

**THE ROLE OF THE LEARNER AND THE WAY
LANGUAGE IS PORTRAYED IN THE EXERCISES OF
ENGLISH AND SWEDISH TEXTBOOKS FOR ADULTS**

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Tiivistelmä – Abstract <p>Oppikirjoilla on hyvin keskeinen rooli opetuksessa kaikilla asteilla, joten ne väistämättä vaikuttavat myös oppijoihin. Oppikirjojen kieli- ja oppimiskäsitykset vaikuttavat siihen, miten opitaan ja nämä käsitykset voivat myös siirtyä oppijoille. Oppikirjatutkimus on kohdistunut erityisesti Suomessa peruskoulun ja lukion oppikirjoihin jättäen aikuisten kielten oppikirjat vähemmälle huomiolle. Kuitenkin myös aikuiset tarvitsevat laadukkaita ja ajantasaisia oppikirjoja oppiakseen.</p> <p>Tässä tutkielmassa tutkittiin oppijan roolia aikuisten englannin ja ruotsin kielen oppikirjojen tehtävissä. Tehtävien ja oppijan roolin kautta haluttiin selvittää myös kieli- ja oppimiskäsityksiä kirjojen takana. Näiden seikkojen selvittäminen on tärkeää, sillä tietoa oppikirjoista tarvitaan muun muassa kirjojen kehittämiseen sekä oppikirjan valintaan. Tutkimuksen aineistona olivat tehtävät kahdessa aikuisille suunnatussa englannin kielen oppikirjassa ja kahdessa vastaavassa ruotsin kielen oppikirjassa. Nämä kirjat ovat suunnattu aloitteleville kieltenoppijoille esimerkiksi kansalaisopistoissa. Tutkimusmetodina käytettiin laadullista sisällönanalyysiä, jossa oppikirjojen tehtävät luokiteltiin kategorioihin. Lisäksi tutkimuksessa oli myös määrällisen tutkimuksen piirteitä, sillä tuloksia on esitetty myös numeraalisessa muodossa.</p> <p>Tutkimuksessa selvisi, että aikuisten englannin ja ruotsin kielen oppikirjat edustavat pääasiassa melko perinteistä näkemystä kielestä ja kielen oppimisesta, sillä kolme neljästä kirjasta sisälsi hyvin paljon kielen rakenteeseen keskittyviä tehtäviä kääntämisen ja mekaanisten tehtävien muodossa. Oppijan rooli näissä kirjoissa oli melko passiivinen ja yksinäinen. Yksi englannin oppikirja erosi kuitenkin muusta aineistosta edustamalla kommunikatiivisempaa kielenoppimiskäsitystä. Kirjassa oppijan rooli on aktiivinen kielen tuottaja, ja oppimista tapahtuu paljon myös yhdessä muiden oppijoiden kanssa.</p> <p>Tutkimuksen tulokset osoittavat, että aikuisten englannin ja ruotsin kielen oppikirjat edustavat enimmäkseen vielä melko perinteistä, muotoon keskittynyttä kielinäkemystä. Tämä viittaa siihen, että oppikirjoja tulisi edelleen kehittää vastaamaan monipuolisemmin myös aikuisten kielen oppimisen haasteisiin.</p>	
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1 INTRODUCTION

Textbooks are an important part of language teaching nearly everywhere. Many teachers base their teaching and courses on a single textbook, so the significance of the textbook is undeniable. According to Luukka et al. (2008: 64), textbooks direct teaching heavily and have an effect on what is considered important. Luukka et al. (2008: 64) argue that textbooks not only influence the content of teaching, but also the way we learn through exercises. In addition, learners seem to appreciate textbooks and rely on them a lot. Taking these issues into account, it is important that textbooks offer a variety of methods in order to be able to cater for different learners using them. We need reliable information about the textbooks used in teaching, and therefore textbook studies are an important part of research in second language acquisition.

Foreign language textbook studies have concentrated on younger learners. In Finland, adult foreign language textbooks have not been studied, so there is need for research in the area. The focus in research has been on textbooks for elementary school or high school, and these target groups have received a great deal of attention in research in general. One of the reasons for this might be that the education of children and adolescents is regarded as more important and complicated than the teaching of adults. There seems to be more motivation to develop textbooks for elementary schools and high schools, and hence the variety of different book series is more extensive. Certainly, also the number of language learners in adult education is smaller compared to younger language learners.

Despite the issues mentioned above, adult education is also important, and the role of language learning in adult education should not be understated. Language learning that has been started as a child in school usually continues in adulthood. The idea of lifelong learning applies well to language learning, because the process of learning a language continues through whole life. According to a survey by Elinkeinoelämän keskusliitto (EK: 2010), language skills are needed in various lines of work, and therefore the upkeep and evolvment of the skills is important. In addition to Finnish, the most needed languages in the Finnish working life are English and Swedish (EK 2010: 5-6). This is probably because of the role of English as a global language and the official

status of Swedish in Finland. In addition, skills in other foreign languages are valued and sought after. The importance of learning several foreign languages has been stated in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR 2001: 1-5). The CEFR presents learning European languages as a necessary measure to be able to communicate and understand our cultural heritage (CEFR 2001: 1-5). In addition, the aims of the Council of Europe language policy include measures that promote the learning of languages. One of these measures is that governments should ensure that every citizen has the opportunity to learn European languages (CEFR 2001: 3).

Finland has a long tradition in evening schools that are organized in many cities for anyone to attend classes of different subjects. The language course selection is often quite extensive. Especially the variety of English courses is vast, which shows that there is a need for English teaching for adults. Also Swedish courses are offered in a little narrower scale than English courses, but there is definitely a need for them because of the role of Swedish in Finnish society and working life. These kinds of evening schools support the idea of lifelong learning and the goals of the CEFR. In addition, people are able to revise their language skills and learn new languages in order to measure up to the demands of the working life. Moreover, many people attend evening classes in languages as a leisure time activity, even after retiring. It is obvious that there is a large demand for adult foreign language textbooks in this kind of teaching. However, the supply of textbooks for adults is not large, and same books seem to have been used for a long period of time.

Also adults need good textbooks in order to learn effectively. It is incorrect to think that adults learn languages with any kind of material and that only younger learners need up-to-date materials of high quality. It is obvious that the methods of teaching can have a huge effect on learning at any age, and since textbooks are a significant part of teaching, they affect language learning, too. Textbooks for adults need to cater for a variety of learners with different learning styles. In addition, adult learners need motivation for learning, as do younger learners, and the textbook can motivate learners in many ways. Age-appropriate and interesting themes are very important for arousing interest in learners. Also the outlook of a material may have a considerable influence on motivation and learning, especially with visual learners. A good textbook contains relevant pictures and the information is organized in a logical way so that it is easily accessible.

It is important to consider what kind of views of language and language learning textbooks promote. Views behind a textbook affect decisions about the contents and exercises in the book. Therefore, a textbook writer's views about language concern also the learner. Textbooks can explicitly or implicitly teach a certain view of language and language learning, so the choice of textbook is also a choice between views of language that a teacher wants to pass on. Teachers do not always have a lot of time to evaluate textbooks before choosing one, although this is a very important decision. Therefore, research on textbooks or evaluations of textbooks would be very useful. Sometimes the language view stated by the authors and the contents of a textbook do not correspond to each other. Hence, it is not sufficient only to read what the author or the book cover has to say about a book, but closer examination of the book is also required. These false statements might mislead teachers to choose a textbook that does not correspond to their view of language.

In the present study, I aimed to find out what kind of roles learners are given in English and Swedish textbooks for adults. The learner's role in exercises can vary for example in whether an exercise is done alone or with other learners, or whether an exercise requires active thinking or just copying of forms. By examining the exercises in the books, I also aimed to reveal the language views behind the textbooks. The study was carried out as qualitative study and the method used was content analysis. English and Swedish textbooks for adults in Finland had not been examined in this way before, so there truly was a need for research in the area. The hypothesis was that the textbooks would involve a quite traditional view of language, so that the learner's role in the exercises would be passive and solitary. It was assumed that the exercises would contain a lot of mechanic tasks in which learners reproduce forms according to models, copy words and translate sentences. It was also doubted that the books would contain a lot of truly communicative exercises. These hypotheses were based on my personal experience of adult language textbooks. The hypotheses were partly realized in the results of the study, since three out of four books could be described as quite formal in their language view and containing a somewhat passive and solitary role of the learner. However, one of the English books promoted a quite communicative view of language with an active and social role of the learner.

In the second chapter, adult foreign language learning is discussed. Specific attention will be paid to different views about language and language learning, foreign language

teaching methods and age in language learning. In addition, adults as language learners and teaching of adults will be discussed. The third chapter deals with design, evaluation and selection of foreign language textbooks. Also foreign language textbooks for adults and the situation of English and Swedish textbooks for adults in Finland will be introduced. In the fourth chapter, I will state the research questions and hypotheses, describe the data and explain the method of data gathering and analysis. In the fifth chapter, the results of the present study will be introduced and discussed. The sixth chapter includes a conclusion and implications of the present study and suggestions for future research.

2 FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING AND ADULTS

In this chapter different language and learning views and language teaching methods are discussed. In addition, the issues of age in language learning and adults as language learners are addressed.

2.1 Views about language and learning

There are different ways to talk about language and categorize different views of language. In the present study, two major trends in language research that have opposing ideas about language are introduced: **empiricism** and **rationalism**. This particular categorization is being used, because it has been used by various writers, for example Johnson (2008: 44), who uses the terms empiricism and mentalism. Also von Wright (1992) discusses different views of language and divides theories into empiricist and rationalist theories. In addition, the distinction between empiricism and rationalism is fairly straightforward and therefore usable. In empiricism, it is thought that knowledge is empirical, based on perceptions, whereas in rationalism, knowledge is thought to originate from comprehension or intellectual intuition (von Wright 1992: 2). These views and different forms of them will be presented more closely in the following. In addition, some other views of language learning are introduced.

2.1.1 Empiricist views

According to von Wright (1992: 2), empiricism is based on an idea that people learn through experiencing things. One of the people behind this view is philosopher John Locke who introduced the concept of *tabula rasa* ('clean slate') as representing the mind of a child on which experiences "draw" traces (von Wright 1992: 3). Von Wright (1992: 4) adds that early empiricism was linked to association psychology through a view that the mind was thought to be constructed of units that are linked, or associated, to each other. There was also room for active cognitive behavior, because according to empiricism a human could compare associations in the mind and the conclusions of the process could be stored as new associations (von Wright 1992: 4). According to Jordan (2004: 23), empiricist researchers collected both spoken and written data in the field. After that the data was analyzed concentrating on describing the language and finding out differences between languages (Jordan 2004: 23). In an empiricist language learning view the role of the environment is significant, since learning occurs by receiving information from outside. Therefore, the role of the learner is very passive and the teacher has a major role in the language learning.

Johnson (2008: 45-47) presents **structural linguistics** as one form of empiricism. This movement, also called **field linguistics** includes researchers collecting data in the field and constructing theories or rules about language by examining the gathered data (Johnson 2008: 46). Ferdinand de Saussure is considered one of the classics when it comes to structural linguistics, and linguistics in general. According to de Saussure's theory, there are two levels of language: *parole* which means actual language use or what is spoken, and *langue* which refers to language itself or the structure of language (de Saussure 2014: 89). In addition, in de Saussure's point of view, linguistics should create descriptions of all languages and their history and find out universal features in all languages (de Saussure 2014: 79). Also Leonard Bloomfield represents structural linguistics, and his most popular book *Language* was published for the first time in 1933. In the book, Bloomfield (1984: 19-20) states that in describing languages historical issues should not be taken into consideration, because they can change the way a researcher sees a language. According to him, the only descriptions of language that are worthwhile are achieved by making inductive generalizations (Bloomfield 1984: 20). Structural linguistics has resulted in the creation of *the grammar translation*

method, in which focus is on the structure of language. This method will be discussed later along with other teaching methods.

In the 1950's and 1960's there developed a view called **behaviorism**, in which learning is based on habit formation and imitation of models (Crystal 1997: 376). According to Johnson (2008: 47-49), there are three main views in behaviorism: *conditioning*, *habit formation* and *the importance of the environment*. Ivan Pavlov studied conditioned reflexes and wrote about conditioning and the biology behind it in a book named *Conditioned reflexes* (1928). In conditioning, stimulus-response bonds are created between events, and Pavlov studied this method also in dog experiments (Pavlov 1957: 188-205). In addition to Johnson, Crystal (1997: 376) and Nunan (2001: 88) mention *habit formation* as a central feature in behaviorism, so it can be regarded as the most prominent feature. Johnson (2008: 48) describes habit formation as accomplished by rewarding wanted behavior. B. F. Skinner (1972) studied this phenomenon by experimenting with pigeons which were taught to perform different tasks. *The importance of the environment* refers to a distinction made between an organism (a person or an animal) and its environment (anything external to the person or animal) (Johnson 2008: 48-49). In behaviorism the role of the environment is much greater than the role of the organism according to the idea of *tabula rasa*, so that experiences from the environment shape the organism (Johnson 2008: 49).

According to Nunan (2001: 87-88), behaviorism has similarities with *contrastive analysis hypothesis*. Jordan (2004: 169) explains that in contrastive analysis a learner's mother tongue and the foreign language that is learnt are compared to each other in order to be able to predict what problems will occur in the language learning process. The mother tongue of a learner affects the learning of a second language, since the forms of the mother tongue result in either correct (positive transfer) or incorrect forms (negative transfer) in learner language according to similarities and differences in the languages (Nunan 2001: 87). In the behavioristic view, the learner should try to decrease the negative transfer from the mother tongue (Crystal 1997: 376), which means that the learner should eliminate the old habits and create new ones that fit the second language. Therefore, learning a new language means forming new habits (Jordan 2004: 169). This view of language learning was adopted by the *audio-lingual method*, in which language is learnt by forming habits through drills (Crystal 1997: 387).

2.1.2 Rationalist views

Rationalist (or mentalist) theories of learning have a quite different view on learning than the empiricist theories above. Johnson (2008: 49) states that rationalism emphasizes the importance of the organism over the environment. This means that the learner affects learning more than the environment. For language learning and teaching this means that the learner has a more active role in learning, while the teacher's role becomes a little less significant. The learner is not merely a recipient of information, but an active agent that constructs information.

According to Nunan (2001: 88), in the 1960's the focus of attention in linguistics shifted as researchers started to pay interest to the language that learners use instead of the contrastive analysis of languages. Errors were no longer seen as negative features that should be eliminated, but as a natural part of the learning process (Nunan 2001: 88). In fact, errors that learners made were discovered to be systematic and independent from mother tongue, which led to the invention of a term called *interlanguage*, which means a learner's language (Nunan 2001: 88). Interlanguage was found to include different stages that could be recognized according to errors learners make (Nunan 2001: 88). Noam Chomsky presented his own influential theory, **generative grammar**, in a book called *Syntactic Structures* in 1957. Generative grammar meant that the grammar of a language can generate only grammatical language, not ungrammatical (Chomsky 2002: 13). According to Chomsky (2002: 13) grammar rules could be tested by asking native speakers whether forms are grammatically acceptable. In addition, Chomsky (1964: 8-10) claimed that language can be divided into *performance*, a person's language output, and *competence*, a person's knowledge of the rules of language. Chomsky (as quoted by Jordan 2004: 6) also stated that there are universal features that apply to all languages. Johnson (2008: 52) introduces Chomsky's concept of *the language acquisition device* (LAD), which means a model that every child is born with and that contains knowledge of how language works.

Von Wright (1992: 9-15) discusses **constructivist learning theories** as related to rationalism. He states that in constructivism in addition to making observations, the learner selects information and makes interpretations about it (von Wright 1992: 9). Knowledge is constructed in the learner's mind instead of merely copied from observations. According to von Wright (1992: 13), one of the researchers in

constructivism is Frederick Bartlett, who presented *schemes* that are models of actions and objects in the mind and form a person's knowledge and skills. Jean Piaget (as quoted by Flavell 1963: 85-87) introduced a model with phases of development that are determined biologically. According to Piaget's model, children are able to process issues that belong to the stage of their biological development, which is dependent on age (Flavell 1963: 85-87). In addition, Piaget proposed the concepts of cognitive organization and cognitive adaptation, according to which knowledge is organized in the mind in a certain way and new experiences can adjust the knowledge (Flavell 1963: 46-47). Von Wright (1992: 15) introduces also Lev Vygotsky's idea of a *zone of proximal development*, which means that learners are able to learn skills or knowledge that are a little over their abilities if they get help from the teacher. If this idea is applied to the language classroom, it could mean that the teacher serves as an assistant to learning, although the learner has the major role.

Johnson (2008: 55) makes note that these two views, empiricism and rationalism, have taken turns in which one is more popular, and although rationalism gained ground from 1940 to 1970, there has been also movement back towards empiricism. As examples of movement back to empiricism Johnson (2008: 55) mentions **corpus linguistics**, in which researchers look at large collections of texts and examine how language is being used, and **cognitive linguistics**, in which researchers study actual language use. Nowadays, probably more than ever, the variety of different views of language and learning can be seen in the field. Some teachers are more traditional and want to hold on to their old methods, whereas some teachers have discarded the old theories of language learning and have adopted newer methods. Rarely a researcher or teacher represents only one view, but uses aspects from several theories in their own work.

2.1.3 Sociolinguistics, input and output

In addition to the views of empiricism and rationalism, there have lately emerged a lot of theories about communicative competence and the social aspects of language use. Communicativeness is an issue that has gained a lot of attention in language teaching. To explain the social aspects of language there emerged a field called **sociolinguistics** that studies how language is used within a society (Johnson 2008: 57). One of the researchers in this field is Dell Hymes, who stated that sociolinguistics should concentrate on the diversity of speech (Hymes 1972: 38). Hymes (1972: 54-56)

discussed concepts of sociolinguistics, for example *speech community*, which refers to a group of people with shared rules of communication. Michael Halliday (1992: 16) adopted a functional view of language, since he studied what people can do with language. In addition, he claimed that children acquire their social knowledge and behavior through language in various situations (Halliday 1992: 9).

In the 1980's Stephen Krashen introduced his highly influential theory about second language acquisition, called *The Monitor Model* (Crystal 1997: 376, Nunan 2001: 89). According to Krashen (1985: 1), there are two different processes in second language learning: *acquisition*, which is subconscious learning, and *learning*, which is conscious and leads to knowledge about language. This conscious knowledge that is gained through learning is used as a monitor to correct the language use which comes from the acquired language system (Krashen 1985: 1-2). According to Krashen (as quoted by Flyman Mattsson and Håkansson 2010: 26), learning and acquisition were completely different processes and learning could not become acquisition. According to Flyman Mattsson and Håkansson (2010: 26), many researchers have criticized this statement and argue that learning and acquisition actually cooperate in language learning. Krashen (1985: 1) also claimed that there is a certain natural order in which the rules of language are acquired. In addition, Krashen (1985: 2) proposed *The Input Hypothesis*, according to which the most crucial factor in second language learning is comprehensible input, which is language that is slightly beyond a learner's current level of language proficiency. The learner can understand this input for example by concluding from context and using his general knowledge (Krashen 1985: 2). Krashen (1985: 3) also claimed that there is an *affective filter* which hinders language acquisition. This filter is a mental block consisting of for example anxieties and low self-confidence (Krashen 1985: 3). It is probable that adults suffer more from these mental blocks than children who are less self-conscious.

