

# UNIVERSIDAD HISPANOAMERICANA

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## **English Curriculum Implementation in Costa Rican Night Academic High Schools: A Secondary Study for Material Development, 2019**

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# SWORN DECLARATION

## DECLARACIÓN JURADA

Yo Guisella Filomena Arguedas, mayor de edad, portador de la cédula de identidad número 1-1221-0089, egresado de la carrera de Enseñanza del Inglés de la Universidad Hispanoamericana, hago constar por medio de éste acto y debidamente aperebido y entendido de las penas y consecuencias con las que se castiga en el Código Penal el delito de perjurio, ante quienes se constituyen en el Tribunal Examinador de mi trabajo de tesis para optar por el título de Licenciatura en Enseñanza del Inglés, juro solemnemente que mi trabajo de investigación titulado: *English Curriculum Implementation in Costa Rican Night Academic High Schools: A Secondary Study for Material Development, 2019* es una obra original que ha respetado todo lo preceptuado por las Leyes Penales, así como la Ley de Derecho de Autor y Derecho Conexos número 6683 del 14 de octubre de 1982 y sus reformas, publicada en la Gaceta número 226 del 25 de noviembre de 1982; incluyendo el numeral 70 de dicha ley que advierte; artículo 70. Es permitido citar a un autor, transcribiendo los pasajes pertinentes siempre que éstos no sean tantos y seguidos, que puedan considerarse como una producción simulada y sustancial, que redunde en perjuicio del autor de la obra original. Asimismo, quedo advertido que la Universidad se reserva el derecho de protocolizar este documento ante Notario Público. en fe de lo anterior, firmo en la ciudad de San José, a los 24 días del mes de abril del año dos mil diecinueve.



Firma del estudiante

Cédula 1-1221-0089

# TUTOR'S APPROVAL LETTER

## CARTA DEL TUTOR

San José, 24 de abril del 2019

**Departamento de Registro  
Director de Carrera Enseñanza del Inglés  
Universidad Hispanoamericana**

Estimado señor

El estudiante Guisella Filomena Arquedas, cédula de identidad número 1-1221-0089, me ha presentado, para efectos de revisión y aprobación, el trabajo de investigación denominado *English Curriculum Implementation in Night Academic High Schools: A Secondary Study for Material Development*, el cual ha elaborado para optar por el grado académico de Licenciatura en Enseñanza del Inglés.

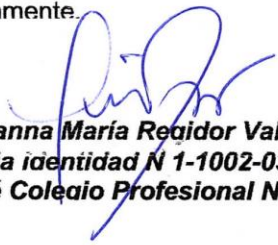
En mi calidad de tutor, he verificado que se han hecho las correcciones indicadas durante el proceso de tutoría y he evaluado los aspectos relativos a la elaboración del problema, objetivos, justificación, antecedentes, marco teórico, marco metodológico, tabulación, análisis de datos, conclusiones y recomendaciones.

De los resultados obtenidos por el postulante, se obtiene la siguiente calificación:

a)	ORIGINAL DEL TEMA	10%	10
b)	CUMPLIMIENTO DE ENTREGA DE AVANCES	20%	20
c)	COHERENCIA ENTRE LOS OBJETIVOS, LOS INSTRUMENTOS APLICADOS Y LOS RESULTADOS DE LA INVESTIGACION	30%	30
d)	RELEVANCIA DE LAS CONCLUSIONES Y RECOMENDACIONES	20%	20
e)	CALIDAD, DETALLE DEL MARCO TEORICO	20%	20
	TOTAL		100

En virtud de la calificación obtenida, se avala el traslado al proceso de lectura.

Atentamente,

  
**Geovanna María Regidor Valerín**  
Cédula de identidad N 1-1002-0309  
Carné Colegial Profesional N 84333

## DEDICATION

I want to dedicate this work to the people who in many ways have had an important impact on my life.

First, this project goes for my family, whose support and unconditional love have helped me overcome the obstacles this endeavor may bring about.

Next, it is dedicated to the students and English teachers met so far that have inspired me one way or another to grow in knowledge and to be more responsible for the society we live in and develop together.

I also dedicate this project to the MEP authorities which have the power of change and support in their hands.

Finally, I want to dedicate this project to all night high school English teachers who really want to do their jobs the best way.

## GRATITUDE

I would like to thank everyone who helped in the development of this investigation including the coordinator Valeria Ortíz Villalobos. Special thanks are also for the tutor Geovanna María Regidor Valerín, and the reader Gina Huang for their knowledge, help and recommendations during the completion of this project.

Furthermore, I want to express my gratitude to my family and friends, whose unconditional support helped me to successfully conclude this research project.

## ABBREVIATIONS

**AOA:** Action-Oriented Approach

**CEFRL:** Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

**ELT:** English Language Teaching

**MEP:** Ministry of Public Education (for its acronym in Spanish)

**SLA:** Second Language Acquisition

**TL:** Target Language

## ABSTRACT

This research inquired into the following main topics. First, the factors affecting SLA; second, the theoretical principles for developing materials for teaching a second language; and third, the design of tasks that correspond to the objectives and goals expected. Therefore, its research design is bibliographical or secondary. This type of research deals with the most relevant studies and the theories regarding the themes previously mentioned. The aim is to synthesize a grounded proposal for ELT material development that includes a set of criteria in regard to these topics and SLA theories so that the material developed (from scratch or adapted) not only fits the context and the students of night high schools but is also principled. Then, the subjects and sources of information involve the night high schools of the country and their students as described in government reports, audits, and even the press, plus the English program and teachers' guide. The conclusions, recommendations, and proposal developed are embedded in the context of the national English reform and the night high schools' context. Grosso modo, it is through the analysis of the information gathered that the factors that most affect SLA could have been selected, the principles for developing materials related, and the types of tasks differentiated, so that a set of guidelines for developing their ELT material suitable for the night high school context and students can be used meanwhile implementing the program.

Key Words: Night High Schools, New English Reform, Material Development in ELT, SLA Factors, Task-Based or Action-Oriented Approach

Research study presented as a requirement to obtain the *Licenciatura* degree of English Teaching, in fulfillment of the bylaws and regulations established by the Sistema de Estudios de Posgrado de la Universidad Hispanoamericana, San José, Costa Rica.

# CHAPTER I: RESEARCH PROBLEM

## 1.1 PROBLEM APPROACH

### 1.1.1 Background of the Problem

Since 2008, the Ministry of Education in Costa Rica or *Ministerio de Educación Pública* (MEP hereafter for its acronym in Spanish) undertook an educational reform which aims at preparing students for a new citizenship (Estado de la Educación, 2017, p. 52). One of its most recent enterprises is the change of the national English curriculum meant to cater to the 21<sup>st</sup> century students' needs in 2017. Therefore, the goals of this new reform embrace developing a number of competences that, according to James Purpura, allow students "to communicate effectively in the global context and to face the challenges of an interconnected world." (MEP, 2016, p. 12) For which, the MEP (2016) has four main purposes. First, it is meant to address the need for a curriculum correspondent to the current learners immersed in the information age. Second, it is expected to enable learners to reach a good command of English. Third, it aims at developing students' intercultural communication competences. And finally, the English reform has to strengthen their local identity while at the same time position themselves in the world (p. 12). Therefore, this English reform needs to be pursued carefully since the new English curriculum goes beyond communication and its aims are both innovative and complex.

This new English curriculum is ground-breaking in many ways. Not only is it based on the results and analysis of a diagnosis for the reformulation of the English program through 2014-2015 by a group of experts, but also it is developed following the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFRL henceforward) for the

articulation among levels (from 1<sup>st</sup> grade to 11<sup>th</sup> grade) and entrance and exit profiles. Moreover, its teaching methodology is Action-Oriented. This approach makes use of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) in the learning environment and integrates language abilities through meaningful activities in real-life scenarios developing the concept of a new citizenship, while assessing students via formative practices. Lastly, the English curriculum is based on the principles and underpinnings of socio-constructivism, holism and critical pedagogies, making students undergo cooperative, scaffolded, problem-solving and experiential learning (MEP, 2016, pp. 16-20). This certainly is challenging for both, teachers since it is a new approach to teaching, and students for the socially active method to learning English.

Then, the afore-mentioned Action-Oriented Approach (AOA), also called Task-Based, English program implies some changes to the usual classroom. The conversion ranges from the roles of the learners and teachers, the learning resources and the environment, to class activities and assessment, for which a profile for all these is included in the MEP's (2017) *Teachers' Guide for the New English Curriculum* (p. 14). Foremost, the role of the learners and teachers changes. Now the learner is considered an autonomous agent with intercultural skills, a researcher, and a problem-solver; someone able to work cooperatively interacting with others and using the tools available, while at the same time developing their critical thinking. The development of these skills is part of the competences needed for the 21<sup>st</sup> century citizenship. Additionally, the role of the teacher has also changed, as stated in the program. The teacher is now seen as a facilitator, a coach, a guide, an advisor, and an observer. The teacher's main job is to help the learner become autonomous and accomplish the tasks, as well as give students

feedback. Another very important change, thus, is the learning environment. In AO-classes, it is expected activities to be real-world like, collaborative, stimulating and mediated by ICTs. For which, hand in hand, the learning resources have to be authentic texts, appropriate to the learners' needs and competence level, and carrier of an intercultural perspective. In regard to assessment, the CEFRL descriptors are used as a reference. In conclusion, the classroom dynamics under the AOA curriculum certainly changes when complying with the roles, materials, activities, and assessment expected. Hence, its implementation undergoes gradually, as well as teacher training.

Certainly, not all classrooms are the same, especially at night high schools. The night students and their learning context present some characteristics that make the implementation of a nation-wide English program peculiar. A key aspect of teaching is using the available teaching materials and available resources. Materials can be either published or found on a website; the truth is that there has been a tendency for their use and even an over-reliance on these for teaching English. Nonetheless, these teaching materials are already set with a type of students in mind that do not necessarily match the ones in an actual classroom; yet, no matter how unfit it may look, some teachers merely teach a textbook or blindly rely on scattered printed materials rather than using them as resources for creativity and adaptation to their real context. At the night context of academic high schools, though good materials may be the case, lack of resources and facilities might restrain their use. It seems fundamental that teachers know how to develop materials or adapting existing ones such as the ones provided by the MEP or elsewhere to fully implement the English program in an effective way to cater to the adult students' needs and the context realities.

Even when the English teachers in Costa Rica are provided with a Teacher's Guide with weekly sample plans, materials and links to sources for every unit, it does not seem right to try to follow it by the book without any consideration of students and context realities. Though the previous English program has many textbooks from vast publishers, there is no published textbook for the new program yet. Even so, various problems with textbooks, which can be extrapolated to the teacher's guide, have been addressed by a good number of researchers.

Some of these problems have been compiled by Yan. For instance, O'Neill in 1982 suggests that a textbook can only offer props and framework for classroom teaching; no textbook can appeal to all teachers and learners. Similarly, McDonough and Shaw in 1993 propose that textbooks, though internally coherent, may not be totally applicable. In addition, Swales in 1980 states that no given course-book can cater for the diversity of needs in the class. Moreover, Allwright in 1981 maintains that no single textbook can possibly work in all situations. Lastly, Sheldon in 1988 addresses the lack of cultural appropriacy of some textbooks (Yan, 2007, p. 1). Therefore, teachers have to approach not only course-books but also teaching guides with the expectation to exploit these creatively and in total compatibility with the learners and setting, for which it is necessary careful selection and adaptation instead of blindly relying on already-made materials. This careful selection and adaptation of teaching-learning materials need to be well-grounded for developing well-designed materials that suit the students in the class and follow the updated second language acquisition theories and the approach embedded in the English program.

In fact, there are steps or procedures for teaching-learning material development. Harsono (2007) considers that developing materials involves not only its initial design but also its implementation and correspondent evaluation (p. 173). It goes beyond assuming that they work, but it is by implementing them that they show their effectiveness. As Harsono (2007) further explains:

The teaching/learning materials already developed for specific target learners have to be implemented in the real learning/teaching situation. The implementation of the learning/teaching materials in the real situation in this step is meant to try out the teaching/learning materials whether they are suitable for the target learners. If not, then the learning/teaching materials have to be revised based on the data obtained from the try out to the target learners. (p. 173)

Clearly, developing materials is a complex systematic process; not based on intuition only. It needs criteria for evaluating the material generated, adapted or selected in order to fit properly to each setting and students' and teachers' needs.

Indeed, Brian Tomlinson (2010) distinguishes between universal and local criteria for evaluating material. He refers to universal criteria to the principles hold by the researcher, and local criteria to "those specific to the context in which the materials are going to be used," (p. 150) arguing that they are best generated from a profile. Consequently, when selecting material for teaching academic English to night high school students, teachers need to know both, principles of second language acquisition relevant to the development of materials, and the population characteristics, the context, and the program itself to select adequate criteria for evaluating the developed material. The end of developing material specific to the learners attending night high schools is that teachers

implement the new reform in its fullest at all settings, especially the so-needed night high school setting. This situation necessarily calls for the need of providing night English teachers guidance on how to develop (i.e. select, adapt) materials that meet their students' and setting's particularities, as well as the new approach embedded in the program.

### **1.1.2 Problematization**

The teachers' guide provides plenty of resources that can be selected and adapted, or even taken as a source to make out others from scratch. There are always sound practical reasons for adapting materials, including a suggested teachers' guide. The idea is to make materials as accessible and useful to learners as possible. The arguments for adapting materials are unlimited and reflect a concern for different variables. Among the many authors that provide lists of cases when adaptation is advisable, a well-known one is Alan Cunningsworth. In his book *Choosing your Coursebook* (1995), he considers adaptation to respond to five main factors: (1) the dynamics of the classroom, (2) the students' personalities, (3) the constraints of the syllabus, (4) the availability of resources, and (5) the expectation and motivation of learners. (p. 136) And though many of the adaptations are done ad hoc and spontaneously during classes, following a principled framework for material development while considering the theories on second language acquisition and the program itself give the teachers the confidence needed to face night students with the new approach. Thus, developing materials by adapting them to the setting constrains (e.g. resources, time, and

program approach) and the students' particularities while planning lessons helps the implementation of the English program in a more suitable manner.

Therefore, the decisions to be made in the process of planning teaching have to respond not only to the English program's approach and teaching guides but also to their realities (specific group of students and setting characteristics). When working with a mandatory program and suggested lesson plans and materials, teachers have to address certain essential questions of what the content will be and the sequence of exercises that is applied. Thus, teachers' selection, adaptation, and design of materials have to be based on both knowledge of the principles for material development and an awareness of the students' context and high school setting.

### **1.1.3 Justification of the Topic**

Undeniably, this new English curriculum demands an intricate understanding and teaching, which sometimes contrast from current teachers' way of teaching. According to MEP (2016), for English teachers to implement the new reform, they need to carry out "the design and implementation of concrete, meaningful and relevant real-life situations for students to demonstrate their English language abilities through tasks." (p. 32) Then, teachers need to be able to select suitable materials and reflect on their sociocultural potential, design appropriate tasks, and develop assessment procedures that correspond to the new program's approach.

In fact, implementing this new curriculum is a challenging endeavor that forces teachers change their current teaching, for which they have to be prepared. According to

Estado de la Educación (2017), only 10% of the education majors at universities in the country are accredited by the SINAES (*Sistema Nacional de Acreditación de la Educación Superior*) (p. 65). Moreover, in the same report, researchers point out the inequalities of the English Teaching major's curriculum among universities showing relevant disparities regarding content of the courses, length of the major, and entry requirements, for what they conclude that the new English program is a challenge for many universities (p. 46). Likewise, MEP's diagnostic report (2015), also shows that 46% of the English teachers that participated in the study believe that the teachers' profile required in the previous English program does not correspond to their university training process (p. 24). Furthermore, in 2008, the MEP administered the English test TOEIC to 86% of the English teachers, results show that only 17% of the teachers are placed in the C1 band, while most (48%) are located in the B1 and B2, and yet 32% get a basic level (A2) (MEP, 2015, p. 8). Fortunately, according to a national newspaper, the MEP is training English teachers on the new curriculum, so that by 2016 it already trained 5000 English teachers around the country (Picado, 02/16/17, para. 9). It is expected that all teachers get well-trained both by universities and by the MEP, for teachers to be able to fully implement the new English curriculum. Nonetheless, the teachers working at night academic high schools face a greater challenge.

When working at night high schools, teachers face not only a more complex population but also some restraints in the context. The population attending night high schools are adults that for some reason cannot attend or continue with the day school. According to the MEP's website, night academic high schools are regular ones yet with a night schedule, and anyone older than 15 can enroll by presenting their identification and

the primary education diploma (“Colegios Académicos Nocturnos,” n.d., para.1-2). It is also a classroom course, so that a proper infrastructure is essential. Nevertheless, according to an audit carried out at night high schools through 2014-2015 by the Contraloría General de la República (2016), these high schools are not that regular for many reasons. First, according to the participant teachers’ and students’ perceptions, the efficacy of the educational service is 60,9, which according to the researchers’ view, this evidences that the conditions in which this service is provided do not fit the requirements of the population and do need immediate action. Secondly, not only the population is mostly young adults, but also their economic condition is between vulnerable and extreme poverty. And thirdly, population is growing. For example, in 2014, night students reached a 14, 4 % of the total population of students enrolled in secondary education in the country, a figure that has raised 21.7% in 12 years since 2003 (p. 1). Therefore, it is of major concern that authorities attend to the analysis carried out by the *Contraloría* and consider all their particularities as more night modalities are increasing adult enrollment, i.e. technical high schools, CINDEAs, and others.

The night high school setting is of great concern too. The particularities of the night academic high school students and the teachers’ perceptions of the new reform being implemented at the night setting are important factors when dealing with the implementation of a nation-wide program. Recent evidence (Filomena, 2017) suggests that the 7 participants of her study, English teachers working in 7 out of the 10 night academic high schools in San José (the 3 high schools in Pérez Zeledón were not included) do not find the implementation of this program feasible in their context, they lack training, they teach in an eclectic way, and some consider the given material, the

Teacher's Guide, useless, among other shared perceptions (pp. 83-84). For instance, during the interviews carried out for this research, most participant teachers responded that their experience with the new curriculum is eclectic in selecting the components from the program, instructing in Spanish, and relying on adapting the program to what they consider their students' needs are, and to what they know about the curriculum. According to the English teachers, this *ad hoc* adaptation in their teaching is mainly due to the context particularities like the students' background, available time, and students' English level (pp. 85-86). Therefore, both night students' and teachers' needs have to be considered for a successful implementation of the English reform at the night setting.

## **1.2 FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM**

Although the night academic high schools have broader problems, this study only focuses on creating principled guidelines for English teachers or ELT material writers to be able to develop material or adapt the new English curriculum and its teacher's guide to their students at the night high school setting in such a way that corresponds to the program's approach, to the foundations of SLA, to material development principles, and to task types. The ultimate end of this work is to provide a grounded guide to aid English teachers to implement the new reform in a feasible, practical, and suitable way for a more successful execution of the reform at night academic high schools, so that their students succeed at having English command and the competences needed in this world.

The interest in exploring material adaptation for night academic high schools' sparks from three sources mainly. First of all, it has been an experience as an English

teacher at night high schools that the materials available do not respond to the students' particularities, or just focus on the English National Exit Exam (ENEE) or so-called *Bachillerato* English test. Secondly, the results of Filomena's (2017) exploratory research on the English teachers' perceptions of the new English program implementation at night academic high schools shed light on the teachers' perceptions, attitudes and receptivity towards the implementation of the program, which are not all positive. Lastly, there are not studies on material development for the new English program at night academic high schools, which makes this research relevant and innovative.

With analysis this research is relevant in four ways: 1) For the general field of Applied Linguistics and language education in particular, it adds up to the body of literature on material development for implementing a language curricular reform at night; 2) for the national context of Costa Rica, since the study is a first glimpse into the process of guiding development of material for the curriculum implementation at the night academic high schools in San José 3) at the practical level, it allows MEP night English teachers and corresponding authorities to consider a grounded set of criteria for helping a more suitable yet flexible curriculum implementation at night high schools; and 4) at the local level, the project is pioneering in the context of the higher education in the country since no other studies on this subject have been conducted so far.

## **1.3 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES**

### **1.3.1 General Objective**

To design a set of principled guidelines for material development for the recent nationwide English program implementation at night academic high schools.

### **1.3.2 Specific Objectives**

- a. To select the factors that are most likely to influence night academic high school students' academic success.
- b. To relate the principles of effective material development that can be used to develop ELT material suitable for the night high school setting.
- c. To differentiate the types of tasks that are most likely to correspond to the objectives and learners at night academic high schools.

## **1.4 SCOPE AND LIMITATIONS**

Undoubtedly, carefully designed material development guidelines can help teachers cope with and adapt the new English program better in order to reach its successful implementation at the night academic high schools in Costa Rica. Moreover, material designers can make a flexible use of the guidelines since they are based on the principles for material development, second language acquisition theories, and the English program approach. Nonetheless, teachers can try themselves developing or adapting material by following the criteria developed specifically for night high school students and setting. Besides, this study follows up a prior research project on the English

curriculum implementation at night academic high schools by considering the needs and concerns of the main actors. Lastly, it provides insights that are meant to be presented to authorities, so that the reform can be implemented successfully at all settings in view of their particularities and students' characteristics and needs.

The major limitation faced during the development of this project was the uncertainty lived by teachers, country-wide, due to the strikes against governmental policies. This situation that had not ended at the beginning of this research produced a redirection of this project. This research was set out to be secondary or bibliographical in design for not depending on a population that is not certain to be available for the development of the project. Therefore, this study, though relevant and useful, does not comply with the most common research design in social sciences. Nevertheless, all its steps and procedures are justified for validity and correspond to the type of research carried out here.

## **CHAPTER II: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK**

The following literature review corresponds to an Integrative Review according to the University of Southern California's Research Guide for organizing a social sciences research paper. This type is considered "a form of research that reviews, critiques, and synthesizes representative literature on a topic in an integrated way such that new frameworks and perspectives on the topic are generated," (Types of Literature Review, para. 4) besides being very common for a literature review in the social sciences. Therefore, it deals with the concepts, theories, and studies needed to base a selection of what is related theoretically, to analyze the studies, and to synthesize information in a set of guidelines on material development for night students.

