

A CRITICAL REVIEW OF THE SCERT KERALA ENGLISH TEXTBOOKS AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL.

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BY

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I, **Princy Pappachan**, hereby declare that this thesis entitled “**A Critical Review of the SCERT Kerala English Textbooks at the Secondary Level**” submitted to the University of Hyderabad in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics embodies veritable research work carried out by me under the guidance and supervision of Professor J. Prabhakara Rao, Centre for Applied Linguistics and Translation Studies, School of Humanities, University of Hyderabad. It is a research work which is free from plagiarism.

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List of Abbreviations

AWL: Academic Word List

BNC: British National Corpus

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

COCA: Corpus of Contemporary American English

CoE: Council of Europe

EVP: English Vocabulary Profile

KCF: Kerala Curriculum Framework

LFP: Lexical Frequency Profile

LSRW: Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing

MSVL: Middle School Vocabulary List

NCERT: National Council of Educational Research and Training

NCF: National Curriculum Framework

NEP: National Education Policy

NPE: National Policy on Education

SCERT: State Council of Educational Research and Training

TLF: Three Language Formula

TTR: Type Token Ratio

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

The advent of globalisation in the 19th century led to the rapid spread of English as a second language and as a foreign language across the world. Further, the role of English as ‘an international language’/ ‘lingua franca’ accelerated educational reforms in the field of English teaching and learning. The extensive use of English in business, scientific research, tourism business, trade and commerce, education, international telecommunications, and mass entertainment has ensured that the English language is indisputably considered an international language.

Considering the extensive use of the English language, researchers have coined various terms to refer to the English language. David Crystal (1995) has called it “A Global Language” (Crystal, 2003). He portrays the growth of the English language from the 17th and 18th century when it was the language of the leading colonial nation (Britain), to the 18th and 19th century where it became the leading language of the industrial revolution (Britain), and finally to the late 19th and early 20th century where it ended as the language of the leading economic power (United States of America) (Crystal, 2003). Subsequently, English became the leading language in all walks of life, international, administrative, political, economic, and education. Furthermore, David Crystal states that the “English Language Teaching (ELT) business has become one of the major growth industries around the world in the past half-century” (Crystal, 2003). To highlight this importance of English in education, he quotes the writing of Harry Mashabela:

Learning and using English will not only give us the much-needed unifying chord but will also land us into the exciting world of ideas; it will enable us to keep company with kings in the world of ideas and also make it possible for us to share the experiences of our own brothers in the world. (p. 111)

Some of the other terminologies given to English include- ‘English as a Lingua Franca’ by Jenkins (2009), ‘English as an International Language’ by Modiano (1999), ‘English as an International Auxiliary Language’ by Smith (2015), ‘General English’ by Ahlu (1997), and ‘English as a Family of Languages’ by Canagarajah (2006) and Acar (2007). Braj Kachru (1985) defines the global spread of English with three concentric circles (inner circle, outer circle, and expanding circle) representing different ways in which the English language has been acquired and used (Kachru, 1985). In this framework, the inner circle comprises English-speaking countries and native speakers of English (United States of America, United Kingdom, Australia, etc.). In contrast, the outer circle comprises countries and speakers where English has acquired national importance despite English not being a native language. The expanding circle comprises countries and speakers where English is slowly being recognised as ‘lingua franca’ despite the lack of national importance and historical importance of the language.

In India, though English entered the administrative and educational field during the British regime, it gradually came to the forefront of the Indian educational curriculum. During the beginning of the 19th century, Thomas Macaulay’s argument to refine the vernacular dialects of India with words borrowed from the Western Hemisphere (“Minute by the Hon’ble T. B. Macaulay, dated the 2nd February 1835”, n.d.) resulted in English becoming the medium of instruction in oriental college following the order of William

Bentinck, the then Governor-General of the East India Company. Later, steps were taken to develop a comprehensive educational system with English at the forefront. Accordingly, post-independence, English was introduced as a compulsory subject in the Indian curriculum and became taught as a second language in several states.