According to Krashen (as quoted by Johnson 2008: 87), and supported by some other researchers as well, there is a *silent period* in the beginning of language learning, during which a learner receives input but does not produce output. After this period, when the learner starts to produce output, it is the result of language acquisition (Johnson 2008: 87). This means that according to Krashen (1985: 2), output is not language acquisition, but it shows that acquisition has taken place. However, there are also differing opinions on this issue. Merrill Swain's *Output Hypothesis* is based on an idea that language

learning occurs in output (Johnson 2008: 91-92). According to Swain (1995: 125), output is advantageous to foreign language learning, because it can improve fluency by practice. In addition, output can increase accuracy by helping learners notice their abilities and deficiencies, giving them a chance to test hypotheses and lead them to metalinguistic pondering of their own language use (Swain 1995: 125-126). Johnson (2008: 88-90) adds that in addition to input and output, researchers have been interested in interaction. These theories have concentrated for example on how speakers understand each other, modify their speech according to listener, and negotiate meanings in conversations (Johnson 2008: 88-90).

2.2 Language teaching methods

Different views of language and learning have resulted in various teaching methods, which will be presented in the following. One very traditional method is **the grammar translation method**, which is according to its name based on learning grammar rules and forms and translating texts. According to Crystal (1997: 378), the grammar translation method includes focus on texts, which are translated, read and copied. In addition, Fotos (2005: 664) mentions the learning and practicing of grammatical forms. Larsen-Freeman (2000: 15-16) states that communicative competence is not considered significant, while the ability to translate into native language is considered language competence. This method clearly has its roots in structural linguistics, which focused on the form of language. According to Larsen-Freeman (2000: 16), in the grammar translation method reading and writing are considered the most important skills, while listening, speaking and pronunciation are not highly valued. In this method, the role of the teacher is quite substantial, since students should obey the teacher and receive information from her (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 16-17). Students interact with each other very little (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 18), so the role of the learner is very solitary in addition to being quite passive and receptive.

Another method in language teaching is **the direct method**, also called **oral** or **natural method**, which differs substantially from the grammar translation method. Crystal (1997: 378) describes the direct method as involving learners in natural situations in which they use the foreign language. As opposed to the grammar translation method, learners do not translate texts and use their native tongue, but thinking should happen in

the foreign language (Crystal 1997: 378). According to Larsen-Freeman (2000: 28), this should result in communicative competence in the foreign language. According to Fotos (2005: 663), in the direct method language is presented to the learner in a meaningful context, and new vocabulary could be introduced for instance with the help of images. Also Larsen-Freeman (2000: 23,28) mentions that the use of demonstration and visual aids, for instance pictures and pantomime, instead of native language to connect meaning and target language are central to the direct method. Instead of learning grammar rules, grammar is taught inductively (Fotos 2005: 663). However, vocabulary has a larger role in learning than grammar (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 29). In addition, spoken language is highlighted, since oral exercise is the basis for reading and writing as well, and the importance of learning correct pronunciation is emphasized (Fotos 2005: 663). The role of the learner is less passive in the direct method than in the grammar translation method. Larsen-Freeman (2000: 28-29) describes the teacher and student as being partners and interaction being initiated from teacher to student and vice versa. In addition, students interact with each other (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 29), so the learning situation is more social in that aspect as well.

The audio-lingual method, also called **aural-oral method**, is a method originated from behaviorism. According to Crystal (1997: 378), the method is based on everyday language use and especially on spoken language and pronunciation. Hence, this view has some similarities with the direct method, but in the audio-lingual method learning does not occur in communication in natural situations, but by imitating sounds and drilling them (Crystal 1997: 387). The influence of behaviorism, which sees language learning as habit formation, can be seen clearly. As mentioned above, according to the behavioristic view, the learner should try to decrease negative transfer coming from the native language by eliminating old habits and replacing them with new ones (Crystal 1997: 376). This applies also to the audio-lingual method, the goal of which is language use becoming automatized (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 45). As the direct method, neither this method involves focus on the rules of language, but imitation of forms is thought to result in language proficiency (Crystal 1997: 378). According to Larsen-Freeman (2000: 45), dialogues are used in teaching to introduce new words and grammatical structures. These dialogues and grammatical structures are practiced by imitating and drilling (Larsen-Freeman: 45). Crystal (1997: 378) states that the spoken language is the starting point of this method, since language is first heard and practiced orally, and only after that the written form is seen and writing rehearsed. The teacher's role is quite important

in this method, since the teacher conducts the whole class by giving models to imitate (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 45). The role of the learner is again to be just a recipient of information without active thinking. In addition, learning involves no real communication, since the only interaction between learners is in dialogues that are controlled by the teacher (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 46). Wong and VanPatten (2003) studied the effectiveness of drills in foreign language learning by reviewing research conducted about drills. According to their results, drills are not an effective learning method in foreign language learning, and they suggest that a more meaning-based approach to foreign language learning should be used (Wong and VanPatten 2003: 415-417). Wong and VanPatten (2003: 407) state that there are two major issues that argue against drills in foreign language learning. They note that learners have “internal mechanisms” that cannot be affected with this kind of conscious practice and they emphasize the need for meaningful input in foreign language learning (Wong and VanPatten 2003: 407).

Larsen-Freeman (2000: 53) explains that the audio-lingual method was questioned in the 1960's, because learners had difficulties using language communicatively outside the classroom after forming habits in the classroom. In Chomsky's view, the habit formation idea could not be valid because of people's ability to comprehend language that is entirely new to them (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 53). This led to the realization that language is rule formation and achieved by using cognitive processes, which in turn led to the development of **the cognitive approach** (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 53). According to this approach, learners have an active role in the learning situation and they test hypotheses about language to learn (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 53). According to Larsen-Freeman (2000: 53) there are a great deal of methods that were inspired by the cognitive approach, although none of them rose directly from it. As one example she (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 64-66) presents **the silent way**, in which the learner's role is central in learning and the teacher is there only to assist. Language is learnt for self-expression and therefore it is important for the learner to be independent from the teacher. This method includes engaging learners in tasks that focus them on structures of language, with ways to help them with understanding. The teacher is almost silent, while learners interact with each other.

As a newer method, Crystal (1997: 378) introduces **communicative teaching**, which emerged in the 1970's. Also Savignon (2005) discusses communicative language

teaching and notes that it is a phenomenon that is known and used in language teaching around the world (Savignon 2005: 635). According to Savignon (2005: 635), the central idea in communicative language teaching is that learners communicate to learn how to communicate. In this way, communicativeness is the method of teaching while at the same time communicative competence is the goal. Crystal (1997: 378) presents two forms of communicative teaching in the form of groups of syllabuses. The first is called *situational syllabuses* and it aims at teaching activities like requesting or thanking by imitating real language use situations. The second is *notional or functional syllabuses*, in which learners are taught certain meanings (or notions) that they need to survive in certain functional contexts. Major communicative notions are, according to Crystal (1997: 378), the linguistic expression of time, duration, frequency, sequence, quantity, location and motion. Important communicative functions include evaluation, persuasion, emotional expression and the marking of social relations (Crystal 1997: 378). Also Savignon (2005: 635) mentions syllabus design, and that communicative needs of learners are the starting point of it. Savignon (2005: 645) reminds that communicative language teaching does not merely consist of group work and oral communication, but involves also reading and writing activities. In these activities learners are focused on meaning (Savignon 2005: 645). Also Larsen-Freeman (2000: 129-131) states that language functions and understanding meaning are more important issues in communicative language teaching than grammatical forms. According to Larsen-Freeman (2000: 129-130) the use of authentic materials is preferred and communicative activities like games and problem-solving tasks are used. The role of the learner seems to be very active and social in this method. Larsen-Freeman (2000: 129-130) states that learners take more control of their learning and there is a lot of interaction between learners. Communicative teaching has many similarities with the direct method, in which language is learnt through communicating in natural situations. However, in communicative teaching demonstration and visual aids do not have as significant a role as in the direct method. In addition, spoken language does not dominate language teaching as much as in the direct method.

Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1997) discuss the history and future of communicative language teaching. They argue that the kind of indirect method of language learning that communicative language teaching has represented should be developed into including more explicit teaching of language. Celce-Murcia et al. (1997: 148) propose a *principled communicative approach*, which includes teaching the rules

of language and language use explicitly in addition to containing communicative practice of skills. This sort of combination of direct and indirect teaching of language seems like an effective method of language learning. The explicit knowledge of language and language use would probably make learning more structured and clear, and the communicative aspect would rehearse learners' language use skills effectively. Also Chang (2011: 21) states that the best way to learn languages is by combining methods. Chang (2011) studied the effectiveness of the grammar translation method versus communicative approach in the learning of English grammar. The results show that a class of college students in Taiwan that studied with the grammar translation method gained better results in improving grammar skills than a class that had studied with a communicative method (Chang 2011: 21). However, Chang (2011: 21) points out that the grammar translation method is better for improving accuracy, while the communicative approach enhances fluency. Therefore, both of these methods are useful in foreign language learning. It seems to be so that a combination of different methods is the best solution for teaching and learning different skills in a foreign language.

When considering the different teaching methods, one has to keep the target group in mind. There are issues to take into account when teaching learners of different ages. Adult learners have different kinds of abilities and needs than child learners. Therefore, age in language learning, adults as language learners and teaching adults are discussed more closely in the following.

2.3 Age and language learning

There are several factors affecting the learning of a foreign language, and these include individual factors. The fact that every language learner is different brings about differences in language learning as well. According to Ehrman, Leaver and Oxford (2003: 313) the major individual differences in language learning include learning styles, learning strategies and affective variables. Affective factors are comprised of, among other things, motivation, self-efficacy, tolerance of ambiguity and anxiety (Ehrman et al. 2003: 319). In addition, Ehrman et al. (2003: 313-314) mention learning aptitude, gender, culture, age and other demographic variables as significant differences in language learning. This suggests that age can have an effect on language learning, although there are a number of other factors that should also be taken into consideration.

In research around age and language learning researchers have been interested in and debated about the existence of a so called *critical period*, which means that fluency in a language can only be achieved if the learning is started during a certain period, usually from early childhood to puberty. This *critical period hypothesis* (CPH) was first introduced by Eric H. Lenneberg in his book *Biological foundations of language* (1967), in which he discusses also other biological factors behind language. According to Lenneberg (1967: 125-126) maturation affects the development of language and makes all children start talking from 18 to 28 months old. Lenneberg based his theory on research on the recovery of acquired aphasia and lateralization (Lenneberg 1967: 142-152). He found that adults do not relearn language after suffering from aphasia because of changes that have occurred in the brain (Lenneberg 1967: 143). Hence, biological factors seem to have at least some effect on language learning.

In addition, Abrahamsson and Hyltenstam (2006) studied the speaking of advanced L2 Swedish learners living in Sweden. In the study, the participants were 19 years old or older, had Spanish as mother tongue, spoke fluent Swedish, had lived in Sweden for at least ten years and had attended high school for a minimum of three years. The data was gathered through 15-minute phone interviews, in which information about the participants was gathered and the participants gave a speaking sample. In the speaking sample, the participants had to talk about Astrid Lindgren, a well-known Swedish writer, for one minute. 20 to 30 second sections of these recordings were used in listening experiments, in which native Swedish speakers judged the speakers. The judges had to evaluate whether the speakers were native Swedish speakers or had some other mother tongue and if they assessed a speaker as native Swedish, whether he or she came from Stockholm. The results of the study showed that the later the learning of the L2 had started, the less probably the learner could pass by as a native speaker: only some learners with an onset age of 12 years or older were evaluated as native speakers, and none of the learners that had started the learning after the age of 17. In addition, the age in which a learner began learning the language, was found to be the most important factor in achieving a native-like language competence. The results of this study strongly support the idea of the critical period hypothesis.

However, it should be noted that it is not necessarily the age itself that influences the learning process, but it can have an effect on other factors that affect learning. According to Singleton (2003: 3), the majority of researchers agree that learners who

start at an early age are more successful in the long run than learners that start in adult age. However, Singleton (2003: 3) adds that it is not certain whether there is a biologically determined critical period that is accountable for the different learning outcomes of children and adult learners. It might be that younger learners happen to possess qualities that make them better language learners that are not linked to maturation. Singleton (2003: 8) states that many researchers have showed results that in the learning of a second language native level language proficiency can only be reached if the learning starts before puberty. However, he shows also differing research results, in which adult learners have reached native like proficiency (Singleton 2003: 9). Therefore, success in language learning is not completely determined by age. In fact, Singleton (2003: 16) presents four other factors that can have a greater effect on foreign language learning than merely the age of the learner. These factors are motivational factors, cross-linguistic factors, educational factors and general cognitive factors. In addition, one can also consider the goals of adult language teaching, and whether native level language proficiency even is included in those goals, or in language teaching goals in general. Usually when adults attend evening school classes of foreign languages, they do it for fun or for travelling purposes. With English and Swedish in Finland in question they might want to improve their language skills also for work. None of these aims include the idea of reaching a native level proficiency.

Some researchers claim that the critical period hypothesis applies only to the learning of pronunciation (Singleton 2003: 8-9). Bongaerts, Planken and Schils (1995) studied the pronunciation of Dutch late starters of English. In the study, there were two groups of native speakers of Dutch that had started learning English at the age of twelve. The groups included purposely also very successful learners of English. A third group consisted of native speakers of English, which were the control group. In the study, four different speech samples were collected from all the participants. The results of the study showed that there were Dutch late learners of English that had native-like proficiency in pronunciation of English. The results suggest that there is no critical period in learning the pronunciation of a second language. The results of the study show that it is possible for late learners to acquire native-like pronunciation. Bongaerts et al. (1995: 45) suggest that a better term to be used here would be a *sensitive period*, since there seems to be a greater chance to learn second language pronunciation at an early age, but age is not a determining factor.

2.4 Adults as language learners

It seems that it is not the age of the learner that determines the success in foreign language learning, but there are many factors that contribute to the language learning process. Many studies have shown that younger learners are more successful than adult learners in the long run (Singleton 2003: 3). However, it is not clear whether this difference is due to the maturation process and a critical period, or simply the fact that adult and children are different kinds of learners, are in different kinds of learning environments and in different situations in their lives. Both children and adults have qualities that can help or hinder the learning process. In addition, there are individual differences that influence the learning of a foreign language.

There are issues that should be taken into account when it comes to adult foreign language learning. According to Jarvis (2010: 5), adults have inferior physical capacities than children, because the capacities are the highest in late adolescence or early adulthood, after which they decline. Jarvis (2010: 5) adds that some of these changes in physical capacities, for example loss in visual acuity, audio acuity and energy, have an effect on learning. Räsänen (1994: 13) mentions that adults also suffer from a decline in the random access memory, which can not only weaken the ability to learn a language, but also cause frustration.

In addition to physical qualities, there are other hindering factors in adult language learning. Crystal (1997: 377) compares adult foreign language learning with child first language learning. Although Crystal makes the comparison to first language learning, some of the differences should be applicable to adult versus child foreign language learning. At least the qualities of adult learners are the same, which is of interest here. According to Crystal (1997: 377), one issue that separates adult foreign language learners and child first language learners is the fact that adults already have a language that they can use in communication, whereas small children need to learn a mother tongue to be able to communicate. This means that child first language learners are highly motivated, while adult foreign language learners do not have the similar kind of motivation (Crystal 1997: 377). In addition, adults do not have all of their time to spend on language learning as small children do, and the learning environment is more artificial than the natural mother tongue learning environment of children (Crystal 1997: 377).

Another point that Crystal (1997: 377) makes is that adult learners are generally more self-conscious about their language and are not able to adapt to cultural differences very easily. A child learning his or her mother tongue does not think about making mistakes and is therefore less afraid of experimenting with language. Also Räsänen (1994: 13) states that adults can have so called mental blocks in language learning that have developed during their life, and that removing these blocks is a challenge in adult language teaching. This relates to Krashen's *affective filter*, which was mentioned earlier (see page 14). Brooks-Lewis (2011) studied the views of adult university students on studying on English courses that emphasized awareness in language learning. The issues that were explicitly taken up during the courses were for example the learners' expectations, the course outline, the history and culture of the language and the four language skills. The results of the study show that the awareness raising during the courses helped the learners gain self-confidence and prepare for the issues addressed during the course. According to Brooks-Lewis (2011: 1685-1686), emphasized awareness and knowing what to expect are especially important with adult learners, because they help the learners to build confidence and manage their fears, which adult learners often have. Räsänen (1994: 13) mentions also the situation in life, previous education and study skills, formed attitudes and fears of failure and a negative self-image as challenges for the adult learner. According to a handbook published by the California State Department of Education (1990: 2), issues that can affect adult English as second language learning in a classroom include cultural background, educational background, economic situation, responsibilities with family and health issues. These issues can include hindering factors, but also advantages for adult learners.

As mentioned above, adults have also qualities that can help them in foreign language learning. According to Crystal (1997: 377), the cognitive skills and formed strategies that adults have make language learning easier for them. In addition to the abilities to read and write, adults can memorize and use dictionaries (Crystal 1997: 377). Moreover, Jarvis (2010: 134) mentions that learners who have reached the adult age have probably developed their own learning styles. Being aware of one's own learning style means that one can take advantage of it and learn more efficiently. Also Räsänen (1994: 13) discusses the cognitive skills of adults and taking advantage of those skills as strengths of adult learners. In addition, she states that adults have more information about interaction and the social conventions of language use than children (Räsänen 1994: 13). Knowledge of laws of interaction and customs will definitely help in learning

to communicate in a foreign language. Räsänen (1994: 13) mentions also that adults can affect teaching and learning because they are better able to define their own learning needs according to their previous experiences.

2.5 Teaching foreign languages to adults

Because adult learners differ from child learners, there are issues to take into consideration when teaching adults. As in teaching any group of people, the target group and its needs have to be taken into account. Åminne (1994: 23) discusses teaching adults and states that knowledge of the learner is very important also with adults. There are a number of factors that a teacher should know, including age, education, occupation, learning experiences and hobbies (Åminne 1994: 23). In addition to these factors, the teacher should be aware of the L1 of the learners, because it is the one factor that has the most effect on second language learning. All these issues create individual differences and are linked to language learning. Jarvis (2010: 133) notes that the previous experiences of adults are also a source in language learning. This can mean previous learning experiences that can be taken advantage of, or other experiences that can be used as a source in exercises and discussions. Räsänen (1994: 8) states a series of questions as the starting point of all language learning. Summarized, the line of questions is the following: who learns – what – how – why – in what situation, and it is a good starting point for teaching adults as well. According to Åminne (1994: 23), each learner in a group has his or her role in the group. He also reminds that it is important to find out the language proficiency level of a group in the beginning, and that being in a wrong group, either too easy or too difficult, might lead to dropping off from a course (Åminne 1994: 23).