For the sake of this research, this review of literature is divided in three main topics, each of them corresponding to a specific objective. These main topics are: SLA factors, material development, and task development. For this information to be clearly put into context, there are some SLA theoretical and practical antecedents. Firstly, there are well-researched factors such as age, motivation, and aptitude, among others. On the one hand, studies have shed light on what to focus on when enquiring about non-language influences. Besides, there have been studies which emphasize on the contextual factors that influence second language acquisition instead, but very few studies have mixed both factors, and how they correlate or compensate one another. The second main topic is Material Development. It is deeply studied by Brian Tomlinson, Rod Ellis, and Ian McGrath, among others. Indeed, Tomlinson has developed a principled framework for material development based on second language theories, and have edited books and written many articles on the topic. Finally, the third main topic is the development of tasks

following the AOA or Task-Based Approach in order to fine-tune the program implementation process. These three main topics guide the analysis afterwards.

## **2.1 HISTORICAL CONTEXT**

Since the 1960s, the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) has undergone unprecedented expansion, reflection, and research in all its sub-fields (Tudor, 2008, p. 5). Consequently, many countries started to invest more on education and by doing so embraced a number of methods for foreign language teaching. These efforts created what Ian Tudor has called “a new technology of language teaching”; that is, advancements in research, specialized journals, language associations, foreign language training, needs analysis, methods and approaches, program design, and material development (pp. 5-7). This new technology of language teaching refers then to the range of “theoretical perspectives and practical options which are available to language educators for designing and implementing learning programs.” (Tudor, 2008, p. 7) Nonetheless these developments, recent scholars have suggested that success of a language program does not depend so much on the type of options we choose, but instead on the extent to which these are adapted to meet the local realities of a given context (Tudor, 2008, p. 8). In the end, it is English teachers who actually perceive, select and adapt to their local realities mandatory language programs or course-books.

Notwithstanding important differences among learners and learning contexts, as Burke (2012) states, “uniformity continues to dominate school practices” (p. 1). To

illustrate, this uniformity can be seen in the language programs approach, materials, content, tests, and textbooks. As Burke (2012) argues,

An appropriate balance must be determined thoughtfully with attention to beliefs, theories, and research rather than efficiency. We need to decide intentionally what should be uniform for all students and what should be diverse and strive toward putting into practice what we say we believe. (p. 2)

This downplay on students' differences have put efficiency over efficacy in practice. Nonetheless, the role of the learners' characteristics plays its part in the process of second language acquisition.

The period since the 1960s has been marked by a considerable amount of not only theoretical developments but also in the productivity of teaching materials and learning aids of many types (Tudor, 2008, p. 7). This, certainly, provides educators with the vast options from which they can choose when planning a class. Nonetheless, the ecological perspective of education pays attention to the human and pragmatic factors that influence the effectiveness of that technology.

English teachers in general work in isolation and respond to different pressures and expectations. For this, there is a well-established framework consisting of two factors: "the various wide-ranging criteria on which decisions about language teaching programmes are based, and secondly, on the pedagogic principles according to which the materials and methods are actually based." (McDonough & Shaw, 2003, p. 3) In other words, the educational context and the syllabus need to cope with the needs of using the language. Because, as McDonough and Shaw (2003) have stated, even when goals are

written in the language policy, the likelihood of implementing them depends on the learners and on the whole educational setting where the teaching befalls (p.5). The context necessarily includes both the learners and the setting.

The learners possess a great number of characteristics that influence lesson-planning decisions as well as the setting. On the one hand, students' age, interests, level of proficiency in English, aptitude, mother tongue, academic and educational level, attitudes to learning (including to teachers and the institution, besides English and its speakers), motivation, reasons for learning, preferred learning styles, and personalities are key characteristics according to McDonough and Shaw (2003, pp. 6-7). On the other hand, the setting, that is, the whole teaching-learning environment determines if "the aims of language programme, defined with reference to the learners' needs and characteristics, are actually feasible and realistic." (McDonough & Shaw, 2003, p. 7) For most English teachers, the following factors affect pedagogical planning: the role of English in the country, the role of English in the school and its place in the curriculum, the teachers (status, training, mother tongue, experience, attitudes, and expectations), management and administration (staff, resource allocation, budgets), resources available (laboratories, projectors, computers), support personnel, the number of pupils to be taught, time available, physical environment (noise, furniture), the socio-cultural environment (topics, learners' role), the types of tests used (including national examinations), and procedures for monitoring and evaluating the language program (McDonough & Shaw, 2003, pp. 7-8). Undoubtedly, the students and the setting are two key factors for making decisions when planning teaching alongside the factors that influence SLA.

### 2.1.1 Second Language Acquisition (SLA)

In the first place, there are observable pragmatic features of a given teaching situation. These include a wide range of factors: class size, teaching-learning resources, the type and level of teachers' training, examinations. Then, the acknowledgement of the role of contextual factors has given rise to a number of studies that explores how these factors influence the behaviors and personalities of participants. According to a review made by Ian Tudor (2008), a general result is that,

The sociocultural traditions of learning to which students have been exposed exert a real influence on how they perceive the teaching-learning process, how they define their goals, and how they interact with methodology, including the relative role of teachers and students. (p. 20)

In sum, there are both, pragmatic and mental conditions that affect what students do and how they evaluate the options available to them. Therefore, the reality that a program implementation assumes in the classroom cannot be simplified as a reflection of its inner logic but can be assessed on the meaning assumed by the students and the teaching choices to be made in the light of the human and contextual factors specific to each teaching situation.

In the 1960s and 1970s students are identified as social actors, in other words, they play a social role in which they have to use the language (Tudor, 2008, p. 11). It was in 1965 when Chomsky published the book *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* that ended the behaviorist approaches and started a period in SLA in which there is an emphasis on internal factors disregarding the external ones. Krashen's monitor theory in

1985, also, exerted great influence in research and in the nature of issues treated, that is the case of explicit teaching. Yet, by 1987 McLaughlin and even Long in 1983 had already provided evidence against the monitor theory (Sanz, 2005, p. 8). Nonetheless, Krashen's theory also directed the attention of researchers towards external factors like input and interaction (Sanz, 2005, p. 8). Consequently, sociolinguistic approaches that considered a relation between language acquisition and the social context started to emerge (Sanz, 2005, p. 9). For years now, SLA has focused on pragmatics, which looks at language in context, opposite to the general attention paid to syntax and morphology (Sanz, 2005, p.11). Then, it becomes apparent that,

The objective relevance of learning contents is no guarantee in itself that effective learning will occur. The latter depends on the willing to interact meaningfully with the learning activities in place, which depend on affective and attitudinal factors as well. (Tudor, 2008, p. 11)

In sum, learners are seen as social agents and with affective needs to be catered to. It goes beyond language influences for learning a language.

Recently, there has been a renewed interest in the non-language influences that may impact the success in second language learning. Indeed, in 2005, Cristina Sanz's book *Mind and Context in Adult Second Language Acquisition* explores the relation between the external and internal factors for second language acquisition in adults. She states that it is the interaction between the internal processing mechanisms and individual differences in one hand, and external factors on the other what makes some adult language learners learn faster or go further ahead in the acquisition process. Therefore, not only external factors such as the quantity of quality of input (immersion programs, for

example) but also internal factors like aptitude or the fact that adults have finished their cognitive development entangle to affect the SLA process in adults (pp. 3-4). Over the years, there has been considerable research conducted to determine the reasons for the differences in proficiency, but contextual factors and internal variables still compete for researchers' attention.

## **2.2 THEORETICAL-CONCEPTUAL CONTEXT**

### **2.2.1 Factors Affecting SLA**

Since results on studies concerning SLA factors are difficult to interpret, reviews on the most relevant studies on factors affecting SLA are considered by topic. The first two are external factors, the remaining five are internal variables.

#### **a) Comprehensible Input**

After Krashen's monitor theory, input (i.e. instances of language) was generally accepted to help language acquisition. Nonetheless, positive evidence is still necessary since these studies call into question whether rich comprehensible input is sufficient for language acquisition. Krashen's monitor theory and its acquisition-learning hypothesis "predicted that explicit input fed only the monitor and was therefore useful only for self-correction (under very specific circumstances), not for language generation." (Sanz, 2005, p.12) According to this position, exposure to explicit input (that is grammatical explanation and correction) can result only in learned knowledge, which function as monitor, while implicit or acquired knowledge is considered true competence ready for use in comprehension and production (Sanz, 2005, pp. 8-9). However, there have been further

studies that criticized, disapproved and provided evidence against this theory, for example McLaughlin in 1987, Long in 1983, and White in 1991 (Sanz, 2005, p. 9). In spite of their arguments, the reaction to this theory is important henceforward for the attention brought to this and other related topics such as interaction and explicit teaching of grammar. In sum, as Cristina Sanz (2005) states, SLA is as complex as other human accomplishments; that is, it cannot be explained by looking at just one aspect of it, yet still, “contextual factors and internal variables still compete for the scholar’s attention with variable success.” (p. 11) Another contextual factor besides input is called social distance.

### **b) Social Distance**

The affinity learners feel towards the target language community creates a social distance that results in the amount of input gotten from it. Schumann’s acculturation model, for example, deals with the concept of acculturation as the causal variable of SLA (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 332). Schumann’s claim is that if learners acculturate they will learn, otherwise they will not. Nonetheless, there are other social variables such as the power of dominance of the target language community and affective factors as language shock and culture shock. Language shock is defined as the realization that you must seem comical to speakers of the Target Language (TL), and culture shock refers to anxiety relating to disorientation from exposure to a new culture. Though these factors have not proven yet to truly affect acquisition, they are important for second language learners. Even when Schumann’s study shows a case of failure in learning a language when acculturation did not happen, Schmidt’s shows a case in which acculturation was not enough to be a causal variable (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 333). In conclusion, there

are other variables besides acculturation that provide an impetus for learning but never for directly causing learning. Nonetheless, next factor, age variance, has proven to be one of the internal variables that directly affects only a couple of specific skills in SLA.

### **c) Age Differences**

Age differences is one of the most debated topic among linguists and educators. To date there is no agreement among researchers to the common belief that children are better language learners than adults. Indeed, The Critical Period Hypothesis states that beyond puberty it becomes difficult or impossible to learn a second language to the same degree as native speakers of that language. Nonetheless, this issue has grown in importance in light of more recent studies. In general, evidence suggests that there is a decline in abilities that is age related due to age of exposure to the target language, length of stay immersed in the target language community, and processing differences between children and adults. Age differences is certainly a great topic for research.

Most discussions about age and second language acquisition center on the question whether there is a critical period, a biologically determined period of life when language can be acquired more easily. The Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH) deals with the concepts of better learners, which is related to fast learners. Still, in most studies measuring speed of learning, adults do quite better than children. Nonetheless, as Larsen-Freeman and Long point out, these studies involve the demonstration of mastery of morphological and/or syntactic rules, reflecting speed of learning but not ultimate attainment (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 336). Moreover, another study by Snow and Hoefnagle-Hohle in 1978 about the speed of learning a language measured in tests, adults outperformed children and adolescents after three months of residence in the

Netherlands, yet children catch up with the measures after ten months (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 336). Nonetheless, more variables such as the type of tasks carried out for language learning can benefit one group more than the other. For instance, Tahta Wood and Loewenthal in 1981 found that American children's ability to replicate intonational patterns in French and Armenian diminished after the age of eight (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 336). Therefore, when the common belief states that children are better learners, it is important to define what is better or in what ability children are more successful, and for what reasons.

In general, results indicate that adults get criterion scores on second language learning tests more rapidly than children at the early stages of language acquisition. Nonetheless, the language skill involved makes a difference too. For example, the fact that the ability to learn phonology seems to atrophy faster in older learners is supported by many studies. But whereas Moyer in 1999 found a difference between the accents of near-native speakers and native speakers, Neufield in 1979 had proven that through specialized training and techniques a group of learners can pass for natives on specific limited tasks (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 337), not in real-life settings. In conclusion, accent is one aspect that most researchers agree learners can never get as native speakers of the target language.

While there is general consensus that "older individuals cannot reasonably hope to ever achieve a native accent in a second language. There is no such consensus about other areas of language" (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 337). Still, some studies, like Patkowski in 1980 show that second language learners cannot achieve complete mastery of syntax, though the study has some drawbacks that do not allow to check for those

differences. A carefully designed study is made by Johnson and Newport in 1989, they investigate learners' proficiency based on different ages of arrival in the target language country. The participants' age ranged from three to thirty-nine, and results show that syntactic knowledge is linearly related to age of arrival only up to puberty, and that postpubescent learners generally did poorly on the test. Another study by Slavoff and Johnson in 1995 examined children between the ages of seven and twelve, learning English; it was found that length of stay as opposed to age of arrival is an important variable in predicting knowledge of English syntax in children below the age of decline according to the CPH. Finally, Johnson and Newport in 1991 found out that there is a steady decrease in performance according to age of arrival, extending past puberty and with the steepest decline at ages fourteen-sixteen. Interestingly, Bialystok study in 1997 discovered that the age of starting to learn a second language does not have significant effects, and indeed it is the length of study the target language or stay in the target culture what gained more support (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 339). In sum, these studies and others strongly suggest that there is a critical period for acquisition of syntax and accent, and that learners' capabilities for acquiring the syntax of a second language decline with age. Another influential factor on second language learning is aptitude, that is also related to skills yet is not age related.

#### **d) Aptitude**

Despite the importance of aptitude, there remains a paucity of evidence in second language studies. J.B Carroll is the most notable researcher on the topic, and actually created what is later called by Skehan the "standard four component view of language aptitude" (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 345). The first component is the phonemic coding

ability, an ability to discriminate among sounds and to encode them in a manner that makes them able to be recalled later. The second component is grammatical sensitivity, which is the ability to recognize the function of the words in sentences in use. Thirdly, the inductive language learning ability refers to the “ability to infer, induce, or abduct rules or generalizations about language from samples of the language.” (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 345) Lastly, the memory and learning component refers to the ability to make and recall associations between words and phrases in a native as well as in a second language. Aptitude is an important factor in explaining differential success in second language learning.

Aptitude is as important, or even more important than other variables. Skehan (as cited in Gass & Selinker, 2009) points out that aptitude is of greater importance than cognitive style or personality. In addition, there are some studies from England that find a great correlation between second language aptitude and social class and parental education. They mixed in with vocabulary development in a factor termed “family background”. It is found that “family background” correlates not only with second language aptitude but also with foreign language achievement (p. 348). For instance, children from more privileged classes get higher grades in class and can use the language skills abroad, and while this relationship does not account for aptitude, it certainly sheds light on the non-inherent capabilities that affect language learning. In fact, McLaughlin suggests that “prior language-learning experience has a positive effect on language learning.” (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 349) It is assumed then that aptitude develops; nevertheless, a study by Harley and Hart in 1997 does not find support for aptitude development. Their study compared two groups of students in grade 11, one that started

immersion French experience in grade 7 and another one in grade 1. The early immersion experience group does not perform better than the other one (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 349). In sum, language-learning experience did not affect aptitude and therefore, the claim cannot be made that aptitude develops as a function of language-learning experience. After aptitude, motivation is the strongest factor addressed to success in second language learning.

### **e) Motivation**

A great number of studies have provided statistical evidence that indicates that motivation is a predictor of language-learning success (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 349). And though the exact nature of motivation is not clear, it is certainly related to drive. According to Gardner, "motivation involves four aspects, a goal, effortful behavior, a desire to attain the goal, and favorable attitudes toward the activity in question;" (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 350) yet, because he relied on self-reports answers in questionnaires, the data gotten lacked justification. Moreover, Gardner's work has been carried out exclusively in Canada, so that results can be local rather than global. Nonetheless, Gardner's view of integrative motivation (one that comes from the desire to integrate the TL community) and of instrumental motivation (one that arises from the rewards that may come from learning) are specifications that led to a better understanding of motivation in learners. Other studies have found that instrumental motivation accounts more for learner success than integrative motivation does. Therefore, motivation is seen as a strong predictor of SLA success, yet the kind of motivation also depends on the culture immersed in.

Certainly, motivation varies among cultures as well as among individuals. And motivation is not enough for achieving the goal since there are habitual behaviors that may be divorced from the attitudes important to pursue the goal. For students to get good grades, for example, it takes to carry out various tasks over the entire school year. And success in these learning experiences can influence motivation since expectations are supposed to grow due to further learning. Thus, values and prospects change over the school year due to the learning experiences, either positively or negatively (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 355). If learners realize that successful performance leads them to their goals (be it good grades or learning the language), then hopes are likely to rise. However, if tasks are not challenging enough, there is no motivational arousal, or if students get always good grades, they do not see the tasks challenging. In sum success can breed confidence, which results in greater success, or can breed overconfidence, which sets one up for all and can make motivation decrease. Another key issue near motivation is anxiety.

#### **f) Anxiety**

Anxiety is placed between motivation and personality. Researchers still discuss if anxiety can be placed under one of these two categories. On one hand, motivation without hope leads to anxiety, yet little anxiety is needed to get motivated; on the other hand, anxiety seems to be related to personality traits (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 357). A study of anxiety by Bailey in 1983 on specifically competitiveness and anxiety in adult language learning shows that anxiety depends on the situation in which learners find themselves. For instance, it is useful to divide anxiety into social anxiety and test anxiety. Social anxiety is about constructing and/or maintain a favorable impression upon others, which

may inhibit behavior and bring about disengagement, avoidance of social communications and withholding of communication, among others. Other less overtly social factors like fear of not doing well in tests may intervene as well in achieving the goal. Indeed, Hoffman in 1986 noted that anxiety can affect concentration on the meaningful use of language and make students focus on the physical features of words like acoustic properties, phonetic similarities, and order of presentation (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 358). Therefore, anxiety is needed in small amounts since too much anxiety will certainly have negative implications for second language learning. Also related to motivation, there is the locus of control.

#### **g) Locus of Control**

Locus of control is defined as how individuals attribute causes to events that affect them, which certainly affects motivation. If a learner feels responsible for an event, the locus of control is internal; if they feel that an event simply happened, the locus of control is external. Skehan in 1989 reported that general research has spotted that more than the locus, the stability component is more likely to lead a learner to make subjective predictions about future success or failure. Thus, if the cause is stable (affect things in the same way) or random (things are not affected consistently), this affects motivation. This is also related to the personality traits everyone has (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 358).

#### **h) Personality**

Research on personality has a long tradition since Aristotle; its types have been largely discussed by Jung and Myers-Briggs studies in the 1950s and 1960s. There are theories that claim that specific personality traits are important predictors of success in

second language learning. These factors are introversion versus extroversion, field-independence and risk-taking. Nonetheless, there may be other personality types that may influence second language learning; fact which also depends on the view of language learning, and the view of validity of self-reports.

In considering personality types, there have been several studies. Guiora, Brannon, and Dull in 1972 referred to empathy as a positive factor in second language learning (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 360). Empathy is considered essential for understanding, yet there are some researchers, as Gadamer, who rejected this idea. He believes more in the need of changing worlds to reach understanding of a new language and culture, more than in feeling empathy, since as he says, people understand their dictators even with no feeling of empathy at all. (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 360). Nonetheless, most studies have focused on personality types that match somehow with success in second language learning. For which Larsen-Freeman and Long in 1991 repeat Schumann's view that "it is necessary to look more closely at how personality affects an individual in specific situations, rather than looking for a global influence." (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 360) Based on this, it can only be said that a reasonable hypothesis is that certain personality factors can affect certain facets of second language learning so that these can be enhanced and others hampered.

Extroversion is commonly believed to be one of those factors that may enhance second language learning. Nevertheless, the findings are not that clear-cut. Skehan in 1989 cited studies from British undergraduates with a correlation of 0.25 between introversion and academic success (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 360). On the other hand, it is expected that extroverts engage in more social activities in the target language and

thus learning the target language better. Hence, both introversion and extroversion can lead to success, though in different ways. Extroversion may be advantageous in certain tasks and methods of language teaching, while introversion is valuable for others.

It is also suggested that risk-seeking people have more chances to succeed in second language learning. Risk is defined by Beebe as “a situation in which an individual has to make a decision involving choice between alternatives of different desirability; the outcome of the choice is uncertain; there is a possibility of failure.” (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 361) Beebe’s study in 1983 showed that risk taking depends on a number of factors, that learners’ willingness to take risks depends on the situation, not only on if they are risk-seekers or not. Ely in 1986 find a correlation between risk-taking tendencies and classroom participation, not likewise with actual success. This reinforces the idea that personality traits affect language learning in a more localized way, for specific tasks more than on general long-term success. Moreover, the definition of risk-taking is dependent upon the background of general behavior of a specific culture (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 361). In 1982, Kahneman, Slovic, and Tversky find that it all depends on the outcome of the task, if this is contemplated as a loss or as a gain. If the result of an activity can bring about a loss, the learners can take more risks than if the outcome is a gain. If people are threatened with a loss, they are more willing to undertake risky actions that can ameliorate their losses if they succeed. Nonetheless, the sense of loss or gain is subjective to each person. (Gass & Selinker, 2009, pp. 361-362). Therefore, it can be said that not only the personality trait of risk-taking but also the framing each individual gives to the situation is important in second language learning.

Field independence is another personality trait that does not necessarily cause success in second language learning, though it is supposed to affect cognition, emotion, and behavior. Yet, the studies carried out on this concept are quite weak since as linguists say, the ability of paying attention to the context or not depends on the task carried out. The tests used mostly measured intelligence, as Skehan showed in 1989, and the use of incorrect strategies or not knowing how to use the strategy in experiments was also a related variant in research, as in Chapelle and Green in 1992. Even when field-dependent learners pay attention to the context, and field-independent ones ignore confusing information in the context, the fact is that there is no causality between this personality trait and success in second language learning (Gass & Selinker, 2009, pp. 362-364). Therefore, some field-dependent students may profit from paying attention to the context in certain situations, and field-independents' self-reliance may be advantageous for other tasks. Then, learning strategies come into play.

