

## Appendix 1

The following section provides an overview of all the units coded in the analysis. Each unit was assigned a code consisting of three parts:

- 1) Letter referring to the coded publication, i.e. **U** (Ur 2012), **S** (Scrivener 2011), **M** (McDonough et al. 2013), or **W** (Watkins 2014)
- 2) Letter referring to the coded category, i.e. **PR** (Production), **RE** (Reception), **GN** (General), **CP** (Culture (practice)), **GE** (Global role of English), or **CT** (Culture (theory)).
- 3) Number

### Practice, Language, Production

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

1	U_PR_1	1	<p>Fluency and accuracy</p> <p>The balance between fluency and accuracy is a good example of something that has not changed very much, in spite of some temporary fluctuations in fashion. It is important for our students to learn to use English both fluently and correctly so that they can get their message across effectively while using standard grammatical, lexical, phonological and spelling conventions. However, something that has changed is that these conventions are no longer necessarily those of native speakers. They are, rather, those which are used by the majority of fluent, educated speakers of the language in international communication.</p> <p>The grammatical, lexical, phonological and spelling conventions to be taught are not necessarily those of native speakers.<sup>1</sup></p>
2	U_PR_2	4	<p>Language standards</p> <p>A question which many teachers in the previous generation had difficulty in answering was which of the major varieties of English to teach: British or American? This is no longer a relevant, or even an interesting, question. The question which needs to be asked is rather: which lexical, grammatical, phonological or orthographical (spelling) forms are most likely to be understood and used worldwide? These are the ones we</p>

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<sup>1</sup> The parts of the text that are printed in red express the main idea of the practical suggestions provided.

			<p>should usually be teaching. For example, it is more useful to teach <i>two weeks</i> than <i>fortnight</i>, as <i>two weeks</i> is more universally used and understood. It is useful to encourage our students to pronounce the /r/ in words like <i>girl</i>, <i>teacher</i>, as this pronunciation is easier to understand and more transparent for those who know the written form. And it is likely to be more useful to teach the spelling of <i>organize</i> than <i>organise</i> – again for reasons of transparency, clarity and general acceptability. The same applies to choices we may need to make in the area of dialect, conventions of style and so on. The question should not be ‘What does a Brit (or American, or Australian or whatever) say?’ but rather ‘What is likely to be most easily understood and accepted by other English speakers, native and non-native, around the world?’</p> <p><b>Teach the forms that are most likely to be understood and used worldwide.</b></p>
3	U_PR_3	62	<p>Appropriateness</p> <p>In order to know how to use an item, the student needs to know about its appropriateness for use in a certain context. Thus, it is useful for a student to know, for a particular item, if it is very common or relatively rare; or if it is usually used in writing or in speech, in formal or informal discourse. Some items may be ‘taboo’ in most social interactions; others may belong to certain varieties of English. For example, learners need to know that the word <i>weep</i> is virtually synonymous with <i>cry</i>, but it is more formal, tends to be used in writing more than in speech, and is in general much less common.</p> <p><b>Students need to be taught about the appropriateness of vocabulary items in different contexts (such as different English varieties) in order to be able to use them correctly.</b></p>
4	U_PR_4	77	<p>Teaching standard grammar</p> <p>Although the use of the variant forms mentioned above (such as <i>she like</i> and <i>the person which</i>) does not affect meaning and will not cause a breakdown in communication, it is arguable that we should mostly treat them as errors and encourage our students to use standard grammar (for exceptions see below). I use the term standard here to mean the uses which are seen by most speakers of English as internationally acceptable, not necessarily the usages associated with the ‘native’ varieties of English.</p>

			Encourage students to use standard grammar, however, standard does not necessarily mean associated with the native varieties of English.
5	U_PR_5	128	<p>Pronunciation</p> <p>....</p> <p>Students do not need necessarily to model their accents on English native speakers – indeed, some native speakers are notoriously difficult to understand! – but their speech does need to be clear. Some learners consistently get particular sounds wrong, and as a result their speech is less ‘comfortable’ to listen to, and occasionally incomprehensible. In that case, you may wish to spend some lesson time improving your students’ pronunciation.</p> <p>Students do not need to model their accents on NSs, but they must be intelligible.</p>
6	U_PR_6	128	<p>Sounds</p> <p>Some mispronunciations in international English conversations can actually bring about a breakdown in communication (Jenkins, 2002); for example, the substitution of a long /i:/ sound to the short /ɪ/ in a word like <i>live</i> (v.) which then sounds like <i>leave</i>. We do therefore need to make sure that our students are differentiating between these two sounds and using them correctly. Other common variants make very little difference: the pronunciation of the ‘th’ sounds /ð/ and /θ/ as /d/ and /t/, or as /z/ and /s/, does not, apparently, cause problems for most listeners.</p> <p>Make sure that students are differentiating between the above sounds; other sounds make very little difference.</p>
7	U_PR_7	129	<p>Rhythm</p> <p>The speech rhythm of native English speakers is stress-timed. This means that in each phrase or sentence certain words are stressed (usually the lexical words which carry the main content) and the other words are shortened to fit the rhythm. Therefore, how long each phrase or sentence takes to say depends on how many stresses there are in it. For example: My old GRANDfather used to go SWIMming in the middle of DeCEMber (three stresses) does not take much longer to say than My</p>

			<p>GRANDpa went SWIMming in DeCEMber (three stresses). Many other languages are syllable-timed: the time it takes to say a sentence depends on how many syllables there are. So the first of the sentences above, if pronounced according to syllable-timing (18 syllables) would take quite a lot longer to say than the second (10 syllables). However, so many people now speak English with syllable- rather than stress-timing – or a mixture – that both are becoming acceptable worldwide, and it may not be worth investing very much effort in training students to produce stress-timed speech themselves. <u>[They do, however, need to be able to hear and understand both types: so it is important to give them a varied diet of different accents in listening comprehension.]</u></p> <p><b>You do not need to invest much effort in training students to produce stress-timed speech.</b></p>
8	U_PR_8	129	<p>Intonation</p> <p>The rules of intonation in English within native-speaker communities are fairly complex and difficult to teach: very few English textbooks, or teachers, attempt to provide rules or practice in these. The issue is complicated further by the fact that, as with rhythm and stress, the increase in the use of English as an international language has resulted in a proliferation of intonation patterns that are used, accepted and understood in spoken English worldwide. So it is probably not worth trying to teach rules of intonation, <u>[and what we need to do, again, is provide our students with plenty of exposure to different accents and their accompanying intonations, within comprehensible listening texts.]</u></p> <p><b>You do not need to teach rules of intonation.</b></p>
9	U_PR_9	130	<p>Selected items may need explicit teaching</p> <p>The conclusion is, therefore, that it may not be useful to attempt to teach overall language rhythm or a comprehensive range of intonation patterns, but that there are certain items whose correct pronunciation does need to be insisted on. The most important of these are the following (see Jenkins, 2002):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <b>contrast between long and short vowels</b>, particularly /ɪ/ - /i:/;</li> <li>• all the consonants, with the exception, as mentioned above, of the /θ/ and /ð/ sounds, which do not seem to be essential for accurate</li> </ul>

			<p>communication;</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• in particular, <b>the contrast between voiced plosives (/p/, /t/, /k/)</b> <b>and unvoiced plosives (/b/, /d/, /g/)</b>;</li> <li>• <b>initial consonant clusters</b>, e.g. the /pr/ in a word like <i>proper</i>;</li> <li>• <b>the use of intonation to signal stress of a particular word in a sentence.</b></li> </ul> <p>You may find, however, that you may need to add to, or shorten, this list, in response to the particular needs of students in your own class.</p> <p><b>It may not be useful to teach overall language rhythm or a comprehensive range of intonation patterns, but you need to insist on correct pronunciation of certain items.</b></p>
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Scrivener (2011) *Learning Teaching*