According to Åminne (1994: 24), adult learners can form their own learning goals and needs. This should also be taken into account when planning the goals of teaching. A teacher can find out the goals of students simply by asking them at the beginning of a course. When talking about voluntary adult education, this is especially important because learners have certain reasons and goals for attending courses. Also Jarvis (2010: 133) mentions that adults have their own needs and links this to individualized learning. This means that every learner can have their own needs and learning is directed by the needs. In a class it can be made possible that every student learns

according to their own goals and needs. For instance, there can be different exercises for learners of different levels. Jarvis (2010: 133) states that adults also want to take part in the learning process, which might be interpreted as adults wanting to make decisions about the learning process, in other words about what to learn, how to learn and in what order. Also Räsänen (1994: 19) states learner centered teaching and self-directed learning as some of the central terms in adult education. Including learners in the decision-making and setting goals for learning is a good idea also because it usually increases motivation, which leads to better results in language learning.

As mentioned above, Jarvis (2010: 134) states that adult learners have had time to discover their own learning styles. Although every learner has their own learning style, there are some general features that have been found in research. Räsänen (1994: 15) refers to a licentiate's thesis by Jaakkola (1987), in which adult learners' learning styles were studied. The participants had to assess their own learning styles. The most popular learning styles in the study were analytic (including deductive reasoning), concrete (linked to practice and experience), theoretical (including rules) and doctrinal (strongly holding on to rules and teacher's direction). In the study, every other learner had concrete learning style as the dominant learning style. This would suggest that adult learners, not only children, need a lot of concrete things and practical exercises to learn a language. In addition, the popularity of the analytic learning style implies that for example grammar would be best taught through deductive reasoning, not by teacher stating the rules and then giving examples. DeKeyser (1994) discusses the effectiveness of explicit and implicit learning in second language learning and reviews studies conducted about the issue. He states (1994: 91) that many studies have shown that explicit learning is more effective than implicit. He studied adult language learners by using a language system developed for the purposes of the study. He used a distinction between categorical rules, which are rules that apply all the time, and prototypes, the application of which is affected by many factors (1994: 89). The results of the study show that adult language learners learn categorical rules better with explicit instruction. This would suggest that in some parts of foreign language learning, adults need also explicit teaching of the rules of language, not only practical exercises. Also Chang (2011) proved this to be true by showing that Taiwanese college students learnt English grammar better with the grammar translation method than through communicative language learning.

According to Räsänen (1994: 19), on every level of language learning and teaching, it is important that learners learn to use language in practice and to know the rules and conventions in intercultural communication. Räsänen (1994: 19) states that in addition to learning the rules of interaction of a language, also being able to make interpretations about intercultural communication is one of the key factors in adult language teaching. She adds that being able to adapt to the international language use without losing one's own identity is also important (Räsänen 1994: 19). One way of trying to achieve these goals is by giving learners opportunities to use language and practice communication themselves as learners in the classroom. Giving learners chances to bring their own personality and background into activities could make it easier for the learners to integrate their identity to the new language. Watanabe and Merrill (2007) studied the influence of differences in language skills and interaction patterns in pair work on second language learning with adult learners. They found out that proficiency differences between the learners engaged in interaction did not affect learning, but the manner of interaction played a role. The learners that had been interacting cooperatively in a pair task had better scores in a test that was done after the task. This suggests that pair work, especially with collaboration between learners, is an effective method of learning in adult foreign language learning.

There are a number of major differences in the foreign language learning and the learning environment of children and adults. Therefore, the teaching of language to adults should not be completely similar to the teaching of language to children in schools. For example, the mental blocks that adults often suffer from should be taken into account. In addition, adults can be more involved in setting goals for their learning. Also learning materials, including textbooks, should be different for adults and children. For instance, adult textbooks should include suitable themes and illustration for adults. In the following chapter, foreign language textbooks are discussed more closely.

3 FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEXTBOOKS AND ADULTS

In this chapter, textbooks in foreign language teaching are discussed. The process of designing textbooks and how textbooks are evaluated and selected are discussed. Specific attention is paid to foreign language textbooks in adult teaching. In addition,

this chapter includes also a look at the situation of adult English and Swedish textbooks in Finland, with special attention to books intended for evening school courses.

3.1 Textbook design

Textbooks are usually designed by several people and rarely by one person alone. Karvonen (1995: 12) states that in Finland textbooks are always designed by a team of textbook writers. This causes the issue that textbooks are always a result of compromises between the various writers (Karvonen 1995: 12). In addition, editors and publishers affect the contents of textbooks. In Finland, textbook writers are usually teachers that participate in the writing of a textbook alongside their work as a teacher. This seems reasonable, because teachers have knowledge of teaching and what is required of a textbook. However, Lappalainen (1992: 171) states that teachers might have difficulties in looking beyond their own subject. In addition, Mares (2003: 132) remarks that a teacher must think carefully whether she has the time to carry out the process of writing a textbook alongside regular work. Also Takala (1987) discusses the process of textbook design. He reminds that a textbook writer has to put a great deal of effort into textbook design, and the writer receives compensation for the work only if the book is successful (Takala 1987: 39). Mares (2003: 132) states that the compensation may come only a year after the material has been published and the profits may be minor. This must create pressure for the writers and might affect the decisions made during the process. Although, it is doubtful whether textbook writers write textbooks for the profits. It seems that teachers take up writing textbooks for other reasons than money and supposedly are more interested in developing textbooks. Publishers, on the other hand, must think about revenues, which inevitably affects decisions made about books. Also in this sense, compromises have to be made.

According to Takala (1987: 39), merely the planning stage of producing a new textbook may take over a year. Textbooks are also piloted in the field. Takala (1987: 39-40) states that although textbooks are given expert opinions, the notes are not perhaps extensive enough, because the experts receive only a small compensation of their work. He suggests that authorities should organize a proper testing of books by teachers and pupils (Takala 1987: 40). In addition, Lappalainen (1992: 171) states that according to textbook writers and editors, the evaluation process has not resulted in improvements in

textbooks, but has made the process of producing textbooks slower and raised the prices of textbooks. The slow process of producing a textbook must also be taken into account when choosing materials for a book. According to Purves (1993: 15), both the contents and the language views that a textbook represents can become outdated very soon. Given the time that it takes to produce a textbook (about two years) and adding the average life of a textbook in schools (five years), the content can be even seven years old (Purves 1993: 15). This makes textbook writers choose for example old literature classics instead of selecting fresh material (Purves 1993: 15).

Jenks (1981: 219) states that when it comes to new innovations or research findings in linguistics, it may take more than ten years before they begin to show as changes in textbooks. According to him, the needs of learners have been changing and evolving, but teaching and textbooks have not kept up with their pace (Jenks 1981: 219). Mikkilä-Erdmann, Olkinuora and Mattila (1999) studied whether the changes in learning and teaching views in the national curriculum had influenced textbooks of natural and environmental science, biology and geography. They studied learning views in fifteen textbooks from elementary school to high school, and found out that the constructivist learning view of the national curriculum does not show in the textbooks. However, they state that the textbooks in the study represent neither a traditional approach to learning, but some kind of an in-between stage (Mikkilä-Erdmann et al. 1999: 445). This suggests that the changes in learning and teaching views proposed by research do become realized in textbooks, but the developments occur rather slowly.

3.2 Evaluation and selection of textbooks

One question in foreign language teaching is how to choose the right textbook. “Right” should mean the right book for the teacher and her view of language and teaching, and also the right book for the target group. In adult education the target group may be very heterogenic, consisting of people of different ages and from different situations in life, various educational backgrounds and each with their own goals for learning.

McGrath (2002: 18) states that the selection of a textbook should begin by evaluating the target group, its needs and the overall situation. In addition, according to McGrath (2002: 22), a textbook should be analyzed before it can be evaluated. With this he

means that a teacher should first examine the contents of a book, and only after that start evaluating the contents (McGrath 2002: 22). Also Garinger (2002) proposes stages for the evaluation of textbooks. In her strategy, the evaluation should begin from a broad perspective, meaning the curriculum and goals, and proceed to specific issues, like activities and exercises (Garinger 2002: 1). The very first issue to consider is whether to use individual textbooks for different courses or to decide on a series, both of which have their advantages and disadvantages (Garinger 2002: 1). The curriculum and goals of a course have to be taken into account, because the textbook chosen has to be compatible with them (Garinger 2002: 1). In addition, the textbook should be suitable for the target group in several regards, for example the level of language and visual design (Garinger 2002: 2). After these considerations, the practice of different skills and activities in the textbook have to be evaluated, since they should offer for example variety (Garinger 2002: 1-2). Finally, there are some practical issues to take into account: the textbooks should be reasonably priced and available for purchase (Garinger 2002: 2).

Flanagan (1989: 250) states that a teacher has a great responsibility in choosing a textbook and using it in the most effective way possible. This suggests that not only the selection of a material matters, but also a teacher's ability to take full advantage of the book. Takala (1987: 41-42) agrees with Flanagan, because he states that teachers should not rely too much on the textbook and think that it will do the teaching for them. In addition, he states that teachers should not select materials according to which one is the easiest to use, because it might not be the one that leads to the best learning results (Takala 1987: 42). McGrath (2002: 12) remarks that many times teachers choose a textbook in a haphazard way being influenced by booksellers' or publishers' performances or simply have a book selected by others. Often teachers in a same school use the same book series for practical reasons: the costs are probably lower, cooperation between teachers is easier and teachers can even use the same exams. Moreover, teachers often end up using the same series for many years for understandable reasons. A teacher might get accustomed to a certain series and therefore it is easier to continue with it than to get acquainted with a completely new series. In addition, if a teacher has found a series that is good and suits his or her style of teaching, there might be no point in selecting a new series. In time teachers also learn to adjust to the books they are using and, on the other hand, modify the books to their needs. This might include editing

exercises, creating new exercises and building other extra material around the book and its themes.

Jenks (1981: 218) notes that selecting materials for teaching is very time-consuming and hard work. He adds that teachers do not get help in the task of selecting a textbook but have to carry it out on their own (Jenks 1981: 218). If selecting textbooks is hard in itself, it must be the hardest for beginning teachers who do not have a lot of experience about different books as working teachers. In addition to everything else that is new, a new teacher probably will not have too much time to spend on evaluating and selecting textbooks, if that has to be done. According to Purves (1993: 15), what makes the selection of teaching materials difficult for teachers is that textbook writers do not reveal their philosophy behind textbooks by stating in books what kind of teaching and language views they promote. Neither do they state that the decisions made about the textbook have been arbitrary (Purves 1993: 15). Sometimes even the statements that writers make in books are not true, which might be revealed after examination of the material. This makes the task of the teacher even more complicated and time-consuming, because in order to be able to choose a suitable textbook, a teacher has to dedicate a lot of time to examining different options carefully. McGrath (2002: 13) suggests that one could ask for opinions and experiences from teachers that are currently using the textbooks. This would be helpful especially if there was no possibility for a trial of a textbook in a classroom (McGrath 2002: 13), which I suppose would be very rare in Finnish schools or institutions. In addition, McGrath (2002: 29) suggests a strategy that he calls *first glance evaluation* that involves glancing through different book series and choosing some of them for closer examination. This would seem a good way since the teacher would not have to spend as much time on examining all of the books. Takala (1987: 42-43) suggests that there should be researchers specifically designated to do this work and study teaching materials.

3.3 Textbooks in foreign language teaching

Textbooks are used widely in foreign language teaching, and hardly anyone manages to avoid textbooks if they are studying languages. Except for a few rare exceptions, textbooks are still a basic tool for teachers and students alike in language teaching. Børre Johnsen (1993: 28) divides research that has been carried out on textbooks into

three main categories: ideology in textbooks, the use of textbooks and the development of textbooks. He notes that a great deal of textbook research has been carried out as content analysis that has fallen into the category of ideology in textbooks, which means aiming at improving textbooks (Børre Johnsen 1993: 328). However, some research has looked at textbooks more widely and evaluated the form and use instead of only the content of the books (Børre Johnsen 1993: 328). About the research on textbooks of English, Lähdesmäki (2004: 273) states that many researchers have adopted a critical point of view because of the huge role of English teaching around the world. According to her (Lähdesmäki 2004: 273), English textbooks are used widely around the globe, and therefore they affect a countless number of people. In addition, a great deal of money is spent on the designing and marketing of English textbooks (Lähdesmäki 2004: 273). Børre Johnsen (1993: 327) summarizes the research on textbooks by stating that textbooks are used greatly in teaching, but the way in which they are used varies depending on the user.

Textbooks of foreign languages need to be versatile and cover a number of issues. Lähdesmäki (2004: 271) states that the complex nature of foreign language teaching should be represented in foreign language teaching materials, as well. She (Lähdesmäki 2004: 272) presents four parts of language teaching that should be present in textbooks. The first part is language with its structure, grammar and communication. The second part consists of factual content, which has traditionally involved the target culture and geography. More recently there have been more social issues, for example environmental education and multiculturalism. The third factor that should be present in language textbooks is learning strategies and self-evaluation. A student should be able to use a textbook in self-study and the textbook should function as a reference book. Finally, the textbook should pass on positive attitudes towards the target language and its speakers and promote indulgence in general. The texts that are selected into textbooks impart attitudes and values of the dominant culture, either directly or indirectly. In addition, single texts might have a viewpoint that stands out. Lähdesmäki (2004: 273) adds that in addition to the subject of the textbook, learners can notice what kinds of skills they should learn and how, what the language is like and for what the language is used and needed.

Tomlinson (2011: 8-22) summarizes the most important and agreed features in materials development for language teaching according to second language acquisition research.

He states that textbooks should have an influence on learners, so that for example learners' curiosity, interest and attention are aroused (Tomlinson 2011: 8). Textbooks can accomplish this by introducing learners something entirely new, offering variety, containing interesting themes that are presented in a way that engages learners, and by offering learners tasks that challenge them, but which they are able to complete (Tomlinson 2011: 8). This means that textbook writers should have knowledge about the target group and their interests (Tomlinson 2011: 8-9). According to Tomlinson (2011: 9-10), textbooks should also contain features that make learners feel comfortable and help them in developing confidence. In my opinion, this is important even with adult learners, because also adults have insecurities and may suffer from mental blocks from previous bad learning experiences. In addition, Tomlinson (2011: 11) claims that the contents of materials should be something learners find important and useful to study. Moreover, textbooks should encourage learners to make discoveries about language, which means that learners have a more active role (Tomlinson 2011: 12). Tomlinson (2011: 13-16) adds that materials should also contain authentic language use and communicative exercises. Different learning styles should be taken into account in textbooks (Tomlinson 2011: 18-19), and this applies of course also to adult learners, who are individuals as well as younger learners. In addition, Tomlinson (2011: 22) states that textbooks should not be dominated by controlled exercises. However, this seems not to be the case with Finnish second language textbooks, in which in my experience the majority of exercises are very controlled, and which the results of the present study will show.

3.4 Foreign language textbooks for adults

Åminne (1994) discusses teaching materials and the development of them with an emphasis on adult teaching materials. According to him, the most important feature in a teaching material is that it should support learning in a way that the goals of learning can be met (Åminne 1994: 28). This entails that a material is selected according to the teacher's views of language learning and teaching (Åminne 1994: 28). According to Åminne (1994: 28), the recent emphasis on learner-centeredness in language teaching has problematized the use of textbooks, because the materials available are often teacher-centered. He states that texts in language textbooks should contain more extensive texts that cover larger thematic entities, which would exercise comprehension

skills and be more worthwhile to the reader (Åminne 1994: 28). He adds that a teaching material should include issues and tasks from the everyday life of adults in order to be motivating (Åminne 1994: 28).

Åminne (1994: 30) mentions exercises as an essential component of learning materials and that they should correspond to the rest of the material in contents and focus. As the textbook as a whole, also the exercises should further the learning goals of the group (Åminne 1994: 30). Åminne (1994: 30) continues that with adult learners this means that the exercises should be similar to the language use situations that adults might encounter. To increase meaningfulness of the exercises, they can be adapted to learners' needs, for example by changing the contents (Åminne 1994: 30). Cook (2003) talks about materials for adult beginners with an L2 user perspective. She emphasizes that adults have specific interests and minds compared to younger learners, and this should be taken into account for example when choosing topics for discussion (Cook 2003: 276-279). Cook (2003: 279) suggests choosing topics from television programs that adults watch, but being careful not to make them too simple for adults so that there is something to discuss. Another issue that Cook (2003: 281) raises is the issue of the native speaker goal in L2 language learning. According to Cook (2003: 281), second language users should be seen as language users of their own kind, not language users that are trying to imitate native speakers. She adds that the native speaker goal creates tension and frustrates students and teachers and it would be a more achievable goal to try to be a successful L2 user than to have native language proficiency (Cook 2003: 281). I completely agree with Cook in this point. I do not see why second language users should try to aim for native-like language proficiency, because they are not native language users and will be using the language as second language users. In addition, when thinking about adult learners in evening schools, for example, native-like language proficiency hardly is a goal.

Islam (2003) examined three English coursebooks aimed at young adults or adult beginners, and discovered that the books were very similar to each other in contents and methods. The books he investigated were *New Interchange* (CUP), *Atlas* (Heinle and Heinle) and *Headstart* (OUP) (Islam 2003: 256). *Headstart* is a book for European students and the other two books are for East and South-East Asian markets (Islam 2003: 256). According to Islam (2003: 259-260), in the first units of all the textbooks approximately half of the exercises are listen and repeat type of exercises and the rest

more or less controlled exercises. In addition, the statements that the writers of the textbooks make about the books contradict with the contents of the books (Islam 2003: 259-260). Islam (2003: 260) concludes that these three books have their differences but they all represent a behavioristic view with massive audio-lingual influence. This small review revealed that there might not be very substantial differences between adult teaching materials. It would suggest, as Islam (2003: 258) points out, that there is no actual choice between the materials if they are almost identical. Mares (2003: 132) discusses the challenge of writing commercial material for a conservative market, which might explain the small differences between textbooks. He points out that publishers do not want to take their chances with a truly innovative and different material in a fear of rejection (Mares 2003: 132). There is a lot of competition and the existing market remains conservative and publishers fear that non-native speaker teachers, untrained or busy teachers would end up choosing a safe, conservative material instead of a new, innovative one (Mares 2003: 132). Also the situation with foreign language textbooks in Finland seems to be the same. According to my experiences, different textbook series have very small differences and practically the same contents. When new textbooks are published, they usually do not differ very much from the previous books. This might be result of the competitive market and fear of a financial loss.