### **i) Learning Strategies**

Learning strategies is defined by Cohen as "those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language." (Gass & Selinker, 2009, pp. 364-365) Learning strategies involve mental actions yet physical action too. These are categorized by many authors like O'Malley and Chamot in 1990, while they tried to establish a foundation for placing research on learning strategies in a cognitive context. Nonetheless, the concepts and categories created confusion in the field and raised many questions about the validity of the methods used in research since most of them were self-reports

and observations of the use of strategies (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 366). Moreover, the general idea of researchers to find out what successful learners do to teach poor learners is just a simplistic dichotomy. Investigators like Cohen in 1998, Lightbown and Spada in 1999, and McDonough in 1999 show that it is more likely that language learners have their own “style preferences” and “strategy preferences” (Gass & Selinker, 2009, p. 367). The emphasis, then, has to be on self- discovery of the strategies that work for each learner in specific tasks and contexts, since teaching learning strategies may or may not lead to successful learning.

This line of research has made researchers aware that not only external factors but also factors of a non-linguistic nature, internal, may exert a significant influence on how learners -experience the learning process, and therefore, how they are likely to react to a language program. Learners’ diversity in schools demands a more learner-centered approach according to their local realities. Both teachers’ awareness of their students’ characteristics and teachers’ material development skills are essential for quality teaching in any specific setting. Therefore, it is the teacher who needs to explore their local realities in terms of the factors that affect students’ second language acquisition and to adapt existing methodologies and materials around these realities. Undoubtedly, this requires knowledge of their students, of the principles for adapting materials, of the program’s approach, and of types of tasks appropriate to the learning objectives to be pursued.

### **2.2.2 Material Development**

This second part examines the current status of material development and attitudes towards teaching-learning materials. According to the review carried out by Birckbichler (2001), opinions range from dissatisfaction to optimism. In the 80s, on one hand, researchers like Walz, Warriner-Burke and Magnan were dissatisfied with the textbooks since they relied on traditional approaches, and covered too much content too rapidly; on the other hand, Bragger and Omaggio praised the change and inclusion of speaking activities, yet not of reading and listening ones (p. 294). Others, like Higgs and Clifford, recognized the advantages of structured learning experiences in early stages of language learning, so that textbooks and other teaching-learning material may have positive benefits since the classroom can progress in an orderly fashion from more structured learning experiences to more open-ended and realistic situations (Birckbichler, 2001, p. 295). Therefore, considering both sides of the coin seems fundamental to prepare students for linguistically and culturally authentic situations.

Culture is another factor to be considered in any teaching-learning materials. Cultural and global awareness is essential for a complete understanding of the target cultures, and there are many ways to develop this in materials. It was usually relegated to language notes and isolated cultural facts (Birckbichler, 2001, p. 297). Even so, both language and culture have now to be presented in authentic situations in spite of the methodological preferences and attitudes towards materials.

Another trend in material development is linked to the concepts of language learning and language acquisition, for which Krashen's differentiation between learning and acquisition have influenced it. Learning refers to the conscious process whereby the

individual learns the rules of a language and consciously applies them, sometimes even over-monitoring themselves; while acquisition is a more unconscious process, similar to acquiring the first language, where true fluency is an outcome (Birckbichler, 2001, p. 298). Therefore, a distinction has to be made between these two, though, as Birckbichler (2001) proposes, “a combination of highly structured activities and those that resemble actual experiences that might occur in the foreign culture would enhance the students’ language proficiency and communicative potential.” (pp. 298-299) The inclusion of more learning experiences to develop acquisition necessarily requires more types of exposure to the target language and culture. If so, textbooks and other teaching-learning material are among the most important sources of authentic language and cultural information.

On the other hand, textbook or any other material selection is not always easy. These are usually chosen by its communicative orientation or approach, while others rely on personal or methodological preferences. Even so, what is certain is that no one-true way of teaching works, as Strasheim found out in 1987 based on teachers’ chronicles for 50 years (as cited in Birckbichler, 2001, p. 299). Anyways, as cited in Birckbichler’s work (2001), Omaggio suggests that “teachers need to examine the degree to which certain methods help develop the students’ language proficiency,” (p. 299) and as Macian also suggests, “this evaluation procedure examines textbooks for the presence of characteristics that are linked to learning” (p. 299) to decide if they fit to their situation. Therefore, procedures for material selection or adaptation have to be an objective process based not on one-true ways of teaching but on principles of second language acquisition, the program’s approach, and the teachers’ context.

Jocelyn Howard and Jae Major (2015) wrote about the reasons why English teachers decide to construct their own teaching-learning materials despite the availability of published materials. They claim that the “one size fits all” approach has to be avoided (p. 102). Some of the reasons they note are that they cater to the following needs: contextualization, individual needs, personalization, and timeliness or updated materials (pp. 100-102). Nevertheless, designing material can have its own disadvantages, such as organization and coherence, quality issues due to lack of understanding and experience of the teacher, and time constraints (pp. 102-103). Besides these reasons, there are also factors to be considered if teachers decide to build their own materials.

Howard and Major (2015) refer to key six factors to consider when designing materials. First and most important is the learners. “If the point of teacher-created materials is relevance, interest, motivation, and meeting specific individual needs, then clearly teachers must ensure they know their learners well.” (p. 103) Secondly, the context and the curriculum are variables that significantly impact on the decision teachers make about teaching materials since the goals and objectives of the curriculum need to be kept close (p. 103). A third factor is the resources and facilities available at the time of designing and implementing the material. Certainly, “teachers must be realistic about what they can achieve in terms of materials design and production within the limitations of available resources and facilities” (p. 103). Resources such as Internet access, photocopier, language laboratories, digital camera, voice-recorders, among others necessarily impact on decisions in material design (p. 103). Fourth, the personal confidence and competence of the teacher, their perceived creativity or skills, or their teaching experience and the overall understanding of the principles of material design are

important factors as well (p. 103). In fact, most teachers undertake materials design not from scratch, but they add, leave out, replace or adapt, or change the order of activities in published materials (p. 104). When doing this, compliance with the copyright of materials need to be kept in mind, so that teachers, in order to avoid trouble, can create their own worksheets by mixing, for instance, a picture or exercise from a commercial text alongside teacher-created activities (p. 104). And lastly, time is an aspect that needs to be managed appropriately. Then, teachers are advised to share materials with other teachers, work in teams and take turns for designing material, and organize a storage of available materials (p. 104). In conclusion, learners, curriculum, resources and facilities, teachers' characteristics, copyrights, and time are factors that affect how teachers design their teaching-learning materials.

Finally, Howard and Major (2015) settle this topic by giving guidelines to consider when designing English teaching materials. These are:

- English language materials need to be contextualized to the experiences, realities, and first languages of the learners (p. 104).
- Materials should stimulate interaction and be generative in terms of language, considering not only the norms for interaction, but also opportunities to generate new language (p. 105).
- English language teaching materials should encourage learners to develop learning skills and strategies, exploring their own learning styles and practicing strategies (p. 105).
- English language teaching materials should allow for a focus on form as well as function in order to develop active and independent learning (pp. 105-106).

- English language teaching materials should offer opportunities for integrated language use instead of focusing on a single skill in an unnatural manner (p. 106).
- English language teaching materials should be authentic in terms of the texts and of the tasks as well (p. 106).
- English language teaching materials should link to each other to develop a progression of skills, understanding, and language items for achieving coherence and connection among activities (p. 106).
- English language teaching materials should be attractive in terms of their physical appearance (density of text on the page, the type size, and the cohesiveness and consistency of the layout), user-friendliness (usability, enough space), durability, and ability to be reproduced (color-copying facilities, e.g.) (pp. 106-107).
- English language teaching materials should have appropriate instructions, concise and efficient (p. 107).
- English language teaching materials should be flexible, allowing teachers and students to make choices of content and output activities (p. 107).

The guidelines above have to be considered when developing teaching-learning materials.

Teaching-learning materials is one of the very crucial elements for teaching a language through activities. According to Brown (1995) “curriculum developers are in an excellent position to begin materials development.” (p. 139) And if so, these have to be described and organized, so that teachers can use them with no confusion or much preparation time. Therefore, curriculum developers need to have a clear understanding of the program’s theoretical positions like approaches and syllabuses; as well as its more

practical orientations, i.e. techniques and exercises (p. 139). Anyway, English teachers can use the strategies for developing materials for their own setting by means of material development strategies: adopting, adapting, and developing materials from scratch, for which a framework for their design is useful.

The framework for material design considers the program's overall orientation or approach, the syllabus or teaching activities, techniques, and exercises. The approach refers to the theoretical motivation underlying the curriculum and defines what the students need to learn based on these assumptions (Brown, 1995, p. 140). According to Brown, the development of the syllabus includes "examining instructional objectives, arranging them in terms of priorities, and then determining what kinds of techniques and exercises are required in order to attain those objectives." (p. 141) Its degree of detail depends on the teachers' training on the approach for the program, and the use of materials provided may be intervened by the teacher in case the materials are inadequate or irrelevant for their classroom (pp. 142-143). Then, teachers can make use of their expertise to construct materials based on the type of program, sequence of activities, and target students.

In many cases, especially when a program is new or teachers are not familiar with the approach, the curriculum developers design a blueprint of materials. This materials' blueprint represents the kind of approach proposed and the information obtained from the needs analysis or diagnosis. The blueprint can be "part of the teachers' manual that can be used to describe the program and its curriculum or to orient new teachers to the program in question" (Brown, 1995, p. 146). Thus, besides supporting teachers in their

teaching endeavor, the blueprint also includes all factors that potentially can influence the program implementation. According to Brown (1995),

Situation factors might include implications from the broader political, social, and educational contexts in which the program will operate, as well as the particular circumstances relating to the kind of institution or setting in which the curriculum will be carried out. Other important factors might include the characteristics of the teachers, learners, and administrators; the resources found in the particular situation; and, of course, the language needs of the students. (p. 147)

The idea of presenting a teachers' guide or material blueprint is to channel the teachers' different points of view about the approach, syllabus, techniques and exercises into a more flexible yet coherent implementation of the curriculum since,

A formalized lock-step curriculum complete with lesson plans that detail every minute of classroom time may be highly cogent in the sense of being carefully sequenced, integrated, and logical. Unfortunately, such as curriculum may be viewed as stifling by the teachers, and if curriculum is viewed as a finished product, it may become difficult to revise and change it (even in small ways). This in turn may mean that the curriculum will eventually become inflexible and unable to meet changes in students' needs or modifications in program conditions. On the other hand, a teacher who plans his or her classroom activities on the spur of the moment, while maximally positioned to be flexible and respond to needs for change, may be presenting instruction that lacks any sense of sequencing, integration, and logic. (Brown, 1995, p. 153)

James Dean Brown (1995) concludes that the best position is between the two extremes of implementing the curriculum. In sum, the blueprint of materials is helpful depending on its design and its implementation possibilities made by the teacher.

Nonetheless, whether there is already-made teaching-learning material available, a course-book, a complete teachers' guide, or a materials' blueprint, material development has to consider several factors such as the students and the resources available for realistically implement a language program in a specific context. Implementing a language program, therefore, has to consider the factors and guidelines on material development for effectively adopting and adapting a language program and the materials. Indeed, there are some principles for material development that are related to SLA in order to design them and are also grounded on current theories so that their effectiveness is greater.

#### **a) Principles for Material Development**

Since the essence of an ecological perspective on language teaching is precisely to understand situations in their own terms and in the light of the dynamics which operate within each situation, teachers are supposed to develop materials that respond to this. But where can teachers look for guiding principles for helping approach the many tasks they have? The technological response is "to look outside of the specifics of each situation for general principles which can then be used to guide decision-making within these situations." (Tudor, 2008, p. 26) For material development, there is this principled framework that respond to SLA theories. Therefore, material development is considered not only a field of study but also a practical undertaking. As a field of study, the following

investigations have shed light on the experiences language teachers have had developing materials for their students. Finally, the syllabus or language program specifies the way in which the content has to be organized and broken down into a set of teachable and learnable units, “and will include consideration of pacing, sequencing, and grading of items, methods of presentation and practice, and so on” (McDonough & Shaw, 2003, p. 13) depending on its type. Therefore, developing materials from the ecological perspective necessarily includes the setting, the SLA theories and principles for material design, and the type of syllabus followed.

Language learning materials are driven not only by the afore-mentioned factors but also for the underpinnings of the mandated program. Brian Tomlinson finds that many experienced material developers create their material based only on their intuition of what “works” and follow the program’s objectives (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 81). In the book *Principles for Effective Material Development*, Tomlinson (2010) makes clear that materials do not have to be “random recreations from repertoire nor crafty clones of previously successful materials.” (p. 82) Instead, these have to follow the theories of language acquisition and development, principles of teaching, our current knowledge of how the target language is used, and the results of systematic observation and evaluation of materials in use (p. 82). In sum, not only factors, but also SLA principles, knowledge, observation and evaluation of materials are the key.

There are many authors articulating material development to learning principles. For example, Flores in 1995, Penaflores in 1995, Richards in 1995, Maley in 1995 as well, and Hall in the same year (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 82). Hall insists on the question “how do we think people learn languages?” and focuses on important aspects to be considered

when planning. These are the needs to communicate: for long-term goals, for authenticity, for student-centeredness. To these, Tomlinson adds that materials should stimulate interaction (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 82). Brian Tomlinson in 1998 and based on his vast research on the topic made up a list of principles for material development, from which six of them, he considers, ought to drive material development. Each principle of this framework for material development is derived from principles of language acquisition, and need to be used to develop criteria for the development and the evaluation of materials in conjunction (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 86). Besides, Tomlinson rephrases himself by stating that the criteria in each framework has to combine universal and local criteria derived from what is known about the learners, their teachers, and their context of learning (Tomlinson, 2010, pp. 86-87). Brian Tomlinson asks teachers to consider not only the principles for material development but also their learners and the setting for applying these principles in a more contextualized way.

The first principle of material development derives from the principle of language acquisition No. 1: A prerequisite for language acquisition is that the learners are exposed to a rich, meaningful, and comprehensible input of language in use. That implies a variety of ways for different purposes and a lot of practice or experience in order to acquire the ability to use the language effectively. Then, Tomlinson recommends making sure that the materials contain plentiful spoken and written texts that provide this experience of meaningfulness to the learners. Hand in hand, the vocabulary used in these has to represent how it is used in typical situations (Tomlinson, 2010, pp. 87-88). Some control on attention on a specific feature might be of good if learners use it afterwards authentically. Besides, language input has to be contextualized in relation to its context

of use, while sufficient samples of language in authentic use have to provide natural recycling of language items and features that can be useful for the learners to acquire (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 88). In this way, varied and meaningful input is given to students.

The principle of language acquisition No. 2. says: “In order for the learners to maximize their exposure to language in use, they need to be engaged both affectively and cognitively in the language experience.” (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 89) It is by thinking and feeling that language is effectively learned. It is by means of higher-level skills that language learners (LL) connect, predict, interpret, and evaluate. Additionally, feeling positive emotions during the learning experience is better than negative emotions, being the latter better than no emotion at all. Therefore, when developing material teachers should “prioritize the potential for engagement” both affectively and cognitively, making them feel and think before, during and after the text in the material to respond personally (p. 83).

The third principle of language acquisition states that “learners who achieve positive affect are much more likely to achieve communicative competence than those who do not” (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 89). Learners need to be positive before learning and feel they are achieving something worthwhile. Emotional Involvement such as laughing, getting angry, feeling empathy, etc. seem valuable for effective language acquisition. For this, the texts and tasks need to be as interesting, relevant, and enjoyable as possible; the challenges during tasks have to be achievable in order to raise learners’ self-esteem. Finally, material has to be designed to stimulate emotive responses through the use of music, song, literature, art, and so on, through making use of controversial and

provocative texts, through personalization, and through inviting learners to articulate their feelings about a text before asking them to analyze it (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 90).

The next principle is that language learners can make use and benefit from using the mental resources that they commonly used when acquiring their native language. Tomlinson explains that learners can gain from the mental representations of the target language they experience and aim to produce. Some of these are: seeing pictures in their mind, inner speech (better in advance students), emotional responses, connections with their own lives, evaluations, predictions, and personal interpretation. Consequently, it develops “the ability to use the language effectively in a variety of situations for a variety of uses, and the self-esteem that derives from performing in the L2 in ways as complex as they typically do in the L1.” (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 91) Inner voice and visual imaging are the most studied mental resources, for example visual imaging to make inferences about what is not explicitly stated, to develop reading and understanding abilities, in retention and recall, and in preparation of what you want to say or write about. These two mental resources – inner voice and mental imagining can be used ideally together, and also immersed in affective emotions and motor imagery (as it happens with the L1) (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 92). From this principle, it is suggested as criteria to make use of activities that encourage learners to visualize and/or use inner speech before, during and after experiencing a text or when using the target language themselves. Finally, students reflect on their mental activity during a task in order to start introducing other mental resources in a similar task (Tomlinson, 2010, pp. 92-93).

“Language learners can benefit from noticing salient features of the input” (p. 93) recites the fifth principle selected by Brian Tomlinson (2010) to drive material

development. It has been found out that self-awareness of the use of a feature in the target language makes more likely to achieve readiness for its acquisition.

Such noticing is most salient when a learner has been engaged in a text affectively and cognitively and then returns to it to investigate its language use. This is likely to lead to the learner paying more attention to similar uses of that item feature in subsequent inputs and to increase its potential for eventual acquisition. (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 93)

Therefore, material development criteria based on this principle focus on an experiential approach; first without paying attention to any particular feature; later, by revisiting and reflecting on the experience, paying conscious attention to its features in order to achieve explicit learning (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 93). Moreover, helping the learner to make discoveries, especially in collaboration, instead of drawing their attention to a particular form is much powerful (p. 93).

Last principle is about the opportunities to use language to try to achieve communicative purposes. This is so that learners' hypotheses about the target language use get feedback. Furthermore, it is through interaction that they push one another to clarify and elaborate as well as to elicit meaningful and comprehensible input. Therefore, materials ought to provide many opportunities to produce language to achieve the intended outcomes, and output activities have to be designed to elicit language use rather than specific features' use. Moreover, output activities help learners to develop their ability to communicate fluently, accurately, appropriately, and effectively and are fully contextualized with an authentic stimulus. Finally, opportunities for feedback need to be

embedded in the output activities and provided to the learners at their end (Tomlinson, 2010, p. 94).

Tomlinson's framework for material development is meant to be flexible; hence, it is to be a proposal for principled approaches to the development of English Language Teaching (ELT) materials. Brian Tomlinson believes that "one of the things material writers need is an inventory of flexible frameworks to help them develop effective materials for target learners in principled and coherent ways" (p. 86). Therefore, these principles can be used in different ways depending on the material developer's purpose.

Moreover, there are some teaching principles of language teaching chosen by Brian Tomlinson (2010) that also lead to proposals or principled criteria for material development. These are:

1. "the content and the methodology of the teaching should be consistent with the objectives of the course and should meet the needs and wants of the learners," (p. 95)
2. "the teaching should be designed to help learners to achieve language development and not just language acquisition," (p. 95)
3. "the teaching should be designed so as to provide the learners with learning opportunities that will help them to develop educationally in the sense that they become more mature, more critically astute, more creative, more constructive, more collaborative, more capable, and more confident as a result from the course," (p. 96)

4. and “the teacher needs to be able to personalize and localize the materials and to relate them in different ways to the needs, wants, and learning style preferences of individual learners.” (pp. 96-97)

From each of the teaching principles above, the following ones for language material development are created.

The following criteria is derived from the principles of language teaching stated previously. From number one, it can be said that the materials English learners are exposed have to be used in ways that represent or replicate realities of use in typical discourse. That is why, according to Tomlinson (2010) materials need to be preferably authentic, and that any explicit exemplifications be corroborated through corpus data; the materials have to be written so that teachers can make use of them as a resource and not have to follow them as a script (built-in flexibility) “to make principled decisions about texts, tasks, learning points, approaches, and routes in relation to learner needs and wants.” (p. 95)

From the second principle about learning vs. acquisition, teachers are advised not to restrict their objectives to the basic language competence but to use the language accurately, fluently, appropriately, and effectively in a great number of situations and purposes. This seems to affect positively the learners’ self-esteem, their communicative competence, and prepares them for real language use; therefore, “the activities should, from the earliest levels onward, involve and encourage the use of such high-level skills as imaging, using inner speech, making connections, predicting, interpreting, evaluating, and applying,” (p. 96) and finally the teacher gives constructive feedback.

From the third principle, materials should be cross-curricular relating to other subject areas, should include some element of content-based teaching and develop skills that can be transferred to these subject areas.

And from the last teaching principle it is derived that “materials should provide the teacher with ideas (and maybe even banks of materials) for localizing and personalizing generic activities.” (p. 97) Moreover, materials are designed to help the teacher to suggest ways for students making choices and work at their own level and speed (p. 97).

The consideration of other principles of language learning, as well as language-teaching realities should be done. According to Tomlinson (2010),

The ability to cater to variations in class size, course duration, course intensity, lesson duration, teacher experience, teacher skills, teacher personality, teacher communicative competence, learner access to the target language in use and learner motivation should obviously be a consideration when designing principled language-learning material. (p. 97)

Nonetheless, the design of materials is another task that English teachers need to cope with appropriately in order to implement a program in an effective way. Therefore, adapting classroom materials is a necessary step when working with specific populations. In *Developing Materials for Language Teaching* (2003), Carlos Islam and Chris Mares claim that teachers adapt the materials either consciously or unconsciously, and thus propose finding the reasons for adaptation and using adequate techniques. There are many reasons for a teacher to adapt accessed teaching material. The most common reasons are to make this material “as accessible and useful as possible” (Islam and

Mares, 2003, p. 86). Yet, effective adaptation is a complex matter. According to Islam and Mares (2003), it is about achieving congruency among several related variables (p. 87). Variables that certainly affect the decisions about the material to be developed.

Brian Tomlinson (2003) in *Developing Principled Frameworks for Material Development* proposes that what used to be an *ad hoc*, intuitive, and spontaneous process when adapting materials, now it follows a principled framework that facilitates coherence and consistency between the instructional materials and the constraints of the syllabus (p. 107). He claims that material development should be “10 per cent inspiration and 90 per cent perspiration” (p. 108). Most writers do a needs analysis to start with, some others start by articulating their principles. Nunan in 1988 had already created his list, from which Penaflores in 1995 reports on.

