-all they wish in education and look what's happening to them now. I only have to meet people in education and the Labour council because all the unaccountability that went on in the sixties is either now

being harvested by Tebbit and Thatcher or being put into destruction in the school. I mean it horrifies me because we've always been accountable and responsible so you cannot say I think to children or adults 'This is it. This is anarchy'. You've got to organise. But this is not to say that I'm authoritarian in my outcome but in language teaching yes I am a covert structuralist because I know that from many many years of successful teaching that you have to teach the patterns.

As the quotes from Authors D and E above show, the implications of this in practical terms is that the teacher (or the materials writer via the teacher) has to take direct control over what goes on in the classroom. This is true, in their view, in terms of both content and method. Language knowledge, for example, has to be selected and sequenced and a syllabus has to be drawn up.

AL: (*Comments that a unit in D's book requires learners to reproduce what is in the book*)

D8: Yes, I know because this is only Unit 15 and they're only starting and you know how difficult it is and that's the problem we're not going to frighten children off. It's like giving them Shakespeare. That's part of education and being accountable and it's got to be presented. All these people who say you don't need a syllabus. Of course you do. You've got to organise it so that the children or the learner feels that there is somebody in authority. I'm not ashamed of that.

In the classroom, according to this view, it is incumbent upon learners to accept that the teacher is to take control over precisely what they are to do. This is the case whether the teacher is 'entirely directive' or permits 'individualisation of some kind'. The classroom needs to be disciplined and learners have to do what is asked of them, as Author E's view shows .

E13: I would expect the ideal ELT classroom to be one where the students had got used to the teacher's ways, whatever they were, whether they were entirely directive or leading towards individualisation of some kind but that they were used to the ways of the classroom and when they walked into that room

they behaved in a certain way and accepted that for those forty and fifty minutes.

E14: [*Talking about her construct 'noisy and unruly - quiet and disciplined'*] Now whether [my ideal ELT classroom] was potentially noisy and unruly or quiet and disciplined, well I wouldn't want it unruly obviously. I would want it disciplined. I suppose if I look at that polarity now that wouldn't necessarily mean quiet. In fact it might be noisy and disciplined, if they were doing what they had been asked to do, they were carrying out a task successfully, they might make some noise doing it.

Such reduction of teacher control that is to take place, therefore, has to be within the 'presentation-practice-transfer' framework at the level of the individual lesson or, at the level of the whole course, when they have 'learnt to be free' ("towards the end of the year"). At the level of the individual lesson, one example of this, previously quoted from Author B (B4), is the description of control passing to the learner in the context of a drill which, as I noted earlier, still leaves the determination of language content and form in the hands of the drill writer. A further example is the placing of games and songs in the authors' materials i.e. frequently at the end of a sequence of work, after the 'real learning' has taken place. In Author A's view, the main purpose of such games and songs is to provide "light relief" and, as such, it is not so important if lack of time prevents their use.

A17: (*Talking about section 'G' in his units - a game or puzzle activity*) G being the last is more obviously an option, I mean if you don't get there it doesn't matter so much. But they can be distributed anyway to fit in with the other lessons, so the function of those is either you can come to them at the end of the week's work or you can take them out to use them to fill up the end of the lesson if there's time in the other lessons....

AL: So what's this providing then?

A18: Well a certain amount of active linguistic use and partly light relief....lighter side, fun work.

The relevant point to note about the placing of these activities, however, is that they frequently allow learners the opportunity to work without the teacher's direct supervision over precisely what they are doing and the language they are producing. In the context of a controlled presentation-practice-transfer paradigm for the learning process, therefore, they naturally have to come at the end of the sequence of work.

One premise of the presentation-practice-transfer paradigm of teaching/learning is that there is an identifiable 'body of knowledge' which has to be transmitted to learners. This, in the view of the authors, makes it the responsibility of the teacher (or the materials writer on behalf of the teacher) to ensure that the most appropriate learning content is presented to learners. For Author D, at least, this makes the functional syllabus a particularly attractive one since, in his view, it enables the detailed specification of the language to be learnt.

D9: (*Talking about the task rubrics in his book which specify the speech act involved*) Now from our methodology which I would argue is truly communicative I think children do know what they are doing but I can't prove it and that's why we stress these rubrics and in our Italian book they're in Italian because we also believe in accountability and that's why the functional syllabus is such a good one because...you're accountable because we have to justify why we are doing such and such.