On par with these educational efforts, language textbooks became indispensable instruments in imparting English education at the school level. This gave rise to a growing body of literature on the importance of language textbooks and the need to test textbooks' reliability and validity. Accordingly, this research proposes to evaluate the English textbooks in Kerala.

1.2 Research context

With the adoption of Official Language Act, 1963, English was granted the status of 'second language' in India. This position enabled maintaining the use of English along with Hindi for official communication. Initially, after the declaration of independence, the constitution of India stipulated that English would serve the role of a transition language for 15 years. As per Article 343 in the Constitution of India 1949, "for a period of fifteen years from the commencement of this Constitution, the English language shall continue to be used for all the official purposes of the Union for which it was being used immediately before such commencement" (The Constitution of India (1950), p. 212¹). However, following resistance and opposition from the non-Hindi speaking states, the Official Language Act 1963 was adopted by the parliament of India. According to the Official Language Act 1963:

¹ Art. 343- Chapter 1: Language of the Union.

Notwithstanding the expiration of the period of fifteen years from the commencement of the Constitution, the English language may, as from the appointed day, continue to be used, in addition to Hindi, for all the official purpose of the Union for which it was being used immediately before that day; and for the transaction of business in Parliament. (Official Languages Act 1963)

With the acceptance of English as a language subject to be taught in schools, the Indian Education Commission (Kothari Commission) 1964-66 recommended the inclusion of Hindi across the country alongside the regional/state language. Naik (1969) states the following in a summary of the main recommendations of the Education Commission.

Both Hindi and English should be developed as link languages. It is only Hindi that can serve as a link language for the vast majority of people. All measures should be adopted to spread it in the non-Hindi areas and special encouragement should be given to non-official efforts in this field. English will be the most important 'library' language and will serve as an additional link language in higher education for academic work and intellectual inter-communication. (p. 7)

Accordingly, the National Policy on Education (NPE) 1968 implemented the Three-Language Formula (TLF) to uphold the multilingual nature of India. The NPE 1968 states that:

At the secondary stage, the State Governments should adopt, and vigorously implement, the three-language formula which includes the study of a modern

Indian language, preferably one of the southern languages, apart from Hindi and English, in the Hindi-speaking States, and of Hindi along with the regional language and English in the Non-Hindi speaking States. (p. 40)

English was thus given prominence as a language subject and as a medium of instruction. Subsequently, globalisation and the need to be part of international communication spurred an increase in the number of English medium schools across the country alongside the State medium of instruction.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The need for consistent educational reforms in imparting English language education led to different states introducing their own respective curriculum framework and language textbooks. Accordingly, in Kerala, the State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT) monitored curriculum reforms and formulated language and subject textbooks. Following the creation of the Kerala Curriculum Framework (KCF) 2007 on the guidelines of the National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005, the present-day textbooks are posited to play a crucial role in language teaching and learning. Nemati (2009) states how a textbook provides a framework, a syllabus with ready-made tasks and activities that can be used systematically in the classroom (Nemati, 2009). Consequently, the textbooks also need to be on par with developments in teaching and learning theories, and the needs of the teachers and learners (Cunningsworth, 1995). Such reforms require the identification and analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of textbooks (Tomlinson, 1998). Textbook evaluation thus forms an integral part of educational reform and development. Thus the present research aims to

critically review the SCERT Kerala English textbooks taught in the academic year 2019-20 at the secondary level.

1.4 Research objectives

In the present study, the textbooks are reviewed with relation to their quality, vocabulary representation, text readability, and representation of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Also, in an attempt to address the research gap on the standard of the textbook with respect to global standards, evaluation is conducted to align Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) scales to the text. Additionally, the study analyses whether the selected SCERT Kerala English textbooks reflect national standard (National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT)) and global standard (CEFR) in the language learning competencies of listening, speaking, reading, and writing (LSRW) skills.