3.5 English and Swedish textbooks for adults in Finland

The situation of foreign language textbooks for adults in Finland is very different for books of English and Swedish. There is a broad supply of English textbooks for adults for regular evening school courses from the beginner level to advanced level. This is obviously due to the fact that English is one of the most studied languages in evening schools and the status it has globally. Publishers have seen it worthwhile to create a number of book series also for the teaching of English to adults. The supply of textbooks of Swedish for adult education is notably different. There are only a couple of book series containing few books. One issue that might be causing this is that Swedish is studied much less than English. Although Swedish is the other official language of Finland, the demand for Swedish courses in evening schools seems to be low, at least by examining the course offerings of a number of Finnish evening schools. One explanation to this situation might be that although Swedish skills are sought after in working life, people seem to think that they can get along by using Finnish and English.

It seems to be a quite common attitude to think that one only needs to study English as a foreign language and that is enough. However, the evening school in Helsinki offers a quite large selection of Swedish courses. Due to the lack of Finnish books intended for these courses, the same book series, *Hålligång*, is used in most of the courses. In addition, a Swedish-made book series aimed for Swedish as a foreign language learners is used on many courses. Moreover, some of the courses have even turned to a book aimed at high school students. This implies that there is need for more textbooks of Swedish for adult learners.

As said, the selection of Swedish textbooks for adults in Finland is very narrow. At the moment the Finnish books for teaching Swedish for adults in evening school courses include one single book and one book series containing two books. Both of these are published by Otava. *Lycka till!* is a book for beginners. *Hålligång*, on the other hand, is a more comprehensive series beginning on level A2 of the Common European Framework of Reference. *Hålligång* seems to be the most used textbook on Swedish courses in many evening schools, which is reasonable considering that it is the only comprehensive Finnish textbook of Swedish for adults. However, *Hålligång* includes only two books, which is not very extensive compared to the English textbooks for adults that are published in Finland. Nevertheless, Swedish is an important language in Finland due to its role as an official language and the role of the Swedish minority in Finland. Swedish skills are very much required in the working life, especially in customer service positions. In addition, fluent communication and international connections demand skills in the Swedish language. In communication between the Nordic countries it is important to be able to speak a Nordic language, and Finnish is not one of them. Evening classes might not be the primary context in which Swedish skills for the working life are taught, but they can serve as support for many people. In any case, there could be a larger variety of Swedish books for adults, including some that are aimed at teaching the language for working life.

As mentioned above, there is a remarkably wider selection of English textbooks for adults than there is of Swedish textbooks for adults. There are book series from a number of publishers, and some of them publish or have published several series. Moreover, there are books for specific purposes, for example for English for working life. There are two major publishers, Otava and SanomaPro, which have published the majority of English textbooks in Finland. These two publishers have extensive book

series that cover different levels of language proficiency. *English for you, too!* from Otava and *Steps into English* from SanomaPro seem to be the two most used books in evening schools. This is probably because these book series contain books for different levels of learners and a learner can use the same series as he progresses in the language learning. Moreover, these books are fairly new or they have new editions that have been updated. In addition to the Finnish books for teaching English to adults, there is a British series that is used to some extent. Textbooks that do not contain any Finnish are practical for courses which are attended by people from various countries. There might also be some other advantages to using these books. For example, the books may contain more challenging material for advanced learners or the books might merely be more suitable for a teacher's teaching method and view of language. Some teachers might also want to teach a language via the language in question, and therefore avoid materials in mother tongue.

Although the situation of Finnish textbooks for teaching of adults seems to be very different for books of English and Swedish, there is one similarity between these two: in both English and Swedish there are only one or two publishers and book series that dominate the teaching. Even though there are much more possibilities for the book choice in English teaching, there might not be that much variation. The situation might be similar to the study by Islam (2003) above, in which he studied three adult textbooks of English and found that they were very similar in content. It seems that the competition in adult foreign language book market in Finland is not very intense. This leads one to question whether publishers and book writers put a great deal of effort into developing and updating books for adults. Therefore, it is important to examine adult foreign language textbooks closely and assess whether they meet the needs of teachers and learners.

4 DATA AND METHODS

In this chapter, I will present the aims and hypotheses of the present study and state the research questions. In addition, I will define the data and describe the methods of data gathering and analysis.

4.1 Research questions

In the present study, I aim to find out what sort of roles learners are given in the exercises of English and Swedish textbooks for adults. Through the roles that learners have in the exercises of the books, I aim to discover what kinds of views of language and language learning the books entail.

The research questions of the present study are:

1. What kind of a role does the learner have in the exercises of English and Swedish textbooks for adults?
 - a. What features do the exercises in the books possess and what kind of role do they give to the learner?

2. What do the exercises and the role of the learner imply about the language and learning views behind the book?

My hypothesis is that the role of the learner in the exercises of the language textbooks will be more passive than active and more frequently solitary than social. This would mean that the exercises would contain a lot of mechanic copying of forms without active thinking, and that the exercises are completed alone rather than in pairs or groups. These kinds of exercises imply a traditional, formal view of language and language learning, in other words an empiricist view. I base my hypothesis on my own experience of foreign language textbooks. The books that I have become familiar with have had more of a formal view of language learning than a communicative one. In addition, the development of textbooks according to changing general conceptions about language learning can be slow, as for example the study by Mikkilä-Erdmann et al. (1999) shows.

4.2 The data

The data of the present study consists of the exercises in four foreign language textbooks, two of which are English textbooks and the other two Swedish textbooks. All of the books are targeted at beginners and they are approximately on the same level of language proficiency. The data was collected in November 2013 by requesting the

publishers to send copies of the selected books. The English textbooks that were studied include *English for you, too! Book 1* (Otava 2006) and *Steps into English 1* (Sanoma Pro 2013). The Swedish textbooks in the data are *Hälligång 1. Ruotsia aikuisille* (Otava 2006) and *Lycka till! Ruotsin alkeiskirja aikuisille* (Otava 2001).

The exercises of textbooks were chosen as the data of the study, because the role of the learner can the most easily be seen in them. This is because exercises in textbooks instruct learners in language learning and make the learner do something with the language. Moreover, through the learner roles in language textbooks also the view of language behind the book will become more visible. The textbooks that were studied were chosen according to which books are the most used in adult education in evening schools at the moment. Selecting the books was quite straightforward, because by examining the courses of evening schools in Finland, it was clear which books are the most commonly used. In addition, the variety of Swedish textbooks for adults is very narrow in Finland. In fact, there are only two series of Swedish books for adults, the one with only one book and the other with two books. Moreover, the single book is intended as a prequel to the other series. The amount of books was determined by observing the amount of exercises in the books.

4.3 Methods of analysis

The method of data analysis used in the present study falls into the categories of qualitative analysis and content analysis. A qualitative method of study was chosen, because it was the most appropriate method considering the data. According to Patton, qualitative data

consists of detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interactions, and observed behaviors; direct quotations from people about their experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts; and excerpts of entire passages from documents, correspondence, records, and case histories (Patton 1982: 22)

In the present study, the data consists of exercises of foreign language textbooks, so it is comprised of one form of “passages from documents”. Moreover, the data is not large enough in order to do quantitative analysis and make generalizations. In qualitative analysis, however, it is not the goal to make generalizations about the data (Hirsjärvi, Remes and Sajavaara: 2008). Nevertheless, I have presented some rough figures of the

results of the study to make the results easier to read and comprehend. Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2009: 120) mention that this can be done in content analysis as well after the data has been categorized. According to Hirsjärvi et al. (2008: 157), the purpose of a qualitative study is to describe real-life phenomena in as a comprehensive way as possible. Patton (1982: 43) states that in qualitative study the researcher gets close and in contact with the subject of study, which is actualized in the present study as well, because the textbooks are examined closely and the researcher is in touch with the actual materials that have been gathered from the publishers.

Eskola and Suoranta (1998: 159-207) introduce several techniques of analysis that are used in qualitative analysis. They remark that the nature of data affects the choice of techniques used in the analysis (Eskola and Suoranta 1998: 151). None of the techniques introduced by Eskola and Suoranta as such fit the purposes of the present study due to the quality of the data. However, in the present study in addition to quantification, categorization of the data is used, which resembles the techniques of 'themes' and 'types' of Eskola and Suoranta (1998: 174-185). The analysis was carried out so that 9 different features or exercise types were selected according to which the exercises were categorized. The categories are **Translation, Mechanic exercises, Exercises with reasoning, Free writing, Controlled writing, Free oral communication, Controlled oral communication, Comprehension of a big picture and Comprehension of details**. The exercise types arose from the data, so that the categories would cover all the exercises. On the other hand, it was important that the categories were wide enough, so that the number of categories stayed manageable for the purposes of this study. In addition, the theories about foreign language learning served as a framework for the categorization. After the data was categorized, it could be quantified and interpretations could be made from it. According to Tuomi and Sarajärvi (2009: 112), content analysis should be built exactly like this, starting from the empirical data and proceeding to the interpretations of the researcher. Eskola and Suoranta (1998: 150) state that according to one view, in the analysis stage the researcher separates the data that is useful to the study from the whole data, and after that interpretations can be made. Hence, this view considers the analysis and interpretation to be two different stages (Eskola and Suoranta 1998: 150). With the help of the quantifications it could be concluded what types of learner roles each textbook promotes. In addition to the role of the learner it could be inferred what kind of

language learning and teaching views exist behind the textbooks. Further conclusions and interpretations could be made about English and Swedish textbooks for adults.

In the following, I will introduce each category shortly and give an example exercise of them.

TRANSLATION

This category includes exercises that include translation. The exercises can include translation of shorter or longer written texts, words and phrases. In this category, there are various exercises in which the activity ultimately can be considered as translation. For example, crossword puzzles are translation exercises although they seem more interesting than traditional translation exercises.

MECHANIC EXERCISES

Various exercises fall into the category of mechanic exercises. This group includes exercises that contain some mechanic activity in which the learner does not have to process information much. These exercises frequently include copying something by writing or oral repetition. Also exercises in which a grammar form is practiced by repeating and copying it with minor changes belong to this category. In addition, dictation exercises are classified into this group. In these exercises there is very little or no context for the words and phrases that are practiced.

EXERCISES WITH REASONING

Exercises in this group require the learner to do some reasoning and usually involve more context than exercises with just disconnected words or phrases. Many of the exercises in this group are gap filling exercises, which contain text with words or phrases missing, and the learner has to fill the gaps with appropriate words. There are different types of gap filling exercises. In some the learner has to come up with the missing words without any clues, and in some there are clues to lead to the correct words. The clues can be in the foreign language or in the mother tongue. Usually, in addition to choosing the right words, the learner has to be able to use correct forms. Gap filling exercises can focus on for example vocabulary or grammar. Also other types of

exercises that make the learner process information and take the context into consideration belong to this category.

FREE WRITING

The category of free writing includes exercises in which the learner can write freely about a given topic or even come up with a topic of their own. In these exercises, it is not strictly controlled what the learner can write.

CONTROLLED WRITING

In contrast to free writing, in controlled writing exercises the content of the writing is somewhat dictated by the textbook. The instructions of an exercise can for example state all the issues that have to be mentioned in the text. This category includes also exercises with sentences that have to be continued by the learner.

FREE ORAL COMMUNICATION

This category includes oral communication exercises in which learners speak freely about a subject without specific instructions on what to say and how to say it. Also exercises in which learners practice communication in certain situations, but the content is not dictated beforehand, belong to this category. These exercises resemble natural communication and conversation.

CONTROLLED ORAL COMMUNICATION

Controlled oral communication exercises contain exercises in which learners speak with each other, but the communication is restricted according to instructions. For example, the instructions might say what issues exactly have to be discussed, give roles according to which the participants have to communicate or even dictate the turns of the speakers and give clues in mother tongue. These exercises might resemble translation or copying exercises.

COMPREHENSION OF A BIG PICTURE

This category of comprehension exercises practices the learner's understanding of whole texts. It means that the exercises help the learner to understand the big picture instead of focusing on details. These exercises might instruct the learner to answer to questions about a text (not detailed questions) or compose a summary about a text. Exercises in this category can practice listening or reading comprehension.

COMPREHENSION OF DETAILS

Exercises in this category practice the learner's ability to recognize and understand details in a text. These exercises can instruct the learner to search for information in a text or answer to questions about details in a text. Exercises in this category can practice listening or reading comprehension.

In the analysis, each exercise in the textbooks has been classified into one or several of the categories. The category or categories which best represent the exercise has been chosen. If an exercise contains features from several categories, it has been labeled with more than one category. For example, some exercises include copying and translation so that the learner has to say sentences aloud and after that translate them. In addition to the nine categories, it has been determined whether an exercise is social, i.e. if the exercise is to be completed alone or if it contains interaction with other learners.

In the next chapter, the results of the analysis will be introduced one book at a time. Each section begins with a table that shows the distribution of the different exercise types in the book in question. The percentages in the tables have been approximated into whole numbers. In each section, only the five most frequent categories of the book will be presented, because they are enough to give a general view of the book. This is due to the fact that in all of the books, only a few exercise types cover almost the entire book.

5 THE ROLE OF THE LEARNER AND THE WAY LANGUAGE IS PORTRAYED IN THE EXERCISES OF ENGLISH AND SWEDISH TEXTBOOKS FOR ADULTS

In this section, the results of the study will be presented and further conclusions about the results will be introduced. The results proceed book by book starting with the English textbooks. In addition, there will be a comparison of the English and Swedish books.

5.1 The English textbooks

This section deals with the exercises of the two English textbooks in the data. Each book will be introduced on its own, giving a picture of the exercises and the role of the learner in the books. Also the language views behind the books will be discussed.

5.1.1 English for you, too!

Table 1. Exercise categories in *English for you, too! Book 1*.

Exercise category	Number of exercises of total 135	Percentage of all exercises, %
Translation	47	35
Mechanic exercises	36	27
Exercises with reasoning	41	30
Free writing	0	0
Controlled writing	1	1
Free oral communication	0	0
Controlled oral communication	18	13
Comprehension of a big picture	4	3
Comprehension of details	25	19
Social	44	33

In Table 1 one can see the distribution of different exercise types in *English for you, too! Book 1*. In the table there is also the number of exercises that have been classified as social. In this book 37 of 135 exercises were categorized into two or more groups. It can be seen from the table that there are five categories that cover almost all of the exercises. These categories are from the largest to the smallest **Translation**, **Exercises with reasoning**, **Mechanic exercises**, **Comprehension of details** and **Controlled oral communication**. Only five exercises have been categorized into the remaining groups, of which **Free writing** and **Free oral communication** have zero exercises, **Comprehension of a big picture** has four and **Controlled writing** has one. Approximately a third of the exercises include some form of communication with other learners and can hence be regarded as social. Next, the five most popular exercise categories in this group in addition to the social aspect will be discussed.

Translation

35 per cent of the exercises in *English for you, too! Book 1* include translation, making this the most common exercise type in the book. There are exercises with translation both from English into Finnish and from Finnish into English. A high number of translation exercises can be associated to the grammar translation method, in which translating texts plays a major role (Crystal 1997: 378). The basis of the method is in structural linguistics, which is focused on the structure of language. Exact translation draws focus on the form of language and leaves little room for creativity. In this sense, translation exercises make the learner's role somewhat passive. The learner follows instructions and translates, but does not use the language for communication in natural situations. Approximately half of the translation exercises include only translation and half contain also some other activity with translation being only part of the exercise.

In almost all of the exercises that include only translation, the translation is done from Finnish into English. In Example 1 one can see this kind of an exercise:

- (1) **13** | Sano englanniksi. Kirjoita halutessasi lauseet vihkoon.
- a) Jeremy on työasioissa ulkomailla.
 - b) Nyt hän on Ruotsissa.
 - c) Hän soittaa Emilylle joka päivä.
 - d) He puhuvat lapsista ja heidän vanhasta autostaan.
 - e) Emily haluaa uuden auton.
 - f) Heidän vanha autonsa on liian pieni.

(Jokela, MacKenzie-Mäkelä and Sjögren 2006: 30)

10 exercises of the total of 47 *Translation* exercises are like this. There are also six exercises in which a dialogue has to be translated into English in this book. In the grammar translation method, the translation was traditionally done from foreign language into native language (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 15). Although the translation is done the other way around in this textbook, the role of Finnish remains quite strong. As mentioned above, the role of the learner is rather passive, because the learner translates given sentences instead of actively forming own language. However, translation exercises do require also active thinking and processing of information. Nevertheless, the focus is on form instead of function, which suggests a language view that sees language as a system of structures. The role of the learner is also quite solitary in translation exercises, because most of them are completed alone. Some exercises are supposed to be done orally with a partner, which brings a social aspect and the possibility to discuss the translation with someone to the exercise.

Because approximately half of the translation exercises include also some other kind of activity, the proportion of translation seems a little higher than it actually is. There are thirteen exercises that are classified both as reasoning exercises and translation exercises. Eight of these are gap filling exercises. An example of this is Example 2, which is a gap filling exercise with translation:

(2)

11 | Täydennä tarvittaessa prepositiot **in / for / on / to**. Joitakin prepositioita käytetään useamman kerran. Suomenna lauseet.

- a) My friend, who lives _____ a small house, works _____ her garden every day.
- b) She likes singing, too, and she sings _____ a choir.
- c) Sometimes she goes _____ parties.
- d) She is retired, but she works part-time _____ a small company.
- e) Sometimes she goes _____ Helsinki _____ business.
- f) She doesn't often travel _____ abroad.

(Jokela et al. 2006: 29)

The learner has to fill in the prepositions into six sentences. This exercise focuses on grammar and the learner has to conclude which preposition is the correct one according to the context. After that the learner has to translate the sentences. It seems that translating the sentences is a secondary activity and the gap filling part primary. In addition to these exercises, the translation category includes crossword puzzles. These exercises might be more enjoyable and therefore motivating for the learner, but the actual process is the same as in traditional translation exercises. One minor change is that the crossword puzzle tells the learner how many letters there are in the words, so the choice of answers is more limited.

Exercises with reasoning

The second largest category in this book is *Exercises with reasoning*, which covers 30 per cent of all of the exercises. There are almost as many exercises in this group as in the *Translation* category. In addition, as mentioned, many exercises in the category of *Translation* include reasoning as the primary task. Hence, the proportion of exercises that require reasoning is actually very significant. In a little over half of the exercises in which the exercise has been categorized into some other group in addition to this, the part with reasoning is the main task. This kind of exercises that make the learner process information actively can be linked to rationalist theories of language, since in them the individual affects the learning more than the environment (Johnson 2008:49). In other words, the learner has a more active and powerful role in the learning process. This can be linked to constructivism, in which the learner makes interpretations about information and knowledge is constructed in the learner's mind instead of copied (von Wright 1992: 9). As in the *Translation* category, exercises in this category are mostly

completed alone. This implies to a learning view according to which learners learn better alone than in communication with other learners.