The notion of direct accountability and responsibility of the teacher and materials writer for the learning goals proposed to learners is also suggested by Author E. For her, the emphasis on personalisation (i.e. focussing on the personal wants/needs and interests of the learner in language learning) does not fulfil the responsibilities of language teaching. Personalisation is 'a bit of a cop-out' since language teaching also has a duty to broaden the learner's

knowledge about the world around them. The following view is particularly interesting since it confirms once again the image of passive, uninterested learners needing to be motivated and of the necessary control exercised by the teacher, 'allowing' the learner to do certain things.

E15: I tend to feel that a teacher, a good teacher can motivate the students with all sorts of material not only this personalising. This personalising is a bit of a cop-out really. So I would want, obviously, to key into their experience but also to feel that you were extending their experience somewhat. And my ideal would therefore be a classroom where the teacher was able to do that, was able to interest them not only by allowing them to focus on themselves but allowing them to focus on other bits of the world.

The responsibilities of the language teacher and the materials writer are not, however, confined to ensuring that appropriate language knowledge and knowledge about the world is presented to learners. This knowledge also has to be got across by the most efficient means which, in Author D's view, rules out methodologies which do not relate directly to the learning objective. In a clear reference to the work of Author C whose materials claim to involve 'project' work, Author D rejects problem solving approaches as 'a waste of time', in much the same way as he rejects the notion of negotiation of course management with learners (see D2 above).

D10: We don't say "now get into groups and do a project on the present simple tense". Well maybe you could. You know, they all get together and look at this text and work in groups and underline the present simple. Well I think that's a bit of a waste of time if you've got three hours a week. I mean I'm accountable. That there are quicker ways of doing things. That's another point that seems to get lost in all this desire to be deeply project or[iented].

In a similar tone, Author E describes the need for learners to do 'fairly serious ordinary looking work', which it is possible for them to find enjoyable.

'Ordinary looking work' in this context relates to the conventional activity types provided in coursebooks such as comprehension questions, gap-filling, grammar exercises and so on. What is interesting here, however, is the manner in which she refers rather dismissively to activity-types such as role play which, of their nature, provide for more learner independence.

E16: [*talking about her construct 'enjoyable for the learners- less enjoyable*] I'd obviously want [my ideal ELT classroom] to be more towards the enjoyment end and I think you can get children to enjoy what looks like fairly serious ordinary looking work. I don't think that necessarily means *you're up there acting the clown the whole time or that we're madly doing role play*. I mean I think a good teacher should be able to get a lot of entertainment and enjoyment out of a lot of things. [my emphasis]

For successful language learning to take place, in the view of the authors, appropriate learning goals have to be identified and learners brought towards those goals by what are seen as the most efficient means. For Author D, the blending of learning goals with the most efficient means of learning suggests the image of materials functioning as 'a machine', which when used in the prescribed manner will (hopefully) bring about successful language learning.

D11: We are not just the writers we are the generators of the machine which I hope is a responsible machine with full

safety equipment on it which is used by other responsible people. I don't look upon this as a work of art although I'm proud of it and I'm sure [co-author] feels the same. I look upon it as a highly complex piece of machinery that once it's fixed can never be changed except in a new edition...we also see it as being used like a car

The metaphor of a machine is an interesting one because it suggests the idea of self-contained materials which, when given an appropriate input (learners) will process that input in predetermined ways in order to produce a particular output (language-competent learners). In this respect, this view of the materials appears to confirm my finding in the analysis of tasks that extensive scripting occurs for both teachers and learners setting out the precise ways in which they are to interact (see section 3.2.2.3, *Types of teaching/ learning activities*).

Teachers, to extend the metaphor, in using the materials, thus become operatives of the machine.

In summary, the typification of learning which emerges from the interviews with the authors is that, for successful language learning to take place, learners need to be presented with aspects of language knowledge which they will then practice in increasingly wider contexts. This enables mastery over 'low level' operations (such as pronunciation) before being required to utilise those operations in activities which require them to focus on language use (e.g. discussions, role plays, etc). In practice, what this procedure requires is that the teacher needs to assume control over what is to go on in the classroom, gradually allowing learners greater independence only when they are ready for it. For their part, learners need to accept this direction by the teacher.