Thus, the study intends to address the following research objectives:

1. Quality of the textbooks and appropriateness of the textbooks with reference to KCF 2007.
2. Systematic vocabulary evaluation of the selected textbooks.
3. Estimating textbook readability.
4. Aligning CEFR scales to the textbook.
5. Validating identified competencies of LSRW skills with the national standard (NCERT) and the global standard (CEFR).

1.4.1 Importance of conducting a vocabulary evaluation of textbook

Vocabulary knowledge is central to language learning as it is considered the first element that is crucial to improve communication. Wilkins (1972) rightly comments, “...while without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed” (Garton and Copland, 2018, p. 208). Nation (2001) points out the “complementary relationship between vocabulary knowledge and language use” (Alqahtani, 2015).

Vocabulary knowledge helps language use, and language use aids in increasing vocabulary knowledge (Alqahtani, 2015). As teachers and students depend heavily on prescribed text, the vocabulary component in the text needs to be updated and on par with the learner’s needs and requirements. To ensure that there is an adequate representation of the vocabulary component in text, a systematic evaluation of textbook vocabulary is conducted.

The two main components highlighted in this study in vocabulary evaluation are the frequency of vocabulary and the distribution of vocabulary in the textbooks. As the SCERT Kerala English textbooks analysed the secondary level standards VIII, IX, and X, the two components were analysed across and within the three standards. The first step involved in evaluating vocabulary is estimating the number of tokens, types, and type-token ratio. The vocabulary list obtained is then analysed against different frequency levels: Nation’s (1990) list of the most frequent 1000 words and second 1000 words, Middle School Vocabulary List (MSVL) and words that do not appear on the other lists. The VocabProfile tool in the Compleat Lexical Tutor is employed to conduct this systematic evaluation of vocabulary. Additionally, the recycling index of the vocabulary in the textbook is computed to observe the presence of a systematic progression in vocabulary provided in the textbooks.

1.4.2 Need for investigating textbook readability

Readability refers to the level of difficulty or the ease of the written text. The measure of readability indicates text difficulty using different readability formulas (Bailin and Grassein, 2016). Determining text readability helps ensure that the text matches the reader's proficiency and helps students make incremental progress in language learning (Adams, 2009).

The present study uses two readability formulas, the Flesch Reading Ease formula and the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula, to estimate the difficulty of text. The results obtained from this readability analysis can be further used to check whether it matches the reader's proficiency. Also, readability measures help ensure grading in text difficulty and uniformity between the different curricula at the national and state levels. This becomes crucial, as, after the XII standard, students take part in uniform exams. So ensuring there is uniformity in school educational knowledge is important. Adams (2009) states how the disparity between the students' school textbooks and the passages in the college entrance exam (Scholastic Aptitude Test) resulted in a poor performance by the students (Adams, 2009).

Thus, the study provides information for further research to test whether the computed readability is consistent with the intended students' level. It helps to address the research gap that exists in readability research in language textbooks in India.

1.4.3 Reasons for adopting CEFR as a global standard in the study

The CEFR was officially published in 2001 due to educational reforms and efforts that began with the founding of the Council of Europe (CoE) in 1949. The CEFR is a descriptive tool that focuses on second/foreign language teaching and learning in a

multilingual/plurilingual context (CoE, 2001). It involves a reference toolkit that provides a common basis for language textbooks, curriculum, and examinations across Europe and other countries.

One of the main reasons behind the identification of CEFR as a global standard to evaluate the language textbooks was the researcher's exposure to English language teaching and learning in a foreign context (Taiwan). As part of the Taiwan Experience Education Program (TEEP), a four-month internship program sponsored by the Ministry of Education, Taiwan, and conducted by Asia University, the practical and first-hand experience in a country where English is officially a foreign language highlighted the similarities and differences involved in English language teaching and learning.