Approximately a third of the exercises in this category are gap filling exercises. Almost all of these exercises practice grammar, for example verb forms or prepositions. The learner has to choose the correct word and form according to the context. In Example 3, verbs have to be added in the correct forms:

(3) **10** | Täydennä verbit oikeassa muodossa. Suomeina lauseet.

- a) My friends, Lisa and Mary, _____ (työskennellä) in a supermarket.
- b) Mary _____ (ajaa autolla) to work, but Lisa
_____ (ajaa) a bike.
- c) Sometimes they _____ (työskennellä) on Sundays, too.
- d) Mary _____ (omistaa) a dog and they both _____
(omistaa) cats.
- e) Mary _____ (viedä) her dog out before she
_____ (lähteä) for work.
- f) Lisa _____ (lukea) the newspaper and then she
_____ (antaa) her cat some water and food.







(Jokela et al. 2006: 28)

In this exercise the verb that is missing is given in Finnish in the infinitive form, so the learner has to find the correct verb in English and use the correct form. Finally, the sentences have to be translated. Although the gap filling part of this exercise is very close to translation, it has been categorized as an exercise with reasoning, because the task requires more than just translation. By containing the context, these exercises differ from some mechanic exercises and translation of separate words or phrases. The words have more context and therefore meaning for the learner. This can make the learning easier, since it is believed that it is easier to remember words when they can be linked to something. For example Gairns and Redman (1986: 90) state that this kind of meaningful exercises make the learner think about the language more carefully, which results in the language being stored in long term memory.


This category includes also exercises in which the learner has to form sentences according to various options. In these exercises the learner has to for example choose


the correct forms for verbs according to the context. Example 4 is this kind of an exercise:


(4) **12** Muodosta lauseita alla olevista sanoista. Valitse persoona noppaa heittämällä tai käytä tuntemiesi henkilöiden nimiä. Muodosta lause **have**-verbillä. Poimi ensin sopiva artikkelisana, sitten adjektiivi ja lopuksi substantiivi. Sano muodostamasi lause pariin kertaan lauserytmin harjoittelemiseksi.

 = I
  = you
  = he
  = she
  = we
  = they

Esimerkki:

 She has a big house.

 We have two bedrooms.

 Emily and Jeremy have an old house.

a / an / - / two / three

house	bedroom	big	new	green
flat	hall	small	good	yellow
bathroom	front door	fine	bad	orange
garden	toilet	great	light	grey
kitchen	garage	wonderful	dark	brown
living room		beautiful	blue	pink
		old	red	purple

(Jokela et al. 2006: 29)

In this exercise the learner forms sentences with given options. As the variables change, the verb form and the article have to be selected accordingly. However, these exercises also have features of mechanic exercises, since they contain a lot of repetition, the words are dictated by the book and only few changes have to be made. There are also exercises in which the learner has to put words in a sentence in the correct order. All of the words are given in their correct forms. Example 5 is an example of these exercises:

- (5) **7** Muodosta sanoista lauseita. Suomenna lauseet.
- is / downstairs / bathroom / big / a / there / .
 - there / apple trees / are / in your garden / many / ?
 - window / in the kitchen / big / is / there / a / .
 - there / in the bathroom / is / a / window / ?
 - upstairs / are / bedrooms / there / two / ?
 - in the hall / three / there / are / doors / ?



(Jokela et al. 2006: 91)

These exercises practice the knowledge of word order. This sort of exercise makes the learner think about how sentences are formed without having to translate, so the focus is

on the essential. However, these exercises do not resemble natural communication, in which participants form language of their own. The exercises of this group in this book do not require as much involvement from the learner as they could. For example, they could demand more creativity from the learner's part. Learners could form question sentences of their own, for instance, which would bring the language closer to the learners.

Mechanic exercises

Mechanic exercises cover 27 per cent of all of the exercises in this book, which makes it the third most popular category. The number of these exercises is a little lower than the numbers of the previous categories, but they still have a significant role in the book. Mechanic exercises with repeating and copying are the result of a behavioristic language learning view (Crystal 1997: 376). In mechanic exercises the role of the learner is very passive as a copier and imitator of language.

In a third of the *Mechanic exercises* the learner has to find words from the text according to Finnish translations. One example is the exercise in Example 6:

(6) **1** | Etsi tekstistä.

- | | |
|------------------------------|-------|
| a) matkustaa | _____ |
| b) uimaseura | _____ |
| c) nimeltään | _____ |
| d) usein | _____ |
| e) liikeasioissa/työasioissa | _____ |
| f) esikaupunkialueella | _____ |
| g) osa-aikainen/-sesti | _____ |
| h) naapuri | _____ |

(Jokela et al. 2006: 24)

There are ten exercises that practice pronunciation in this category. These include exercises in which the learner repeats words or phrases after the tape. These exercises represent the audio-lingual method, which is based on oral repetition (Crystal 1997: 387). However, in this book the exercises with oral repetition include also the written form, so the two forms are connected from the beginning. In the audio-lingual method it

was common that the spoken language came first (Crystal 1997: 378). Example 7 shows one exercise with oral repetition:

(7)

11 | Äännä oikein [ʃ].



[ʃ]-äänne (= suhu-s) muodostetaan laittamalla kieli kouruksi ja suhistamalla kuten pyydetessä kuulijaa olemaan hiljaa.

Toista äänitteen jälkeen.

Sano lauseet vielä useampaan kertaan ja kuuntele omaa ääntämistäsi.


1. She sees seven bikes in the shed.
2. This dish is hot.
3. Sharon is a secretary.
4. Does she sell ice-cream on Saturdays?
5. She services cars on Sundays.
6. She washes some dishes.



(Jokela et al. 2006: 72)

The exercises in this category are very mechanic and passivize the learner somewhat. However, one can consider whether this method is necessary when practicing certain aspects of language. For example, this method may be suitable in learning pronunciation, in which repetition is essential. Moreover, in Example 7 the learner is instructed in how to form the correct sound instead of only repeating it, which helps the learner to achieve correct pronunciation.

In addition, there are exercises with the instructions *Harjoittele näitä. (Practice these.)* In these exercises, there are sentences in Finnish and their translations in English. One example of this can be seen in Example 8:

(8)

16 | Harjoittele näitä. 

Missä asut?	Where do you live?	
Asun pienessä kaupungissa.	I live in a small town.	
Asutko omakotitalossa vai kerrostalossa?	Do you live in a house or a flat?	
Asun kerrostalossa.	I live in a flat.	
Asutko keskikaupungilla vai esikaupunkialueella?	Do you live in the town centre or in the suburbs?	
En asu keskikaupungilla.	I don't live in the town centre.	
Pidätkö talostasi?	Do you like your house?	
Pidän.	Yes, I do.	
Onko kotisi lähellä postia?	Is there a post office near your home?	
100 metrin päässä on posti.	There is a post office 100 metres away.	
Onko linja-autopysäkkiä?	Is there a bus stop?	
Linja-autopysäkki on lähellä postitoimistoa.	The bus stop is near the post office.	
Entä pankkia?	And a bank?/What about a bank?	
Pankkia ei ole.	There isn't a bank.	
Onko kotisi lähellä puistoa?	Is there a park near your home?	
Postin lähellä on myös puisto.	There is a park near the post office, too. / There is also a park near the post office.	

(Jokela et al. 2006: 95)

The instructions of these exercises are very vague, since they do not tell how the sentences should be practiced. However, the form of the exercise implies that the sentences should be read and memorized, which is a very mechanic activity. Perhaps the learner could also test whether he or she can understand the sentences by covering the other column.

Comprehension of details

The fourth largest exercise category is *Comprehension of details*, which covers 19 per cent of the exercises in the book. The exercises in this category require the learner to understand specific words or phrases and the ability to translate into the mother tongue. The category of *Comprehension of a big picture* covers only 2 per cent of the exercises, so almost all of the listening or reading comprehension exercises concentrate on recognizing and understanding details instead of wholes in texts. This shows that there is a preference for practicing comprehension in a certain way and suggests that the writers of the book consider understanding separate parts of a text more important than the big picture. In everyday life when reading or listening to texts, usually the understanding of the whole is more important than the knowledge of every single word in the text. However, the percentage of comprehension exercises that concentrate on details may be due the target group. The book is intended for beginners, and concentrates on very basic skills like introducing yourself or telling time. These skills are based on phrases that have to be learnt by heart. In addition, through exercises that

focus on details in texts, also vocabulary and grammar can be practiced. Nevertheless, it probably would be more helpful for the learner if they first could understand the general idea in the texts before examining the details.

In this category there are also reading comprehension exercises, in which the learner has to read statements about the text chapter and correct the false ones. The statements are always in English. Example 9 shows one of these exercises:

(9) **4** | **Korjaa asiavirheet.**

Esimerkki: Amanda and Robert arrive at Emily's house at 6 pm.
They don't arrive at 6 pm. They arrive at 10 pm.

- a) Emily and Jeremy are tired and hungry.
- b) Amanda loves the hot sauna.
- c) Emily and Jeremy have a new house.
- d) Amanda and Robert can't fall asleep.
- e) It's dark when Amanda and Robert go to bed.
- f) The house doesn't have a basement.

(Jokela et al. 2006: 90)

In these exercises the learner has to either remember the facts or search them from the text. These exercises make sure that the learner has understood the important parts and details in the texts and make them repeat the parts when correcting the statements. Hence, the exercises practice also certain phrases or structures in the texts. Although these exercises sometimes might form the big picture of a text, the starting point is still in details. Some text comprehension exercises in the book instruct the learner to form questions about the text according to given clues. The question words and the answers are given in the book. In these exercises the learner has to figure out which part of the text is in question and form the question according to it. These exercises practice also forming questions. In addition, there are exercises named *Puzzle it out!*, in which the learner has to read statements and according to them conclude the identity of several persons and what they do. These exercises require learners to understand the sentences exactly and to be able to reason. Example 10 is an example of these exercises:

- (10) **10** | Puzzle it out! Megan, Thomas, Sam, Matt ja Sue ovat turisteja Edinburghissa. Täydennä turistien käyntikohteet vihjeiden mukaan. Ketkä kaksi kulkevat yhdessä?

Name	First to	Then	With?

1. One man and his friend go first to Edinburgh Castle.
2. The married couple would like to go to the theatre, so they go to see a play in King's Theatre in the evening.
3. Megan wants to go shopping first.
4. Sue goes sightseeing with her children.
5. Princes Street is a famous shopping street in Edinburgh.
6. After visiting Edinburgh Castle, Matt and his friend go to the Royal Museum of Scotland, because they are interested in history.
7. One man and his wife love gardens and they go to see Princes Gardens first.
8. One man isn't interested in shopping, but he has to go shopping with his girlfriend.
9. Sue and the children are interested in animals. They go to Edinburgh Zoo after visiting Arthur's Seat.
10. Thomas is in Edinburgh with his wife.
11. After shopping, Megan and Sam go to see Edinburgh Castle.

(Jokela et al. 2006: 120)

The listening comprehension exercises in this book require the learner to pick up details in the text. For example, in the exercise in Example 11 the learner needs to understand only the times that are mentioned:

- (11) **14** | Kuuntele vuoropuhelu useampaan kertaan ja vastaa kysymykseen.



Mitkä kolme kellonaikaa kuulet mainittavan?

silly [sɪli]	hassu	by the way [baɪ ðə weɪ]	muuten
late [leɪt]	myöhässä	ready [redi]	valmis
nearly [niəli]	lähes, melkein	hungry [hʌŋgri]	nälkäinen
really [riəli]	todella	wait [weɪt]	odottaa
upset [ʌp'set]	poissa tolaltaan	come and get	tulla hakemaan
Oh dear! [ou diə]	Voi sentään!	[kʌm and get]	
worry [wʌri]	huolehtia, surra	alright [ɔ:l'raɪt]	selvä

(Jokela et al. 2006: 45)

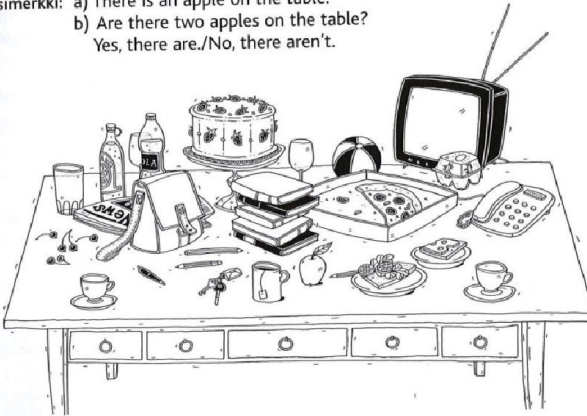
These kind of listening exercises instruct the learner to pay attention to specific information or words in the text. It does not matter what the contents of the text are. On the other hand, the learner has to be able to pick up the information from its context, which resembles everyday life communication.

Controlled oral communication

13 per cent of the exercises in this book have been categorized as *Controlled oral communication* exercises, which makes this the fifth largest group. From the small number of these exercises, it can be concluded that oral communication has not got a substantial role in the language view behind the book. In addition, the oral communication exercises do not include a single *Free oral communication* exercise, which would resemble natural oral communication. In the exercises of the book the supposed oral communication occurs according to instructions or given phrases. For example, there are exercises in which learners speak about a picture using a certain phrase, as in Example 12:

(12) **12** Kerro ja kysy kuvasta yhdessä parisi kanssa.
Käytä **there is/are** -rakennetta.

Esimerkki: a) There is an apple on the table.
b) Are there two apples on the table?
Yes, there are./No, there aren't.



(Jokela et al. 2006: 93)

In these exercises, learners communicate with each other, but the content of the communication is controlled quite strictly. This makes the communication somewhat unnatural. On the other hand, the picture and the model phrases give support to the beginning learners. At this point in the learning, learners may not have the skills to communicate freely and need models.

In addition, there are exercises in which learners construct a dialogue together according to the text, as in Example 13:



- (13) **13** | Muodosta parin kanssa lyhyt haastattelu tekstistä. Toinen on haastattelija ja toinen joko Amanda tai Robert, joka kuvailee Emilyn ja Jeremyn kesämökkiä. Muodostakaa ensin kysymykset yhdessä. Vastatkaa tekstin mukaan.

(Jokela et al. 2006: 106)

There are six exercises in the book following exactly the pattern in this exercise. Learners form an interview in which one learner is the interviewer and the other is a character from the text chapter. The subject of the interview is given in the book, and the answers must be formed according to the book. This kind of oral communication exercises leave little room for creativity and natural communication.

The social aspect

33 per cent of the exercises in this book can be considered social. These exercises include some social aspect, in other words some part of the exercise is done with other learners. In some exercises, the instructions say that the exercise should be done with a partner, in others the instructions imply it. Most of the social exercises are done with a partner and some should be or can be done in groups. The number of social exercises in this book gives the idea that learning is more a solitary than a social activity. Moreover, many of the pair exercises can also be completed alone. The full potential of pair or group work has not been utilized.

In conclusion, as can be seen from the results, the five most popular exercise categories cover almost the entire book. Approximately 92 per cent of the exercises have been categorized into the three most common categories: *Translation*, *Exercises with reasoning* and *Mechanic exercises*. Moreover, the same exercise types recur throughout the book. This shows that the book does not offer a lot of variety for learners. The writers of the book state that the understanding of the texts and the studying of words that are important to the learner are the most important issues in the book (Jokela et al. 2006: 3). The exercises in the book do concentrate strongly on the learning of words, phrases and structures in the texts. In light of the results of the present study, this learning occurs mainly through translation, gap filling exercises and other exercises that require more processing, and purely mechanic exercises. According to the writers of the book, the exercises of the book emphasize oral production and most of the exercises are

performed orally with a partner or in groups (Jokela et al. 2006: 3). However, as can be seen from the results of this study, these statements are not fulfilled in the book, since only 13 per cent of the exercises are oral communication exercises and 33 per cent of all of the exercises can be regarded as social. Certainly even more exercises can be completed together with other learners, but neither the instructions of the book nor the exercise types encourage it.

There is no one view of language and learning or a teaching method behind this book. As usually the case, the language view of the book shows features from different approaches. The high percentage of translation and mechanic copying suggest an empiricist view of language, more accurately a combination of structuralism and behaviorism. The learning methods contain features from the grammar translation method and the audio-lingual method. However, the exercises in this book include also exercises with reasoning, which refer to a more rationalist view on language. Overall the exercises in this book concentrate quite strongly on form instead of function. There are also exercises in which learners practice some skills orally, but the number is rather low. In addition, the oral exercises are quite mechanic and focus on form. Therefore, communicativeness is not truly present in the book. The role that the learner is given is a receiver of information, since the learning relies on copying models and applying grammar rules instead of forming language. Moreover, the learning occurs more alone than with other learners.

5.1.2 Steps into English

Table 2. Exercise categories in *Steps into English 1*.


Exercise category	Number of exercises of total 215	Percentage of all exercises, %
Translation	36	17
Mechanic exercises	29	13
Exercises with reasoning	25	12
Free writing	3	1
Controlled writing	79	37
Free oral communication	0	0
Controlled oral communication	82	38
Comprehension of a big picture	1	0
Comprehension of details	16	7
Social	93	43

Table 2 shows the numbers and percentages of different exercise categories in *Steps into English 1*. In this book 42 exercises of 215 were classified into two or more categories. Also in this book, certain categories are emphasized over others. The five most common categories are from the largest to the smallest **Controlled oral communication**, **Controlled writing**, **Translation**, **Mechanic exercises** and **Exercises with reasoning**. Of the remaining categories **Comprehension of details** is the biggest with 7 per cent. **Free writing** with three exercises covers only one per cent of all of the exercises. Only one exercise has been labeled into the category of **Comprehension of a big picture** and none in the category of **Free oral communication**. Up to 43 per cent of the exercises are regarded as social. In the following, the five most frequent categories and the social aspect will be discussed more closely.

Controlled oral communication


The category of *Controlled oral communication* with the percentage of 38 is the most common exercise category in this book. This implies a communicative approach to language learning, in which communication is used as a way to learn (Savignon 2005:

635). The controlled oral communication exercises in this book mostly include exercises in which learners practice communication according to a model. Some of these exercises include also pictures that learners use as a support. In the exercise in Example 14 learners practice telling what foods they like and do not like:

(14)  5. **Vaihda paria ja kerro oma mielipiteesi.**
 I like tea. *Minä pidän teestä.*
 I don't like beer. *En pidä oluesta.*

(Huhtala-Halme, Halme and Eerola 2013: 11)

In these exercises the phrases and structures are practiced the way they would be used in real-life as well. There is no point in writing down conversations that would be spoken in everyday life. However, there are also exercises in the book in which learners write down the sentences they form in addition to speaking with a partner. Example 15 is this kind of an exercise:

(15)  7. **Mitä syötävää tai juotavaa et halua nyt?**
 I don't want any coffee. *En halua (yhtään) kahvia.*

Kielteisissä lauseissa ainesanojen ja monikossa olevien sanojen edessä käytetään usein sanaa *any*, joka tarkoittaa *yhtään, mitään*.

(Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 128)

These exercises practice writing in addition to speaking. The idea might be that learners connect the written form to the spoken. Moreover, also writing has to be practiced, and these exercises bring that aspect along. Nevertheless, learners practice also communicating orally in these exercises, so it is not only writing down what could be said. In exercises as in the examples above, learners also get support from each other and can discuss the language together.

As in *English for you, too!*, all of the oral communication exercises in this book are controlled, and there are no *Free oral communication* exercises. This makes the

communication somewhat mechanic and unnatural. To some extent, learners only repeat models and imitate communication. Learners do not get the opportunity to form language of their own at all. However, at the beginning of language learning learners do need models and support to be able to communicate something. With the help of the patterns given in the book, learners can for example tell something about themselves.

Controlled writing

The second largest exercise group in this book is *Controlled writing*, which covers 37 per cent of the exercises in the book. This category is almost as large as the category of *Controlled oral communication*, so these exercise types play an equally significant role. In addition to speaking, writing is considered an important skill in this book. The large percentage of production exercises suggests a language view in which the learner has got an important role. Most of the writing exercises are exercises in which the learner writes according to a model including a sentence or several sentences, as in Example 16:

(16)



15. Nykyisin monet noudattavat erikoisruokavaliota. Keksi ruokia ja juomia, joita eri ihmiset syövät tai juovat ja mitä he taas eivät syö tai juo.

My sister drinks tea but she doesn't drink any coffee.


How about you?

I _____
but I don't _____

(Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 132)

These exercises are quite close to mechanic exercises, since they include copying a model and making only small changes. However, in these exercises the learner can partly decide what he or she wants to write. The learner learns to communicate in the language with the support of the models. There are also exercises which contain oral communication in addition to writing, as in Example 15 above. These exercises help the learner to connect the written and spoken forms. In addition, more writing practice is included this way without decreasing oral practice.

There are also some exercises with continuing sentences, answering to questions and forming sentences, in which the writing is also partly controlled, since there are factors that limit the writing. These exercises relate to a certain theme or grammar point that has been practiced. Therefore, there are certain options that the learner is expected to use. For example, in the exercise in Example 17 the use of adjectives is practiced:

(17)  19. **Keksi lauseita, joissa käytät näitä sanoja.**

old	I have an old camera. My watch is old.
new	_____
big	_____
six	_____
green	_____

(Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 37)

In this exercise the learner has to come up with sentences by using the words that are given. The writing is controlled, since the learner has to use the given words and create sentences around them. In addition, there are model sentences that direct the writing. The model sentence *I have an old camera.* contains the structure *I have*, which has been practiced previously in the book. It is assumed that the learner will use this phrase in forming the sentences.

Translation

17 per cent of the exercises have been categorized as *Translation* exercises, so translation plays a minor role in the exercises of this book. Nevertheless, it has been chosen as a form of learning, so it is valued to some extent. The selection of translation exercises suggests that it is also important to compare the foreign language to the mother tongue. In addition, translation puts emphasis on exact forms and ways of expressing something. In this book there are exercises practicing only translation and exercises that combine translation and some other activity. Exercises with mere translation include exercises in which the learner should combine words in English to images or numbers. One example of these exercises is shown in Example 18:

(18)



13. Tässä on lisää matkalla tarvittavia tavaroita. Yhdistä kuvat ja sanat.

a toothbrush

a knife

matches

a passport

a ticket



a dictionary

a hat

a backpack

aspirin

a map

(Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 31)

The learner gets help from the images in deciding what the words mean. Although the learner does not have to write the translations in Finnish, the completion of the exercise requires translating the word. In addition to being translation exercises, these exercises are also quite mechanic. In addition to these, there are also so-called traditional translation exercises, in which the learner translates words, phrases or sentences. In almost all of these exercises the translation is done from Finnish into English. In Example 19, the exercise includes translation both from English into Finnish and vice versa:

(19)



5. Kirjoita puuttuvat sanonnat englanniksi ja suomeksi.

English

Finnish

opposite the school

next to the café

between the church and the theatre

behind the cinema

in front of the hospital

pubin takana

aseman edessä

tavarataloa vastapäätä


huoltoaseman ja kirjaston välissä

ravintolan vieressä

(Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 99)

Many of the translation exercises in this book are functional in the sense that the sentences that should be translated relate to a certain situation. In Example 19 above the phrases that are translated can be used in telling someone where something is located.

However, the most frequent exercise type in this category, covering approximately a third of the exercises, is an exercise that combines translation with pronunciation. In Example 20, one can see one of these exercises:

(20)  19. Mikä sana? Lue ääntämisohje. Kirjoita sana englanniksi ja suomeksi.

	English	Finnish
1. /nain/	<i>nine</i>	<i>yhdeksän</i>
2. /braun/	_____	_____
3. /fra:ns/	_____	_____
4. /jeləu/	_____	_____
5. /tʃ>klit/	_____	_____
6. /θæŋk ju:/	_____	_____
7. /həʊtel/	_____	_____
8. /dʒu:s/	_____	_____
9. /θri:/	_____	_____
10. /rʌʃə/	_____	_____

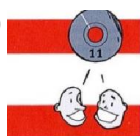
(Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 26)

In these exercises the learner has to recognize an English word from its pronunciation form written in phonetic alphabets and write the word in English. This part of the exercise has been categorized as a mechanic exercise, since it includes little more than copying. In addition, the learner has to translate the words into Finnish. These exercises practice the reading of the phonetic alphabets and vocabulary. All in all, they are quite mechanic and merely disconnected words are practiced. The emphasis is on the learning of the phonetic alphabets and apparently the writers consider this skill worthwhile, since these exercises recur in all but one chapter of the book. In addition, the symbols are explained briefly in the book.

Mechanic exercises

The category of *Mechanic exercises* covers 13 per cent of all of the exercises in this book. These exercises include mechanically copying something either orally or by writing or some other mechanic task. Most of these exercises are oral exercises, as the exercise in Example 21:

(21)



15. Kuuntele. Harjoittele pariisi kanssa.

- | | |
|-----------------|--------------------|
| - Hello! | - Hi! |
| - Good evening. | - Good evening. |
| - How are you? | - Fine, thanks. |
| - Coffee? | - Yes, please. |
| - Thank you. | - You are welcome. |
| - Sorry. | - Never mind. |
| - Goodbye. | - Bye. See you. |

hi	hei, terve (<i>tavattaessa</i>)
good evening	hyvää iltaa
how are you	kuinka voit(te), mitä kuuluu
fine, thanks	hyvin / hyvää, kiitos
you are welcome	eipä kestä (<i>vastattaessa kiitokseen</i>)
never mind	älä välitä; tässä: ei se mitään
bye	hei hei (<i>hyvästeltäessä</i>)
see you	nähdään

(Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 14)

In this exercise learners practice the dialogue in pairs. The exercise is labeled as a mechanic exercise, since it includes only reading aloud the conversation in the book and the language does not have to be processed further or formed by the learner. In addition to oral exercises, there are some exercises that are done by writing in this category. These exercises include for example answering to questions with only one word and continuing sentences with one word or lists of words. There are also exercises in which the learner has to search for phrases in a text, as in Example 22:

(22)



16. Lue keskustelut edeltä. Miten niissä sanotaan seuraavat asiat englanniksi?

1. Asun poikani kanssa. _____
2. Olen yksinhuoltajaäiti. _____
3. Työskentelen valintamymälässä. _____
4. Hänen tukkansa on tumma. _____
5. Hän on eläkkeellä. _____
6. Poikamme Tim asuu Pariisissa. _____
7. Hänen vaimonsa Monica on kotoisin Kanadasta. _____
8. Heillä on tyttövauva. _____
9. Chloella ei ole (yhtään) hiuksia. _____
10. Tyttäreemme Ann asuu Dublinissa avomiehensä kanssa. _____
11. Peter on eronnut. _____
12. Hän työskentelee tietokoneiden parissa. _____

(Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 70)

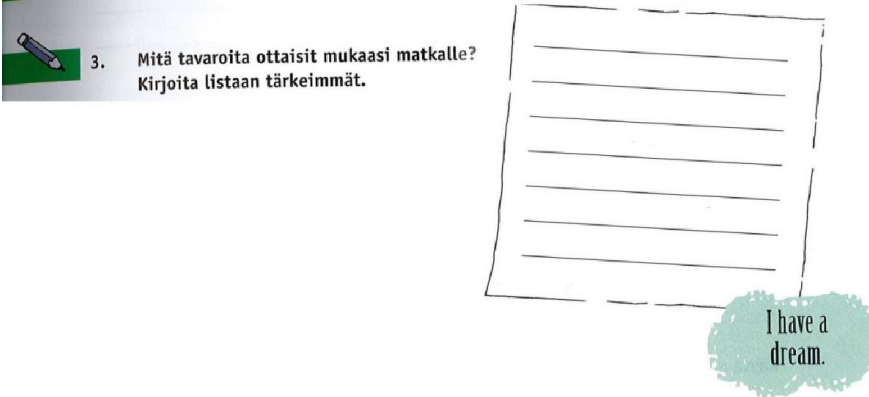
In this exercise sentences are given in Finnish and the learner has to find them from the text in English. The learner has to write down the sentences. Hence, these exercises have been categorized as mechanic exercises. Although they could have been categorized as comprehension exercises, the mechanic copying is the central way of learning in the exercises.

There are also exercises that have been categorized into more than one exercise group. Example 20 above has been labeled as a *Mechanic exercise* in addition to a *Translation exercise*. This is the most common exercise type in this category as well as in the *Translation* category. As mentioned above, these exercises have been categorized as mechanic, because the task is quite simple including figuring out separate words according to the phonetic alphabets.

Exercises with reasoning

12 per cent of the exercises in the book are categorized as *Exercises with reasoning*. What separates these from mechanic exercises is that they include more processing than merely copying. Also exercises that require the learner to connect the language to own experiences have been categorized into this group. Moreover, there are exercises in which the learner should categorize words or come up with words in a certain theme in this group. Most of the exercises in this category are one or both of the above. Example 23 shows an exercise of this kind:

(23)



3. Mitä tavaroita ottaisit mukaasi matkalle?
Kirjoita listaan tärkeimmät.

I have a dream.

(Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 31)

In this exercise the learner has to come up with things that he would pack for a trip. The exercise combines thinking of words around a theme with the learner's own preferences. Combining personal experiences to learning probably makes it more motivating and effective. In Example 24 one can see another example of an exercise with categorization of words:

(24)



7. Etsi laatikosta numerot, maat ja värit. Kirjoita ne oikean otsikon alle.

BLUE	FOUR	RUSSIA
SIX	TEN	WHITE
NORWAY	SPAIN	GREEN
ESTONIA	BROWN	GREECE
ELEVEN	YELLOW	SEVEN
ONE	TWELVE	BLACK
RED	DENMARK	GERMANY

Numbers	Countries	Colours
<i>six</i> _____	<i>Norway</i> _____	<i>blue</i> _____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

(Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 42)

In Example 24 the English words have to be categorized under a title. All of the exercises of this kind practice vocabulary. Most of the exercises in this category are as the ones described above, and there are only some exercises with some other form in this group.

The social aspect

43 per cent of the exercises in this book include a social aspect, which is clearly more than in *English for you, too!*. Almost half of the exercises in this book are completed with a partner or in groups, and a little over half of them are done alone. This suggests that language learning is considered equally a social and a lonely activity. Most of the social exercises are *Controlled oral communication* exercises, some of which include also writing. Therefore, a great deal of the learning in this book occurs in oral communication with other learners, according to a communicative teaching method (Savignon 2005: 635).

To conclude, in contrast to *English for you, too!*, producing language seems to be the most important feature in *Steps into English*. According to the writers of the book, the learner learns to produce language of his own instead of copying someone else's

language (Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 5). They mention oral and written exercises that connect the learning into the learner's own life (Huhtala-Halme et al. 2013: 5). These statements are realized in the book, since it offers a lot of communication exercises in which the learner utilizes own experiences in producing language. 76 per cent of the exercises include written or oral communication, which shows that producing language truly has a significant role in this book. This makes the role of the learner very active, since the learner gets to form language of his own and make use of own experiences. In addition, the role of the learner is quite social, since the learning often takes place in communication with other learners. Although the production exercises, oral and written, are somewhat mechanic and lean on models, learners get to practice producing their own language instead of copying or translating. The role of output in language learning is important, as Swain (1995: 125) claims in *the Output Hypothesis*. The writers of the book seem to have been led by the idea of communicative language learning, in which learning takes place through communicating (Savignon 2005: 635). Communicativeness as an approach is neither empiricist nor rationalist, but a more recent view. A great deal of the communication exercises in this book are done in writing, which can also be regarded as communication. In contrast, mechanic and translation exercises cannot be considered communication exercises, because the learner does not express anything himself. However, the exercises in the book are quite monotonous, because the same exact exercise types recur throughout the book. There is little variation, which can make the learning dull. Nevertheless, neither the writers of this book have adopted a single language learning view, but there are aspects of other learning methods as well. In the five most frequent exercise categories there are also *Translation*, *Mechanic exercises* and *Exercises with reasoning*, which can be defined as representing the empiricist views of structuralism and behaviorism in addition to the rationalist constructivism.

5.2 The Swedish textbooks

In this section, the exercises of the two Swedish textbooks in the data will be discussed. The analysis proceeds the same way as above, introducing one book at a time.

5.2.1 Lycka till!

Table 3. Exercise categories in *Lycka till! Ruotsin alkeiskirja aikuisille*.

Exercise category	Number of exercises of total 100	Percentage of all exercises, %
Translation	32	32
Mechanic exercises	19	19
Exercises with reasoning	21	21
Free writing	1	1
Controlled writing	9	9
Free oral communication	0	0
Controlled oral communication	17	17
Comprehension of a big picture	3	3
Comprehension of details	20	20
Social	27	27

In Table 3 the exercise categories of *Lycka till! Ruotsin alkeiskirja aikuisille* are shown. There is also the number and percentage of social exercises in the book. In *Lycka till!* 17 exercises of the total 100 were categorized into two or more categories. It can be seen from the table that there are five categories that are clearly larger than the others. These categories are from the largest to the smallest **Translation**, **Exercises with reasoning**, **Comprehension of details**, **Mechanic exercises** and **Controlled oral communication**. Translation is clearly the most common exercise type of these five, but the four other categories have nearly the same numbers of exercises amongst each other. Of the remaining categories, **Controlled writing** is the biggest with nine exercises, **Comprehension of a big picture** has three, **Free writing** has one, and **Free oral communication** has zero. 27 per cent of the exercises are social, which is quite low. The five most common exercise categories and the social aspect are discussed in the following.

Translation

32 per cent of the exercises in this book are *Translation* exercises, and this is the most common exercise category in the book. Almost a third of the exercises include translation, so it is a significant learning method in this book. Translation exercises and focus on form refer to structuralism and the grammar translation method. In translation exercises the role of the learner is quite passive. The learner is given words, phrases or sentences instead of getting to form language himself. In the grammar translation method, translating language is considered more important than being able to produce it (Larsen-Freeman 2000: 15-16).

Most of the translation exercises in this book are traditional translation exercises with sentences that have to be translated. Most of the exercises include translation from Finnish into Swedish and only some from Swedish into Finnish. Example 25 shows a traditional translation exercise from the book:

(25) Tehtävä 3

Käännä ruotsiksi.

1. Saanko esitellä poikaystäväni Modoun.
2. Hän on kotoisin Gambiasta, mutta hän asuu Tukholmassa.
3. Hänen vanhempansa ovat Gambiassa.
4. Modoun sisar työskentelee myös Ruotsissa.
5. Hän on naimisissa ja hänellä on kolme lasta.

(Turpeinen 2001: 31)

In this exercise there are sentences that have to be translated from Finnish into Swedish. It seems that the exercise should be done by writing, although the instructions do not state it. This kind of exact translations draws focus on form. The sentences that are translated are such that could be used in oral communication when introducing someone, so it is peculiar that they have to be translated by writing in this exercise. There are also some exercises with single words or phrases that have to be translated. In example 26 the translation is done from Swedish into Finnish:

(26) Tehtävä 1

a) Kirjoita lukusanat numeroin

- | | |
|-------------------|----------------------------------|
| 1. fjorton _____ | 4. arton _____ |
| 2. fyrtio _____ | 5. hundraotjugotre _____ |
| 3. åttiosju _____ | 6. ett tusen sjuhundraelva _____ |

(Turpeinen 2001: 26)

In this exercise numbers in Swedish have to be written in numbers. Although Finnish words do not have to be written, the learner translates the numbers into Finnish before writing the number. This task is very simple and mechanic, but it suits the purpose. Exercises with separate words practice the knowledge of vocabulary, whereas in translation of sentences, the learner practices also grammar.

In addition to these exercise types, there are various other exercises that recur only few times in the book. For example, there are exercises with continuing sentences and answering questions. These exercises are regarded as *Translation* because the language that should be written in Swedish is given already in Finnish. Therefore the exercises are in the category of *Translation* instead of *Controlled writing*. There are also exercises with dialogues in which the lines are given in Finnish, and the learner has to write them in Swedish. The learner is not given any freedom to form language of his own and the exercise is quite an unnatural way to practice conversations. In addition, there are a few exercises in which some other activity is primary and translation only secondary, so the translation is not in a very significant role. Nevertheless, the writers have considered it important enough to add it to these exercises.

Exercises with reasoning

Exercises with reasoning cover 21 per cent of the exercises in this book. This is the second largest exercise category, so these exercises play a significant role in the book. However, the three following categories have got nearly the same numbers of exercises as this group, so they are of equal significance. *Exercises with reasoning* give the learner a more active role than for example *Mechanic exercises*. The learner has to process the language more and form language of his own. The learner's role is emphasized over the role of the environment. This implies to a rationalist language view (Johnson 2008:49). There are versatile exercises in this group and some exercise types occur only once in the book. One of the most frequent exercise types in this group is

gap filling exercises with 5 out of 21 exercises. There is an example of these in Example 27:

(27) Tehtävä 4

Lisää **han, hon, hans, hennes, deras**.

1. Det här är Calle Carlsson. _____ har ett hus i Sandviken.
2. _____ bor där med frun Margareta och _____ söner Jens och Olle.
3. _____ fru jobbar inte. _____ är hemmamamma.
4. Margaretas syster heter Katarina. _____ tycker också om att bo i Sandviken.
5. _____ man är fiskare. _____ barn går redan i skola.