10	S_PR_1	273-274	<p>Voice settings</p> <p>...</p> <p>Before we go much further with pronunciation, there is one important question a teacher needs to consider, namely which pronunciation variety are you going to teach?</p> <p>....</p> <p>The abbreviation ‘RP ’ refers to received pronunciation, a UK pronunciation variety, originally from south-east England, but sometimes regarded as a kind of standard educated British English pronunciation. UK-published coursebooks have mainly (but not exclusively) offered RP on their recordings. When teaching pronunciation, do you want your students to aim to approach an Rp accent themselves? Why? Why not?</p> <p>....</p> <p>There used to be a fairly widespread (if unspoken) assumption in many teaching contexts that all students wanted and needed to learn to communicate in a way that sounded as close to a UK (or US or Australian) native speaker as possible. In fact, most learners are learning English to communicate with other non-mothertongue speakers, using</p>
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			<p>English as a lingua franca (a language used to communicate between speakers of different mother tongues), and many will rarely - if ever - meet or need to speak with an RP-speaking native speaker. In such cases, we could make a good argument that RP is not the most useful variety for students to learn, and it may actually hinder their communication, as many people may not be able to follow them if they use RP features such as elisions, weak forms and the lack of an <i>l</i> sound in words like <i>car</i> or <i>hard</i>. Some of these issues are addressed in the section on World English in Chapter 6, Section 10.</p> <p>Whatever the political arguments, I think it is very hard to teach an accent that is not one you can naturally use yourself. So, for the moment, the work on pronunciation in this book is based on the following starting points:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students need to learn pronunciation that will allow them to be understood in the contexts where they are most likely to need to use the language.</li> </ul> <p><b>A native accent, such as RP, may not be the most ideal pronunciation variety for students to learn to produce. You should teach an accent that students can naturally use themselves, and consider what type of pronunciation variety will be most useful for a particular student or a group of students.</b></p>
11	S_PR_2	274	<p>Voice settings</p> <p>...</p> <p>The activities and examples on the next few pages are based on using RP as a basic pronunciation. This is mainly because this is what is found in the majority of current international coursebooks (and because it happens to be my own pronunciation variety). You need to consider how much the advice and sample materials may need to be adapted for your own teaching needs. As you read through the following sections, here are four questions to consider:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are the phonemes discussed in this book the same as the ones you use?</li> <li>• Which other features discussed are not part of your own</li> </ul>

			<p>pronunciation?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• <u>[Is it appropriate for your students to practise recognising features such as weak forms and elision?]</u></li> <li>• Is it appropriate for your students to practise producing features such as weak forms and elision?</li> </ul> <p>Consider the following question, i.e. Is it appropriate for your students to practise producing features such as weak forms and elision?</p>
12	S_PR_3	282	<p>Connected speech</p> <p>...</p> <p>I think I might say it naturally as:</p> <p>/ˈwɒtʃs ɡənə ˈduːsbəʊdi/</p> <p>Where has the /t/ in /it/ gone? It has been lost (elided).  Where has the /t/ in /əˈbɔːt/ gone? It has changed (assimilated) into /d/.  The unstressed syllables also have weak vowel sounds /ə/ or /i/.</p> <p>...</p> <p>This is a realistic, if relatively ‘fluent’, pronunciation of the sentence. It reflects the fact that my speech is British English. <u>[Your students probably need to be able to recognise and understand such sentences]</u>, even if you don’t want them to produce language like this. In fact, it’s worth remembering that one of the main problems learners have with listening to English is that they can’t recognize pronunciations that are entirely different from what they are expecting. For example, if a student expects to hear /wɒtʃ a:(r) juː/ but instead hears /ˈwɒtʃs/, they may well not register at all that it represents the same words. So a key point to remember is that it’s vital to teach pronunciation – not just for the students’ own speech production, <u>[but to help them listen better.]</u></p> <p>You do not necessarily need to insist on learners’ producing connected speech.</p>
13	S_PR_4	282	Analysing connected speech

		<p>....</p> <p>But what is a realistic language model to expect students to produce? The very ‘fluent’ model I use? The sentence based on ‘citation’ forms? This is a decision for the individual teacher, but I think it’s reasonable to offer students something as close as possible to your own spoken pronunciation - the language you actually speak yourself. And in most cases, this will have at least some of the fluency features I’ve mentioned.</p> <p>I can’t see much point in getting students to repeat the citation-form versions of a sentence, though a surprisingly high number of teachers do, sometimes believing it to be a ‘good’, ‘correct’ or ‘perfect’ version of English. It’s not. Even people who argue forcefully that they are ‘certain’ that they don’t say /ta/ or /waz/ or /'gana/ almost certainly do say them. In many varieties of spoken English, it is normal to use weak forms, elision and assimilation, because it make sentences much easier to say.</p> <p>As a teacher, you probably need to offer realistic (but not extreme) fluent samples:</p> <p>/ˈwɒt ə ʤə ɡsuɪr tə ˈduː əbaʊt ɪt/</p> <p>This occupies a ‘fluency place’ on the continuum between the extremes of the unnatural-sounding citation form and the very rapid, reduced speech you might hear in some social contexts.</p> <p>Offer students something as close as possible to your spoken pronunciation, i.e. not necessarily the model the author uses (being a native speaker)</p>
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McDonough et al. (2013) *Materials and Methods in ELT*

14	M_PR_1	159-161	<p>8.5 Teaching pronunciation</p> <p>The teaching of pronunciation is carried out in many different ways, and for different reasons. Sometimes whole lessons may be devoted to it; sometimes teachers deal with it simply as it arises. Some teachers may like to ‘drill’ correct pronunciation habits, others are more concerned that their students develop comprehensibility within fluency. Behind such different approaches to teaching pronunciation lie different beliefs and</p>
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		<p>attitudes towards the kind of English that is the target of learning. Traditionally, ‘a native speaker model’ (itself a complex notion for a language like English with so many varieties) seems to have been regarded as ideal by many EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers and learners. Many tests and examinations seem to be based on such beliefs. English nowadays, however, has come to be used globally as a contact language (i.e. English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) ) for communication by speakers of different languages (Jenkins et al., 2011). In ELF, native-speaker norms become less relevant. Imagine an international convention held in China where medical experts from various continents gather. Would it matter at all if an NNSE’s (non-native speaker of English) pronunciation does not simulate a particular variety of NSE (native speakers of English)? Will these medical experts be considered as failed NSEs when they are eloquently and effectively speaking in one of their world Englishes? Jenkins et al. (2011: 284) point out that non-native speakers can be in fact ‘– more often – highly skilled communicators who make use of their multilingual resources in ways not available to monolingual NSEs, and who are found to prioritize successful communication over narrow notions of “correctness”’ (see also Seidlhofer, 2010). If we are to embrace this new notion of fluid and dynamic varieties of English used by NNSEs as a Lingua Franca (ELF), many assumptions of English language teaching will have to be reconsidered. Jenkins et al. (2011: 297) reflect thus: ‘The challenge for ELF researchers and, even more, for English teaching professionals then is to find ways of dealing with this variability so that it can be incorporated into teaching in ways that are digestible for learners’.</p> <p>Challenged by such new insights and situations, no one approach can be said to be universally applicable. As Dalton and Seidlhofer (1994: 6) write: ‘the task of pronunciation teaching . . . is to establish models for guidance, not norms for imitation’. Certainly a native speaker model is unrealistic for the great majority of learners, and ‘perfection’ is an unattainable goal.</p> <p>There are, nevertheless, a number of key aspects of pronunciation and the English sound system that a teacher can in principle attend to. Some of them are ‘bottom-up’, dealing with both forming and hearing sounds as ‘intelligibly’ as possible; others are ‘top-down’, where a learner’s pronunciation is part of a broader communicative approach. This is a balance, in other words, between ‘accuracy’ on the one hand and ‘intelligibility’ on the other.</p>
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Common advice on how to increase intelligibility includes the following:

- Individual sounds, including areas of difficulty for speakers of particular languages (e.g. l/r for Japanese, p/b for Arabic speakers), minimal pairs (bit/bat, hit/hate etc.). This may also be accompanied by ear training, and sometimes by teaching students to read the phonemic alphabet – useful of course for dictionary work.
- Word stress, which exhibits a number of key patterns in English.
- Sentence stress and rhythm. In a stress-timed language like English, this is of particular importance, because both ‘regular’ and ‘marked’ stress patterns essentially carry the message of a stretch of speech: Harmer (2001b: 193) gives the example of ‘I lent my sister 10 pounds for a train ticket last week’ as spoken with regular stress patterns, and then with varying the stress to emphasize different words. Again, it is useful to link this to listening practice as well.
- Intonation, significant in conveying messages about mood and intention. We might consider the different meanings in varying the intonation in such a simple sentence as ‘that’s interesting’: we can sound bored, ironic, surprised or, indeed, interested.
- Sound and spelling, which in English are in a complex relationship.