According to Penaflores, materials need to be clearly linked to the curriculum, be authentic in terms of text and task, stimulate interaction, allow learners to focus on formal aspects of the language, encourage learners to develop learning skills and skills in learning, and encourage learners to apply their developing skills outside the classroom (Tomlinson, 2003, p. 109). Hence, Brian Tomlinson claims that the activities to be developed should match with the learners’ needs and wants while, at the same time, be based on principles of language learning. Also, the framework should be developed to be flexible and coherent. (p. 126). Tomlinson (2003) adds that the best way to achieve this is “to consider both the target context of use for the materials and the principles and experience of the writers, and then to develop a flexible framework to guide the development of the units.” (p. 126) Key aspects when developing materials are

recognizing that learners are the focus and having the teaching and learning principles in mind.

### **b) Material Adaptation**

Several attempts are made to create a single list of reasons for adaptation. That is the case of McDonough and Shaw, Cunningsworth, and Candlin and Breen towards already published materials. For instance, McDonough and Shaw's list is a representation of the belief that a communicative approach in printed books was unsystematic, so some of its components show their views. For example, not enough practice of grammar, too easy comprehension questions, inauthentic listening passages, not enough guidance in pronunciation, subject matter inappropriate for learners of this age and intellectual level, amount of material too great/little to be covered, too little variety in activities, too formal dialogues, among others (Islam and Mares, 2003, p. 87). Cunningsworth has some other components such as the dynamics of the classroom, the personalities involved, the constraints imposed by the syllabuses, the availability of resources, the expectations and motivations of the learners (Islam and Mares, 2003, p. 88). Finally, Candlin and Breen focus on materials for communicative language learning, and their concerns include opportunities for negotiation between the learner and the text, interpersonal or social negotiation, communicative performance tasks, and metacognitive opportunities, among others (Islam and Mares, 2003, p. 88). Therefore, no definite list is ever created since they respond to the variables that play a role in each teachers' context.

A key aspect of adaptation is having clear objectives. As quoted in Islam and Mares (2003), McDonough and Shaw state that, “clear adaptation objective(s) for the materials or knowing what ‘works’ for your class will help guide your choice of adaptation techniques(s) as well as help decide the appropriate content or language choice.” (p. 87) Therefore, to get greater appropriacy of materials, McDonough and Shaw stated four purposes of adaptation: to personalize, to individualize, to localize, and to modernize (p. 87). To which Islam and Mares (2003) add: to add real choice, to cater for all sensory learner styles, to provide for more learner autonomy, to encourage higher-level cognitive skills, to make the language input more accessible, and to make the language input more engaging by changing the nature of the task or changing the form of input (pp. 89-90). Clearly, these suggestions when adapting material respond necessarily from the main objectives of the adaptation, the reasons for adapting material.

There are also techniques for adapting materials. These techniques are used when closing the gap, incongruity between the published materials and the needs and objectives of the classroom. The practicalities of adapting materials need to be addressed by the teachers by using the following techniques: adding (extending or expanding), deleting (subtracting and abridging), simplifying, reordering, and replacing material (Islam and Mares, 2003, p. 91). According to Islam and Mares (2003), adding refers to supplementing the existing material and providing more material by extending more of the same type of material, or by adding something different to the materials (expanding) (p. 91). Another technique is deleting quantitatively (subtracting items), or qualitatively (abridging activities) (p. 91). The authors continue with simplifying. Here, the teacher tries to reword a text to make it more accessible yet authentic, without distorting language, or

tries to simplify an activity. Then reordering, the teacher reorders the activities to make more pedagogical sense. And finally, when replacing material, the teacher may use an activity better than the ones provided or already gotten in the printed material depending on the goals of the class (Islam and Mares, 2003, p. 92). Then, the techniques for adapting already-made material to the class are worth-practicing. Given the fact that worksheets is one of the most common teaching-learning materials, the following section presents some considerations for designing them.

### **c) Worksheets Design**

Ian McGrath (2002) considers worksheets as a category of handout that helps facilitate learning through activities. These usually come from a copied page from a book, cut-and-pasted exercises from different sources, or teacher-produced exercises (p. 92). And when teachers think of creating their own, there are a list of aspects to be concerned with. These aspects have to do with the aim of the lesson (raising awareness or practice), the focus (accuracy or fluency), the pedagogic purpose (practice or testing), differentiation and motivation, layout, and evaluation. All these general issues need to be addressed by teachers when devising their own worksheets.

While most exercises in worksheets deal with practice, there is another motivation teachers can cater to, that is, raising awareness of a systematic feature of the language, rules, or variation of rules. This distinction sometimes is related to the inductive and the deductive teaching of grammar, in which the first students are asked to discover the rule from samples, while in the latter students are given the rule and then practice applying it

(McGrath, 2002, p. 93). McGrath (2002) also adds that though sometimes deductive teaching is the norm, teachers can initiate students onto other forms through stages, yet paying attention if students are capable of according to their capacity (p. 93). Therefore, materials need piloting and revision for leveling its difficulty. And there is a consideration for the students that have little opportunity for daily exposure to the target language: be cautious when carrying on raising awareness activities to production activities (McGrath, 2002, p. 94). In sum, raising awareness activities, yet thought to be better under a deductive approach, need to be handled with caution since not all students are the same nor is their exposition to English.

Another issue in worksheet development is the relationship between the format of the exercises and the purposes they aim at. If a worksheet's purpose is individual work and self-checking, then its format requires students to respond to what is given instead of producing language, for example (McGrath, 2002, p. 94). What really matters is that the format goes in accordance with the objective. Then, if the objective is accuracy, exercises such as matching, selecting, information-gap activities or transformation exercises do their work, but if the focus is on fluency, other types of activities are necessary since "worksheets which do not necessitate language production or which closely control what students produce will have at best an indirect effect on their ability to produce language fluently in less controlled situations." (McGrath, 2002, p.94) In shorter words, worksheets' format have to reflect the program's objectives rather than teachers' convenience in using certain types of exercises than others.

Moreover, if the purpose of a worksheet is practice, it is different than if its purpose is testing. According to McGrath (2002), "in practice situation, we provide support,

typically in the form of examples; in testing situations, we remove that support” (p. 95). He also adds that in practice, the focus is narrower, the options are limited, and learners can consolidate their knowledge through repetition; on the contrary, when testing the focus is on different forms since what is sought is to get samples of the mastery of a range of aspects (p. 95). Thus, what is important is the objective of the program, that the worksheet matches the pedagogic purpose, either practice or testing.

Another aspect to consider when designing worksheets is the different proficiency levels within a class. It is commonly believed that success leads to success, and since worksheets are supposed to be solved (individually or in groups) without the help of the teacher, teachers need to cope with this differentiation by means of either preparing different worksheets or by including exercises graded from easy to difficult, so that both types of learners feel a sense of achievement without explicitly making a difference among them (McGrath, 2002, p. 95). Nevertheless, it is relevant to note that for older and more advanced learners, success that is easily achieved is as valued or as motivating as hard-won one (McGrath, 2002, p. 95). However, if worksheets are meant to be solved in groups, “it is advisable that the members of each group be of roughly the same proficiency level” (McGrath, 2002, p. 95), since they all need to participate the same. In sum, varied proficiency levels can be coped with through worksheets meanwhile all participate and feel they achieve success.

Finally, when designing worksheets, there are two other aspects that need to be considered for the worksheets to be effective. First, there is the layout of the worksheet. This includes not only to make it visually appealing and spacious (if students need to write their answers there) but also the clarity of instructions and the possibility of an answer

key, for instance (McGrath, 2002, p. 96). Second, there is the evaluation of the worksheet to assess its effectiveness. McGrath (2002) advises teachers to look at the time students devote to the exercises, so they can see which ones are really difficult (the ones students get stuck) or that easy (students do them rapidly), as well as to observe how engaged students are when carrying out certain tasks and even ask them for ways to improve the worksheets (p. 96). Therefore, when teachers design their worksheets they need to consider its layout and evaluate its efficiency. The teacher also needs to think further of the types of exercises to be used for learning grammar and vocabulary.

In sum, teachers' job in designing worksheets involves more than borrowing already-printed exercises. When developing worksheets in order to supplement books or even teachers' guides through additional exercises, teachers can make use of other published materials or material specially written for the target group. All in all, what teachers need to consider is the relationship between the objectives and the format, the differences among learners, the worksheet layout, and the necessity to evaluate the worksheet afterwards. And since teachers' worksheets usually include a grammar aspect or vocabulary building, the careful design of these have to contemplate the types of tasks as well as the students' level.

### **2.2.3 Tasks in ELT**

According to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages, tasks are present in all domains of life (personal, public, educational, and occupational) and its accomplishment requires the "strategic activation of specific competences in order to carry out a set of purposeful actions in a particular domain with a clearly defined goal

and a specific outcome.” (p. 157) Tasks can involve varied language activities to a greater or lesser extent, as well as a different number of steps for each task (p. 157). Furthermore, communication is an integral part of tasks; hence, interaction, production, reception, or mediation, or a combination of two or more of these happen during task completion (p. 157). Then, having a clear definition of what tasks are and embrace is crucial to put tasks into context.

Skehan in 1996 had already defined tasks. He views tasks as “an activity in which: meaning is primary; there is some sort of relationship to the real world; task completion has some priority; and assessment of task performance is in terms of its outcome.” (as cited in Ellis, 1997, p. 36) Rod Ellis then specifies this meaning in terms of its objectives, its input (verbal or non-verbal information supplied), its conditions under which the task is to be performed, the procedures needed to carry it out, and its outcomes, which take the form of products the students accomplish and the processes when performing the task (p. 38). Moreover, he claims that tasks need to be evaluated, be it before (predictive) in order to determine if the task fits the learning purposes, or after (retrospective) to determine if the tasks actually work. Skehan and Ellis have agreed in their definitions of what a task is.

Rod Ellis in 2003 had already identified a number of criteria that a language-teaching activity must satisfy in order to justify being called a task. Namely, there has to be a primary focus on meaning, the students can choose the linguistic and non-linguistic resources needed to complete it, the task has to lead to real-world processes of language use, and its success is measured by whether the intended communicative outcome is reached or not. If the outcome simply displays a grammar feature, this is not considered

a task but a contextualized grammar activity, but if the outcome is negotiation of meaning, a clear communicative outcome, it is so a task (Ellis, 2010, pp. 35-36). Based also on the Long's Interaction Hypothesis in 1996, tasks make learners engage in the effort to negotiate meaning as a result of a breakdown in communication for their attention to be directed to linguistic forms that ultimately promotes acquisition (p. 43). Therefore, tasks that elicit negotiation of meaning work best for SLA.

Nonetheless, due to the variety of labels that have evolved when discussing about language activities, it seems necessary to define the term 'approach' now that the term 'task' is clear. Antony in 1965, Richards and Rogers in 1982, and McKay in 1978 had already attempted to clarify the difference between the terms, yet they agree that "approach" encompasses theories on the nature of language and on language teaching and learning (Brown, 1995, p.2). These "preconceptions, assumptions, and theoretical underpinnings for what happens in the classroom will be lumped together here under the term 'approach'" (Brown, 1995, p. 5) and also expose ways of defining what students need to learn based on many disciplines like psychology, linguistics and education. Over the years there have been four main different approaches developed chronologically: classical, direct, audio-lingual, and lastly communicative in the 70s. This latter approach focuses on the communication of ideas that are relevant to the lives of students. This approach assumes that language teaching can make use of deductive and inductive learning depending on the particular needs of the target students (Brown, 1995, p. 6), and is organized in different types of syllabi, one of them is the task-based. In the Task-Based Approach, sequenced tasks or activities serve as the basis for the organization of the

syllabus, be it so that materials are organized around the different types of tasks. For a better understanding of this approach, a throughout definition is presented below.

### **a) Task-Based Approach**

According to Diane Larsen-Freeman (2000), task-based instruction aims to provide learners with a natural context for language use. As learners work cooperatively to complete a task, they are presented with many opportunities to interact, which is believed to facilitate language acquisition since learners have to understand one another and express their thoughts, check if they understood correctly, and ask for clarification, while at the same time listening to language that may be beyond their present ability, yet may be assimilated and used later (p. 144).

Larsen-Freeman (2000) presents some principles for the Task-Based Approach based on an example of an AOA class. These are:

- The class activities have a clear perceived purpose and a clear outcome.
- A pre-task, in which students work through a similar task to one they will later do individually, is a helpful way to have students see the logic involved in what they are being asked to do. It will also allow the language necessary to complete the task to come into play.
- The teacher breaks down into smaller steps the logical thinking process necessary to complete the task. The demand of thinking made by the activity should be just above the level which learners can meet without help.

- The teacher needs to seek ways of knowing how involved the students are in the process, so she can make adjustments in light of the learners' perceptions of relevance and their readiness to learn. Such teacher-class negotiation ensures that as many students as possible in a mixed-ability class grasp the nature of the activity.
  - The teacher does not consciously simplify their language; she uses whatever language is necessary to have the students comprehend the current step in the pre-task. Here she switched from an abbreviated *wh*-question to a yes/no question. This switch is a natural strategy that proficient speakers use when interacting with less proficient speakers inside and outside of the classroom.
  - The teacher supplies the correct target form by reformulating or recasting what the students have said.
  - The jigsaw task, where students have to listen to different parts of a total set of information they need to complete a task, gives them plenty of opportunity to engage in authentic speaking and listening, and provides opportunities to develop their comprehension and speaking skills.
  - Students should receive feedback on their level of success in completing a task. The overall focus is on meaning.
  - Students have input into the design and the way that they carry out the task. This gives them more opportunity for authentic and meaningful interaction.
- (pp. 146-148)

In the class' sample as well (Larsen-Freeman, 2000), there are three different types of tasks. The first one is an information-gap activity involving the exchange of information to complete a task (p. 148). Secondly, there is an opinion-gap activity where students give their personal preferences, feelings, or attitudes to complete a task (p. 148). And third, a reasoning-gap activity which requires students to derive some new information by inferring it from information they have been given (p. 149). Even when based on a sample class, the previous principles for developing tasks can be used no matter which type of task they choose, be it information-gap, opinion-gap, or reasoning-gap.

Along the same lines, Long and Crookes in 1993 identified three different types of task-based approaches (p. 149). The first one is procedural in which the teacher designs the tasks to work on. In the second one, since language learning is seen as a process of interaction, students and teachers decide what tasks to do. And the third one focuses on meaningful interaction while still drawing attention to the language form as needed. Nonetheless, other scholars as cited in Long and Crookes (1993) believe that,

The way to begin is to conduct a needs analysis of real-world tasks that learners are likely to need to perform. Then pedagogic tasks, which are more accessible to the students and more manageable by the teacher than real-world tasks, can be designed. (p. 149)

Yet, another approach related to real-world language use is project work.

With the project work, the language practiced in the classroom is not predetermined, but rather derives from the nature of the particular project students choose (e.g. publishing a school newspaper). The project consists of three stages, all in

which the teacher is just a counselor and consultant, not the project director. The first stage is carried out in class, students plan in collaboration with the teacher, the content and scope of the project and the specific language needs students have to carry the project out. The second stage usually takes place outside the classroom and involves gathering information and using the four basic skills (listening, reading, writing, and speaking). In the third and final stage, students review their project monitoring their work and receiving feedback from the teacher (pp. 149-150). “By encouraging students to move out of the classroom and into the world, project work helps to bridge the gap between language study and language use.” (Larsen-Freeman, 2000, p. 150) In sum, by identifying different types of tasks and project stages, teachers can vary the uniformity of tasks.

Traditionally, task-based approaches have represented a strong version of the communicative language teaching with no focus on grammar forms. Yet, current views argue for an inclusion of grammar forms, nevertheless with a balance between a focus on grammar forms and a focus on communication. Even the idea of using tasks for promoting automation of existing L2 knowledge is compatible within the Task-Based Approach. Tasks, therefore, can vary in terms of its design and grammar-teaching.

### **b) Tasks Development**

According to Rod Ellis (2010), a task can be unfocused or focused depending on whether the aim is to elicit general samples of language use or use of a specific feature, yet in both cases the primary focus is on meaning, in achieving a communicative outcome. Nonetheless, when teaching grammar, Ellis makes a distinction between interpretation

activities (input-enrichment activities, structured-input activities) and consciousness-raising tasks.

Interpretation activities aim to “teach grammar by inducing learners to process the target structure through input rather than by eliciting production.” (p. 33) One type of interpretation activity involves *input enrichment* where the targeted feature is made salient to the learner (e.g. feature bolded or underlined in written texts), while a second type of interpretation activities *structured input activities* involve processing the target feature by eliciting a response from the learner (e.g. choosing a picture that matches a conversation). A consciousness-raising activity aims at making learners understand how a grammatical feature works rather than the skill to use it, yet this is ideally done by self-discovery (Ellis, 2010, p. 33).

Two general types of tasks can be distinguished: focused and unfocused. Unfocused tasks are not designed with a specific linguistic feature in mind, whereas focused tasks are (Ellis, 2010, p. 36). As Ellis (2010) describes it, “the ideal focused task is one where the performance of the task makes the use of the target structure ‘essential’.” (p. 37) Yet, he notes that this is difficult since learners use their own communication strategies and use other features, for which the advice is to look for tasks where the target structure is useful and natural, in other words, the task has to predispose to use the target structure but does not require it (p. 37). He adds that if the structure is in the process of acquiring it, it is successfully put into practice; if not yet part of their linguistic repertoire, it cannot be expected to use it (pp. 37-38). Nonetheless, tasks need to be varied so that different parts of the language can be used at different times. Rod Ellis (2010) promotes the use of tasks for two reasons. Firstly, learners only succeed in developing full control

over their linguistic knowledge if they experience trying to use it under real operating conditions. Secondly, true interlanguage development (i.e. process of acquiring new knowledge and modify the previous one) can only take place when acquisition happens incidentally, as a product of the effort to communicate (pp. 38-39). Thus, it is by realistic interaction and negotiation of meaning that students carry on tasks. Nonetheless, focus on forms can be included in these tasks.

### **c) Grammar-Tasks Development**

For developing grammar exercises teachers need to consider the objective of grammar teaching. According to Ian McGrath (2002), grammar teaching is motivated by two objectives; namely, to transmit knowledge and to facilitate the development of skills (p. 97). That is to say that a particular grammatical component of efficient communication requires the integration of different forms of knowledge and skill, these are called formal fluency and functional fluency. On the one hand, formal fluency refers to the knowledge of how forms combine to make up structures of the language as well as the skill to combine these unhesitatingly; on the other, functional fluency involves the knowledge of the relationships between forms and meaning and the skill to choose and use an appropriate form unhesitatingly (McGrath, 2002, p. 97). In other words, not only a learner needs to know the various components of a structure, how to combine them, and the ability to put these components together quickly, but also they need to know what the structure means and when is appropriate to use it as well as the ability to use it spontaneously and appropriately. Nonetheless, McGrath (2002) claims that “grammar teaching has to relate to real-life language use, and therefore raises the issue of

contextualization.” (p. 98) Thus, contextualizing the grammar teaching for developing knowledge and skill is necessary for both types of grammar teaching.

Grammar contextualization is important in learners’ practice as well. If the aim is formal fluency, then context may not seem particularly important; however, the samples elicited here have to be realistic (i.e. potentially useful and usable). Therefore, as McGrath (2002) claims “even though the focus may be on the *underlying* form of a rule, the surface manifestations of that rule should have potential value in their own right.” (p. 98) Grammar is seen as a system to express meaning so that mixed with appropriate lexical choices allows to express meaning. Nonetheless, factors such as the age of the learners, their existing knowledge, and the predictable contexts in which they might use the target language would certainly influence the choice of contexts and exercises. (McGrath, 2002, p. 98). In sum, grammar has to be contextualized in practice as well as in teaching, so that students find it applicable in their contexts.

According to Ellis (2010), much of the SLA research has focused on the acquisition of grammar. From focused tasks derive 2 proposals: interpretation activities and consciousness-raising tasks. The first focused task, interpretation activities, aims to teach grammar by inducing the learners to process the target structure through input rather than by eliciting production of the structure, these are more exercise-like (and that is why they are called activities, not tasks) and constitute a type of comprehension activity (pp. 45-46). However, contrary to traditional comprehension activities in which the learners are asked to process a text for meaning, in this case, the students are required to process the structure for getting the meaning of the text (p. 45).

There are two sorts of interpretation activities: input-enrichment and structured-input activities. Input enrichment activities involve the design of activities in such a way that the target feature is frequent and/or salient in the vast input provided, so that the feature starts being salient in other texts. This “input flood” provides the necessary gradual exposure to impact the interlanguage, except for some structures as noted in studies (p. 45). The rationale behind input enrichment activities is that L2 acquisition happens incidentally, that is to say that learners do not have to be intentionally focused in a language structure with a view of learning it, but they need to notice it (p. 46). On the other hand, structured-input activities are comprehension-based grammar activities that go beyond simply presenting enriched input (spoken or written) containing the target structure, and by means of some instruction forcing learners to process a response (non-verbal or minimally verbal output activity), sequenced (from attention to meaning, focusing on form, function of the grammatically structure, and error identification), making some kind of personal relatedness, being aware of common errors of the feature, and finally, being provided of explicit and immediate feedback (pp. 46-47). It is input-based, rather than output-based, and even when they are as effective as production-based activities, they are worthy to keep varying task design.

The second focused task is consciousness-raising (CR) tasks. These tasks are designed to cater to explicit learning, that is at the level of understanding. “A CR task makes language itself the content by inviting learners to discover how a grammatical rule works for them.” (Ellis, 2010, p. 48) There can be an attempt to isolate the feature, to understand it, and to verbalize the rule. Indeed, students are required to talk about this feature, that is the outcome to achieve: to be able to communicate about grammar. In

order to meet this, CR tasks are devised data (authentic or contrived, oral or written, discrete sentences or continuous text, well-formed or deviant sentences, and gap or non-gap) to contain exemplars of the targeted feature and instructions requiring the learners to operate on the data in some way such as identifying the feature, judging its correctness, completing or modifying a text, sorting data into categories, and providing the rule (Ellis, 2010, pp. 48-49). Rod Ellis notices that by mixing options and different types of operations, a considerable variety of CR tasks can be designed. The rationale of CR tasks relies on two theoretical claims: explicit knowledge functions as a facilitator of implicit knowledge by helping learners to notice grammatical features in input and to notice the gap between the input and their own interlanguage. And second, learning is more significant if it involves greater depth of processing, problem-solving, self-discovered data to help study the language. Since talking about grammar is not an easy endeavor, this works better with older students who can view the language as something to study, not just doing with (as young learners), or this can be used as post-task activities to address a grammatical problem that students have presented (pp. 50-51). Undeniably, a certain level of understanding of the language is needed for CR activities to work, and if students are able to talk about it, then oral production is also practiced. Nonetheless, it is in the valuable aspects of explicit knowledge and higher-thinking skills that these CR tasks evolve.