(Turpeinen 2001: 28)

In this exercise the learner has to fill in the gaps with one of the choices given in the instructions in Swedish. The exercise practices personal pronouns and their genitive forms. Instead of practicing the pronouns separately, this exercise brings a context for them. The learner has to choose the correct pronoun according to the context. Therefore, the exercise requires active thinking and interpretation of the context. On the other hand, the learner's own language use or formation is very limited by the structure of the exercise. Most of the language is given by the exercise and the learner can use only a few words. However, this kind of exercise focuses the attention to specific parts of language, which makes it easier for the learner to practice the essential language point in the exercise and not use too much energy on other issues.

Another exercise type that recurs in the book is transforming sentences according to instructions. For example, in the exercise in Example 28, sentences have to be rewritten using an auxiliary verb:

(28) Tehtävä 4

Kirjoita lauseen predikaattiosa uudelleen käyttämällä suluissa olevaa apuverbiä.

Malli: Vi dricker kaffe kl. 14.00. (ska)
Vi **ska dricka** kaffe kl. 14.00.

1. Vi åker med buss. (ska) _____
2. Vem hämtar skidorna från förrådet? (får) _____
3. Elsa äter inte yoghurt. (vill) _____
4. Åsa kommer i tid. (måste) _____
5. Hon tar egen bil till intervjun. (kan) _____

(Turpeinen 2001: 64)

In this exercise, the learner has to add the given auxiliary verbs and make necessary changes into the sentences. The exercise requires a little more than copying from the learner, although there are not many changes that have to be made into the sentences and there is a model that can be followed. Moreover, it is better to practice a grammar point so that the forms have some context for them. The learner will probably remember the practiced issues better when they are given context and linked to a whole sentence.

In addition to these exercise types, there are also some other exercises in this category. For example, there are exercises with answering to questions, in which the answers are given in Finnish or they are supposed to be only single words. There are also exercises with continuing sentences. Both of these exercise types have been categorized into this category and not in the category of *Controlled writing*, because they involve so little writing or own imagination and production of language. These exercises can also be quite mechanic or translation-like, but they still require more reasoning than for example mere copying, so they are in this category.

Comprehension of details

20 per cent of the exercises in this book have been classified into the category of *Comprehension of details*, which makes it the third largest category in the book. In these exercises the learner's attention is directed at details in a text instead of the big picture. This also entails that the learner has to be able to understand parts of a text more specifically and to know the meaning of single words. In comparison, in exercises of *Comprehension of a big picture* the learner needs to understand the general idea in a text. There are only three exercises in the book in this category, so understanding is considered involving the comprehension of details instead of wholes. In the category of *Comprehension of details* there are exercises in which the learner has to pick up details in a text. In Example 29 there is an exercise like this:

(29)



Tehtävä 4

Kuulet viisi eri tutustumis- ja esittelytilannetta. Pöimi niistä henkilöiden nimet.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____ (2 personer)
4. _____ (2 personer)
5. _____

(Turpeinen 2001: 24)

In this exercise the learner has to pick up the names that are mentioned in the text that is listened to. This sort of an exercise does not require a lot of understanding of the language. Even though names in foreign languages can be hard to hear correctly, it is sufficient that the learner recognizes the names from the conversations. It is a very simple task that does not activate the learner much. However, at this point in the language learning, learners do not have that much language proficiency to understand complicated texts. Therefore, less complicated tasks may be necessary for the learner to be able to complete them. Moreover, in exercises like this one, the learner has something to focus his attention to while listening.

In addition to these very simple exercises, there are exercises in which the learner has to answer questions or correct statements about a text. The questions and statements in these exercises concentrate on details in the text, as in the exercise in Example 30:

(30)



Tehtävä 2

Kuulet Bertilin tyttöystävän Tanjan kertovan itsestään. Jotkut kohdat eivät pidä paikkaansa tekstin kanssa. Lue ensin teksti ja korjaa virheet kuulemasi mukaan oikeiksi toisen kuuntelukerran aikana.

1. Hej, jag heter Tanja Malmström.
2. Jag är 47 år och jag kommer från Karis i Finland.
3. Min pappa är svenskspråkig och mammas modersmål är franska.
4. Jag är alltså tvåspråkig.
5. Jag bor i Sverige sedan sju år.
6. Nu bor jag i Huddinge men jag jobbar på ett investeringsbolag i Stockholm.
7. Jag är frånskild men jag har en pojkvän som heter Petter.

(Turpeinen 2001: 31)

This exercise is a listening comprehension exercise, but there are also reading comprehension exercises like this in the book. The exercise requires that the learner is able to understand the statements correctly and that he can understand the text exactly to be able to correct the false statements. These exercises appear also in the form of multiple choice exercises. Also in them the questions concern details.

Mechanic exercises

Mechanic exercises cover 19 per cent of the exercises in this book and this is the fourth largest category in the book. Pronunciation exercises are the most common exercises in this category. In these exercises the learner mechanically repeats words or phrases or writes down what he hears. In Example 31 there is a pronunciation exercise with both of these tasks:

(31)



Tehtävä 5
Ääntämisharjoituksia.

- a) Kuulet lisää ruotsalaisia nimiä. Toista ne useampaan kertaan.
- b) Harjoittele kappaleen sanojen ääntämistä.
redaktör, Björklund, pensionär, Sjöström, informationschef, sambo, frånskild,
ogift, fotograf, telefon
- c) Toista numerot kuulemasi mukaan ja kirjoita ne muistiin.

(Turpeinen 2001: 24)

In this exercise the learner has to repeat names after a tape, practice pronouncing some words from the text chapter and repeat and write numbers according to hearing. These tasks are very mechanic as they include only repeating something exactly. There is no own language production or processing the language further in the learner's mind. This form of language learning can be related to the behavioristic learning view and the audio-lingual method, in which language learning occurs through imitating and drilling sounds (Crystal 1997: 387).

In addition to pronunciation exercises, there are mechanic copying exercises, in which the learner copies language from a text by writing. These exercises include words or phrases that are considered central in the texts. There are several of these exercises, so it

is considered a good way to practice the important words and phrases and perhaps thought to help in understanding the text. Example 32 shows one exercise of this kind:

(32) Tehtävä 2

a) Kerää kappaleesta seuraavat verbit.

- | | | |
|--------------|-------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. maata | 7. lukea | 14. olla jotain mieltä |
| 2. istua | 8. toivottaa | 15. mennä |
| 3. rentoutua | 9. sauna | 16. opiskella |
| 4. nukkua | 10. lukea läksyjä | 17. sulkea, laittaa kiinni |
| 5. olla | 12. kirjoittaa | 18. soittaa |
| 6. puhua | 13. tulla | 19. juoda |

(Turpeinen 2001: 95)

In this exercise verbs from the text have to be picked up. The exercise concentrates merely on verbs, so they are considered especially important in this text chapter. These exercises require a little more than copying, since the learner has to be able to recognize the correct verbs from the text. This might include the learner reasoning the meanings of the verbs in the text. However, they can also check the verbs from the vocabulary, which is a very mechanic task. In part b) of the exercise, the learner has to write five sentences in which some of these verbs are used, so also the use of the verbs is practiced. This way the learner can connect the verbs into something that might help them remember the verbs more easily.

In addition, there are also exercises in which disconnected words are practiced. These exercises focus on grammar, since they include writing down different forms of words. At the same time they practice also vocabulary. These exercises are quite mechanic and focus on form instead of language use, since the words are practiced in isolation from any context. In Example 33 there is this type of an exercise:

(33) Tehtävä 4

Kirjoita epämääräinen tai määräinen muoto.

(epämääräinen)	(määräinen)	(suomeksi)
➤ en hustru	_____	_____
➤ _____	programmet	_____
➤ en butik	_____	_____
➤ _____	kvällen	_____
➤ ett marsvin	_____	_____
➤ _____	sambon	_____
➤ ett rum	_____	_____
➤ _____	kompisen	_____
➤ en familj	_____	_____
➤ _____	datafirman	_____

(Turpeinen 2001: 38)

In this exercise the learner has to write down the indefinite and definite forms of the nouns and translate them into Finnish. Either the indefinite or definite form of every noun is given already in the book in Swedish. The exercise requires mechanically changing the word form, which can be concluded from the given word. This exercise does include active thinking in addition to mere copying, if the principle of the formation of the different forms is not obvious to the learner. However, the simple structure of the exercise and the practicing of the words without context have led to the categorization into this group.

Controlled oral communication

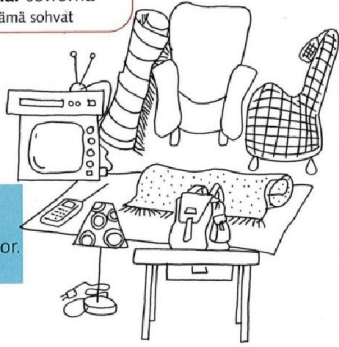
17 per cent of the exercises in this book have been labeled as *Controlled oral communication*, which makes this the fifth largest category. It suggests that according to the writers of the book oral communication has got a role in language learning, although the role is not very essential. The *Controlled oral communication* exercises in the book include practicing phrases in communication. These exercises try to imitate natural communication. The issues that are practiced are more close to their actual use in real-life than in for example writing exercises. For example, in the exercise in Example 34 learners practice asking and telling prices of items at a flea market:

(34)

en-suku	ett-suku	monikko
den här bilen tämä kuva	det här huset tämä talo	de här sofforna nämä sohvat

Tehtävä 4
Kuvassa olevat tavarat ovat menossa kirpputorille myytäväksi. Hinnoitelkaa ne mielenne mukaan ja tehkää sitten kauppoja mallin avulla.

Malli:
Vad kostar den här stolen? **Den** kostar 40 kronor.
Hur mycket kostar det här bordet? **Det** kostar 55 kronor.
Vad kostar de här möblerna? **De** kostar 24 kronor.



83

(Turpeinen 2001: 83)

In the exercise in Example 34 learners get to practice the skill by imitating the real situation. It is reasonable to practice skills the way they would be used outside the classroom, since it prepares the learner for real-life language use. Moreover, if the learner does not get a chance to practice the language in oral communication, it may be very difficult in a natural situation. There are several exercises of this kind in the book. In addition, there are for example exercises in which learners answer to questions that are either given by the book or formed by the learners. These exercises are considered *Controlled oral communication* instead of *Free oral communication*, because answering to the questions includes using certain phrases that have been practiced and therefore the learner cannot answer quite freely.

The social aspect

27 per cent of the exercises in the book can be regarded as social, which is less than a third of the exercises. It suggests that language learning is considered more a lonely activity than a social one. Almost all of the social exercises in the book can be completed with a partner or in small groups, since the instructions do not state clearly whether the exercises should be done in pairs or groups. Some of the exercises are to be completed with a partner and some require communication with several people. Most of the social exercises are oral communication exercises, but there are also many writing exercises and some other types of exercises that are social. This implies that learning can be a social activity even when social skills are not being practiced as such.

To sum up, the most important method of learning in this book is translating words and sentences. This implies to structuralism as a view of language and the grammar translation method as a teaching method. However, although *Translation* exercises have the largest percentage of the exercises, they do not have a substantial role compared to the other exercises categories. There is hence room for other forms of learning in the book as well. The different language and teaching views are in balance in the book, since apart from *Translation* the five most common exercise categories have almost the same amounts of exercise. Therefore, this book seems to represent a combination of different language views and learning methods. This means that there is versatility and the book caters for different types of learners. Also the writer of the book states that the book includes a lot of versatile exercises (Turpeinen 2001: 3). This truly is realized in the book, since although some exercise types recur more than others in the book, there is variation also inside exercise categories. This book does not represent a very communicative method of language teaching, since only 27 per cent of the exercises are social. However, the social exercises, especially the oral communication exercises, represent a communicative approach to language learning. Production exercises cover 27 per cent of the exercises, so well under a third of the exercises include the learner producing own language. This implies more an empiricist than a rationalist view of language. All in all, the language production of the learner is very controlled and there is hardly any free communication. In addition, the exercises focus quite strongly on form. The role of the learner is lonely rather than social and quite passive as a receiver of information.

5.2.2 Hälligång

Table 4. Exercise categories in *Hälligång 1. Ruotsia aikuisille*.

Exercise category	Number of exercises of total 137	Percentage of all exercises, %
Translation	38	28
Mechanic exercises	13	9
Exercises with reasoning	54	39
Free writing	0	0
Controlled writing	7	5
Free oral communication	1	1
Controlled oral communication	23	17
Comprehension of a big picture	6	4
Comprehension of details	14	10
Social	30	22

Table 4 shows the exercise categories and the number of social exercises in *Hälligång 1. Ruotsia aikuisille*. 16 exercises of 137 were categorized into two or more exercise groups. Again, it can be seen that there are a couple of categories that dominate the book. The five most frequent exercise categories from the largest to the smallest are: **Exercises with reasoning**, **Translation**, **Controlled oral communication**, **Comprehension of details** and **Mechanic exercises**. The remaining categories have only few exercises: **Controlled writing** has 7 exercises, **Comprehension of a big picture** has six, **Free oral communication** has one, and **Free writing** has zero. 22 per cent of the exercises in this book are considered social. Next, the five most common categories and the social aspect are discussed.

Exercises with reasoning

39 per cent of the exercises in this book have been categorized into the category of *Exercises with reasoning*, which makes it the largest category in the book. The percentage of these exercises is very significant, since it means that almost half of the exercises in the book are exercises of this type. *Exercises with reasoning* make the

learner process information actively and this refers to rationalist theories of language, since in them the individual affects the learning more than the environment (Johnson 2008: 49). Moreover, most of the exercises in this group are gap filling exercises, so this precise exercise type covers quite a significant portion of the book. Some of the gap filling exercises require the learner to fill in for example prepositions, or pronouns as in the exercise in Example 35:

(35) **3 • Valitse lauseisiin sopiva persoonapronominin objektimuoto.**

1. Karl-Einar är Lillemors chef. Lillemor jobbar gärna med _____.
2. Ska vi gå på en pub? Tom vill bjuda _____ på öl.
3. Anders går ut med min hund. Vad snällt av _____.
4. Annas systrar bor i Falun. Hon ska resa dit och hälsa på _____.
5. Där sitter Maria. Anders är gift med _____.
6. Du, jag är upptagen just nu. Jag ringer _____ om en stund.
7. Vilka kläder ska du ta med? Jag tar med _____ en yllertröja.
Jag behöver _____ säkert på kvällen.
8. Vi ses i morgon! Sköt om _____!

(Hakkarainen, Karjalainen and Turpeinen 2006: 92)

In this exercise the learner has to remember the different personal pronouns and add the correct ones into the gaps in the exercise. The learner has to reason according to the context which personal pronoun should be used in each sentence. In some exercises of this kind the options that can be used are given in the instructions or in a box. There are also exercises in which the language that has to be filled in is given in Finnish, and the learner has to translate it into Swedish so that it fits into the context. Example 36 shows one of these exercises:

(36) 12 • Täydennä aikamuodot vihjeiden mukaan.

1. Roxy _____ lite pengar av sin pappa
oli saanut
och _____ en motorcykel.
ostanut
2. Nu _____ han om saken för Henrik som han
kertoi
inte _____ på länge.
ollut nähnyt
3. Henrik _____ först _____ vad hans kusin
ei uskonut

kertoi
4. Men när Roxy _____ att hans sambo också _____
sanoi *oli halunnut*
_____ ha en motorcykel så _____ han honom.
usko
5. "Nu _____ vi en rundtur i Europa i sommar.
suunnitteleimme
6. Jag _____ att det _____ kul."
tiedän *tulee*
7. " _____ du _____ i Frankrike?"
oletko *ollut*
8. "Nej, där _____ . Men förra
en ole ollut
sommaren _____ jag Belgien och Holland.
kävin
9. Min gamla mormor _____ i Amsterdam och jag
asuu
_____ henne då.
kävin tervehtimässä
10. Hon _____ riktigt bra fast hon är nästan 90 år gammal.
voi

(Hakkarainen et al. 2006: 115)

This exercise is very close to a translation exercise, but in this the learner has to take into account the context. It affects for example the word order of the words that have to be added.

There are also exercises in which the learner has to form sentences, continue sentences or answer questions. These exercises have not been considered writing exercises because of the extent of the own production. The learner has to write only little language of his own and in some exercises it is assumed that the learner uses certain structures that have been practiced to complete the exercises. In Example 37 one can see an example of this kind of a gap filling exercise:

(37) 17 • Aloita lauseet alleviivatulla lauseen osalla.

1. Båten är snart framme i Stockholm.

2. Anna dricker först kaffe.

3. Hon går ut på däck sedan.

4. Det är kallt ute.

5. Anna ska träffa en kompis i Stockholm.

6. De ska gå på en konsert i morgon.

7. De ska sitta ute och ta en öl om det är vackert väder.

(Hakkarainen et al. 2006: 149)

In the exercise in Example 37 the learner should transform the sentences so that they begin with the underlined words. The exercise practices knowledge of word order. There are also various vocabulary exercises. For example, there are exercises in which the learner has to choose a suitable phrase for certain situations. In some exercises synonyms for words have to be searched from a text and in some opposites have to be written for words. There are also some other vocabulary exercises that occur only once or a few times in the book. The exercises in the category of *Exercises with reasoning* are quite simple and mechanic in this book. They do not require as much processing of information or reasoning as they could. In addition, there are very few exercises which connect the learning into the learner's own life or experiences.

Translation

28 per cent of the exercises in this book have been labeled as *Translation* exercises, which makes this the second largest category in the book. *Exercises with reasoning* and *Translation* cover over two thirds of the exercises in this book, so their role is truly significant. The large percentage of translation exercises suggests an empiricist view of language and represents the grammar-translation method. Most of the exercises in this category are traditional translation exercises in which the learner has to translate several sentences from Finnish into English. Example 38 shows an exercise of this kind:

(38) 15 • Käännä.

1. Kenen kännykkä on hienoin?
2. Saran mukavimmat työkaverit ovat nimeltään Ulrika ja Lisbet.
3. Onko sinusta mielenkiintoisempaa matkustaa moottoripyörällä kuin autolla?
4. Se oli ehdottomasti hauskin elokuva.
5. Otatko mieluummin olutta vai viiniä?
6. Satamassa oli enemmän ihmisiä kuin tavallisesti.
7. Johtaja Bergillä on suurin ja kallein talo.
8. Maria laittaa parempaa ruokaa kuin hänen äitinsä.
9. Matts asuu nyt lähempänä vanhempiaan.
10. Hänen isänsä on voinut huonommin viime vuosina.

(Hakkarainen et al. 2006: 120)

This exercise practices comparative forms by translating sentences in which they are used. The instructions of the exercises only say *Käännä (Translate)*, so it is said straight what the exercise is about, instead of instructing the learner with some other phrase. This kind of exercises do bring context to the issue that is practiced. However, as translation exercises usually require exact translation, the learner's attention may be shifted to unessential issues as he tries to form the whole sentence correctly. Moreover, in translation exercises the learner does not get a chance to form language of his own and thereby bring the learning closer to his own experiences. There are also translation exercises in which separate words have to be translated. These exercises are quite mechanic and practice words without a context which could make the learning easier and more meaningful. In addition, there are exercises that include some other activity as well as translation. In these exercises the translation part is a secondary task and therefore not the essential issue in the exercise.