Jenkins (2007) and Deterding (2010), based on their research on successful users of ELF, identify features of pronunciation that contribute to intelligibility in various world Englishes:

It has been shown that, although there are substantial differences between the Englishes . . . , some features seem to be shared, particularly the avoidance of the dental fricatives, . . . the use of full vowels in function words and the unstressed syllables of polysyllabic words, and syllable-based rhythm. We might note that all these features fit in perfectly with the Lingua Franca Core (LFC), the set of pronunciation

			<p>features which Jenkins (2007) suggests as essential for successful international communication. (Deterding, 2010: 396)</p> <p>If we place intelligibility as the target, then some of the common advice on pronunciation seems to lose its full force. For example, should or should not a teacher emphasize the importance of sentence stress and rhythm (i.e. stress-timed rhythm) when recent research seems to show that syllable-based rhythm is sufficient for successful communication? Jenkins et al. (2011) warn against the prescriptive use of research findings:</p> <p>ELF research, then, is not about determining what should or should not be taught in the language classroom. Rather, ELF researchers feel their responsibility is to make current research findings accessible in a way that enables teachers to reconsider their beliefs and practices and make informed decisions about the significance of ELF for their own individual teaching contexts. (Jenkins et al., 2011: 306)</p> <p>More detailed discussion on the teaching of pronunciation is to be found in Kelly (2000) and Burns and Seidlhofer (2010). Kelly (2000) has a chapter on spelling and pronunciation. Coursebooks include Hancock and Donna (2012) and Hewings (2004). Those who would like to read further on ELF should see Seidlhofer (2011). Kirkpatrick (2010) tackles very similar issues from the perspectives of World Englishes.</p> <p><b>There are a number of key aspects of pronunciation and the English sound system that teachers can attend to in order to increase intelligibility, such as individual phonemes and word stress.</b></p>
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Watkins (2014) *Learning to Teach English*

15	W_PR_1	53	<p>Do we need to teach pronunciation?</p> <p>....</p> <p>We need to remember, however, that communicative competence does not imply the need to speak with a native-like accent. The majority of learners will never sound like native speakers and there is no reason why they should. Many learners rarely speak to native speakers but need to use English to speak to other non-native speakers, using English as a</p>
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			<p>common language. A more realistic, and perhaps preferable, goal for learners is to become easily intelligible and to speak with a reasonably natural rhythm so that no undue burden is placed on the person they are speaking to. There are few obvious benefits in them sounding exactly like a native speaker.</p> <p>Some teachers (both native and non-native speakers) worry about teaching pronunciation because they perceive themselves as having a strong accent. This idea tends to be based on the idea that there is a prestige form of English (actually considered to be something akin to the pronunciation of a traditional BBC presenter) which is in some way better than other forms of English. However, there is nothing about a particular variety of English which makes it intrinsically better than any other and therefore teachers should concern themselves with providing a natural model of English rather than worrying about which model that is.</p> <p><b>Provide a natural model of English rather than worrying about which model that is.</b></p>
16	W_PR_2	55	<p>Connected speech</p> <p>When people speak quite quickly and produce a stream of words there is often an effect on how individual words sound. Small changes can occur in how words are pronounced when compared to how they may be pronounced in isolation. It is important that learners are not distracted by these changes when listening and remain able to recognise what they hear. <u>[Teachers are probably best advised to focus their attention on this decoding]</u> rather than worry too much about their learners producing the effects of connected speech.</p> <p><b>You do not need to worry about learners producing the effects of connected speech.</b></p>

Practice, Language, Reception

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

17	U_RE_1	104	<p>Pronunciation</p> <p>The pronunciation of words is often slurred and noticeably different from the phonological representation shown in a dictionary and taught to students. There are obvious examples in English, such as <i>can't</i> for</p>
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			<p><i>cannot</i>, which have made their way even into the written language. Less obvious examples include the use of the neutral vowel sound ‘schwa’ in the pronunciation of ‘weak’ forms (such as /əv/ for ‘of’) and elision, the disappearance of one or more of the sounds (<i>orrigh</i>t for ‘all right’ or <i>Sh ’we go?</i> for ‘Shall we go?’). However, there is some evidence (Jenkins, 2002) that fully competent English speakers with a different mother tongue tend to pronounce words fairly closely to the way they are written and formally pronounced, which of course makes them more clearly comprehensible. Even so, the pronunciation features described above are still very widespread, and learners need to have opportunities to encounter and understand them.</p> <p><b>Provide learners with opportunities to encounter NS pronunciation features such as elision.</b></p>
18	U_RE_2	105	<p>Varied accents</p> <p>Another feature not shown in the sample above, but which we need to take into account, is the wide variation in the way English words are pronounced by people coming from different speech communities, whether native or non-native. We probably mostly listen to people who speak a similar variety of English to our own, but we need to be able to cope with other accents in various situations outside our home community.</p> <p><b>Take into account the wide variation in the way English words are pronounced by people coming from different speech communities, as students need to be able to cope with other accents in various situations outside their home community.</b></p>
19	U_RE_3	105	<p>Summary</p> <p>Most listening comprehension texts probably need to be based on informal, improvised English, spoken by a visible speaker using colloquial pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, featuring both ‘noise’ and ‘redundancy’ and affording students opportunities to hear a variety of accents, since these represent the kinds of listening they will need to be able to cope with.</p> <p><b>Provide students with opportunities to hear a variety of accents.</b></p>
20	U_RE_4	106	<p>Practical tips</p> <p>....</p>

			<p>5. Make sure you include a varied sample of listening texts.</p> <p>These should probably be mostly in informal conversational English, as suggested above. However, occasional formal speech types and texts representing a variety of contexts and varieties of English should also be provided. There is a wide range of recorded texts on the Internet, both audio and video, some of which are accompanied by listening comprehension tasks.</p> <p><b>Make sure you include a varied sample of listening texts.</b></p>
21	U_RE_5	129	<p>Rhythm</p> <p>The speech rhythm of native English speakers is stress-timed. This means that in each phrase or sentence certain words are stressed (usually the lexical words which carry the main content) and the other words are shortened to fit the rhythm. Therefore, how long each phrase or sentence takes to say depends on how many stresses there are in it. For example: My old GRANDfather used to go SWIMming in the middle of DeCEMber (three stresses) does not take much longer to say than My GRANDpa went SWIMming in DeCEMber (three stresses). Many other languages are syllable-timed: the time it takes to say a sentence depends on how many syllables there are. So the first of the sentences above, if pronounced according to syllable-timing (18 syllables) would take quite a lot longer to say than the second (10 syllables). [<u>However, so many people now speak English with syllable- rather than stress-timing – or a mixture – that both are becoming acceptable worldwide, and it may not be worth investing very much effort in training students to produce stress-timed speech themselves.</u>] They do, however, need to be able to hear and understand both types: so it is important to give them a varied diet of different accents in listening comprehension.</p> <p><b>Give students a varied diet of different accents in listening comprehension.</b></p>
22	U_RE_6	129	<p>Intonation</p> <p>The rules of intonation in English within native-speaker communities are fairly complex and difficult to teach: very few English textbooks, or teachers, attempt to provide rules or practice in these. The issue is</p>