According to the view of the authors, the existence of an identifiable body of knowledge about the language makes the teacher (or the materials writer on

their behalf) responsible for selecting the most appropriate aspects of language knowledge for presentation to the learners. This presentation also needs to be done by the most efficient means possible in terms of time, suggesting that classroom activities should relate directly to language objectives. The blending of language objectives and the means of learning in a set of materials means that the materials function as 'a machine' which teachers and learners jointly pass through with the aim of producing language-competent learners.

Having analysed the data in terms of the authors' typifications of teachers, learners and successful language learning/teaching procedures, I would now like to draw these findings together before turning, in section 5.5, to consider how far they explain the nature of the analysed materials.

5.4.3.5 Summary of findings from the interviews

Analysis of the interview data reveals, as I have shown, a number of significant points in relation to the authors' typifications of the teachers and learners for whom their materials are intended and of what is required for successful classroom language learning. Table 5.3 summarises the findings in respect of these three areas.

One of the most striking points to emerge from the interviews is the strength of the authors' opinions in relation to the capacities of both teachers and learners. As the table reminds us, teachers are largely seen negatively, as obstacles to be overcome, frequently untrained and often boring and counter-productive in their efforts. They are prone, in the authors' view, to feelings of insecurity and for that reason need to feel that they are in full control of what happens in the classroom. For their part, learners, in the view of the authors, have rather

limited abilities to handle the demands of language learning. They prefer 'straightforward' activities which they are eager to 'get right'. Many learners, according to this view, however, have little or no idea of what they are doing in the classroom and little real interest in learning. They thus need to be 'pushed' in order to learn effectively and, unless supervised, are apt to misbehave.

1. Views about the nature of teachers

- they appear as obstacles to be overcome
- the majority are untrained, inexperienced; many are boring and counter-productive
- they are easily alarmed and apt to feel insecure
- the teacher's sense of security is vital to successful language learning
- it is therefore the materials writer's duty to minimise problems for the teacher
- control would have to remain in the hands of the teacher

2. Views about the nature of learners

- they have limited conceptual abilities
- they prefer uncomplicated 'straightforward' tasks
- they are eager to 'get it right', i.e. fulfil the requirements of a task
- they seek opportunities to 'shine' or 'show off'
- many learners have little understanding of what they are doing and little real interest
- inevitably, some learners will reject whatever is attempted in the classroom and will misbehave if not kept under the teacher's direct supervision
- negotiation of course management with learners is unlikely to succeed.

3. Views about the nature of successful language learning

- learners need to be presented with language knowledge which should then be practiced
- practice needs to focus first on low level aspects (such as manipulation of forms) before moving on to higher level aspects such as language in social use
- teacher would need to maintain control until the learners are ready for independence
- teachers/materials writers are responsible for selecting the most appropriate aspects of language knowledge for presentation
- classroom tasks should promote efficient language learning; tasks should relate directly to the learning objectives.
- language objectives and the selection of means can be blended together to form a 'machine' through which teachers and learners may pass, hopefully effectively bringing about language learning.

Table 5.32: Summary of findings from the interviews

A similar strength of opinion is evident in regard to the requirements for successful language learning. There is, it was suggested, a body of language knowledge which learners have to learn before they are able to use the language. This has to be presented to them explicitly and then practised, focussing first on the particular teaching/learning point introduced before being

called upon to make use of that point in wider contexts. This requires careful selection and sequencing of items of language knowledge and careful attention to the provision of practice opportunities for the various rules, patterns and grammatical manipulations with which learners need to become familiar. For Author D, at least, this blending of selected aspects of language knowledge with means of practice suggests the image of materials as a language learning 'machine' through which teachers and learners pass, leading, hopefully, to efficient language learning.

At this point, we may turn once again to the materials to consider how far they may be explained by reference to the typifications held by the authors.

5.5 Explanation: authors' typifications and the nature of the materials

In order to facilitate relating the nature of authors' typifications to the nature of the materials, I have set out in Table 5.4 the description of the materials and the main points to emerge from the repertory grids and the interviews. This draws, once again, on the analysis set out in Chapter 3 which described the materials in terms of their *design* (underlying approach and principles) and *realisation* (published form), and on the summaries of the repertory grid and interview findings presented earlier in this chapter.