Lastly, when teaching grammar, teachers need to bear in mind that teaching knowledge is different from teaching skill, though they combine in efficient communication. "Knowledge can be 'presented' or 'discovered'; it can also be forgotten. Skill, on the other hand, can only be acquired through practice, and once acquired is

relatively easy maintained.” (McGrath, 2002, p. 98) In shorter words, teachers can teach knowledge, but only students can learn skills through practice. Similarly, Ellis (2010) has distinguished between two forms of paying attention to form in tasks, one is preemptively, the other is reactively. “Preemptive attention to form occurs when the students (or the teacher) elect to ask questions about form, whereas reactive attention to form occurs through corrective feedback.” (p. 40) While in the first way of paying attention to form (preemptive), dealing with grammar is explicit, in the other (reactive) grammar is implicit in error correction.

Since the Task-Based Approach does not neglect attention to form, there are several ways to deal with grammar when developing tasks. Yet, another component that can be included in the Task-Based Approach is vocabulary.

#### **d) Vocabulary-Tasks**

Teachers can never teach all the words students need to know. Nevertheless, students have to be shown how to extend their word-stock systematically through their own efforts, for which word-building exercises are ideal for worksheets to be used outside of class, yet these can be used for cooperative work in class (McGrath, 2002, p. 99). Lado since 1956 has made a distinction between knowledge of form, meaning, and distribution of words. According to Lado, knowledge of form means familiarity with the word's pronunciation and spelling, the part of speech and its syntax; knowledge of its meaning refers to both, its denotation (dictionary meaning), and its connotation; and knowledge of distribution involves awareness on how a word collocates with other words and its register, among others (McGrath, 2002, p. 94). McGrath (2002) states that since a word can be looked from these different perspectives, it can help teachers to set objectives for

teaching, testing, and even inform the way they look at teaching materials (p. 99). Moreover, it is important to realize that learning vocabulary is not just learning more words but knowing more about the words already known. In conclusion, teachers can approach vocabulary building from different angles depending on the objective, time available, and students' level.

### **e) Cultural Tasks**

Another aspect to consider when designing tasks or adapting material is culture. Alan Pulverness (2003) wrote a chapter about materials for cultural awareness in Brian Tomlinson's book *Developing Materials for Language Teaching*. There is an assumption that language teaching and learning invariably involve issues of sociocultural meaning so that any approach that does not consider it so is necessarily flawed. Culture and language are inextricably intertwined. Nonetheless, as Pulverness (2003) quotes from Kramsch,

Entering into a foreign language implies a cognitive modification that has implications for the learners' identity as a social and cultural being, and suggests the need for materials which privilege the identity of the learner as an integral factor in developing the ability to function fully in cultural 'third places'. (p. 427)

Some authors call culture the fifth skill, yet Pulverness (2003) considers it the first skill since it is immersed in all the learning process, and whether teachers are aware or not, teaching materials are constantly exemplifying the cultural underpinnings of the language (p. 428). Therefore, materials need to provide the sort of cultural adjustment that is embedded in the experience of learning a foreign language more than merely providing acknowledgement of cultural identities (Pulverness, 2003, p. 427). Including culture in materials, though embedded in language, is a task that demands both that learners

possess information about cultures, and that learners respond to the ELT material in terms of their own experience, finding ways of integrating it into new structures of thought and feeling.

In order to achieve this, Alan Pulverness (2003) suggests several ways to include culture when developing materials. Firstly, he notes that a way to sensitizing students to the process of intercultural learning or a 'defamiliarization' of their own culture is through literary texts, since they provide opportunities for students to observe the difference in the 'other' culture and so to become "less ethnocentric and more culturally relativist." (p. 430) Secondly, since published materials are constrained by linguistic choices mostly, the usual course-book tasks are situated in neutral or culture-free zones. Therefore, the challenge of going beyond getting the message across includes the use of collocations and lexical phrases since these are target context-bound (pp. 431-432). For example, by using concordancing software, students can learn about the uses of particular items in multiple contexts, from which they can draw conclusions about the cultural specificity and the semantic limitations of key concepts (p. 432). Third, the adjustments to the different rhetorical structures is one of the most challenging aspects of moving into the target culture; thus, learners need to cope not only with the word-level or sentence-level differences but also with the organization of whole texts. For this, even when course-books might offer small translation tasks, it is through more extensive translation activities that awareness of how ideas can be organized at text-level can be raised. Finally, "the construction of 'third places' is essentially a critical activity as it forces learners to become aware of ways in which language is socially and culturally determined." (p. 433) Language is ideologically loaded, and texts are value-laden, so that teachers should suspect of all

texts to be used as classroom materials. What is more, if students learn to analyze texts as well (ethnographically and socio-linguistically), they can develop the skills to evaluate the language used around them, and this leads them to ask and answer crucial questions regarding the text. Besides, it makes students participants in the negotiation of meaning that texts portray by transforming the texts or even creating their own counter-texts (p. 433). In conclusion, including culture in a more integrated way can make materials serve as an inter-cultural exchange of language, analysis, and experience of others' cultures.

## **CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY AND MATERIALS**

### **3.1 TYPE OF INVESTIGATION**

Applied linguistics research can be defined from many perspectives. One of them is by the contextual factors involved in applied linguistics. Brown and Rodgers in 2004 had already summarized a number of contextual factors that influence research in applied linguistics; namely, international and national contexts (governments and organizations), professional contexts (trends and fads), institutional contexts (from regions and programs to tutoring situations), local contexts (specific circumstances such as the physical, the time, the social, the pedagogical, and the psychological contexts), and the personal contexts (as cited in Brown, 2004, pp. 479-480). The latter two are the perspectives that approach the most to this research. The institutional context since it is the MEP the one responsible for the implementation of the recent nation-wide English curriculum; the local context refers to its implementation the local context of night academic high schools (p. 480). In this case, there are also preconceptions and preoccupations about the implementation of the English program at night high schools which arise from an internal motivation drawn from previous research that certainly influences the type of study interested in developing. Then, the personal context is another contextual factor that influenced this research.

#### **3.1.1 Research Design**

According to James Dean Brown (2004), the methodological approach taken in this study is a secondary library research. Secondary research is enquiry derived from the research and writings of others and can be divided into library research (research

heavily dependent on secondary sources) and literature reviews (more sophisticated reviews of some aspect of the literature, which contributed with new knowledge to the field). Given the scope of this research, that is to help night English teachers or material writers better develop fit ELT material, its methodology embraces employing the search of information and a “systematic study of language issues and use in order to improve delivery services to our students.” (p. 477) This is carried out through library research and literature reviews.

### **3.1.2 Research Purpose**

According to Barrantes (2013), a research can be also classified in terms of its purpose. If the research activity is oriented to the search of new knowledge and research fields, for developing a new body of theoretical knowledge in the field, it is considered theoretical research (p. 64). The aim of this project is to complement knowledge related to the English curriculum reform implementation at night academic high schools by means of developing a set of criteria that might help develop suitable material for night high school students. Thus, better knowledge or an extended one regarding these topics is created. Nonetheless, the recommendations and the proposal for material development can be applied in the future.

### **3.1.3 Research Type**

According to its type, researches are classified as exploratory, descriptive, analytical-interpretative, cause, correlational, and retrospective, among others. In this case, because its main purpose is to analyze trendy topics by using secondary sources, it is considered retrospective. Besides, this type of research is based on information that already exists, so that the purpose of the research is to recollect, group, categorize, and analyze (Universidad Hispanoamericana, 2018, p. 36).

The next section presents the aspects necessary to set the context of the research, that is the setting, the population, and the English program along with the teacher's guide.

## **3.2 SUBJECTS AND SOURCES OF INFORMATION**

### **3.2.1 The Setting**

The *Contraloría General de la República* released a report from a 2 year-long study (2014-2015) that shows pertinent results and guidelines for not only authorities but also night high school teachers and researchers. This report is an account of the quality in effectiveness and efficacy of the service provided by night high schools, which accounts for 15% out of the total high schools in the country in 2014, and is growing (*Informe de la Auditoría*, 2016, p. 1). This is important since it covers a great number of the students whose situation is quite particular. Therefore, the MEP, responsible for the management of the educational system in all its modalities, has undergone several projects trying to implement strategies in the administration of resources. Nevertheless, the situation is

critical; the grade obtained for the service provided at night high school is very low. Therefore, by considering mainly the findings from this report is that the population and setting can be characterized.

The *Informe de la Auditoría Operativa sobre la Eficacia y la Eficiencia del Servicio Recibido por el Usuario de los Colegios Nocturnos* carried out by the *Contraloría General de la República* and released in 2016 shed light in many contextual areas. Among the findings about infrastructure and use of the accommodations, it was found that even when it is official to share the building (p. 9), since 98% of them share them with a day modality (p. 10), only 32% of principals and 61.3% of teachers reported having had problems or restrictions for accessing classrooms (p. 10). Moreover, 25.8% of students and 51.4% of teachers said that the illumination is not adequate in the classroom, and 34.8% and 61.3%, in the same order, considered that the furniture is insufficient or in bad conditions (p. 10). Very important as well is the fact that only 35% of the principals reported to have access to the laboratories and 45.6% to the libraries (p. 11). In regard to the supervision of the night high schools, even when it is supposed that assessors carry out evaluations of the implementation of educational policies, this is not always the case. In 2014, from all planned visits from the regional offices, only 41% were actually carried out. Moreover, according to 30.9% of night students, their teachers are late, yet 68% of the participant students do constantly attend the night high school. Finally, the 200-day school schedule, the school schedule and the number of lessons are shortened significantly (p. 17). The context of the night high schools is clearly different from the day high schools. Nonetheless, there are certain things that are uniform in all high schools in the country, like national exit exams and the curriculum.

### 3.2.2 Subjects

Students attending night high schools present meaningful disparities according to the *Informe de la Auditoría Operativa sobre la Eficacia y la Eficiencia del Servicio Recibido por el Usuario de los Colegios Nocturnos*. For instance, 70.5% of the polled students are 18 years old or older, and 25.5% older than 25. They also found out that 55.8% of respondents do not work or receive any income, and 12.7% of them live in a home where nobody works or receives any income. Moreover, 67.8% of participants live in a home with less than 310 000 *colones* a month (less than the minimum wage). Also, 32.5% of the participant students work, from whom 22% work as baby-sitters, adult-caring, or domestic work, and 28.5% are looking for a job. More than 75% of students want to get the *Bachillerato* (High School Diploma) and continue studying. Yet more than 90% of night students live in a vulnerable, poverty or extreme-poverty condition (*Contraloría General de la República*, 2016, p. 19).

Not only are there economic limitations, but also students reported other constraints to study. Lack of transportation means is one affecting attendance, yet many students also reported fear of going back to school after many years outside the education system. Thus, lack of transportation and fear of studying and bullying from classmates seem to hamper students' motivation to attend classes regularly, so much that night high schools account for 25% of drop-outs and get the lowest grades in the national exit examinations (Barrantes, par. 6). Though projects like "Yo me Apunto" are very important, night high school students continue having the highest level-repency rates in the last 6 years (*estadonacion*, 2017, p. 190). Therefore, local and contextual conditions need to be

considered for the most vulnerable students to be able to stay in high school, pass all the levels, and ultimately, pass the exams required to graduate.

### **3.2.3 The 2017 English Curriculum**

The 2017 English reform aims at developing a new citizenship, one embedded within the framework sustained by three pillars (MEP, 2016, p. 13). First, sustainable development; this is related to the desire for a new healthy relationship between human beings and even all other forms of life with the environment, bearing in mind that sustainable development harmonizes social and economic growth. Second, digital citizenship: this implies an understanding of human, cultural, and social issues related to the use of information and communication technologies (ICTs). And as third, global citizenship: this involves the interconnectedness and interdependence of people for living in the new information era (MEP, 2016, p. 13). Educating for a new citizenship necessarily implies including these three pillars in teaching the new program.

Another concern in the 2017 English program is the socio-cognitive area of students. This involves how brains work in regards to the brain's architecture. It is related to "the attention span of learners, the capacity of the brain to process information given the limitations of working memory, the complexity and cognitive load of tasks presented to students." (MEP, 2016, p. 18)\_The new curriculum incorporates a range of strategies (cognitive, affective and interactional) in task completion. According to the MEP (2016), "these considerations are critical factors in how teachers need to design pedagogical and assessment tasks." (p. 18) To illustrate, and according to Ausubel in 1964 (as cited in MEP, 2016), "adults will benefit more from explicit teaching of grammatical forms and

deductive thinking than children will. Young learners learn better from inductive teaching and experiential learning as it happens in their natural process of first language acquisition.” (p. 18) Specified in the English program (MEP, 2016) as well, learning also depends on the contextual factors, the resources available, and the meaningfulness of the pedagogical mediation (p. 18). Anyways, according to the MEP (2016), interaction will be necessary for learners to reach the components: “learning to know” (cognitive capacities such as problem-solving and critical thinking), “learning to do” (social skills, effective communication), and “learning to be and live in community” (qualities and values beyond the school such as knowledge and understanding of themselves and others (p. 19). Therefore, areas such as the cognitive and the social, besides the setting, and the students need to be addressed.

Furthermore, there are principles and understandings from the Socio-Constructivist Approach, holism, and critical pedagogy that contrast to the common “banking education” in which teachers consider learners empty vessels (MEP, 2016, p. 21). First, the socio-constructivist approach encourages learners’ participation in the world community. It has to do with ongoing construction of knowledge in meaningful situations, activating prior experiences, working collaboratively, and considering the sociocultural context (pp. 19-20). Second, holism considers everything interdependent, and thus learners have to be aware of unity as well of diversity. Consequently, the holistic vision moves to an integral vision of the world so that the individual can transcend their ego and limits to reach spiritual wisdom such as, values, traditions, and concepts (p. 20). Finally, the critical pedagogy highlights the political dimension of teaching and then “promotes questioning and inquiry of the learner’s own beliefs and social, political, and

economic realities by means of facing different life dilemmas.” (MEP, 2016, pp. 20-21). In sum, a liberating education implies changes in the roles of teachers and students, for which the teacher needs to enhance interaction and help learners to be critical.

Indeed, the Action-Oriented Approach adopted by the CEFRL relates to a particular view of language use and learning. This contemplates users and learners as social agents, that is, “members of society who have tasks (not exclusively language-related) to accomplish in a given set of circumstances, in a specific environment and within a particular field of action” (CEFRL, 2004, p. 9). Language use, then, implies that the social agents develop a number of both, general and communicative language competences, that is, the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions (CEFRL, 2004, p. 9). While general competences are not specific to language yet called upon for actions that may involve language, communicative language ones are related to the linguistic means a person may use for performing a task (CEFRL, 2004, p. 9). Even when the CEFRL (2004) states that any act of language and learning is related to these dimensions and, certainly these are interconnected, it does not deny the focus on one or others as means to an end or for purposes of teaching and assessing an objective (p. 10). The Action-Oriented Approach developed by the CEFRL and adopted by the MEP involves competences both communicative and social.

The new English curriculum follows the Task-Based or Action-Oriented Approach described above. It “places emphasis on what learners know and do to communicate successfully by completing tasks, using general and specific competences in meaningful context and in real-life scenarios” (MEP, 2016, p. 25). This means that learners are seen as agents responsible of their learning, and communication as social tasks to be

accomplished through the use of competences. Indeed, the new English curriculum is founded in the following action-oriented principles (p. 25):

1. The students are social agents that use the target language to perform specific actions in real life contexts meaningfully.
2. Language performances, in oral or written form, respond to language functions and they are carried out in specific scenarios.
3. Enabling and communicative activities are task-based and real-life.
4. Learners use authentic materials as comprehensible input, as much as possible.
5. The ICT become an important tool to create meaningful learning experiences.
6. A great degree of autonomy is placed on the learner; therefore, the teacher works in the development of learners' meta-cognitive, meta-affective, and meta-social strategies.
7. Intercultural awareness plays an important role for getting meaning across and facilitating communication among cultures.
8. Vocabulary, syntax, cohesive forms, and phonology are taught with the purpose of facilitating communication.

These AOA principles must be considered “in order to develop effective English lessons using the Action-Oriented Approach” (MEP, 2016, p. 25), and teachers are responsible for this alignment in the classroom.

Therefore, careful planning, material development, and learning or assessment tasks under the new English curriculum are essential to achieve the desired results. In third cycle and diversified education (i.e. from 7<sup>th</sup> to 11<sup>th</sup> or 12<sup>th</sup> grades), this means that

English teaching's main focus is on "the fine-tuning of learners' communicative competence involving oral comprehension and oral and written production, so that they become independent users of English and can reach level B1, or A2+ at night high schools, based on the descriptors of the CEFLR" (MEP, 2016, p. 35). Thus, in order to fully implement the program and achieve its objectives, it is that AOA principles and the CEFRL descriptors must be considered when designing material for mediation. Besides, for promoting critical thinking and interaction, teachers need to develop tasks that involve information-gap, opinion-gap, problem-solving, games and critical cultural incidents. In sum, teachers need to follow the MEP's English program and understand its components when designing tasks that have to correspond to the context as well.

### **3.2.4 The Teacher's Guide**

The teacher's guides for the new English curriculum are modules aimed at supporting teachers in the process of understanding and implementing the new English syllabus that started running gradually in 2017. Since this curriculum moved from a Communicative Approach to an Action-Oriented one, teachers can find the didactic guides of 7th, 8th, and 9th grade this year. The 432-page long module for 7<sup>th</sup> grade contains a range of resources and key elements to assist teachers in the four stages proposed by Patrick Morgan (MEP, 2017, p. 4). The four stages are sustained as follows:

- \* Knowing about--by understanding the concepts and principles of the curricular English teaching and learning reform.
- \* Knowing why--by internalizing the purpose of the English reform as a response to contributing to the formation of the new citizen the country requires.

\* Knowing how--by developing and implementing the action-oriented learning tasks when designing lesson plans, assessment instruments and follow up actions to best serve learners.

\* Knowing oneself--by reflecting upon and reviewing your personal beliefs and teaching practices. (p. 4)

For achieving this, the MEP (2017) advises teachers to build partnerships with other colleagues, to develop their knowledge and skills “to improve mediation practices and to build confidence and motivation to teach” (p. 5), for which they also provide online digital resources and teacher training. The idea is to give support to teachers in the implementation of the program.

A very important key concept is the learner as a new citizen. Education for a new citizenship considers learners as active agents of change able to: use knowledge, skills, and abilities beyond school contexts; express their own points of view; practice peaceful conflict resolution and search for democratic solutions; harmonize social and economic development and environmental sustainability; take action in favor of sustainability of local, national, and global resources; be aware of a global world where national borders have become more diffused; use ICTs and access to knowledge networks as tools for communication, innovation, and proactive social service; be compassionate national and global citizens; practice democratic principles such as freedom of expression and religion, respect for plurality and cultural diversity (sexual, linguistic, and ethnic) as stated in the Costa Rican Constitution; and defend and protect Human Rights and be against all forms of discrimination (MEP, 2017, pp. 6-7). The concept of new citizenship encompasses many aspects and behaviors to be agents of change.

Furthermore, it also explains how to plan under the AOA since lesson planning has to be developed based on scenarios that focus on one or more of four different domains (socio-interpersonal, socio-transactional, academic and professional) and also be planned by units (six-week long) and lesson plans are created weekly based on themes (MEP, 2017, p. 18). The guide provides a plan template of how these weekly plans are done (see Annex A). Furthermore, it also provides a description of the elements included in the sample plan (see annex B). What is more, the MEP provides detailed sample weekly lesson plans for all the units in 7th grade, with tasks broken down in detailed steps, access to resources, and timing. For a careful look at these, part of a unit plan sample is available in Annex C, the full version can be found in the teacher's guide. In sum, the teacher's guide provides the principles of the AOA, summary of concepts and underpinnings, instructions on how to use the program, and sample weekly plans. It seems it depends on each teacher to follow the precise implementation of the program. Nonetheless, there are factors that certainly affect the actual implementation of the program.

### **3.3 TECHNIQUES FOR COLLECTING AND ANALYZING INFORMATION**

The procedures for analyzing the theories, documents and reviews of studies are: selection of factors that affect SLA based on studies, relation among material design principles and teaching-learning principles, and categorization in tasks development. This helps understand the new nation-wide English program in the context of night academic high schools in order to synthesize a set of criteria specifically selected for the setting, the population, and the curriculum under study.

## **CHAPTER IV: ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA**

Based on the theories, studies, and principles stated in the literature review, an analysis of the main factors that affect SLA, the principles for material design, and of the types of tasks to be designed is carried out here for creating a set of guidelines for developing English material for the night high schools. The analysis is carried out by main topics in order to give a full picture of the themes underneath the objectives of this research.

## **4.1 DIAGNOSIS OF THE CURRENT SITUATION**

### **4.1.1 Diagnosis of the Situation**

Based on the theories, studies, and principles stated in the literature review, an integrative analysis of the main factors that affect SLA, the principles for material design, and the types of tasks to be designed is given here in order to view the research problem from various perspectives. The idea is to provide data that is critical for evolving a set of guidelines for developing ELT material for the night academic high schools. Therefore, a synopsis of the studies' results, principles, and theories is followed by an explanation of the key findings in each topic in order to address the main topics of this research.

There is a wide-range of “technology” to approach the teaching tasks; nonetheless, as Tudor (2008) says, success depends on how this (material, program, theories, studies, etc.) is taken in and put out realistically (p. 8). The uniformity aimed at through wide-range language programs has not considered either the individual differences among students nor the variability of contexts, putting efficacy over efficiency (Burke, 2012, pp. 1-2). Then,

technology of teaching is not all when implementing a program, there are certainly other factors.

Prior studies by Chomsky and Krashen have made turn SLA research onto the more pragmatic side of SLA, while at the same time paying attention to new external factors such as interaction and input. Therefore, a synopsis of the main factors studied is given before the analysis of key findings.