		<p>complicated further by the fact that, as with rhythm and stress, the increase in the use of English as an international language has resulted in a proliferation of intonation patterns that are used, accepted and understood in spoken English worldwide. <u>[So it is probably not worth trying to teach rules of intonation]</u>, and what we need to do, again, is provide our students with plenty of exposure to different accents and their accompanying intonations, within comprehensible listening texts.</p> <p>Provide students with plenty of exposure to different accents and their accompanying intonations.</p>
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Scrivener (2011) *Learning Teaching*

23	S_RE_1	274	<p>Voice settings</p> <p>...</p> <p>The activities and examples on the next few pages are based on using RP as a basic pronunciation. This is mainly because this is what is found in the majority of current international coursebooks (and because it happens to be my own pronunciation variety). You need to consider how much the advice and sample materials may need to be adapted for your own teaching needs. As you read through the following sections, here are four questions to consider:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Are the phonemes discussed in this book the same as the ones you use?</li> <li>• Which other features discussed are not part of your own pronunciation?</li> <li>• Is it appropriate for your students to practise recognising features such as weak forms and elision?</li> <li>• <u>[Is it appropriate for your students to practise producing features such as weak forms and elision?]</u></li> </ul> <p>Consider the following question, i.e. Is it appropriate for your students to practise recognising features such as weak forms and elision?</p>
24	S_RE_2	282	<p>Connected speech</p> <p>...</p>

		<p>I think I might say it naturally as:</p> <p>/ˈ wDtJs gana 'duwsbaudi/</p> <p>Where has the /t/ in /it/ gone? It has been lost (elided).</p> <p>Where has the /t/ in /ə'baut/ gone? It has changed (assimilated) into /d/.</p> <p>The unstressed syllables also have weak vowel sounds /ə/ or /i/.</p> <p>...</p> <p>This is a realistic, if relatively ‘fluent’, pronunciation of the sentence. It reflects the fact that my speech is British English. Your students probably need to be able to recognise and understand such sentences, [<u>even if you don’t want them to produce language like this.</u>] In fact, it’s worth remembering that one of the main problems learners have with listening to English is that they can’t recognize pronunciations that are entirely different from what they are expecting. For example, if a student expects to hear /wDt a:(r) ju:/ but instead hears /'wotjs/, they may well not register at all that it represents the same words. So a key point to remember is that it’s vital to teach pronunciation – [<u>not just for the students’ own speech production,</u>] but to help them listen better.</p> <p><b>Students need to be able to understand connected speech.</b></p>
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Watkins (2014) *Learning to Teach English*

25	W_RE_1	<p>7</p> <p>What do you think?</p> <p>....</p> <p>4 The best form of English is that spoken in the UK, the home of English. (See Chapter 1)</p> <p>While people may have a personal preference for one variety of English over another (based on how it sounds, for example), there is nothing intrinsically better about one form over another. English is used around the world both as a native language and as a second language. Indeed, most learners use English as a lingua franca – a language that allows them to communicate with other non-native speakers. This suggests that most learners are best served by being exposed to a range of accents and</p>
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			<p>varieties of English, with no one variety being given particular status.</p> <p>Expose learners to a range of accents and varieties of English, with no one variety being given particular status.</p>
26	W_RE_2	53	<p>Everyone has an accent and accents are important as they form part of our identity – who we are. Teachers need not hide their natural accent and no particular accent is intrinsically ‘better’ than any other. Most learners of English are more likely to use English with other non-native speakers and so it could be argued that adjusting to this teacher’s accent could be just as useful as adjusting to a native speaker accent.</p> <p>Do not hide you natural accent as adjusting to a NNS accent may be useful for students’ ability to understand spoken English in international communication.</p>
27	W_RE_3	55	<p>Connected speech</p> <p>When people speak quite quickly and produce a stream of words there is often an effect on how individual words sound. Small changes can occur in how words are pronounced when compared to how they may be pronounced in isolation. It is important that learners are not distracted by these changes when listening and remain able to recognise what they hear. Teachers are probably best advised to focus their attention on this decoding [rather than worry too much about their learners producing the effects of connected speech.]</p> <p>Focus your attention on the decoding of connected speech.</p>
28	W_RE_4	70	<p>Sources of material</p> <p>Provide learners with examples of different speakers so that they listen to varieties of English other than their teacher. Remember, many people use English to speak to other non-native speakers and so not all the accents need necessarily be from the UK or other places that use English as a first language.</p> <p>Provide learners with examples of different speakers so that they listen to varieties of English other than their teacher.</p>

Practice, Language, General

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

29	U_GN_1	269	<p>Teaching methods and materials</p> <p>As mentioned earlier, adults tend to learn the language well through conscious learning strategies. They benefit from explicit descriptions of language, explanations of grammar, and detailed definitions of meanings. They appreciate opportunities to apply language rules in focused exercises. Many are also interested in learning ‘about’ the language: for example, the etymology of particular words, comparisons between American and British English, or contrasts with their own language. However, they also need plenty of communicative practice, in all four skills.</p> <p>When teaching adults, one of the topics to be potentially included is differences between American and British English.</p>
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Scrivener (2011) *Learning Teaching*

30	S_GN_1	120-121	<p>World Englishes</p> <p>....</p> <p>Imagine you are a Brazilian teacher of English who has just started a contract to work in a rural school in Tanzania. What variety of English is it appropriate to base your teaching on – your own? East African English? UK English? US English? An international English?</p> <p>....</p> <p>‘What can I teach?’ is a question that many teachers face, especially if they take on work outside their home country. There is no simple answer, and there may be many constraints on what you choose (e.g. which coursebook you have).</p> <p>My brief, perhaps simplistic, answer is that I think you need to be aware of:</p>
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			<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• what your students need and expect;</li> <li>• what you are realistically able to do;</li> <li>• the impact your choices might have in the long term, personally, locally, nationally and globally.</li> </ul> <p>Your learners' needs, such as having to take an exam that requires a certain variety of English or needing to communicate in particular context, are probably paramount concerns.</p> <p>One approach I have seen a number of teachers adopting is that of being completely open acknowledging the range of Englishes available and raising it for discussion and choice; for example, after playing a recording saying 'Well, the person on the recording said ... but, myself, I say ... and here in this town, I've noticed that people say ...'.</p> <p><b>When deciding what variety to base your teaching on, be aware of what your students need and expect.</b></p>
31	S_GN_2	273	<p>Voice settings</p> <p>...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• It is often appropriate and honest to (a) teach the pronunciation you speak yourself; (b) draw attention to local variations you are aware of; (c) highlight differences in accent that appear in course material.</li> </ul> <p><b>Teach the pronunciation you speak yourself, draw attention to local variations you are aware of, highlight differences in accent that appear in course material.</b></p>

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32	M_GN_1	133	<p>6.11 Vocabulary: Other Possibilities</p> <p>Depending on the types of learners we are dealing with, there is also the possibility of looking at lexical fields in a subject area such as economics or science where associated vocabulary items are linked to a wider picture. New inventions lead to the introduction of neologisms or new words and expressions in the language, which can be a rich source of</p>
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			<p>vocabulary development work. In recent years, we have seen the introduction of new subjects and expressions such as ‘ecommerce’; ‘email virus’; ‘surfing the Net’; ‘wading through a ton of emails’ and so on. Given the nature of English as a global or international language, some teachers may wish to concentrate on aspects of vocabulary that differ in, say, British and American English.</p> <p><b>You may wish to concentrate on aspects of vocabulary that differ in British and American English.</b></p>
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Practice, Culture (practice)