As inspection of the table shows, a number of points in the description of the materials are immediately explicable in terms of the findings of this chapter. The emphasis throughout the materials on developing the learners' linguistic

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Nature of the materials	Findings from the repertory grids and interviews
1. Aims	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - main and probably exclusive aim: develop learner's linguistic competence - emphasis on developing oral skills - metalinguistic knowledge has a low priority
2. Principles of selection	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - types of tasks: oral output, low cognitive load, one mental operation at a time; - content: mainly non-message bearing linguistic items (held as useful to the learner), fiction, learner's personal information/opinion (in order) - language: common language patterns and their semantic meanings
3. Principles of sequencing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - tasks: movement from presentation through practice activities towards freer, game-like tasks; writing in final stages - content: unclear (content mainly carries the linguistic syllabus) - language: simple to complex in terms of surface structure
4. Subject matter and focus of subject matter	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - input and output content mainly non-message bearing individual words, phrases or sentences - half of message bearing content fictional, approximately fifth is factual - source of content predominantly the materials themselves - little metalinguistic comment
5. Types of learning/teaching activities	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - learners in a predominantly respond position - classroom interaction heavily scripted for both teachers and learners - 15% of tasks require no learner response whatsoever - reproduction or repetition characterises majority of the remaining tasks - limited range of operations required: repeat, retrieve, formulate, decode semantic meaning, select information - little demand for "deeper" operations such as analysing, hypothesizing, - mother tongue not called upon - emphasis on textual knowledge; ideational/interpersonal knowledge 'carry' textual knowledge - little requirement for negotiation - group/pair work also characterised by repetition - emphasis on learner production rather than reception; speaking rather than writing and reading rather than listening. In all cases, most commonly words, phrases or sentences
	<p>The authors' personal constructs</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. The constructs fall into four main categories concerning: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - teachers - learners - the language produced or worked upon by the learners - implications of an activity for classroom use 2. Teachers are considered in terms of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the extent of their control within an activity - their feelings of security 3. Learners are considered in terms of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the extent to which they enjoy an activity - the extent to which demands are placed on learners 4. The language produced or worked upon by the learners is considered in terms of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the extent to which it is 'realistic' - the extent to which it is focussed on meaning or form 5. Implications of activities are considered in terms of: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - time constraints - maintaining discipline - lesson planning 6. Activities tend to be seen as involving <i>either</i>: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> teacher control, teacher personal security, a focus on form, boredom for the learners, low demands on learners, discipline <i>or</i> learner control, teacher anxiety, a focus on meaning, enjoyment for the learners, demands on the learners, noise and unrulyness.

Table 5.4: The nature of the materials and findings from the repertory grids and interviews

6. Participa-tion: who does what with whom	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - four basic modes of classroom participation evident: teacher-learner(s) interacting (class observing), learners in concert together, learners individually simultaneously, and learners in pairs/groups simultaneously - focus on meaning for 'teacher-learner' and 'learners individually simultaneously' tasks; focus on form for 'learners in concert together' and 'learners in pairs/groups simultaneously' - content mainly supplied by the materials 	<p>Views about the nature of teachers</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - they appear as obstacles to be overcome - the majority are untrained and inexperienced; many are boring and counter-productive - they are easily alarmed and apt to feel insecure - the teacher's sense of security is vital to successful language learning - it is therefore the materials writer's duty to minimise problems for the teacher - control would have to remain in the hands of the teacher
7. Classroom roles of teachers and learner	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - unequal distribution of power between teachers and learners, in favour of the former - both teachers and learners in subordinate position in relation to the materials writer: curriculum decisions taken by the materials writer; materials are 'curriculum packages' - teacher's role: to manage a preplanned classroom event; not required to consider curriculum issues; scripting attempts to reduce the risk of unpredictability - Learners' role: to be managed, not required to consider learning or classroom issues, little recognition of the individuality of the learner 	<p>Views about the nature of learners</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - they have limited conceptual abilities - they prefer uncomplicated 'straightforward' tasks - they are eager to 'get it right', i.e. fulfil the requirements of a task - they seek opportunities to 'shine' or 'show off'
8. Learner roles in learning	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to be taught, undertaking tasks as directed by the materials, via the teacher - not required to consider learning or classroom decisions - learning as the gradual accumulation of items accomplished mainly by repetition or reproduction of texts supplied by the materials - learning as 'work' leading to game-like 'rewards' 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - many learners have little understanding of what they are doing and little real interest - inevitably, some learners will reject whatever is attempted in the classroom and will misbehave if not kept under the teacher's direct supervision - negotiation of course management with learners is unlikely to succeed.
9. Role of materials as a whole	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to structure the teaching and learning of English, classroom time and classroom interaction - to provide packages of predetermined curriculum decisions 	

continued

Table 5.4 (continued): The nature of the materials and findings from the repertory grids and interviews