In the category of *Translation* there are also exercises that look like something else than translation at first glance. For example, there are exercises in which the learner has to complete the missing lines in a dialogue. What makes this a translation exercise is that the lines are given in Finnish in the book. Therefore, instead of taking into account the context and using suitable language in the situation, the learner merely translates ready sentences. There are also exercises in which the learner has to figure out how to say certain things in Swedish. In Example 39 there is an exercise of this kind:

(39) 8 • Miten sanot, kun

1. pyydät ystävääsi kiirehtimään (skynda, skyndar sig)
2. kiellät häntä lähtemästä vielä (gå, går)
3. pyydät häntä puhumaan kovemmin (tala, talar)
4. pyydät häntä soittamaan pian (ringa, ringer)
5. pyydät häntä antamaan päivän lehden (ge, ger)
6. kiellät häntä ostamasta suklaata (köpa, köper)
7. kiellät häntä istumasta pöydälle (sätta, sätter sig)
8. kehotat häntä nauttimaan illasta (njuta, njuter)
9. pyydät asiakasta odottamaan hetken (vänta, väntar)
10. kehotat työtoveriasi muistamaan kokouksen iltapäivällä (komma, kommer ihåg)

(Hakkarainen et al. 2006: 164)

This exercise is considered a translation exercise, because the instructions in each point tell the learner what to write. The language in Finnish is not exactly in the form that should be written in Swedish, but it is obvious what form should be written, since the imperative form has been practiced. Also the verbs that have to be used are given in the book in Swedish in the parenthesis. Again, there is no room for the learner's own imagination and creativity.

Controlled oral communication

Controlled oral communication exercises cover 17 per cent of the exercises in the book and it is the third largest exercise category. This suggests that oral communication is valued to some extent by the writers of the book. Learning in communication refers to a communicative approach to language (Savignon 2005: 635). The book involves some communicativeness, even though a great deal of the communication exercises are very controlled. In this category there are exercises with dialogues in which the lines of the speakers are dictated by the book. Learners have to form sentences in Swedish according to the clues in Finnish in the book. Example 40 shows one exercises of this kind:

(40)

16 • Esitä seuraava vuorokeskustelu parisi kanssa. Isäntä/emäntä toivottaa vieraan tervetulleeksi.

VÄRD

- toivottaa vieraan tervetulleeksi ja sanoo, että on kiva, kun olet täällä
- kysyy mitä kuuluu
- sanoo kaikkien voivan hyvin, kertoo jotain yhdestä perheenjäsenestä
- pyytää saada esitellä Olof Karlssonin – hän on liikemies
- pyytää anteeksi – sanoo menevänsä toivottamaan Ulla Sandin tervetulleeksi

GÄST

- kiittää ja sanoo, että on hauska tavata taas
- sanoo, että kuuluu hyvää, kysyy miten perhe voi
- kommentoi asiaa sopivalla fraasilla
- esittelee itsensä ja sanoo, että on hauska tavata
- sanoo, että kaikin mokomin

V = en värd, -en, -ar isäntä
 en värdinn/a, -an, -or emäntä
 G = en gäst, -en, -er vieras

(Hakkarainen et al. 2006: 29)

This exercise imitates oral communication, but is quite close to a translation exercise. Learners merely translate the language in the clues orally. The communicational aspect comes from the form and the manner of execution of the exercise. However, there is no true communication between learners in this exercise, since learners only repeat language that is given by the book, instead of communicating their own thoughts. There are also exercises that resemble these exercises. They are exercises in which learners ask questions from each other and answer them. In Example 41 there is an exercise of this type:

(41)

7 • Kyselkää toisiltanne aukioloaikoja ja vastatkaa vihjeen mukaan:

Malli: Hur håller ni öppet? (kello 10.00–19.00)
 Vi håller öppet från **(klockan) tio till nitton.**

När är restaurangen öppen? (maanantaista lauantaihin kello 6.00–24.00)
 Den är öppen **från måndag till lördag mellan (klockan) sex och tjugofyra.**


- Hur är kiosken öppen? (joka päivä kello 9.15–20.30)
- Vilken tid är kundtjänsten öppen? (kello 7.45–18.00)
- Hur har ni öppet? (joka arkipäivä kello 8.00–16.15)
- När är kansliet öppet? (kello 9.00–15.30)
- Hur håller kontoret öppet? (maanantaista perjantaihin kello 9.30–14.30)
- Vilken tid är lanthandeln öppen? (joka päivä 9.00–19.00)

(Hakkarainen et al. 2006: 47)

The questions are given already in the book in Swedish, so they only need to be repeated. The answers are given in Finnish so they have to be translated. These

exercises are even more controlled than the previous type, since there is no freedom for learners to vary the language. These two exercise types above are very common in this category.

In addition to the exercise types above, there are several exercises in which learners have to interview each other by using given questions. In these exercises learners get to answer according to their own life and interests. Example 42 shows an exercise of this kind:

(42)  **17 • On aina hauska tutustua uusiin ihmisiin.**
Haastattele ruotsiksi pariisi ja kysy

- hänen nimeään _____
- missä hän asuu _____
- mistä hän on kotoisin _____
- onko hänellä perhettä _____
- missä hän on töissä _____
- pitääkö hän työstään _____
- mitä hän tekee vapaa-aikanaan _____
- soittaako hän kitaraa _____
- pitääkö hän lukemisesta _____

Tee haastatellessasi muistiinpanoja.
 Lopuksi voit esitellä pariisi jollekin
 toiselle henkilölle tai koko ryhmälle. _____


(Hakkarainen et al. 2006: 29)

This exercise is closer to natural communication, because learners ask each other things about their lives. The answers are not controlled, so learners can formulate them freely. The exercise includes also learners introducing the learner they have interviewed to another learner or the whole group. There are several exercises of this kind with minor variations in the book, so all oral communication is not completely controlled by the book.

Comprehension of details

10 per cent of the exercises have been categorized as *Comprehension of details* exercises. This is the fourth most frequent category in the book, although the percentage of these exercises is not very significant when looking at the big picture. Comprehension of whole texts is in a minor position in the book, and a majority of the comprehension exercises concentrate on details. Moreover, there are more listening comprehension than reading comprehension exercises. There are several exercises in

which the learner has to pick up some details in a text that is listened to. In these exercises the learner only has to recognize details. The wider meaning of the text is not of importance. For example, there are exercises with tables in which the learner has to fill in details according to listening. Example 43 shows one of these exercises:

- (43)  **20** • Presentationer. Kuulet neljän henkilön esittelevän itsensä. Poimi esittelyistä henkilöiden nimi, työ, kotipaikka ja harrastus.

	NAMN	YRKE	HEMORT	HOBBY
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				

(Hakkarainen et al. 2006: 32)

In this exercise the learner hears four people introducing themselves, and has to pick up information about them. The exercise requires the learner to understand the different details the people on the tape say. The information has to be written in Swedish, so the learner can only copy the information he hears and does not have to translate it. Exercises of this kind seem very simple, since all the learner has to do is recognize and copy information. However, the skills that are practiced at this point are quite simple and focus on concrete things. The learner is not required to understand larger texts at this point. Therefore, it is understandable that the comprehension exercises in the book are such as the exercise in Example 43. In addition, when there are some details that the learner has to listen for, the concentration is better directed at the listening. Sometimes it might be difficult for the learner to understand a longer text if there is nothing especially to pay attention to.

In addition, there are a couple of exercises with correcting false statements. These exercises require a little more language proficiency and understanding than the exercises described above. The statements in the exercises are either in Finnish or in Swedish. Example 44 shows an exercise in which the statements are in Swedish:

(44)

HUR VAR DIN SEMESTER?



18 • Ann-Marie ja Johan kyselevät toisiltaan lomakuulumisia. Seuraavista väittämistä jotkut eivät pidä paikkaansa kuulemasi kanssa. Lue väittämät ja korjaa väärät oikeiksi toisen kuuntelukerran aikana.

1. Ann-Marie och Mona hade varit två veckor i Turkiet.
2. De hade varit med på utflykterna.
3. De älskade den turkiska maten.
4. Ann-Marie köpte en äkta turkisk matta.
5. Johan var inte så ivrig på att resa någonstans.
6. Det var Johans första resa till Danmark.
7. Hela familjen cyklade en dag i Köpenhamn.
8. Familjen övernattade på olika gästhem.

Rätt	Fel
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

övernatta, övernattar, övernattade, övernattat yöpyä

(Hakkarainen et al. 2006: 124)

This exercise requires that the learner understands the statements in addition to understanding what is said in the text. The exercise concentrates still on details, but it demands the understanding of longer phrases. However, when the statements are in Swedish the learner is given the required language in them. It helps the learner to recognize the right part of the text while listening. The corrections that have to be made are probably very minor details, so the exercise does not require wider understanding.

Mechanic exercises

The category of *Mechanic exercises* covers 9 per cent of the exercises in this book, making it the fifth most common category. The percentage of these exercises is not very significant when considering the whole. However, this form of learning has been chosen as a part of the book, so the writers must have placed some value on them. Mechanic exercises include copying or practicing something in a mechanic way. This learning method can be linked to behaviorism, according to which language is learnt by imitating models (Crystal 1997: 376). In this book, mechanic exercises include exercises that focus on grammar. For example, word forms are practiced, as in the exercise in Example 45:

(45) 11 • Lajittele tehtävässä 10 esiintyvät verbit preesensin päätteiden mukaan.

-ar	-er	-r

(Hakkarainen et al. 2006: 23)

In this exercise the learner has to find verbs from the chapter and classify them according to their endings. This exercise is very mechanic, since it includes only copying of language. The exercise does draw the learner's attention to the different endings of verbs, but the role of the learner remains still very passive as an imitator of language.

In addition, there are also exercises in which sentences have to be copied from a text chapter or a phrase key. Neither these exercises require active thinking from the learner or make the learner form language of his own. The point of these exercises might be that they help the learner to understand the text chapter, and the important phrases are practiced in this way. Nevertheless, the method chosen for this practice is very mechanic and passivizes the learner.

The social aspect

22 per cent of the exercises are considered social, which is the lowest percentage of all of the books in the data. This suggests a language view behind the book that considers language learning a solitary activity rather than a social one. The social aspect is present in the book, so it is considered a part of language proficiency. However, when considering the social and communicational nature of language, it is strange that it is learnt mostly in isolation of other people.

To conclude, also in this book there are only a few exercise categories that cover almost the entire book. According to the writers of the book, the book includes plenty of exercises of various kinds, both written and oral (Hakkarainen et. al 2006: 3). However, this statement is not fulfilled in the book. The three most common categories are present in up to 84 per cent of all of the exercises. This makes the language learning in the book vary monotonous and serving only some learners. The most common exercise categories in the book are *Exercises with reasoning* and *Translation*. The book is dominated by gap filling and traditional translation exercises. The exercises in these categories concentrate on the correct forms of language. In addition, they rarely include the learner producing his own language. This implies to a language view that considers grammar and being able to translate very important. The approach behind the book could be the grammar translation method, which concentrates on translating texts (Crystal 1997: 378) and learning grammar forms (Fotos 2005: 664). However, the third largest category in the book is *Controlled oral communication*, so there is also room for communication skills in the book. Nevertheless, these exercises are highly controlled and there are actually very few possibilities for the learner to produce language of his own. Therefore, communicativeness cannot truly be regarded as a guiding view behind the book. In addition, pronunciation is not practiced at all, as an exception from all the other books of the study. Overall, the role of the learner in this book is very passive and solitary. There are few exercises in which the learner has the freedom to produce his own language or practice language use situations with other learners.

5.3 Comparison of the English and Swedish books

In this section, the English and Swedish textbooks in the present study will be compared to each other in light of the results. In addition, the similarities and differences between all the books will be discussed.

All the books in the present study are at least a little different from each other. All of the books represent slightly different views of language and learning methods, although they have many similarities. Hence, the books cannot be discussed as Swedish and English books as their own groups, since there are differences inside the groups and on the other hand similarities across the groups. The results of the study do not show a clear difference between English and Swedish textbooks for adults.

In all the books apart from *Steps into English* the five most common categories are the same, although their order from largest to smallest varies. These categories are *Translation*, *Exercises with reasoning*, *Mechanic exercises*, *Controlled oral communication* and *Comprehension of a big picture*. In these three books the two most common categories are *Translation* and *Exercises with reasoning*, so these categories seem to dominate textbooks. All these three books contain a lot of translation and gap filling exercises, which focus on form quite heavily. They give the learner a very passive role as a receiver of information and promote a language view that concentrates on the structure of language. The language view could be categorized as empiricist rather than rationalist, since although the exercises include also active processing of language, they are mostly very controlled and mechanic. The exception of the study is *Steps into English*, which represents a very different view on language. In this book a great deal of the language learning occurs in communication with other learners, and production exercises have a huge role in the book. These issues make the role of the learner in the book active and social, in contrast to the other books.

In all of the books of the present study the categories of *Free writing*, *Free oral communication* and *Comprehension of a big picture* have few exercises. This might be because of the target group of these textbooks is beginning language learners. The language skills required in the three categories are perhaps more advanced than at this point in language learning. However, I believe that in these categories there could be also exercises targeted at beginners if they are formulated in a suitable way. For instance, free writing or oral communication could be realized with exercises in which learners write or speak freely about a subject that is simple enough. Even though learners might not have a lot of language at their disposal, they could communicate with the skills they have. If learners are able to produce some language, they get an experience of communicating in the foreign language. Moreover, exercises in these categories are more close to natural language use, so they would be a worthwhile addition. Even the category of *Controlled writing* has got low percentages in all books except *Steps into English*, which shows that writing is not considered an important skill at this point in language learning. However, neither oral communication exercises have got a major role in any of the books except in *Steps into English*. In *Steps into English* *Controlled oral communication* and *Controlled writing* are the most common exercise categories. In this way the book differs from the other books quite substantially.

However, there is one feature that separates the English and Swedish textbooks of the present study. The exercises in the English books include remarkably more social exercises than the Swedish books. In *English for you, too!* 33 per cent of the exercises are social and in *Steps into English* 43 per cent, whereas in *Lycka till!* 27 per cent of the exercises can be considered social and in *Hålligång* only 22 per cent. One explanation to this difference might be the later publication years of the Swedish books. Actually *Hålligång* and *English for you, too!* have the same publication year (2006), but *Lycka till!* was published in 2001 and *Steps into English* in 2013. The most recent book, *Steps into English* has the largest percentage of social exercises. It may be that the social aspect of language learning and communicational skills are taken more and more into account in the writing of foreign language textbooks. However, no further conclusions can be made about the differences in the social aspect between adult English and Swedish textbooks because of the small number of books in this study. Moreover, the difference between the percentages of social exercises in *English for you, too!* and *Lycka till!* is not that vast. To conclude, *Steps into English* stands out as having a more social role of the learner than the other books.

Although the textbooks in the present study are mostly quite similar, there are still some small differences between the books that affect the learner. These differences give teachers some variety when choosing a textbook that best fits into her view on language learning. Hence, there is real choice between different textbooks, unlike in the study by Islam (2003) in which all the textbooks in the study proved to be very similar. The English textbooks in the present study are notably different from each other in their approaches and there are also differences between the Swedish textbooks. Considering that there are many more book series, at least in English, it can be concluded that there is variation between books. However, the situation in Swedish books for adults may not offer very much variety because of the small number of different book series.

6 CONCLUSION

The English and Swedish textbooks for adults that were studied in the present study proved to be quite similar to each other, except for the one English book, *Steps into English*. The three other books studied were found to be quite traditional, since they include a lot of translation and they focus on grammar forms. The language views

behind the books seem to be empiricist rather than rationalist. The role of the learner is more passive than active and more solitary than social. On this part the hypothesis of the study was realized, although mechanic exercises did not have as important a role as hypothesized. However, the hypothesis did not come true on part of the fourth book, *Steps into English*. This textbook was surprising with a communicative approach to language learning, which differs notably from the other books.

The exercises in most of the foreign language textbooks in the study focus quite strongly on form and getting the correct answers instead of communication. As mentioned above, the role of the learner is quite passive with the learner repeating language, translating given language and filling gaps in ready texts or sentences. These methods do not seem sufficient for the needs of adult learners today. Also adults need activation and especially the oral communication skills might need improvement. Many times, adult learners that come to evening schools might have learnt to read and write the language, but not speak. The language views behind most of the books seem quite traditional with focus on the form of language. However, the requirements for language proficiency today include communicating in various situations, both orally and in writing. Only one of the books in the present study meets these requirements with offering plenty of opportunities for language production. In addition, all of the books suffer from a monotonousness by offering the same exact exercises types over and over again. Learners need variety in order to stay interested. In addition, different types of tasks and learning methods would cater for different kinds of learners.

The results of the study show that there is variety between different English books. Moreover, since the study covered only two English books on the market, there should be even more variety out there. There is a quite wide selection of English textbooks also for adult beginners. The situation seems to be more difficult for Swedish teachers, since the supply of Swedish textbooks for adults is very narrow. The only books for adult Swedish learners in evening schools in the Finnish market are studied in the present study, so the study shows a realistic picture of the situation with those books. According to the results of the study, the Swedish books are quite similar in their language views and the roles they give to the learner. Moreover, the book *Lycka till!* can be used as a prequel to the series *Hålligång* (Hakkarainen, Karjalainen and Turpeinen 2006: 3), so they can be considered as one series.

One limitation of the study is that the categorization of exercises was in some parts a little difficult to implement because of the versatility of the exercises. However, problems in the categorization and distortion of the results was avoided by deciding on a way to classify the exercises and keeping the same criteria in mind throughout the analysis. Therefore, the results are comparable to each other. In addition, the different kinds of exercises have been described and example exercises have been given in the analysis. This makes the picture of different exercise categories more clear and shows what kinds of exercises they contain.

This subject could be studied further, since the data of the present study covers only part of the English and Swedish textbooks for adults. It would be worthwhile to study the language views behind textbooks to show what kinds of approaches to language learning the books promote. It has a huge effect on language learning and the information is needed for example when teachers select their textbooks. In addition, research could be conducted about the differences or similarities between foreign language textbooks, since it is important that there is a selection of different books from which to choose. Moreover, the opinions of teachers and students in adult education on textbooks should be studied, because they know how the materials work in action.

Adult foreign language textbooks books have not been studied very much in Finland, even though it is an important area. We need knowledge of textbooks and their functionality in adult education. It seems that adult textbooks are not paid as much effort or interest to than textbooks in other levels of language learning. It should be realized that also adults need good learning materials that offer variety and inspiring activities. Therefore, we need interest in researching and developing the materials. Hopefully, in the future the textbooks for adult foreign language learning are developed to better meet the needs of modern foreign language teaching.

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