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

33	U_CP_1	5	<p>The place of English literature and culture of the English-speaking peoples</p> <p>Methodology books of the twentieth century typically talk of the culture of the English-speaking peoples as the ‘target culture’ and assume that reading texts in course materials should be copied or adapted from ‘authentic’ texts from English-speaking countries. This also has changed. Courses today may include not only texts from English-speaking countries, but also those written in English, or translated into it, from anywhere in the world. And in most teaching contexts, it is inappropriate to talk about a ‘target’ culture, meaning a native-speaker one. Most learners need to become aware of a diverse, international, cosmopolitan set of cultural norms, literature, art forms and so on, rather than those of a single community (see Unit 15: Teaching content, pp. 218-19, 223).</p> <p>It is, therefore, more important these days to foster multicultural awareness on the part of our students than to teach them particular codes of conduct or literary traditions (Byram, 1997). We cannot, obviously, teach them all the cultures of the world. However, we can expose them to a sample through our materials, make them sensitive to the kinds of differences from their own cultures that they may come accross and foster intercultural competence (see Unit 15: Teaching content, pp. 219-20).</p> <p><b>Expose students to a sample of different cultures of the world.</b></p>
34	U_CP_2	204; 207-208	Adapting course materials

			<p>...</p> <p><b>Suad</b> (teaching in a girls' school in Egypt): The reading passage is culturally inappropriate for my adolescent female students. In our culture it is not acceptable for young people to have girlfriends and boyfriends or 'go out'. So I have a problem with the following reading passage, though the rest of the book is excellent.)</p> <p>...</p> <p><b>Suad: cultural inappropriateness.</b> There are various options here, and which you choose depends on various factors: the opinions and personalities of the students, their parents' attitudes, your own cultural background and beliefs, and school policy.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. You can simply skip this reading passage, which may mean omitting an entire unit. Or you could replace it with one you find yourself.</li> <li>2. If you have a digital copy of the text, you could either delete the inappropriate paragraph, or change the text so that the woman's problem is something more acceptable to your students' culture.</li> <li>3. You might use the text as it is, and simply acknowledge that this relates to a foreign culture and would not be acceptable at home.</li> <li>4. You might go further: take the opportunity to draw students' attention to the differences in cultural norms between the USA and the home culture and discuss the issue of cultural differences in general.</li> </ol> <p style="color: red;">Use a potentially inappropriate reading passage as a tool for comparing the differences between the home culture and a foreign culture.</p>
35	U_CP_3	217	<p>Why different courses emphasize some types of content and not others depends largely on the objectives of the course. If your students are immigrants whose purpose is to integrate into an English-speaking community, then topics that are based on that community will be very important. If, on the other hand, they are learning English as an international language for general communication purposes, then such content will be less prominent. If the course is ESP, then the content will focus on engineering, medicine, tourism or whatever the particular goal of the course is. If you are a schoolteacher and see yourself as an</p>

			<p>educator as much as an instructor in English, you may want to emphasize educational content: so you might prefer to choose a coursebook that emphasizes different educational issues or world or general knowledge.</p> <p>If your students are planning to integrate into an English-speaking community, topics that are based on that community will be important; if not, and the goal is to learn English for international communication, topics based on a native English-speaking community will be less important.</p>
36	U_CP_4	219-220	<p>Intercultural competence</p> <p>The concept of <i>intercultural competence</i> has already been mentioned in Unit 1: English teaching today. It refers to a person's ability to function in a cultural context that is not his or her own, to be aware of and respect the cultures of other people, and to behave in a way that will be acceptable to them. The content of teaching materials has a crucial role to play here. It can teach students about a – necessarily limited – range of aspects of cultures different from their own and also raise cultural awareness and attitudes of tolerance and respect for people from different backgrounds. This means including texts and tasks that look at different cultural norms, as well as drawing students' attention to cultural implications in other texts that they might not otherwise notice.</p> <p>Cultural awareness does not relate only to the cultures of other people. One useful by-product of attention to the cultures of other communities is the raised awareness of feature sof one's own culture in contrast. Linked to this is increased sensitivity to how one's own cultural norms might appeal to others. It -p. 220 is important for our students to detach themselves from an ethnocentric point of view (which is perhaps inevitable in younger learners), see their own community as part of a worldwide mosaic, and to begin to learn about the differences and relationships between them.</p> <p>Include texts and tasks that look at different cultural norms, and draw student's attention to cultural implicatons in other texts that they might not otherwise notice.</p>
37	U_CP_5	223	<p>Literature as a component of the English course</p> <p>It used to be taken for granted that the literature taught to learners of English should be classic British or American literature. Later this was</p>

		<p>expanded to include more modern English literature, and works written by authors from other countries where English is an official or major language such as Canada, Nigeria or India. More recently, the range has been widened still further to include translated literature.</p> <p>Most of us are teaching English today as an international language, for purpose of global communication. It makes sense, therefore, to choose literature from as wide a range of sources as possible, including all the categories mentioned above.</p> <p><b>Choose literature from as wide a range of sources as possible.</b></p>
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38	M_CP_1	96-103	<p><b>5.6 Networked Technologies: Computers, Communication and Collaboration</b></p> <p>...</p> <p>The synchronous conversation on the next page demonstrates the opportunities that exchange with other L2 users can bring. In exploiting computermediated communication (CMC), it is worth reflecting on the nature of the tool and the type of language we tend to see within. Other CMC tools have different attributes to the chat tool that was used in this encounter, and these impact on the characteristics of the language generated. Asynchronous tools such as email or forum spaces provide more thinking time, allowing learners to rehearse language use before committing to sharing their ideas (Slaouti, 2000). Thinking more broadly about how available tools can support interaction then brings us to further dimensions of this networked picture. There are various examples of exchange projects that have aimed at developing both language and intercultural awareness through computer mediated collaborative activity using both longer standing CMC tools and Web 2.0 spaces (see e.g. Liaw and Johnson, 2001; O’Dowd, 2007; Lee, 2009). We turn our attention to the collaborative activity itself.</p> <p>The synchronous extract we have just read is from the early stages of a collaboration in which the two participants explored each other’s shared and diverse perspectives on cultural values. This was not an open discussion, but framed by a staged process. They were encouraged to ‘meet’ synchronously to get to know each other and to negotiate their</p>
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		<p>project focus. This involved individually brainstorming associations with keywords such as ‘family’ and ‘the Internet’, and then deciding on one theme which they mutually found interesting to explore together. They used different technologies to support that exploration: the generation of ‘word clouds’ around their theme using <a href="http://www.wordle.net/">http://www.wordle.net/</a> (figure 5.4); the sharing of anecdotes, interesting online texts, YouTube clips or other media content. The learners in their international settings were brought together via a class wiki built using <a href="http://pbworks.com/">http://pbworks.com/</a> (figure 5.5). This latter was not only a home base for all of the different project pairs, but the location for their negotiation of the final project outcome, a summary of their explorations to their class colleagues. From each wiki page, learners provided a link to a short online presentation of what they had learnt from each other using <i>Prezi</i> (<a href="http://prezi.com/">http://prezi.com/</a>).</p> <p>...</p> <p>The examples here illustrate the potential of technology to create bridges out from our learners’ cultural contexts. They also exemplify technology as a vehicle for extending the locus of language learning activity. Such thinking is not exclusive to intercultural exchanges. As identified earlier in this book, much of our work as language teachers involves encouraging and scaffolding learning which extends beyond the bounds of the physical classroom. Many institutions have a virtual learning environment which they may have purchased; they may alternatively use Moodle, which is a well-known open source environment, and teachers are usually invited to populate these with materials and activities that may either be used in class, or as a selfaccess resource – very often both. Many teachers harness the tools we have mentioned earlier to provide a more local, personal home base for independent learning. In figure 5.7 we see a teacher blog, created using <a href="https://www.blogger.com">https://www.blogger.com</a>, and dedicated to listening sources, a combination of embedded video clips from Youtube and RSS feeds to podcasts, for example, from the BBC Learning English web site. Each of these is tagged, that is, labelled, according to recommended minimum language level, general theme and specific source, allowing learners to navigate their way through. Guidance can be provided through a comment feature on each post; a widget is added to poll on what they would like to see more of. Thoughtful planning around available functionality soon allows for a simple but effective resource to be easily built.</p>
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			<p>As we consider how these find a place in our practice, we would do well to reflect on the words of Cochran-Smith, reviewing the research literature in 1991 on word processing and writing, who wrote that computer use is dependent on the learning organisation of the classroom which, in reciprocal fashion, may also be shaped and changed by the capacities of computer technology to accommodate new patterns of social organisation and interaction. (Cochran-Smith, 1991: 122) We have illustrated in this chapter how the technology itself is not only able to accommodate new patterns of previously unanticipated patterns of interaction; it is in fact beginning to have a very firm influence on where our classroom practice is going. As we also suggested, more and more learners have access to computer-mediated communications technologies outside their learning environment. The fact that networked technologies exist, and that more people access them as authentic tools as part of their lives, is resulting in teachers looking for ways in which to accommodate the patterns of interaction the technology brings.</p>
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### Theory, Global role of English