#### **4.1.2 Data Description and Interpretation**

##### **a) SLA Factors**

An initial objective of the project is to identify and thus select the factors that are most likely to influence night academic high school students' academic success. Nonetheless, as Cristina Sanz (2005) puts it, it is the interaction between the internal processing mechanisms and individual differences in one hand and external factors on the other what makes some adult language learners learn faster or go further ahead in the acquisition process (pp. 3-4). And though studies tend to incline towards one or the other, no much data is found on the relation between internal and external aspects. In any case, an important finding to be highlighted in this area is the fact that not all studies are conclusive or positive about their relation.

In reviewing the literature, many factors can be analyzed for determining if likelihood can affect SLA. The following chart intends to summarize these.

<b>FACTORS</b>	<b>Theories</b>	<b>Evidence</b>	<b>Conclusions</b>
<b>Comprehensible Input</b>	Krashen's Monitor theory: rich comprehensible input is sufficient, yet explicit input feeds only the monitor which is useful for self-correction, not for language generation.	McLaughlin in 1987, Long in 1983, and White in 1991 provided evidence against the Monitor Theory.	SLA is as complex as other human accomplishments, that is, it cannot be explained by looking at just one aspect of it.
<b>Social Distance</b>	Schumann's acculturation model: if learners acculturate they will learn, otherwise they will not.	Counter-evidence presented by Schumann and Schmidt show acculturation is not a causal variable to acquisition, though these factors are important for second language learners.	There are other social variables such as the power of dominance of the target language community and affective factors as language shock and culture shock.
<b>Age Differences</b>	The Critical Period Hypothesis: beyond puberty it becomes difficult or impossible to learn a second language to the same degree as native speakers of that language.	Evidence suggests that there is a decline in abilities such as syntax and phonetics that is age related due to age of exposure to the target language, length of stay immersed in the target language community, and processing differences between children and adults.	There has been little agreement among researchers. There is no such consensus about other areas of language besides accent. The ability to learn phonology seems to atrophy faster in older learners.
<b>Aptitude</b>	J.B Carroll and his "standard four component view of language aptitude" sees language aptitude as related to: phonemic coding ability, grammatical sensitivity, inductive language learning ability, and memory and learning.	Language-learning experience did not affect aptitude and therefore, the claim cannot be made that aptitude develops as a function of language-learning experience	There is great correlation between second language aptitude and social class and parental education. "Family background" correlates not only with second language aptitude but also with foreign language achievement.

<b>Motivation</b>	Even when motivation is the strongest factor addressed to success in second language learning after aptitude, motivation is not enough for achieving the goal since there are habitual behaviors that may be divorced from the attitudes important to pursue the goal.	A great number of studies have provided statistical evidence that indicates that motivation is a predictor of language-learning success. Motivation varies among cultures as well as among individuals.	If tasks are not challengeable enough, there is no motivational arousal, or if students get always good grades, they would not see the tasks challenging, motivating.
<b>Anxiety</b>	Hoffman in 1986 noted that anxiety can affect concentration on the meaningful use of language and make students focus on the physical features of words.	A study of anxiety by Bailey in 1983 on specifically competitiveness and anxiety in adult language learning shows that anxiety depends on the situation in which learners find themselves.	On one hand motivation without hope leads to anxiety, yet little anxiety is needed to get motivated; on the other, anxiety seems to be related to personality.
<b>Locus of Control</b>	If a learner feels responsible for an event, the locus of control is internal; but if they feel that an event simply happened, the locus of control is external. This is also related to the personality traits.	Skehan in 1989 reported that general research has spotted that more than the locus, the stability component is more likely to lead a learner to make predictions about future success or failure.	If the cause is stable (affect things in the same way) or random (things are not affected consistently), this will affect motivation.

<p><b>Personality</b></p>	<p>There are theories that claim that specific personality traits are important predictors of success in second language learning.</p> <p>Personality traits affect language learning in a more localized way, for specific tasks more than on general long-term success.</p> <p>Field-dependent learners pay great attention to the context, and field-independent ones ignore confusing information in the context.</p>	<p>Results of studies on extroversion are not clear-cut.</p> <p>Risk taking depends on a number of factors, that learners' willingness to take risks depends on the situation, not only if they are risk-seekers or not. Yet, a correlation between risk-taking tendencies and classroom participation was found, not likewise with actual success.</p> <p>There is no causality between field-dependence and success in second language learning.</p> <p>"It is necessary to look more closely at how personality affects an individual in specific situations."</p>	<p>Interaction more than empathy is necessary for SLA.</p> <p>Extroversion may be advantageous in certain tasks and methods of language teaching, while introversion is valuable for others.</p> <p>Risky behaviors depend on the outcome of the task, if this is contemplated as a loss or as a gain.</p> <p>Some field-dependent students may profit from paying attention to the context in certain situations, and field-independents' self-reliance may be advantageous for other tasks.</p>
<p><b>Learning Strategies</b></p>	<p>Cohen defined them as "those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about that language."</p>	<p>The emphasis should be on self-discovery of the strategies that work for each learner in specific tasks and contexts, since teaching learning strategies may or may not lead to successful learning.</p>	<p>It is more likely that language learners have their own "style preferences" and "strategy preferences".</p>

**Table I: Summary of studies on factors affecting SLA**

As seen above, factors of linguistic and a non-linguistic nature may exert a significant influence on how learners experience the learning process. Since previous studies evaluating internal factors such as comprehensible input and social distance

showed inconsistent results on whether they are direct causes of success in SLA, there are other factors that certainly are. A strong relationship between some aspects has been reported in the literature. Factors such as age affect the phonetics, while others like family background (aptitude), and motivation do correlate with success. Others such as anxiety, locus of control, learning strategies, and some aspects of personality are more specific to the learner and the types of tasks than general global aspects. Therefore, it is the teacher who needs to be aware of the factors that affect SLA generally as well as explore their local realities to know their students to adapt existing methodologies and materials by considering these factors.

#### **b) Material Development**

In reviewing the literature, one can see how the opinions and perspectives on course-books or already-made materials change chronologically, since nowadays material designers include more sophisticated learning experiences. Nonetheless, in spite of the availability of “good” resources, these present certain disadvantages when compared to teacher-designed material. The most obvious finding that emerges from this analysis is that no course-book can cater to all students. The fact that the course-book or teaching material is created with a set of students in mind cannot be neglected. And even when material design faces realistic constrains such as time, quality, coherence, and organization, most studies show its advantages overweigh constrains (Howard & Major, 2015, pp. 100-103). Therefore, teacher-designed materials are preferable than already-made materials.

However, designing materials is not an easy task. Howard and Major (2015) provided a set of six key factors to consider when designing teaching-learning materials. These are the learners' characteristics, the curriculum objectives and approach, the resources and facilities available, copyright issues, the teacher' skills and competence in designing materials, and the time for designing materials (pp. 104-107). Therefore, not starting from scratch seems to be the best option for teachers who do not have the time or experience to do so, thus adapting available materials is a more feasible and practical option.

Nonetheless, it is the curriculum developers who can best begin materials development (Brown, 1995, p. 139). And if so, these have to be described and organized so that teachers can use them with no confusion or much preparation time. According to Brown, material developers make decisions about the learning experiences and the criteria for using those, generally related to the function of the objectives in the program, but it is the teacher who develops the exercises, for some kind of interaction helps bring about or reinforce learning along with underlying criteria for selection and weight assignment. Some of the major aspects that material designed or adapted have to cover are: contextualization, interaction, learning skills or strategies, focus on form and function, natural integrated language use, progression of skills, coherence and connection of activities, attractive and user-friendly layout, appropriate instructions, and flexibility (Major, 2015, pp. 104-107). These aspects are also considered important by a great number of other researchers.

Surprisingly, when a program is new or teachers are not familiar with the approach, the curriculum developers design a blueprint of materials representing the kind of

approach proposed and the information obtained from the needs analysis or diagnosis to orient new teachers. In addition, the blueprint also includes all factors that potentially can influence the program implementation. Even when the intention of channeling perspectives under one single approach and direction, a formalized lock-step curriculum complete with lesson plans that detail every minute of classroom time may be highly forceful in the sense of its sequence and logistics, and then teachers may see it as a finished, inflexible product (Brown, 1995, p. 146). These considerations are consistent with the ecological perspective of considering non-linguistic factors that may affect the implementation of a language program and thus achieving SLA.

Indeed, as other scholars have researched, context, that is the learners and the setting, need to be considered thoroughly. McDonough and Shaw (2003) state that the setting determines if the program's objectives (with reference to the learners' needs and characteristics) are actually feasible and realistic (p. 7). For example, there are factors that affect English teachers' pedagogical planning. These are variations in class size, course duration, course intensity, lesson duration, teacher's experience, teacher's skills, teacher's personality, teacher's communicative competence, learner's access to the target language in use, and learner's motivation (Tomlinson, 2010). In addition, the role of English in the country, the role of English in the school and its place in the curriculum, the teachers (status, training, mother tongue, experience, attitudes, and expectations), management and administration (staff, resource allocation, budgets), resources available (laboratories, projectors, computers), support personnel, the number of students per class, time available, physical environment (noise, furniture), the socio-cultural environment (topics, learners' role), the types of tests used (including national

examinations), and procedures for monitoring and evaluating the language program (pp. 7-8) are also aspects worth being considered.

All these factors are relevant to take into account when working at night academic high schools, yet factors as resources, time, and the socio-cultural environment have proven to affect the delivery of the national language program at the night setting, along with teacher training (Filomena, p. 86). Evidently, knowledge on how to implement the syllabus is another factor that affects planning since its contained approach is not well-known, and a detailed sequence of items need to be followed. Nonetheless, teacher's knowledge on SLA theories and material development are necessary to ground the teaching-learning material to be used, and external aspects such as time available and resources need to be catered to by authorities, or solved by teachers' creativity and experience.

Tomlinson (2003) states that following a framework for developing ELT materials facilitates coherence and consistency between the instructional materials to be developed and the constraints of the syllabus and context (p. 107). The principles for material development created by Brian Tomlinson can be mostly applicable to adapting material for specific populations. These are summarized below. Nonetheless, Brian Tomlinson (2010) asks to consider not only the principles for material development but also the learners and the setting for applying these principles in a more contextualized way by combining universal and local criteria derived from what it is known about the learners, their teachers, and their context of learning (pp. 86-87).

<b>PRINCIPLES FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING</b>	<b>IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS INVOLVED IN MATERIAL DESIGN</b>
<p>No. 1: A prerequisite for language acquisition is that the learners are exposed to a rich, meaningful, and comprehensible input of language in use.</p>	<p>Vary ways and purposes of tasks, provide lots of practice or experiences, make sure the materials contain plentiful spoken and written texts that provide this experience of meaningfulness to the learners, contextualize the input in relation to its context of use, provide sufficient samples of language in authentic use for a natural recycling of useful language items and features. Represent or replicate realities of use in typical discourse, authentic material, and explicit exemplars corroborated through corpus data. Provide material that is flexible, so that it can be used as a resource rather than a script.</p>
<p>No. 2: In order for the learners to maximize their exposure to language in use, they need to be engaged both affectively and cognitively in the language experience.</p>	<p>Elicit higher-level skills and make students think. Promote feeling positive emotions before, during, and after the learning experience, prioritize the potential for engagement both affectively and cognitively to respond personally using language accurately, fluently, appropriately, and effectively in a great number of situations and purposes. The activities need to involve and encourage the use of such high-level skills as imaging, using inner speech, making connections, predicting, interpreting, evaluating, and applying, finally give constructive feedback.</p>
<p>No. 3: learners who achieve positive affect are much more likely to achieve communicative competence than those who do not.</p>	<p>Stimulate students to be positive before learning and feel they are achieving something worthwhile. Involve them emotionally through texts and tasks as interesting, relevant, and enjoyable as possible. Provide achievable challenges during tasks. Finally, stimulate emotive responses through making use of controversial and provocative texts, through personalization, and through inviting learners to articulate their feelings about a text before asking them to analyze it.</p>
<p>No. 4: Language learners can make use and benefit from using the mental resources that they commonly use when acquiring their native language.</p>	<p>Material has to stimulate mental representations of the target language they experience and aim to produce seeing pictures in their mind, inner speech, emotional responses, connections with their own lives, evaluations, predictions, and personal interpretation. Ask them to make inferences about what is not explicitly stated through visual imaging to develop reading and understanding abilities, in retention and recall, and in preparation of what you want to say or write about. Try to combine these two mental resources (inner voice and mental imagining) immersed in affective emotions before, during and after experiencing a text or when using the target language themselves. Finally, ask students to reflect on their mental activity during a task to start introducing others in a similar task.</p>

No. 5: Language learners can benefit from noticing salient features of the input. Self-awareness of the use of a feature makes more likely to achieve readiness for its acquisition.	Engage the learners in a text affectively and cognitively to later return to notice the most salient feature to investigate its language use. Make students experience the text without paying attention to any particular feature; later, in collaboration, elicit them to make discoveries by revisiting and reflecting on the experience, paying conscious attention to its features in order to achieve explicit learning.
No. 6: Opportunities to use language to try to achieve communicative purposes through interaction can benefit language learners.	Make students interact, to clarify and elaborate, to elicit meaningful and comprehensible input. Provide many opportunities to produce language to achieve the intended outcomes, and design output activities that elicit language use rather than specific features' use. Design fully contextualized output activities that help learners to develop their ability to communicate fluently, accurately, appropriately, and effectively. Prompt with an authentic stimulus. Finally, give feedback.

**Table II: Summary of the learning principles and their influence in material design**

<b>PRINCIPLES IN LANGUAGE TEACHING</b>	<b>IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS INVOLVED IN MATERIAL DESIGN</b>
No. 1: The content and the methodology of the teaching has to be consistent with the objectives of the course and has to meet the needs and wants of the learners.	Expose English learners to authentic materials that represent or replicate realities of use in typical discourse. Corroborate explicit exemplifications through corpus data. Write materials in such a way so that teachers can make use of them as a resource and not have to follow them as a script (built-in flexibility). Materials have to enable teachers to make decisions about texts, tasks, learning points, approaches, and routes in relation to learner needs and wants.
No. 2: The teaching has to be designed to help learners to achieve language development and not just language acquisition.	Use material that prepares them for real language use and to develop their communicative competence. Provide activities (from the earliest levels onward) that involve and encourage the use of high-level skills such as imaging, using inner speech, making connections, predicting, interpreting, evaluating, and applying. Finally, give constructive feedback.
No. 3: The teaching has to be designed so as to provide the learners with learning opportunities that help them to develop educationally	Include cross-curricular materials relating them to other subject areas, include some element of content-based teaching and develop skills that can be transferred to these subject areas. Develop activities in which students can become more mature, more critically astute, more creative, more constructive, more collaborative, more capable, and more confident.

No. 4: The teacher needs to be able to personalize and localize the materials and to relate them in different ways to the needs, wants, and learning style preferences of individual learners.	Create materials that also provide teachers with ideas and other materials by localizing and personalizing generic activities. Design activities that help the teacher and students making choices and work at their own level and speed.
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**Table III: Summary of the teaching principles and their influence in material design**

Several reports show that the main factors affecting material design are shared among scholars. For instance, authors have stressed related considerations, researchers such as Bell and Gower, Maley, Jolly and Bolitho, Methold, Waters, Rossner have developed studies and frameworks for developing materials that include these and other aspects. These other aspects are also important to be considered, like flexibility in terms of decisions about content, order, pace, and procedures, engaging content and authentic experiences, knowledge of the students' needs, contextual realization of materials or localization, and the evaluation of its effects seem necessary. Furthermore, Penaflores in 1995 claims that materials have to be clearly linked to the curriculum, be authentic in terms of text and task, stimulate interaction, allow learners to focus on formal aspects of the language, encourage learners to develop learning skills and skills in learning, and encourage learners to apply them outside the classroom (Tomlinson, 2003, p. 109). It can therefore be assumed that there are as many factors as researchers find out through enquiry in SLA.

Also supported by several researchers, there are many reasons why teachers adapt or develop ELT materials. The most important is to make the available material as accessible and useful as possible. It is about achieving congruency among several

related variables (Islam & Mares, 2003, p. 86). Others such as McDonough and Shaw, Cunningsworth, and Candlin propose different reasons for adaptation of published materials. For example, not enough practice of grammar, too easy comprehension questions, inauthentic listening passages, not enough guidance in pronunciation, subject matter inappropriate for learners of this age and intellectual level, amount of material too great/little to be covered, no variety in activities, too formal dialogues, the dynamics of the classroom, the personalities involved, the constraints imposed by the syllabuses, the availability of resources, the expectations and motivations of the learners, the opportunities for negotiation between the learner and the text, the interpersonal or social negotiation, the communicative performance tasks, and the metacognitive opportunities, for adding real choice, catering for all sensory learner styles, providing for more learner autonomy, encouraging higher-level cognitive skills, making the language input more accessible, and making the language input more engaging by changing the nature of the task or changing the form of input (Islam & Mares, 2003, pp. 88-90). Thus, the purposes of adaptation to personalize, to individualize, to localize, and to modernize can help respond to these aspects, as McDonough and Shaw (2003) and other scholars have stressed. In conclusion, these findings may help us to understand that be it designed from scratch or adapted from other sources, material development responds to needs that vary depending on the learners, the objectives of the program, the resources available, and the context mainly.

Therefore, if teachers do not want to start material design from scratch, techniques for adapting materials include adding, deleting, simplifying, and replacing. Adding means supplementing the existing material (providing more material either by extending more of

the same type of material or by adding something different to the materials), deleting quantitatively (subtracting items), or qualitatively (abridging activities), simplifying, which can take the form of rewording a text to make it more accessible yet authentic, without distorting language or simplifying an activity. Also, the teacher can reorder the activities to make more pedagogical sense and replace material when the teacher selects to use an activity better than the ones provided or already gotten somewhere (Islam & Mares, 2003, p. 92). All in all, adapting or creating material from scratch starts by looking at the programs' objectives and its approach, and have to consider all aspects and factors previously mentioned by researchers. What teachers need then is an inventory of flexible frameworks to help them develop effective materials for targeting learners in principled, coherent ways.

Even when teachers select activities from different sources to create their own, adapt an already-made text and activities, as well as omit others available for using in the course, or creating their own from scratch, or all together, it seems it is better to put them together in the form of a worksheet. Ian McGrath (2002) defines worksheets as handouts that aim at facilitating learning through activities (p. 92). Nonetheless, worksheets need to cover certain aspects too. These aspects are related to the aim of the lesson, the general focus, the pedagogic purpose, differentiation and motivation, layout, and evaluation.

The first aspect is related to the teaching of grammar. Grammar teaching can be divided in two. If the objective is to raise awareness of a language feature it is called inductive, but if the objective is to practice applying a rule after having provided it, it is called deductively grammar teaching. Normally, materials teach form in a deductive way,

yet if considering students' level, more inductive teaching can be scaffolded since not all students have contact with the language outside class.

The second aspect involves the format of exercises. If it is for individual work and checking, students, or if it is for producing language while answering to what is given. Also, if the purpose is on accuracy, exercises as matching, information-gap activities, selection, among others helps. On the contrary, if the objective is to develop fluency, open language production exercises are best. Furthermore, if the focus is on practice, and not testing, support for doing the activities may be provided, the focus is narrower, the options are limited, and learners can consolidate their knowledge through repetition; contrarily, if the aim is testing there is no support, the focus is on different forms as a way to get samples of the aspects mastered by the learners (McGrath, 2002, p.95). These findings are doubtless scrutinized, but there are some immediately dependable conclusions for developing tasks, that is, worksheets depend on the objective, the materials available, and the learners.

Another aspect mentioned in the literature review in this regard is the variety of proficiency levels within a single class. "Success leads to success", they say, but creating different worksheets is not the solution due to its explicit differentiation among students. However, graded exercises from the easiest to the most difficult can make students get this sense of success no matter their level, while at the same time it is motivating and still challenging for higher-level students. If done in groups, this grouping needs to be made by members of the same or similar level so that they can participate alike. It can therefore assume that the variety in proficiency levels can be catered through worksheets.

The last two aspects proposed by McGrath (2002) include the layout and the evaluation of the effect of the worksheet. By layout, the author considers not only what is visually appealing or spacious but also answer keys and clear instructions. Then, the evaluation of a worksheet seems necessary. For example, by looking at the time spend on the exercises students get stuck or resolve rapidly or by observing how engaged students are, is the way teachers can assess the effectiveness of their worksheets and make the necessary modifications.

It is interesting to note that when developing worksheets, a relationship between the objectives and the format, the differences among learners, and the worksheet layout play an intricate role. And the necessity to evaluate worksheets help teachers become more aware of what works in their unique group of students. The present study raises the possibility that language teachers create their own worksheets depending on the learning objective, the students, the resources available (e.g. photocopier), the material design principles, and the already-made material found in course-books and teachers' guides.

### **c) Tasks Development**

Based on the definitions of tasks found in the CERFL, in descriptions of the Task-Based Approach, and several scholars like Skehan and Ellis, an integrative definition of task encompasses certain characteristics. These are: purposefulness, defined goal, defined outcome, activation of specific competences, communication, interaction, production, reception, or mediation, meaningfulness, authenticity, among others. Indeed, the Task-Based Approach shares certain characteristics among scholars' view. These

are: the perceived purpose and outcome, the natural context for language use, the expectation that the teacher is in charge of preparing the task (come out with the pre-task and the steps to follow, adjust the task for meeting students' needs and interests, and supply the correct target form or recast it), the collaborative work, the fact that students and teachers decide what to do, the many opportunities to interact, the meaningful interaction, the reflection on the task, and the feedback on their level of success related to communication. Yet, tasks can still draw attention to the language form. In fact, current views include the grammar component, maintaining the balance between focus on form and focus on communication, while promoting an automatization of existing L2.

There are also ways of typifying tasks. Larsen-Freeman divides them in three. A task may require students getting and transmitting information (information-gap), expressing their thoughts and feelings (opinion-gap), and deriving new information based on previous one (reasoning-gap). Long and Crookes in 1993 identified three different types of task-based approaches (p. 149). Procedural task is a task in which the teacher designs the tasks to work on. Another one is seeing the task as a process of interaction, even students and teachers can negotiate what tasks to do. And the third one focuses on meaningful interaction while still drawing attention to the language form as needed. Yet, another approach related to real-world language use is project work. This is summarized as follows:

## PROJECT WORK

The language practiced in the classroom is not predetermined, but rather derives from the nature of the particular project. The teacher is a counselor, a consultant.