<i>Realisation</i>		
1. Place of learner's materials in the set	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - part of a 'complete' package - access into the materials and support facilities (answer keys, tape transcript etc) provided for the teacher - learner's materials in a dependent role vis à vis teacher's materials - learner's materials form focal point for classroom work 	<p>Views about the nature of successful language learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - learners need to be presented with language knowledge which should then be practiced - practice needs to focus first on low level aspects (such as manipulation of forms) before moving on to higher level aspects such as language in social use - teacher would need to maintain control until the learners are ready for independence- teachers/materials writers are responsible for selecting - classroom tasks should promote efficient language learning; tasks should relate directly to the learning objectives - language objectives and the selection of means can be blended together to form a 'machine' through which teachers and learners may pass, hopefully effectively bringing about language learning.
2. Published form of the learner's materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - monolingual throughout - durable and consumable materials for the learners - focal point for classroom work provided by learner's durable materials - 4 colours in learner's durable materials; 2 colours in other component 	
3. Subdivision of the learner's materials	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - subdivided into 'units' or 'lessons', with standardised number of pages and estimated time to complete - patterning across units or lessons (e.g. alternating unit type, fiction/fact) 	
4. Subdivision of sections into sub-sections	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - patterning within units, beginning with a teacher focussed activity, then to language practice (often proceeded/ followed by language analysis), concluding with a freer task involving personal involvement/self-expression - writing towards the end of a cycle of work 	
5. Continuity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - provided by patterning across and within units - story or topic overall several units - an incremental syllabus 	
6. Route	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - only one route through material proposed and supported: to use the material in the order presented 	
7. Access	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - limited means of access into materials: listing of unit/ lesson names and (for teachers) a listing of objectives. 	

Table 5.4 (continued): The nature of the materials and findings from the repertory grids and interviews

competence (*aims*), on sequencing activities from 'presentation' through 'practice' towards 'freer, game-like tasks' (*principles of sequencing* and *subdivision of sections into sub-sections*), and on providing tasks with a low cognitive load (*principles of selection*) can all be traced directly to the authors' typifications of successful language learning and to their typifications of learners. Language learning, as the table reminds us, is conceived of as requiring the presentation of aspects of language knowledge ('rules', 'patterns', 'manipulations') which need to be internalised via repetitive practice prior to their use. Learners, for their part, as seen as having limited conceptual abilities and as preferring 'uncomplicated, straightforward' tasks.

It is, however, possible to see a more profound, though perhaps less obvious, link between the materials and the authors' typifications if one considers the overall finding of the interviews and repertory grids, rather than the specific details. As a review of the table confirms, the authors' views on the nature of teachers, learners and successful language learning and teaching all point in the same general direction: the importance of maintaining control over what goes on in the classroom. Ostensibly, this control is to be in the hands of the teacher, but, given the authors' views of teachers, the axis of control needs to be assumed by the materials writer on the teacher's behalf. Left undirected, it is suggested, teachers and learners are unlikely to make profitable use of their time. The authors thus feel obliged to express this responsibility by organising language teaching/learning in terms of a focus on selected aspects of language knowledge through proposed stages of presentation, practice and transfer. This places teachers in a mediating role with respect to the authors' intentions (Author A, for example, spoke of having to "work through the teacher", and of aiming at "the pupils but through the sort of teachers who are likely to use the course"). The classroom event, therefore, is largely seen as a learning

opportunity solely for the learners, with the teachers as mediators, rather than beneficiaries of the experience.