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

39	U_GE_1	2	<p>Different styles and Englishes</p> <p>...</p> <p>There is also a large number of different varieties of English (Kirkpatrick, 2007), each associated with a particular local community (e.g. Singlish in Singapore), social group (e.g. teenager English in any native-speaking community) or profession (e.g. legal English).</p>
40	U_GE_2	4	<p>English as an international language</p> <p>Perhaps the most dramatic development that has taken place in the field of English language teaching in the last 50 years has been the shift in its primary function: from being mainly the native language of nations such as the UK or USA, to being mainly a global means of communication. The speakers of English whose L1 is another language already vastly outnumber native English speakers, and their number continues to grow. For most of its learners, English is therefore no longer a foreign language</p>

			(i.e. one that is owned by a particular ‘other’ nation or ethnic group) but first and foremost an international language (one that has no particular national owner) (Rubdy & Saraceni, 2006). This development has brought with it a number of changes in the principles and practice of English language teaching.
41	U_GE_3	5	<p>The native and non-native English teacher</p> <p>English teachers who speak the language as an additional rather than as a native language are, as implied above, the majority worldwide. The English spoken by such teachers, if they are (as they should be!) fully competent and fluent in the language, is also likely to be a better model of international English for their students than any ‘native’ variety. In addition, they have been through the same learning process as their students. They have insights into the kinds of problems that are likely to come up and how to deal with them. And they can function as role models: ‘If I can do it, so can you!’</p> <p>This is not to say that native English-speaker teachers cannot be effective teachers: of course they can. The point is that they are not necessarily superior to their non-native colleagues. Many teach very successfully in schools in non-English-speaking countries of the world (this is my own teaching background and that of many of my native-speaker colleagues). They are particularly in demand in some language schools whose students expect to be taught by ‘native speakers’, and in situations where the language is taught as a preparation for study or work in an English-speaking country.</p>
42	U_GE_4	6	<p>The Place of the L1</p> <p>It has been taken for granted in the past that the aim of an English course is to make the learners communicate like native speakers. This is for most learners an inaccessible goal; and these days it is not even an appropriate one. Even if the aim is to communicate with, among others, native speakers, this does not necessarily mean trying to be a ‘native speaker’ oneself. The appropriate model in most cases, as suggested above, is probably the non-native speaker teacher. For most students today, English is a tool, like basic arithmetic, or literacy, or computer skills: an ability they need to master in order to function effectively in today’s world.</p>

43	U_GE_5	10	<p>Integrative and instrumental motivation</p> <p>The term integrative and instrumental motivation are associated with the work of the Canadian researchers Lambert and Gardner (Gardner, 1991). Integrative motivation refers to the desire of the learner to learn the language in order to integrate into the community of speakers of that language. Instrumental motivation, in contrast, refers to the need to learn the language for material or educational benefit: to get a better job, for example, or to progress to advanced study. The original Canadian study found that integrative motivation was the more important of the two. More recent studies of learners of English in different countries, however, have found the opposite (e.g. Warden &amp; Hsui, 2000). This is probably because of the changing role of English worldwide discussed earlier, and the fact that learners today need English for a variety of instrumental purposes rather than in order to join a particular English-speaking community.</p>
44	U_GE_6	102	<p>Goals and problems in teaching listening</p> <p>....</p> <p>The main goal of teaching listening is to enable our students eventually to cope with the natural listening situations that they are most likely to encounter in real life. And those situations will probably display most of the features above. Student of today have far fewer problems with this than I did, for two main reasons.</p> <p>First, as we have seen on pp. 4-6, English as an international language is spoken mainly between people who have learnt English as an additional language. In order to ensure successful communication, such speakers make an effort to speak clearly and use a variety of communication strategies to make sure they understand and are understood (see research summarized by Seidlhofer, 2004, p. 218).</p>
45	U_GE_7	128-129	<p>Sounds</p> <p>...</p> <p>It is interesting that in some cases native-speaker pronunciation may actually be less readily comprehensible for the majority of English speakers than that of non-natives. It is a common experience for conference-goers who are non-native speakers of English to find the lectures given by other non-natives far easier to understand than those given by native speakers: largely because of their pronunciation. The</p>

		shortened pronunciation, or even elimination, of unstressed syllables (the use of the schwa for ‘weak’ forms such as /əv/ instead of /ɒv/ for ‘of’, /tə/ instead of /tu:/ for <i>to</i> , or the word <i>police</i> pronounced as /pli:s/ instead of /pɒli:s/ may sometimes cause difficulties in comprehension. In general, the nearer the pronunciation is to the actual spelling of a word, the more likely it is to be easily understood by the majority of speakers worldwide.
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Scrivener (2011) *Learning Teaching*

46	S_GE_1	118-119	<p>World Englishes</p> <p>English is a countable noun. There are many Englishes. Only a few years ago, teachers could work on an assumption that there was essentially one English language which was ‘owned’ by a small number of countries where it was spoken (with some widely known variations) as a native language: the USA, the UK, Ireland, Australia, New Zealand, Canada and a few more. Teachers viewed these as ‘correct’ models and could choose whether to base their course on, say, UK English or US English.</p> <p>But there are many other varieties of English. In some places English has a second (or third) language status and may be used for education, law or government, for example: Singapore English, Nigerian English, Filipino English, Kenyan English, Pakistani English.</p> <p>In addition, English is widely used as a <i>lingua franca</i> (= a language in common) between people from different countries who do not speak each other’s native tongues, whether in face-to-face interaction or via phone or the Internet. So, for example, when a Greek businesswoman meets a Vietnamese businessman, the one language they are most likely to both know (even if it is only at a very elementary level) is English.</p> <p>In 1985, Braj Kachru proposed visualizing this usage as three concentric circles of English, see Figure 5.1.</p> <p>The inner circle represents the countries where people would consider English as their first language. The outer circle contains all those countries where English is not a first language but has historic roots, for example, countries of the Commonwealth.</p>
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			<p>The expanding circle represents all the countries where English is not formally a central part of the country's systems but where many people still study it as a foreign language and use it as a lingua franca. This circle is expanding constantly. It is probably more than twice the size of either the inner or outer circles.</p> <p>Kachru suggested that the models of correct language are mainly set by the inner circle but that the outer circle is starting to create its own norms. David Graddol argues that the situation has already changed a lot since 1985 and that many supposed foreign language users are now so proficient in English that it is more like a second language for them. He proposes that we should consider levels of proficiency in English rather than country of origin – with an inner circle containing the highly proficient users – the 'functional natives'. In some countries where English is neither a first or a second language (e.g. many Northern European countries) there may be very large numbers of highly proficient near-native speaker English users.</p>
47	S_GE_2	119-120	<p>English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)</p> <p>The vast majority of English-language interaction in the world is not between native speakers, but between non-native speakers. Having a native speaker join a conversation between non-native speakers is often actually a hindrance for them. The native speaker may be less experienced at understanding a range of varieties of English, less aware of his own language use and less able to adjust its complexity and cultural references to make it more accessible for people from other countries.</p> <p>Which raises an increasingly important (and increasingly difficult) question for teachers: what English is it appropriate to teach my students? Is an 'inner circle' native-speaker model still appropriate?</p> <p>Some writers and researchers have proposed that we should no longer be teaching English based on native-speaker models of correct grammar, pronunciation and cultural conventions. What, they argue, is the point of forcing students to practise saying weak forms schwa pronunciations of auxiliary verbs was and were in the way that someone in the South of England might do? If the majority of non-native speakers meeting together do not use these features, might it actually be hindering</p>

			intelligibility to work on these? The alternative may be to work out what the lingua franca core is – an international version of English, a standard Global English. This would not be invented, but discovered by researching and analysing how non-native users speak when they come together.
48	S_GE_3	120	<p>Task 80: Your students’ interactions needs</p> <p>Do the students you work with need English to communicate with English mother-tongue speakers? Or are they more likely to be using English as a language to interact with other non-native users?</p> <p>...</p> <p>In many places, language teaching has for some time seemed quite UK-centric (or US-centric), with coursebooks drawing a lot on the UK/US culture and with language samples mainly using one variety of pronunciation. There may also be an unstated assumption that learners will visit the UK or USA and need English mainly to communicate with locals there. But many learners who study the language have no intention of going to these places, and they may well not be learning English to communicate with native speakers, but in order to use it as a lingua franca, enabling them to meet (and maybe do business with) people from all over the world.</p>