1. In class, students plan, in collaboration with the teacher, the content and scope of the project and the specific language needs students have to do the project.
2. Outside the classroom it involves gathering information and using the four basic skills (listening, reading, writing, and speaking).
3. Students review their project monitoring their work and receiving feedback from the teacher.

**Table IV: Summary of the Project Work by Larsen-Freeman (2005, pp. 149-150).**

Moreover, Rod Ellis (2010) say a task can be unfocused or focused on a specific feature even when the main aim is communication. Since in real communication people use a variety of structures, the ideal focused task makes the use of the structure essential, useful and natural, yet if the structure is not part of their linguistic repertoire, teachers cannot expect students to use it (pp. 37-38). He develops a further distinction between interpretation activities (input-enrichment activities, structured-input activities) and consciousness-raising tasks.

1. <b>Interpretation activities:</b> processing of the target structure through input rather than output.
a) <u>Input-enrichment activities:</u> targeted feature is made salient, learners need to notice it.
b) <u>Structured-input activities:</u> processing the structure by eliciting its use in responses.
2. <b>Consciousness-raising tasks:</b> understanding how a specific form works by discovery so they can refer to it, understanding it and even verbalizing the rule.

**Table V: Summary of the focused tasks according to Rod Ellis (2010)**

In sum, different scholars like Ellis, Skehan, Long, Larsen-Freeman, among others agree that tasks' main focus is on meaning, though it does not mean an alienation to grammar. Also, tasks reflect real-world negotiation of meaning and can be evaluated in terms of their communicative outcome (product).

Students need to learn grammar for many reasons. Initially, learners need to know the various components of a structure and how to combine them; then, they need the ability to put these components together quickly; also, they need to know what the structure means and when it is appropriate to use the form, so they develop the ability to use it spontaneously and appropriately. For students to be able to achieve this, grammar tasks need to be contextualized to the age of the learners, their existing knowledge, and the predictable contexts in which they use the target language. It also has to do with the purpose of the teaching, if it is teaching knowledge of the grammatical feature, then knowledge can be presented or discovered, but if the aim is developing skills, then only practice can make it (McGrath, 2002, p. 98). Grammar tasks can also be divided in the form of paying attention to tasks. That is, if the task is getting explicit about grammar knowledge, then tasks have to deal with questions about the form; nonetheless, if it is implicit, this has to be done through corrective feedback (Ellis, 2010, p. 40). Besides learning grammar for being able to interact more fruitfully, students need to expand vocabulary to have the means to negotiate meaning as well.

According to McGrath (2002), designing word-building exercises is part of the teachers' job. Teachers can focus on vocabulary meaning (denotation, connotation), form (pronunciation and spelling), or distribution (collocations, register) depending on their views about the language. However, learning vocabulary is not just learning more words

but knowing more about the words already known. McGrath (2002), states that word-building exercises are ideal for worksheets to be used outside of class, yet they can be used for cooperative work in class (pp. 99-100). This combination of ideas provides some support for the conceptual premise that part of the language teachers' job is teaching vocabulary. Nevertheless, there is another aspect essential to be considered in language teaching, that is culture.

Culture and language are entangled, so that learning a new language implies necessarily learning culture. According to Kramsch (as cited in Pulverness 2003), there is cognitive modification when learning another language because learners develop a social and cultural identity. Therefore, materials privilege the identity of the learner as an integral factor in developing the ability to function in culturally different places (p. 427). For achieving this, learners need to be exposed to materials that have a kind of cultural adjustment. It is not enough to provide students with cultural knowledge in capsules, but it is to respond to this material in regard to their experience or to integrate new ways of feeling and thinking.

According to Alan Pulverness, there are four ways of achieving real cultural adjustment. The first one is sensitizing students through literary texts so that they defamiliarize from their own culture and start processing intercultural learning. The second is about going beyond linguistics choices in materials onto context-bound lexical phrases and collocations found in corpora. The third one is for adjusting to the different rhetorical structures at both word and sentence-level, and text-level, for which translation tasks can raise the awareness of the organization of texts. In addition, there is constructing culturally different places, so students can realize how language is socially

and culturally determined. It is possible, therefore, that by including culture in a more integrated way through teaching-learning materials, these serve as an inter-cultural exchange of language, analysis, and experience of other cultures rather than the extended focus on language points in culturally-related texts or scattered cultural aspects usually found in published materials.

As mentioned in the literature review, second language acquisition is a complex process influenced by factors that every teacher needs to consider when developing materials (including worksheets) and tasks that respond to their individual factors (age, motivation, anxiety, personality) and context characteristics (family background, resources), so that students can enjoy and learn from material that is apt for them and that is grounded on principles and theories of SLA.

## **CHAPTER V: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This project is undertaken to design a set of guidelines that can be used by the night high school teachers implementing the recent English reform at their setting or anyone interested in developing material specific for the setting and population. In this study, three main topics are developed, each one corresponding to each of the specific objectives that guide this research; namely, SLA factors, material development, and task design. This study has carefully chosen the main factors that directly affect the success of SLA, has related the principles for material development based on theories of language teaching and learning, and has differentiated the types of tasks that best fit the teachers' objectives. Therefore, the guidelines created respond to the main findings after the library research was concluded.

## **5.1 CONCLUSIONS**

### **Considering the population:**

- Students may resume school after years of not having attended school, that means that the gradual development of the program's objectives that runs from 1<sup>st</sup> grade to 11<sup>th</sup> grade cannot be taken from granted. All the gradual development of skills and competences in the primary school are missing in the secondary for them, so the high school aim under these conditions cannot be to fine-tune these.
- The fact that students cannot attend high school for many reasons such as lack of transportation, lack of economic means, lack of motivation, and work and family duties means that teachers need to consider that even when it is a classroom course, English classes inevitably show a discontinuity among teaching objectives and require flexibility for students who cannot attend classes.

### **Considering the curriculum:**

- The real teaching time is significantly reduced, so a lock-stepped syllabus is not realistically applicable in this context.
- The idea is to make materials as accessible and useful to learners as possible, yet within the possibilities of the teacher, the characteristics of the learners, and the constraints of the context.

### **Considering the context:**

- The available resources teachers may make use at the night setting varies from the day one since access to resources, facilities or ITCs by the teacher and students is restricted (internet access, computers, recorders, etc.).
- The real-life scenarios vary from teenagers to adults, so that a careful approach to the actual students' needs and interests need to be done since their application of and contact to English outside school vary as well.
- The new role of learners and even teachers need to be scaffolded since the way these students have learned before may not correspond to the new roles, and the same for some teachers who need to change their traditional "banking education" to a more Action-Oriented Approach.
- Night academic high schools are different, so their ELT material has also to be different. Therefore, the design and implementation of concrete, meaningful, and relevant real-life situations for students to demonstrate their English language abilities through tasks need to be adapted to the students' and teachers' realities.

### **Considering the first objective:**

- Age and other factors that affect SLA such as motivation, anxiety, and family background have to be necessarily taken into consideration by teachers when planning, so that material used requires an adaptation of the activities proposed in the teacher's guide or elsewhere.
- Based on the findings gathered in this project, it can be said that students' internal aspects such as age, motivation, family background, and anxiety affect their interaction with external aspects like input and program's approach. These aspects need to be considered in the criteria for developing materials more than more specific aspects like personality, locus of control and learning strategies. Nonetheless, these latter aspects can be considered for personalization of materials, yet not so for localization of materials.
- As considered by many scholars like Tomlinson, Tudor, McDonough and Shaw, and Brown, the context in which materials are to be implemented is worth considering, since one thing is what is written on paper, and another is the realistic feasibility and effect of them in context.

### **Considering the second objective:**

- Teachers need to be able to select suitable materials and reflect on their sociocultural potential, design appropriate tasks, and develop assessment procedures that correspond to both the new program's approach, and the students and their setting. This is certainly a challenging task for some teachers.

- When developing materials, adapting the available ones, or combining the teacher-made with the already-published, it means that teachers do not need to start from scratch since time, experience, and other limitations can affect teachers' development of these.
- Teachers need to be able to assess and reflect on the effect of ELT materials and make the changes according to both the universal and local criteria for their full evaluation.
- Be it for adapting or for creating material from scratch, there is now grounded global considerations for designing effective materials. These principles are embedded in the guidelines to show vast explicit requirements for the material to be created or adapted as worksheets or any other type of handout used to facilitate learning.
- Teachers can make use and adapt existing materials, be it in the teachers' guide or any other published materials; they can add, delete, simplify, and replace exercises. These techniques, nevertheless, need to follow the logistics of material development, so that teachers know what to consider when adding, deleting, simplifying, or replacing existing material.

**Considering the third objective:**

- Because the aim of the new reform is to prepare students for an interconnected world, there are certain components that need to be considered when implementing this program for students to be able to make use of the technologies

available to them, develop command of English, develop intercultural competencies, and strengthen their identities (local and global).

- Depending on the objectives of the teacher (teaching grammar or vocabulary, developing skills, or testing), the criteria includes the main considerations for designing effective tasks. .
- The development of worksheets is a great option for teachers who, like the ones working at night high schools, do not have a great availability of resources like computers, internet access, or a laboratory.
- For the development of tasks, aspects that helped define the concept “task” as well as the ones incorporated in the various task-based approaches are taken into consideration. Some of these aspects are purposefulness, a defined goal, defined outcome, activation of specific competences, interaction, production, meaningfulness, authenticity, among others.
- For teachers to develop effective tasks, they need to consider the main purpose of the lesson, or their intentions (practice, testing, raising awareness, developing fluency or accuracy, word-building, grammar, among others) and cultural expectations.

This research has argued that teachers can make use of a guidelines to design principled materials effectively and consistently, while at the same time assist them in developing their own theories of language learning and language teaching. In general, therefore, it seems that, through a deep analysis of the theories, documents and research

trends and studies, a solid set of criteria to help teachers adapt or develop their own material specific for their context can match the mandated nation-wide English curriculum.

## **5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS**

This study provides the first comprehensive assessment of knowledge related to the adaptation or development of materials specifically for the night school setting under the recent English reform. Despite its type of research methodology (library), this study offers some insight to English teachers, material writers, and MEP authorities regarding the effective implementation of the English curriculum at the night school setting through material development. The following recommendations, then, are presented by the stakeholders involved.

### **To the English teachers implementing the new program**

- To look at the proposal provided for material design since it is a principled contextualized set of guidelines to consider for the effectivity of the material used in the English classes.
- To use a cautious, enlightened, and grounded eclectic approach so that teachers can build a set of cornerstones in the English lessons at night academic high schools based on the theories, knowledge of the factors, and the availability of resources, and the type of tasks.
- To break away from the shadows of conventional knowledge and disinterest for learning new things. The continual examination of our teaching practices and materials success are difficult processes but worthy ones.

### **To material writers**

- To be concerned with the vast set of criteria so that the material to be created is effective for the population and the context aimed at if a full implementation of the program is to be expected.

### **To the authorities**

- To resolve some external factors that affect the full and apposite implementation of the English program.
- To ensure appropriate conditions for work and study has important implications for the future of many people due to that these limitations have an effect in regard to opportunities, resources, and the quality of education.
- To plan a pedagogical reform within the overall context at night academic high schools. Educational change and innovation are always context specific and need therefore to take account the various aspects of the situation in question.

### **To future researchers**

- To assess the experiences of using the guidelines to adapt materials for this specific population.
- To carry out studies in order to validate the effectiveness of the guidelines.

## CHAPTER VI: PROPOSAL

## **6.1 GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING ELT MATERIAL FOR NIGHT ACADEMIC HIGH SCHOOLS**

The following set of guidelines is put together considering the studies, principles and categorizations of tasks that are related to SLA achievement. The guidelines for adapting ELT material is designed to be aligned and cover the main aspects of the 2017 Task-Based English program and night high school teachers and contexts. Notwithstanding these aims, the scope of the study is limited and cannot be generalized for all night English classrooms. Nonetheless, the following guidelines can be utilized by any teacher and even a material designer interested in considering principled criteria for material development under the currently run English program at the night setting.

First, it addresses pertinent aspects about the English program and night students; second, it values the perspectives and rationale of English teachers to interpret the criteria; third, it is meant to provide a clear context, purpose, and procedure; fourth, it can be used at any point of teaching, preferably when planning classes or evaluating materials; and fifth, it is subject to evaluation and user-reports.

The idea of this proposal is to make the implementation of the new English reform something feasible for the English teachers working at night academic high schools. Though, its political viability and cost-effectiveness need to be addressed by authorities in the field, the idea of this set of guidelines is to provide orientation on factors, principles, and types of tasks that affect the success of SLA while following the English program approach at night academic high schools.

# UNIVERSIDAD HISPANOAMERICANA

*Faculty of Education*

## **Guidelines for Material Development for the English Curriculum at Night Academic High Schools**

*Prepared by*

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2019

## Instructions

This set of guidelines comes out as part of the thesis submitted to obtain the *Licenciatura* Degree of English Teaching “*English Curriculum Implementation in Costa Rican Night Academic High Schools: A Secondary Study for Material Development, 2019*”. The development of the guidelines responds to the need of a practical grounded criteria for implementing the recent English curriculum through material development. That is why the following set of guidelines for material development considers the main factors that affect Second Language Acquisition (SLA), the principles for material development, and the design of tasks according to objectives, the curriculum, the context, and the population. The layout of this document is meant to be a quick topical checklist that would allow critical reflection on the criteria marked as negative. If necessary, a list of sources is given at the end for consultation on the topics. It is expected to be a useful practice over time for teachers or a grounded set of guidelines for material writers.

The following guidelines not only address pertinent aspects about the English program and the night setting but also value the perspectives and rationale of English teachers to interpret the guidelines. Nevertheless, it is meant to provide a clear context, purpose, and procedure, and it can be used at any point of teaching, preferably when planning classes or evaluating materials. Finally, it is subject to evaluation and user-reports.

<b>Guidelines 1: SLA Factors</b>	YES	NO
Are you providing enough comprehensible input for the students' level?		
Are you permitting students to produce language with reasonable mispronunciation?		
Are you bearing in mind students whose family background is not supportive?		
Are the tasks developed challengeable enough for increasing motivation?		
Are you handling students' anxiety in such a way that there is just enough of it?		
Are you considering students' personalities for personalizing or assigning tasks?		
Are you allowing students to discover their learning styles and preferred strategies?		

<b>Guidelines 2: Material Development Principles</b>	YES	NO
Is this material different from the previous ones in terms of ways and purposes of tasks?		
Can this material be meaningful for students in terms of the types of texts included?		
Is the input contextualized to the real context of students?		
Does the material provide sufficient corroborated samples of language in authentic use?		
Is the input material authentic?		
Is the material flexible to be used creatively as a resource?		
Is the material making students to think or use any other higher-level skill?		
Is the material promoting feeling positive emotions before, during, and after the task?		
Can students respond personally using language in a different situation and/or purpose than the previous one?		
Are you giving feedback on the development of students' skills?		
Can students feel through the material that they will achieve something worthwhile?		
Are texts and tasks as interesting, relevant, and enjoyable as to involve students emotionally?		
Are the tasks in the material achievable for your students?		
Are texts provocative and controversial so that students first engage emotionally, then analytically?		
Can material elicit students to see pictures in their mind, use inner speech, give emotional responses, make connections with their own lives, evaluate, predict, or give their personal interpretation?		
Can students make inferences about what is not explicitly stated through visual images?		
Can you ask students to reflect on their mental activity after the task?		
Can the text affectively and cognitively engage students before noticing the most salient feature in it to be analyzed?		
Can the material make students interact, clarify, and elaborate to elicit meaningful and comprehensible input?		
Can the material provide several opportunities to produce language to attain the outcome?		
Are the output activities designed to elicit language use rather than specific features' use?		
Are the output activities fully contextualized so to help learners to develop their ability to communicate?		
Is there an authentic stimulus to communicate?		
Can material prepare students for developing their communicative competence?		
Can activities in materials make students more critically astute, more creative, more constructive, more collaborative, more capable, and/or more confident?		
Does the material include the development of skills that can be transferred to other areas or subjects?		
Can activities help the students make choices and work at their own level and speed?		
Can materials provide teachers with further ideas for localizing and personalizing generic activities?		

<b>Guidelines 3: Task-Design General Features</b>	YES	NO
Are the tasks flexible in terms of decisions about content, order, pace, and/or procedures?		
Do the tasks provide engaging content?		
Do the tasks simulate authentic experiences?		
Are the tasks linked to the curriculum' s objectives and approach?		
Are the tasks authentic in terms of text?		
Are the tasks authentic in terms of performance?		
Do the tasks stimulate interaction?		
Do the tasks allow learners to focus on formal aspects of the language?		
Do the tasks encourage learners to develop learning skills?		
Do the tasks encourage learners to apply their developing skills outside the classroom?		
Is there a defined goal along a defined outcome?		
Does the task activate specific competences?		
Can the main task be divided into smaller steps or tasks?		
Do tasks meet students' interests and needs?		
Do tasks require students to work in collaboration?		
Do tasks require students get and transmit information?		
Do tasks require students to express their thoughts and feelings?		
Do tasks require students to derive new information based on previous data?		
Do tasks involve gathering information by using different skills outside class?		

<b>Guidelines 4: Designing Grammar-Tasks</b>	YES	NO
If the task is focused, does it make the use of an already known structure essential, useful, and natural?		
Do interpretation tasks require processing of the target structure through input rather than output?		
Do input-enrichment activities make the targeted feature salient, so that learners can notice it?		
Do structured-input activities require processing the structure by eliciting its use in responses?		
Do consciousness-raising tasks require understanding of how a specific form works by means of students discovering it?		
Do consciousness-raising tasks require referring to the rule, getting it first to later verbalize it?		
Is the focus of any type of task on meaning?		
Do tasks reflect real-world negotiation of meaning?		
Can the task be evaluated in terms of their communicative outcome or product?		
If the focus is on developing knowledge of grammar, is this knowledge discovered?		
If the focus is on developing knowledge of grammar, is this knowledge presented?		
If the focus is on practice skills for using forms, is there enough practice?		
If the focus is on explicit grammar, do activities deal with questions about form?		

<b>Guidelines 5: Designing Vocabulary-Tasks</b>	YES	NO
If the focus is on building vocabulary meaning, are there provided not only definitions but also connotations of key words?		
If the focus is on the form of vocabulary, does the task provide opportunities to practice spelling and pronunciation?		
If the focus is on distribution, does the material make use of collocations and registers?		

<b>Guidelines 6: Designing Culture-Related Tasks</b>	YES	NO
Do tasks treat the identity of the learner?		
Are students exposed to materials that have a kind of cultural adjustment?		
Are students asked to respond to material in regard to their cultural experience or by integrating new ways of feeling and thinking?		
Do linguistic choices in materials use context-bound lexical phrases?		
Are there translation tasks that can raise the awareness of the organization of texts in the target culture?		

<b>Guidelines 7: Worksheets-Design</b>	YES	NO
Is the worksheet related to the aim of the lesson?		
Is the pedagogic purpose of the worksheet related to the program's approach?		
Is the layout of the worksheet spacious and attractive?		
If the objective is to practice applying a rule, are there varied output opportunities?		
If the objective is individual work, does its format elicit responses to what is given?		
If the objective is on developing accuracy, does it include exercises like matching, information-gap activities, selection, among others?		
If the objective is developing fluency, does it provide open language production exercises?		
If the focus is on practice, is there support for doing the activities?		
If the focus is on practice, are there limited options within a narrow focus?		
If the focus on testing, is the support taken out?		
If the focus on testing, are there varied samples of the language to be evaluated?		
If the students' level vary within a class, are there graded exercises from the easiest to the most difficult?		
Are there clear instructions for carrying out the activities?		

<b>Guidelines 8: English Curriculum Considerations</b>	YES	NO
Does the material consider that adults benefit from explicit teaching of grammatical forms?		
Does the material consider the social skills needed for effective communication?		
Does the material encourage learners' participation in the world community?		
Does the material activate prior experiences?		
Does the material value unity as well of diversity?		
Are vocabulary, syntax, cohesive forms, and phonology taught with the purpose of facilitating communication?		

<b>Guidelines 9: Teachers' Guide Considerations for the New Citizenship</b>	YES	NO
Can students use knowledge, skills, and abilities beyond school contexts through material?		
Can students express their own points of view through the material?		
Can students practice peaceful conflict resolution and search for democratic solutions?		
Can students use ICTs and access to knowledge networks as tools for communication, innovation, and proactive social service?		
Can students be incited to be compassionate national and global citizens through the material?		
Can students practice democratic principles such as freedom of expression and religion, respect for plurality and cultural diversity in the tasks developed?		

<b>Guidelines 10: Teachers' Guide Considerations of Curriculum Components</b>	YES	NO
Does the material include a warm-up activity?		
Does the material share with the learners the essential question?		
Does the material state the learning goals or expected outcome for that day or week?		
Does the material include the enduring understanding at the beginning of each unit?		
Does the material provide practice for learners to know how to use strategies through teacher scaffolding and modeling, peer collaboration, and/or individual practice?		
Does the material give useful words, phrases and idioms that the students need to perform the task?		
Does the material involve the integration of listening and speaking or reading and writing?		