Given this orientation to the writing of language teaching materials, further aspects of the authors' materials can readily be explained. This is most clearly shown in respect of *types of teaching/learning activities, classroom roles, learning roles* and the *role of the materials as a whole*. As Table 5.4 reminds us, classroom interaction is heavily scripted for both teachers and learners, with the teacher placed in immediate control over the predominantly reactive, disempowered learners. Most tasks, my analysis revealed, required reproduction or repetition on the part of the learners, particularly in group/pair work. Throughout this, neither teachers nor learners are called upon by the materials to consider learning or classroom decisions, the materials representing what I termed "curriculum packages". We can see in these features of the materials the authors' desire to reduce teaching/learning procedures to a level of extreme simplicity and to assume on behalf of both teachers and learners the central curriculum decisions which need to be made. The teacher, as manager of a preplanned classroom event, and the learner, as managed, are both positioned into those roles by the materials writer who perceives a need to impose order and discipline upon the (inexperienced, untrained, unimaginative) teacher and the (unaware, prone to misbehave, uninterested) learner. Through detailed scripting, the authors seek to shape the nature of classroom interaction and reduce the risks of unpredictability such that learners are brought to learn and teachers to teach almost, one might say, despite themselves.¹

¹I do not wish, in all this, to suggest that the authors are acting in any other than good faith. They are, I believe, responding to the needs of the situation *as they see it*.

Turning to aspects of the materials listed under *realisation*, we can see similar sentiments echoed there. The provision of a 'complete' package of materials (*place of the learner's materials in the set*), encompassing teachers' guides, learners' materials, tests, cassettes and so on, may be seen as reflecting the desire to provide a framework for *all* that goes on in respect of language learning during the occasions upon which teachers and learners meet.

Similarly, the provision of support for only one route through the material and the limited means of access into the materials (such as indexes, contents listings, provided principally for the teacher) relate to the authors' desire to provide a framework which places the teacher in immediate control within the classroom (*route and access*). With the authors' concern to ease classroom management for the teacher, the underlying function of the aspects of the materials listed under *subdivision* and *continuity* also become clearer. By standardising the distribution of material across 'units' of (assumed) equal classroom time and an equal extent of pages, and by standardising the sequence of activities within each of these units, the task for the teacher (and for the learner) is, superficially at least, made more predictable, reducing, as I noted earlier (see section 3.2.3.1) the risks of uncertainty.

The establishment of these kinds of links between the nature of the materials and the typifications held by the authors also enable us to hypothesize an explanation in relation to the weighting given in the materials to each of the 'four skills'. As Table 5.4 shows, oral skills may be deduced as one of the main aims of the materials (*aims*), tasks themselves emphasise oral production (*types of teaching/learning activities*) and writing is generally positioned in a final place in the sequence of classroom work (*subdivision into sub-sections*). Two related issues are involved here. Firstly, there is the suggestion that oral abilities should be the goal or aim of language learning.

Secondly, there is the assumption that the best means of developing language abilities is through oral production. Whilst there is little direct evidence in the interview data about the importance of oral abilities as a goal of language learning, it seems reasonable to suggest that the authors would see oral abilities as most relevant to school learners. This, however, would not in itself explain why the *means* of language learning proposed in the materials is predominantly oral in nature, with the emphasis on oral repetition, oral drills and oral question and answer routines². One possible explanation for this is that the authors are simply continuing a tradition in language learning, although it is worth recalling that, until comparatively recently, 'grammar-translation' methodologies in materials emphasised writing as a means of learning. A more likely explanation, in my view, given the evidence above, is in the opportunities which public oral interaction provides for monitoring what learners do and the accuracy with which they do it. In proposing that the process of learning should take place seemingly in 'full view' of the teacher, the materials confirm the teacher's control over classroom events. Superficially at least, all learners can be seen to be engaged in the same classroom event and the teacher's immediate classroom responsibilities and management task is thus more easily apparent. Seen from this perspective, the insistence on oral production as the dominant means of learning finds explanation once again in the authors' typification of teachers, learners and the demands of language learning and their consequent desire to manage both teacher-learner interaction and learning outcomes.

²The link between oral abilities as a main aim of learning and oral abilities as the predominant means of learning is not as direct as it might appear. A number of writers have recently argued, for example, that in-class writing can provide richer learning opportunities for general language development, with speaking, listening and reading all surrounding the production of learners' own texts. See, inter alia, Raimes (1983), Zamel (1985), Littlejohn (1990, 1992).