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49	M_GE_1	32-33	<p>2.3 Some Claims for Current Materials</p> <p>In the previous section, we have looked at the impact of CLT and its implications for materials and methods. We have also considered some controversies and debates. An obvious question, when discussing developments in materials design after CLT, is whether the influences can be detected in current materials after many debates and the test of time. Nunan (1999: 2) thinks that ‘contemporary practice represents an evolution, and . . . the best practice incorporates the best of “traditional” practice rather than rejecting it’. We need, then, to ask to what extent current materials show evolution while retaining the best legacies. Let us now look at the kinds of claims that are being made, taken from the blurbs of a number of published global coursebooks (<i>italics are ours</i>):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• ‘It enables you to learn English <i>as it is used in our globalized world</i>, to</li> </ul>
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			<p><i>learn through English</i> using information-rich topics, and to learn about <i>English as an international language</i>'.</p> <p>'... offers a comprehensive range of <i>interactive digital components for use in class, out of class and even on the move</i>. These include <i>extra listening, video material and online practice</i>'. (Clandfield and Jeffries, 2010)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• 'With its <i>wide range of support materials</i>, it meets the <i>diverse needs of learners in a variety of teaching situations</i> and helps to <i>bridge the gap between the classroom and the real world</i>'. (Clare and Wilson, 2011)</li> <li>• '<i>Natural, real-world grammar and vocabulary</i> help students to <i>succeed in social, professional and academic settings</i>'. (Dellar and Walkley, 2010)</li> <li>• '... is an <i>integrated skills</i> series which is designed to offer flexibility with <i>different teaching and learning styles</i>'.</li> </ul> <p><i>'fully integrated grammar, skills and lexical syllabuses</i> provide a balanced learning experience'</p> <p><i>'Contextualised vocabulary</i> focuses on <i>authentic real-world language</i>'</p> <p><i>'Clearly structured grammar presentations</i> are reinforced with <i>extensive practice</i>'</p> <p><i>'Free MP3 files</i> for all activities in the Student's Book <i>available online</i>'. (Harmer, 2012)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• '... prepares learners to <i>use English independently for global communication</i>'.</li> </ul> <p><i>'Real life</i> every step of the way ... <i>practical CEF goals at the core of the course ... achieving purposeful real life objectives ... language that's natural and dependable – guaranteed by the ... Corpus ... Authentic audio throughout</i> builds learners' ability to <i>understand the natural English of international speakers</i>'.</p> <p><i>'Building global relationships ... develop learners' intercultural competence as a "fifth skill", leading to a more sensitive and more effective communication ...</i>'. (Rea et al., 2011)</p>
50	M_GE_2	47	<p>2.6 Related Developments</p> <p>When we reviewed the claims of current global coursebooks in Section 2.3 above, we noted the influence of changes that have been taking place around English Language Teaching. Firstly, we are seeing a dramatic spread of English as a lingua franca or world Englishes (Graddol, 2006, 2010; Kirkpatrick, 2010; Jenkins et al., 2011). English as a lingua franca is currently seen as a common currency, as it were, to enable communication at global level, be it face to face or through digital means. As Graddol (2006, 2010) predicts, the perception of the</p>

		<p>significance of English as a lingua franca may be different in years to come, indeed various world Englishes or different languages may claim dominant status. At the moment, however, English seems to be viewed as one of the necessary skills that can lead to social, academic and economic success. Many countries seem to have adopted or be interested in adopting Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) (i.e. a cross-curricular approach for learning content through a target language) and/or Teaching English to Young or Very Young Learners to enhance English language education. This situation challenges the foundations of traditional views of ‘what constitutes good English’. As Jenkins et al. (2011: 284) put it:</p> <p>From an ELF perspective, then, once NNSEs are no longer learners of English, they are not the ‘failed native speakers’ of EFL, but – more often – highly skilled communicators who make use of their multilingual resources in ways not available to monolingual NSEs, and who are found to prioritize successful communication over narrow notions of ‘correctness’ in ways that NSEs, with their stronger attachment to their native English, may find more challenging.</p> <p>NNSEs may, for example, code-switch in order to promote solidarity and/or project their own cultural identity; or they may accommodate to their interlocutors from a wide range of first language backgrounds in ways that result in an ‘error’ in native English (Jenkins et al., 2011: 284).</p> <p><i>NB</i>  <i>ELF: English as lingua franca</i>  <i>NSE: Native Speaker of English</i>  <i>NNSE: Non-Native Speakers of English</i></p> <p>This new perspective of English as Lingua Franca affects potentially all sorts of aspects of English Language Teaching including assessment. We explore this issue in more detail in Chapter 8 in relation to speaking skills.</p>
51	M_GE_3	55
		<p>3.3 The External Evaluation</p> <p>....</p> <p>Let us see the types of claim that can be made for materials in the introduction. The following example is part of the introduction taken from a recent EFL series. We have italicized certain terms and key concepts that we feel need further investigation:</p>

			<p>...</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• We have placed a special emphasis on representing <i>an accurate multicultural view of English as it is spoken today</i>. Many courses still represent the English-speaking world as being largely UK- and US-based. Considering the fact that there are now more non-native English speakers than native, we have also included a variety of accents from a wide range of countries and cultures.</li> </ul>
52	M_GE_4	56	<p>3.3 The External Evaluation</p> <p>....</p> <p>To give an overview of some typical ‘blurbs’, we have selected a range of examples taken from EFL coursebooks. We may notice how certain ‘key’ words and expressions come up time and time again.</p> <p>...</p> <p>1 ‘It enables you to learn English as it is used in our globalized world, to learn through English using information – rich topics and texts, and to learn about English as an international language’.</p> <p>2 ‘. . . offers a comprehensive range of interactive digital components for use in class, out of class and even on the move. These include extra listening, video material and online practice’.</p> <p>3 ‘Natural, real-world grammar and vocabulary help students to succeed in social, professional and academic settings’.</p> <p>4 ‘. . . is a goals-based course for adults, which prepares learners to use English independently for global communication’.</p>

Watkins (2014) *Learning to Teach English*

53	W_GE_1	7	<p>The best teachers of a language are native speakers of that language. (See Chapter 2)</p> <p>Two of the many qualities that teachers need are to be able to use language naturally and be able to described language and its patterns. It could be argued that using language naturally is more likely to be typical of native speakers and being able to describe grammar patterns is a</p>
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			<p>quality more typical of non-native speaker teachers. Also, some argue that non-native speaker teachers are more likely to be able to empathise with their learners because they may have been through the same learning experience. In addition, non-native speakers may be better placed to use the learners' first language constructively. However, these are all generalisations to some extent. In the end, teachers need many skills and qualities and being a good teacher is about working towards having as many of those qualities as possible, regardless of background.</p>
54	W_GE_2	96	<p>Learners are individuals</p> <p>Learners learn English for all sorts of different reasons. Some may be going on holiday to an English speaking country and want a few phrases to use during their stay. Others may be learning English because they want to study at an English medium university. Others may be learning because it is important for work and some younger learners may be learning simply because it is part of a school curriculum. Some may use English with native speakers of English, but the vast majority of learners actually use English with other non-native speakers. For example, a Swedish person and a Japanese person may find themselves using English because it is a language they can both operate in.</p>