## Resources

### Guidelines 1: SLA Factors

For a more profound exploration in regard with SLA factors, the following studies and textbooks are suggested:

- Siti Khasinah (2014). Factors Influencing Second Language Acquisition [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/322708295\\_FACTORS\\_INFLUENCING\\_SECON D\\_LANGUAGE\\_ACQUISITION](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/322708295_FACTORS_INFLUENCING_SECON_D_LANGUAGE_ACQUISITION)
- Peter Skehan 1991. Individual Differences in Second Language Learning
- Factors Affecting L2 Learning. <http://www4.ujaen.es/~gluque/Topic4factors.pdf>
- Gass, S. M. & L. Selinker (2009). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course.*
- Sanz, C. (2005). *Mind and context in adult second language acquisition.*
- Programa Estado de la Nación (2017). Sexto Informe Estado de la Educación.
- Brown, D. (2006). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching.
- Major, Ch. (2014) The Effects of Age of Second Language Acquisition in Older Adults

### Guidelines 2: Material Development Principles

For a deeper examination regarding Material Development, the following studies and textbooks are suggested:

- Birckbichler, D.W. (2001). Classroom materials for second-language proficiency. *Theory into Practice*, 26 (4), 294-300.
- Ellis, R. (1997). The empirical evaluation of language teaching materials. *ELT Journal*, 51 (1).
- Ellis, R. (2010). *Second language acquisition research and language-teaching materials.* In N. Harwood (Ed.), English language teaching materials.
- Heitler, D. (2005). Teaching with Authentic Materials. Intelligent Business. Pearson Ed
- Howard, J. & Major, J. (2004). Guidelines for designing effective English language teaching materials. *ResearchGate*, January, 2004, 101-109
- McDonough, J., & Shaw, C. (2003). *Materials and methods in ELT.*
- McGrath, I. (2002). *Materials evaluation and design for language teaching.*
- Tomlinson, B. (2010). *Principles of effective materials development.* In N. Harwood (Ed.), English language teaching materials.
- Tomlinson, B. (2003). *Developing materials for language teaching*
- Yan, C. (2007). Investigating English Teachers' Materials Adaptation. *Major Articles*, 9 (4). Retrieved from <https://www.scribd.com/document/211162941/Adaptation>

### Guidelines 3: Task-Design General Features

For a closer look at the development of tasks, the following studies and textbooks are suggested:

- 4 Creative Ways to Use Authentic Materials for Teaching English  
<https://www.fluentu.com/blog/educator-english/authentic-materials-for-teaching-english/>
- Authentic Activities in Language Learning. <https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/11237465.pdf>
- Council of Europe. (2001). Common European framework of references for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Cambridge: University Press.
- Criteria for identifying tasks for TBL <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/criteria-identifying-tasks-tbl>
- Designing Performance Assessment Tasks.  
<http://www.ascd.org/publications/newsletters/education-update/aug95/vol37/num06/Designing-Performance-Assessment-Tasks.aspx>
- Harsono, Y.M. (2007). Developing learning materials for specific purposes. TEFLIN Journal, 18 (2), 169-179.
- Links to Authentic Materials Links to Authentic Materials  
[https://docs.google.com/document/d/1pYz5vXSWeSydTP1Sn03hYew1bzMD4xFk8\\_L\\_P6r25Z0/edit](https://docs.google.com/document/d/1pYz5vXSWeSydTP1Sn03hYew1bzMD4xFk8_L_P6r25Z0/edit)
- Six types of task for TBL <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/six-types-task-tbl>

## Guidelines 4: Designing Grammar-Tasks

For learning more about designing tasks that aim at learning grammar, these articles and sites might help.

- Authentic Task, BBC. <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/authentic-task>
- From priming tasks and target tasks to language focus and grammar  
<https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/priming-tasks-target-tasks-language-focus-grammar>
- Grammar teaching: Task-based grammar teaching  
<http://www.onestopenglish.com/grammar/grammar-teaching/task-based-grammar-teaching/>
- Teaching Grammar with Authentic Materials  
<https://www.birmingham.ac.uk/Documents/college-artslaw/cels/essays/languageteaching/ISeeger-LTM-Teachinggrammarwithauthenticmaterial-Advantagesanddisadvantagesofadeductiveandaconsciousness-raisingapproach.pdf>
- Write a Great Authentic Task  
[https://creativeeducator.tech4learning.com/v01/articles/Writing\\_a\\_Great\\_Authentic\\_Task](https://creativeeducator.tech4learning.com/v01/articles/Writing_a_Great_Authentic_Task)

## Guidelines 5: Designing Vocabulary-Tasks

For getting ideas on how to focus on vocabulary in tasks, these sources may be useful.

- Presenting vocabulary, BBC. <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/presenting-vocabulary>
- Teaching Vocabulary Authentically. <https://paulemerich.com/2013/01/31/teaching-vocabulary-authentically/>
- 15 Vocabulary Strategies in 15 Minutes! <http://learningtasks.weebly.com/vocabulary-strategies.html>
- Ghanbari N., Esmaili, F, & Reza M. (2015). The Effect of Using Authentic Materials on Iranian EFL Learners' Vocabulary Learning.
- Khany R, & Khosravian F. (2014). Iranian EFL Learners' Vocabulary Development Through Wikipedia

## Guidelines 6: Designing Culture-Related Tasks

For reading a few studies, texts, and practical activities for developing cultural content in tasks.

- Authentic Materials and Cultural Content in EFL Classrooms  
<http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Kilickaya-AuthenticMaterial.html>
- AUTHENTIC TEXTS AS CULTURAL MIRRORS: A handbook for English teachers  
<https://jyx.jyu.fi/bitstream/handle/123456789/40071/URN:NBN:fi:ju-201210242768.pdf?sequence=1>
- Cultural Awareness. Macmillan English  
<http://www.macmillanenglish.com/life-skills/cultural-awareness/>
- Culturally Appropriate Authentic Assessments  
<https://core.ac.uk/download/pdf/46946575.pdf> Culturally Appropriate Authentic Assessments
- Developing Cultural Awareness in Language Instructional Materials  
<http://www.ipedr.com/vol33/003-ICLMC2012-L00008.pdf>
- The Impact of Authentic Materials and Tasks on Students' Communicative Competence at a Colombian Language School  
[http://www.scielo.org.co/scielo.php?script=sci\\_arttext&pid=S1657-07902017000100007](http://www.scielo.org.co/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S1657-07902017000100007)
- USING AUTHENTIC CULTURAL TEXTS Workshop  
<http://www.ctcolt.org/pdfs/D27AuthenticResources2017.pdf>

## Guidelines 7: Worksheets-Design

For going deeper into the design of suitable materials, the sources below are provided.

- Designing Authenticity into Language Learning Materials  
<https://www.researchgate.net/publication/37722266> Designing Authenticity into Language Learning Materials
- Global Scale of English Learning Objectives for Adult Learners. Pearson, 2015
- Shawer, S., Gilmore, D., & Bank-Joseph, S. (2009). Learner-Driven EFL Curriculum Development at the Classroom Level
- Tomlinson, B. (2010). Principles and Procedures for Self-Access Materials. <http://sisaljournal.org>
- Wette, R. (2011). Meeting Curriculum, Learning and Settlement Needs: Teachers' Use of Materials in Courses for Adult Migrants

## Guidelines 8: English Curriculum Considerations

To review some of the aspects considered in the English curriculum and their actual implementation.

- Accessible Authentic Resources  
<https://marishawkins.wordpress.com/2019/02/09/accessible-authentic-resources-nectfl-2019/>
- Dubetz, N. (2014). Studying the Effects of an EFL Curriculum for Young Adults in Brazil
- Filomena, G. (2017). The 2017 English Curriculum Reform in San José Night Academic High Schools: An Exploratory Study of Teachers' Perceptions. UNA
- Making time for tasks and still covering the syllabus  
<https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/making-time-tasks-still-covering-syllabus>

- Ministerio de Educación Pública (2015). Informe de Diagnóstico para la Reformulación de los Programas de Estudios de Inglés Preescolar, Primero y Segundo Ciclo, Tercer Ciclo y Educación Diversificada.
- Ministerio de Educación Pública (2016). Programa de estudio de inglés.
- Ministerio de Educación Pública (2015). Informe de Diagnóstico para la Reformulación de los Programas de Estudios de Inglés Preescolar, Primero y Segundo Ciclo, Tercer Ciclo y Educación Diversificada.
- Quinto Estado de la Educación (2015). Estado de la Nación.

## **Guidelines 9: Teachers' Guide Considerations for the New Citizenship**

**To review some aspects considered in the Teacher's Guide for implementing the reform.**

- Curated Authentic Resources [www.tinyurl.com/authenticresources](http://www.tinyurl.com/authenticresources)
- Enhancing Cultural Competence <https://ctb.ku.edu/en/enhancing-cultural-competence>
- Technology Updates for the World Language Classroom <https://marishawkins.wordpress.com/2019/07/05/technology-updates-for-the-world-language-classroom/>
- The design of authentic tasks that promote higher-order learning <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/3fb2/7935b51b298424f2cc15332a63fc3c362f66.pdf> The design of authentic tasks that promote higher-order learning

## **Guidelines 10: Teachers' Guide Considerations of Curriculum Components**

**To review some aspects considered in the Teacher's Guide for implementing the reform.**

- A Task Based Approach to Raising Cultural Awareness <http://pisces.lib.utsunomiya-u.ac.jp/dspace/bitstream/10241/6360/1/kokusai26-014.pdf>
- Teacher's guide seventh grade 2017 <https://www.mep.go.cr/educatico/teachers-guide-seventh-grade>
- Teacher's guide seventh grade 2018 [https://recursos.mep.go.cr/teachers\\_guide8/](https://recursos.mep.go.cr/teachers_guide8/)
- The design of authentic tasks that promote higher-order learning <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/46650134> The design of authentic tasks that promote higher-order learning

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## CHAPTER VIII: GLOSSARY

**Approach:** all points of view on the nature of language and on the nature of language learning and teaching.

**Comprehensible Input:** target language understandable for the learners yet slightly more advanced than the second language learner's current level.

**Eclecticism:** practice of making choices among the available approaches, techniques, and exercises in order to adapt to a particular group of students in a particular situation for the purposes of most effectively and efficiently helping them to learn language.

**Exercise:** those types of activities that can be used to present, practice, and assess language. It includes tasks and other learning activities.

**Language Acquisition:** Long-term learning and fluent use of skills and knowledge.

**Language Learning:** Learning of rules and an understanding of how the target language works; used for self-monitoring.

**Material Adaptation:** Developing new material from previous ones in order to satisfy the target population's needs and wants.

**Material Design:** Developing of material from scratch it starts in the mind of the designer.

**Material Development:** Designing from scratch or adapting previous material (teacher-made or published) for teaching and learning purposes.

**Material Writer:** anyone willing to write activities or worksheets for a website or a teacher's book, an entire teachers' book, workbook, or even series, or anyone willing to coauthor a book.

## CHAPTER IX: ANNEXES

# Annex A Lesson Plan Template

<b>Term:</b> _	<b>Level:</b> __ <sup>th</sup>	<b>Unit:</b> ____	<b>Week:</b> ____
<b>Domain:</b>		<b>Scenario:</b>	<b>Theme:</b>
<b>Enduring Understanding:</b>		<b>Essential Question:</b>	
<b>Learn to Know</b>	<b>Learn to Do</b>	<b>Learn to Be and Live in Community</b>	
Grammar & Sentence Frame Vocabulary Phonology	Function Discourse Markers	Psycho-social Sociocultural	
<b>Assessment &amp; Evidences of Learning</b>	<b>Learner can</b>	<b>Didactic Sequence</b>	<b>Time</b>
Learner... Assessment indicator, instruments and evidence of learning			
<b>Options</b>	<b>Integrated Mini-Project</b>		<b>Time</b>
	Participating Thinking Acting out Responding and sharing		
<b>Reflective Teaching</b>			
What worked well	What didn't work well	How to improve	

## Annex B Lesson Plan Elements

Template Elements	
<b>Level</b>	Grade level of the unit
<b>Unit</b>	1 of 6 in a year, includes Scenario, 4 themes, Enduring Understanding, Essential Question, Goals, pillars of learning, mediation strategies, assessment, and Integrated Mini Project
<b>Domain</b>	Refers to the broad sectors of social life in which social agents (learners) operate
<b>Scenario</b>	A real-life context referenced for an entire unit
<b>Themes</b>	The focus of attention for each week that refers back to the real life scenario (Context rather than content.)
<b>Enduring Understanding</b>	Big ideas to guide the teacher that give importance and meaning to a set of curriculum expectations and have a lasting value for learners, beyond the classroom. (1 per unit)
<b>Essential Question</b>	A question which fosters understanding and critical thinking in learners (Can be adapted to theme.)
<b>Linguistic Competencies</b>	Oral and Written Comprehension (listening and reading); Oral and Written Production (spoken interaction, spoken production, writing)
<b>Goals</b>	Can-do performance descriptors
<b>Oral and Written Comprehension</b>	What a learner can understand or can do when listening and/or reading
<b>Oral and Written Production</b>	What a learner can speak and write
<b>Learn to Know</b>	Learning pillar that includes Grammar and sentence frames, Vocabulary, and Phonetic Awareness/Phonology
<b>Grammar &amp; Sentence Frame</b>	The grammatical components that will be covered in the unit
<b>Phonemic Awareness/ Phonology</b>	The part of the lesson that addresses the Learner's ability to hear, identify, and manipulate sounds
<b>Vocabulary</b>	Words learners need to know to communicate effectively within a domain, scenario, and theme
<b>Learn to Do</b>	Learning pillar that includes Functions and Discourse Markers
<b>Function</b>	The use of spoken discourse and/or written texts in communication for a particular purpose (e.g. asking and giving information, describing)
<b>Discourse Markers</b>	Linking words or phrases that connect one piece of discourse with another one (e.g., <i>and</i> , <i>because</i> )
<b>Learn to Be and Live in Community</b>	Learning pillar that includes Psycho-social, Sociocultural, Social Language, Idioms, and Quotes

Template Elements	
<b>Psycho-social</b>	Attitudes, motivations, values, beliefs, cognitive styles, and personality factors
<b>Sociocultural</b>	Politeness conventions, expressions of folk wisdoms, register differences, dialects and accents
<b>Suggested Mediation Strategies</b>	Organized, purposeful and scaffolded learning experiences
<b>Assessment Strategies</b>	Required evidence of student's learning
<b>Integrated Mini Project</b>	A more complex task which includes a four-phase process (participating, thinking, acting out, responding and sharing) that integrates skills and unit's goals and leads to a final product.

# Annex C Lesson Plan Blueprint

<b>Level: 7<sup>th</sup></b>			<b>Unit: 1</b>
<b>Domain:</b> Socio-Interpersonal	<b>Scenario:</b> Here I Am!	<b>Theme:</b> Let's Get Personal	
<b>Enduring Understanding:</b> What a person thinks, feels, and belongs to makes her/him a unique person.			
<b>Essential Question:</b> What makes us unique?			
<b>Learn to Know</b>	<b>Learn to Do</b>	<b>Learn to Be and Live in Community</b>	
<p><b>Grammar &amp; Sentence Frame</b></p> <p><u>Verb To be + adjectives (S+V+C)</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- I am handsome.</li> <li>- She is intelligent.</li> <li>- They are selfish.</li> </ul> <p><u>Intensifiers</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Very, really, super</li> </ul> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Vocabulary</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Age, status, phone number, country, nationality, occupation, residence, handsome, pretty, intelligent, numbers, dates, the alphabet</li> <li>- I am...happy, sad, angry, excited, unhappy, frustrated, annoyed, threatened, furious, bored, satisfied, shocked, scared, shy, disappointed.</li> </ul> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Phonology</b></p> <p>Segmenting a word into phonemes (d/.../o/.../g) and substituting initial, final and</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Function</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Giving personal information about me and my family members.</li> </ul> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Discourse Markers</b></p> <p>Connecting words: because</p>	<p style="text-align: center;"><b>Psycho-social</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Using positive communication skills.</li> </ul> <p style="text-align: center;"><b>Sociocultural Quotes</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Feeling Ok</li> <li>- I'm cool</li> <li>- What's new?</li> </ul>	

<b>Didactic Sequence Mediation</b>			
<b>Assessment Strategies &amp; Evidences</b>	<b>Learner can</b>	<b>Tim</b>	
Learner...	<p>R.1. understand brief, simple instructions if encountered previously in the same or similar form.</p> <p>R.1. understand brief, simple instructions if encountered previously in the same or similar form.</p>	<p><b>Pre-teaching</b></p> <p><b>Routine –</b> Checking attendance, checking in with Ls, posting and introducing Essential Question and explaining that one way we are unique is how we learn separately and together.</p> <p><b>Warm up</b></p> <p>T distributes different versions of Greetings Bingo (see Resources Section) and reads aloud the instructions written on the board:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Read your card.</li> <li>2. Listen.</li> <li>3. Mark your card.</li> <li>4. Win with -- or / or !</li> </ol> <p>T asks Ls to work with partners to mark their sheets when they hear one of the greetings used in the video of Famous greetings from T. V. and Movies. Explain that to “win” they need to have a straight vertical, horizontal or diagonal line of greetings marked on their cards. Video can be found here: <a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QEVGhSMwfC8">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QEVGhSMwfC8</a></p>	5 min
<p>R.1. identifies brief, simple instructions if encountered in similar form.</p> <p>R.2. discriminates English language sounds.</p>	<p>R.1. understand brief, simple instructions if encountered previously in the same or similar form.</p> <p>R.2. manipulate English language sounds using knowledge in phonics, syllabification and word parts.</p>	<p>10 min</p> <p>T asks Ls to choose how they want to greet each other each week of this Unit and Ls practice the greeting as they stand in a circle and clap out the syllables of the greeting and the syllables of the names of their classmates, one after the other until everyone in the circle has been greeted. (See Phonology section for details on clapping syllables.)</p>	10 min
<p>L.2. discriminates classroom language within oral utterances.</p>	<p>L.2. understand classroom language (e.g., teacher,</p>	<p><b>Pre-task: listening to speak</b></p> <p>✓ T shows labels created for the classroom. As each word is introduced T indicates she is reading the word, then places the label on the appropriate person/object. Words are:</p>	20 min

Learner ...	<p>SI.3. asks personal information to others.</p> <p>R.2. discriminates English language sounds.</p>	
	<p>SI.3. ask others for personal information (address, telephone, number, nationality, country of citizenship, birthdate, age, family and hobbies).</p> <p>R.2. manipulate English language sounds using knowledge in phonics, syllabification and word parts.</p>	
	<p><b>Pre-teaching</b>  <b>Routine –</b> Checking attendance, checking in with Ls, posting and reviewing Essential Question.</p> <p><b>Warm up</b>  T introduces cards (see Resources section) for numbers 0-9, and then focuses on the number 3. Ls are then told that the video they are about to see uses “Three Questions” <a href="https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pWS8Mg-JWSg">https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=pWS8Mg-JWSg</a> and at the conclusion of the video they will repeat one of the questions that the bridge keeper asked the knights.</p> <p><b>Pre-task: (listening to speak)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ T explains that the Ls will now take turns being “bridge keepers” and “knights” and see who can “cross the bridge”. Teams decide on three questions to ask people who want to cross their bridge. Teams then take turns attempting to answer each other’s questions and cross their bridges. Each time a team member crosses a bridge they get a coin or an object (like a rock). The winning team is that which can get all of its members across as many bridges as possible in the time limit (i.e. the one with the most coins or rocks).</li> </ul>	5 min
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ T distributes feelings charts and reviews characteristics in vocabulary list. Ls then walk around the room, asking <i>Are you _____?</i> in order to find a person that feels one of the words that are listed and illustrated.</li> <li>✓ <b>Recognition/Articulation/Production:</b> Ls say their name aloud, over-emphasizing the articulation of each sound then spell aloud so that the classmate can write the name in the chart.  <a href="http://www.freeprintablebehaviorcharts.com/feeling%20char%20pdf/feeling%20char%20revised.pdf">http://www.freeprintablebehaviorcharts.com/feeling%20char%20pdf/feeling%20char%20revised.pdf</a></li> </ul>	20 min
		20 min
		10 min

**Annex D**  
**Reader's Approval Letter**

Universidad Hispanoamericana  
Sede Llorente  
Enseñanza del inglés  
Estimado señor

La estudiante Guisella Filomena Arguedas, cédula 112210089, me ha presentado para efectos de revisión y aprobación, el trabajo de investigación denominado *English Curriculum Implementation in Night Academic High Schools: A Secondary Study for Material Development*. El cual ha elaborado para obtener el grado de Licenciatura en Enseñanza de inglés.

He revisado y realizado las observaciones relativas al contenido analizado, particularmente el uso de APA, la coherencia de los variables y otros cambios relacionados a formato.

Por consiguiente, este trabajo cuenta con mi aval para ser presentado en la defensa pública.



M.A. Yahui Huang Chang  
Ced 800990256

**Annex E**  
**Philologist's Approval Letter**

San José, 28 de junio 2019

Universidad Hispanoamericana

Carrera Enseñanza del Inglés

Estimado Señor/a

La estudiante , Gisella Filomena Arguedas, cedula de identidad numero 1-1221-0089, me ha presentado para efectos de corrección de estilo, el trabajo de investigación denominado:

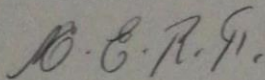
English Curriculum Implementation in Costa Rican Night Academic High Schools. A Secondary Study for Material Development ,2019.

El cual ha elaborado para optar por el grado de Licenciatura en la Enseñanza del Inglés en I y II ciclo, Educación General Básica.

He revisado, de acuerdo con los lineamientos de la corrección de estilo señalados por la Universidad, los aspectos de estructura gramatical, acentuación, ortografía, puntuación, y los vicios de dicción, que se trasladan al escrito ,y he verificado que se han realizado todas las correcciones indicadas en el documento.

Por consiguiente, doy fe de que este trabajo se encuentra listo para ser presentado oficialmente a la Universidad.

Atentamente:



M.Ed. Marta Eugenia Rojas F.

Ced. 1-0330-0145

Carne Colegio Licenciados y Profesores numero,018279

**Annex F**  
**Digital Library Authorization Letter**

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San José, 01 de agosto del 2019.


Señores:  
Universidad Hispanoamericana  
Centro de Información Tecnológico (CENIT)

Estimados Señores:

El suscrito (a) **FILOMENA ARGUEDAS GUISELLA** con número de identificación 1-1221-0089 autor (a) del trabajo de graduación titulado "**ENGLISH CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION IN COSTA RICAN NIGHT ACADEMIC HIGH SCHOOLS: A SECONDARY STUDY FOR MATERIAL DEVELOPMENT, 2019**", presentado y aprobado en el año **2019** como requisito para optar por el título de Licenciatura en **Enseñanza del Inglés**; **Sí** autorizo al Centro de Información Tecnológico (CENIT) para que con fines académicos, muestre a la comunidad universitaria la producción intelectual contenida en este documento.

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