I began this enquiry by considering the insights which phenomenology and personal construct theory may afford us in investigating authors' perceptions. Returning to the theoretical framework for my investigation, it is possible to see further links between the aspects of the materials themselves. One notable feature in the interview data is the absence of any extended discussion by the authors of two particular areas: the nature of the language produced or worked upon by the learners and the sources of enjoyment or 'fun' for the learners. These, it will be recalled, were both identified in the repertory grids as aspects which distinguish particular activity types. Despite the fact that the initial part of the interviews focussed on reviewing each author's personal constructs (with the exception of Author D who did not complete a grid), no extended comment was forthcoming on either of these two areas. It appears that, whilst the desirability of, for example, encouraging 'realistic' use of language in the classroom and of providing learner enjoyment is acknowledged, the authors' main concerns lie elsewhere in the limitations imposed by the nature of teachers, the capacities of learners and the demands of learning itself. With young beginning learners at least, these concerns place, for the authors, language use and learner enjoyment as matters of secondary importance which can only be fully attended to when a selected teaching point has been taken through the cycle of presentation-practice-transfer. (It will be recalled, for example, that Author B described the final song/game sections in his material as offering 'light relief', something which could be included or omitted as time allowed.)

If, as I have deduced, the priorities for the authors lie in establishing teacher control and in taking into account what they see as the low cognitive capacities of the learners and their lack of interest in learning, then these priorities alone will have a significant impact on the design of the authors' materials. From the

evidence of the repertory grids, we saw that, in general, the clustering of the authors' personal constructs suggests that they perceive a basic dichotomy in the nature of classroom work. Activities, I found, were generally seen as involving **either**

teacher control, teacher personal security, a focus on form, boredom for pupils, low demands on pupils, discipline

or

pupil control, teacher anxiety, a focus on meaning, enjoyment for pupils, demands on pupils, noise and unrulyness.

Both phenomenology and personal construct theory, suggest that the nature of an individual's social action will be determined by the manner in which the individual perceives or typifies the world around him/her. With the clustering of personal constructs around poles in contrast to one another, this would suggest that if an individual prioritises one particular construct as a goal for action then the constructs which cluster around that construct will also tend to guide any action the individual takes. Thus, from the evidence of the clustering of the authors' constructs, this would mean that the emphasis on enabling teacher control through the design of their materials would be likely to bring with it, in the authors' terms at least, 'teacher personal security', 'a focus on form', 'boredom for pupils', 'low demands on pupils', and 'discipline'. Whilst features such as 'boredom for pupils' are impossible to determine without recourse to the learners themselves, the analysis of the material set out in Table 5.4 does, as I have already indicated, show the remaining characteristics listed as present in the materials. This would confirm the suggestion that the authors' view on the necessity of control in the classroom, with its origins in their typifications of teachers, learners and classroom language learning, offers, more than any other single factor, a major explanation of the actual nature of the materials.

5.6 Summary and conclusion

The main concern of this chapter has been to investigate the perceptions held by the authors and to examine the extent to which the nature of materials is explicable by reference to those perceptions. I began with a review of a theoretical context for investigating personal perceptions, and showed how phenomenology enabled us to conceptualise the perceptions which authors hold as *typifications*. I suggested that, in the design of teaching materials, it is likely to be the authors' typifications of teachers, learners and language learning that are most relevant and which may influence the nature of the materials.

Drawing on personal construct repertory grids and interviews as data collection devices, I therefore investigated the typifications which the authors hold in respect of each of these areas. My findings showed that, in general, the authors tend to typify teachers as untrained, inexperienced and prone to feelings of insecurity in the classroom. Learners are typified as generally having limited conceptual abilities, being not very interested in language learning and apt to misbehave in the classroom. Language learning is typified as requiring the explicit presentation of items of language knowledge which need to be internalised through repetitive practice prior to their use.

In relating these typifications to the materials, I have been able to establish a direct link with some aspects of the materials (such as low cognitive demands of tasks and the authors' views on the limited capacities of learners) and to make strong claims about the existence of a linkage with other aspects of the materials (such as the predominance of repetition in group/pair work and the authors' typification of learners as liable to misbehave). It has, however, also been possible to suggest a coherence in the nature of the materials through the

clustering of authors' personal constructs around a perceived primary need to exert control over teacher-learner interaction. Given these three levels of explanation which my investigation has provided, it would thus seem that consideration of the authors' typifications of teachers, learners and language learning, has a very powerful role in explaining the nature of the materials here under analysis.

Returning to the characteristics of the materials listed in Table 5.4, however, we are reminded of a number of features of the materials which cannot adequately be explained in relation to authors' perceptions. These are, in particular, in connection with *realisation*, where aspects such as the monolingual nature of the materials, the overall page length, the provision of consumable and durable student texts and the use of colour, remind us of the existence of a further important participant in materials production. This is the publisher, whose role I will therefore now consider.