### Theory, Culture (theory)

Ur (2012) *A Course in English Language Teaching*

55	U_CT_1	218-219	<p>Cultural content of teaching materials and classroom process</p> <p>The cultural content in an English course may come from four main sources:</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. The home culture of the students</li> <li>2. The culture of the English-speaking peoples</li> <li>3. The culture of other communities in the world</li> <li>4. Global, or international culture</li> </ol> <p>1. Home culture.</p> <p>The topics relate to the native country, such as those suggested under <i>The local environment</i> in Section 15.1 above. They encourage students to discuss local issues and relate to their own experiences, beliefs, customs, etc. The way the materials deal with the content may also reflect the</p>
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		<p>home culture: not only the actual texts, but also the design. For example, in some places it is unacceptable to show bare-armed or bare-legged women in illustrations due to religious beliefs. Both materials and classroom process will also conform to the culture of learning of the local community: they may, for instance, give more, or fewer, activities based on student initiative.</p> <p><b>2. The culture of the (native) English-speaking peoples.</b> For most of the twentieth century, most English language teaching materials, especially at more advanced levels, included a large component of British and American culture. They included not only literature (see Section 15.5 below), but also texts about British or American customs or institutions. The culture of other English-speaking countries was also occasionally referred to, but not very often. This is perhaps partly because the major ELT publishers were (and still are) British and American, and local publishers tended to follow their lead. In addition, it was assumed that the learner wanted to imitate a native speaker, not only in language proficiency, but also in cultural knowledge and behaviours. Today, in most institutions in non-English-speaking countries, the goal is the use of English as an international means of communication (see Unit 1: English -p. 219 teaching today, pp. 4-6), and cultural knowledge of the native-speaking communities is therefore less important.</p> <p><b>3. The cultures of other speech communities.</b> This component is noticeably more important in modern materials. A typical coursebook today will include units on different countries and peoples, and customs and literature from various sources. One reason is simply that because of faster and more widely used communications and increasing travel, people are far more aware of events and cultures elsewhere. Another, related, reason is that today's students are likely to need English to communicate with other English speakers with a different L1 and a different culture, and so they need a high degree of intercultural competence (see below). A starting point for the development of such competence is awareness of the diversity of world cultures.</p> <p><b>4. Global cultural norms.</b> Culture with a capital C has for some time been international. Museum displaying Asian or African art, concerts of music by European composers, and libraries with translated books from authors of all</p>
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		<p>nationalities can be found in most countries. But it is a relatively recent phenomenon that certain norms and conventions (culture with a small 'c') have begun to be accepted and used worldwide. These include things like dress, politeness norms and forms of communication. They are used in contexts where it is likely that different cultures may meet, for example at conferences, at airports, in international business, at higher education institutions and in tourist destinations. Note that the 'home' cultural norms are maintained in more local contexts: the home, the town or village, in basic education, and community meeting-places. But in more international social interaction, global cultural norms have taken over. For example, formal dress for a man is likely to be a suit, while informal dress for teenagers may mean T-shirts and jeans; and formal introductions will usually be accompanied by hand-shaking. In the area of written communication, internationally accepted norms are even more obvious: e-mail conventions, for example, or the format of academic research papers or newspapers. All these are reflected in the content of modern coursebooks and English teaching.</p>
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## Appendix 2

This section provides an overview of selected instances of textual material that was not included in the analysis.

### 1. Ur, *A Course in English Language Teaching*, p. 198

Disadvantages of a coursebook

...

- **Cultural inappropriateness.** The content of a coursebook may be culturally inappropriate, which not only may make it irrelevant or uninteresting, but can also cause discomfort or even offence.

...

The final decision as to whether or not to use a coursebook has to depend on your own teaching style, the resources available and the accepted policy in your school.

-> This passage was not included in the analysis as it does not match the criteria for inclusion in any of the categories. Although it deals with the topic of culture, the focus is on culture in the sense of culture of learning. As such, it does not meet the criteria for inclusion of textual material in Culture (practice) or Culture (theory), i.e. 1) fostering learners' intercultural awareness and competence, and/or 2) content and materials not relating to one dominant culture, especially a NS one.

### 2. Scrivener, *Learning Teaching*, p. 122

Appropriate methodology

Task 83: The impact of my teaching

In reading this book, have you come across ideas or techniques that have made you stop and think 'That's completely unsuitable for my students' or 'That is just impossible in this locality/culture'?

...

I rather hope you have, because the book isn't intended to offer any all-purpose solutions, but to suggest some possibilities and encourage you to enquire into how they might fit with your

own teaching and its context. The kind of techniques and teaching strategies discussed in this book represent my version of what seems to me current good practice and thinking. But it is one person's view based on my experience in the kinds of schools and countries I have worked in. It may well not be appropriate methodology in other schools, other places, other cultures.

There may be serious dangers in trying to 'export' en masse an approach that works in one place and assuming it will also work elsewhere. The right methodology is the right methodology for a context. It isn't a universal answer.

This is not to say that the right methodology is automatically whatever the status quo happens to be or what conservative thinkers in a locale believe to be best. Some teachers or managers may have a stake in maintaining things just as they are and reject any innovation or suggestion for improvement. In these cases, the teacher who feels that they have something important to offer has a difficult dilemma as to whether it is right to implement their innovation and how to do it most effectively.

-> This passage was not included in the analysis as it does not match the criteria for inclusion in any of the categories. Similarly to the previous example, it deals with the topic of culture, but the focus is on culture in the sense of culture of learning. As such, it does not meet the criteria for inclusion of textual material in Culture (practice) or Culture (theory), i.e. 1) fostering learners' intercultural awareness and competence, and/or 2) content and materials not relating to one dominant culture, especially a NS one.

### 3. McDonough et al., *Materials and Methods in ELT*, p. 296

Change, materials and methods

....

7 The global trend of English being used as a lingua franca is affecting both theory, practice and materials. What kinds of language? What are the optimal targets for language learning? What kinds of language achievements are acceptable in exams and in the multilingual and multicultural world?

-> This passage was not included in the analysis as it does not match the criteria for inclusion in any of the categories. Although a first glimpse may suggest that this passage could potentially be included in Global role of English, it does not meet any of the criteria set out for this category, i.e. 1) the current proliferation of accents and varieties around the world, and/or 2) the changing role of English (from being a language previously studied by NNSs to

communicate with NSs to a language used for international communication among NNSs), and/or 3) the impact of the changing role of English on international communication interactions in terms of communication strategies and the language used in such interactions, and/or 4) the impact of the changing role of English on current materials, and/or 5) the distinction between NS and NNS English teachers. While the word *materials* is used, which may suggest that the passages corresponds to criterion 4), i.e. the impact of the changing role of English on current materials, no further information is provided about this topic. As such, the criterion is not fulfilled.

4. Watkins, *Learning to Teach English*, p. 81

What speaking involves

So, in order to express what they want to, speakers recall the appropriate words and organise them into units (using vocabulary and grammar awareness). They must also move lips, tongue and so on to form the appropriate sounds, monitor what comes out and be prepared to correct it. In addition to all this, speakers need an awareness of cultural conventions, which may limit what is appropriate to say or how something is expressed. For native speakers this happens exceptionally quickly, but is much slower when operating in a new language. As a result, even fairly high-level learners can find it difficult to participate effectively when in unpredictable conversational settings.

-> This passage was not included in the analysis as it does not match the criteria for inclusion in any of the categories. Although it is concerned with cultural awareness, the topic is not dealt with in terms of international communication. Moreover, the author also states that 'for native speakers this happens exceptionally quickly', which suggests that cultural awareness is mentioned here in relation to interactions in a NS environment.