Though India and Taiwan differ in the treatment of the English language in terms of 'second language' and 'foreign language', the objective of English education in both countries is the same. With reference to Kachru's (1985) concept of three concentric circles to explain English language context, India belongs to the 'outer circle', while Taiwan belongs to the 'expanding circle'. In 2018, Taiwan announced the implementation of incorporating full-fledged English education to develop Taiwan as a Bilingual Nation by 2030 to raise the level of English proficiency, which would invariably improve the country's overall national competitiveness ("Taiwan's 2030 goal to become a bilingual nation(2019-01-11)", n.d.)

At the secondary schools, two of the instructional guidelines stipulated by the Ministry of Education for English education stated: "Improve students' basic competence in reading, writing, speaking, and listening" and "prepare students to make effective use of English language and knowledge" (Tsai, 2010, p. 2). Similarly, the KCF 2007 states that the

aim of the course at the secondary level is to help the students become efficient speakers who can use English fluently and accurately.

Introduction and negotiation of incorporating CEFR into English language education in Taiwan began in the early 2000s (Cheung, 2003), and CEFR was officially adopted in 2005 (Cheung, 2015). The Ministry of Education task force discussed developing a standard proficiency scale for English education that would be modelled on CEFR to provide a benchmark for each stage in English learning. Accordingly, the ‘Common English Yardstick for English education in Taiwan’ adopted from CEFR was developed to meet the educational requirements and standards of Taiwanese school English education. This also led to the development of a proficiency scale for English education at the college level. Consequently, three benchmarks were introduced in benchmarking college English education at the entry requirements and exit level; A2, B1, and B2.

Similarly, adopting and incorporating CEFR scales into the educational system in a multilingual country like India would help provide a consistent benchmark and a clear objective way to describe the attained language skill. This would also be further impactful as many international tests are mapped to CEFR scales like; International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC), Business Language Testing Service (BULATS), International Legal English Certificate (ILEC), Business English Certificate Preliminary/ Vantage (BEC), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and other Cambridge English exams. Thus, adopting CEFR into various school educational programs and as an accepted standard assessment in language teaching and learning across the world will ultimately provide a credible uniform benchmark for English language assessment.

1.5 Research methodology

Research defined as a “systematic search for pertinent information on a specific topic” (Kothari, 2004, p. 1) helps obtain new information and insights. The research approach in the present study incorporated the mixed-method approach due to the different objectives. This research approach helped integrate quantitative and qualitative data so that qualitative analysis would help explain the obtained quantitative data. The different research methods involved in the study were: content analysis, document analysis, and checklist. Though the research methods content analysis and document analysis are often used interchangeably, these terms are used as two different research approaches in this study. This is because, while the former is concerned with the selected textbooks, the latter involves reviewing and evaluating other related documents.

Another important research approach incorporated in the study is corpus methodology. Viewing corpus linguistics as a methodology and the selected material as ‘corpus’, various computational tools were used to analyse the data. Three different computational tools were used at different phases of the study, namely Compleat Lexical Tutor v.8.3, Coh-Metrix 3.0, and Text Inspector. Computational tools were used to present a quantitative analysis that could further be discussed in qualitative analyses (Catalán and Francisco, 2008). The corpus analysis thus helps provide detailed and systematic information.

These different approaches were incorporated on account of the various objectives of the study. Accordingly, content analysis and document analysis were conducted to provide a descriptive evaluation of the textbook and validate LSRW skills, respectively. At the same time, a corpus-based approach was adopted to assess the selected textbooks with respect to the vocabulary input, readability measure, and CEFR level.

1.6 Scope of the study

The scope of this study is as follows:

- To understand the appropriateness of the SCERT Kerala English textbooks at the secondary level with reference to the KCF 2007.
- To provide an observation of the vocabulary input that is present in the textbooks.
- To show objective proof of the readability of the text and to ascertain whether there is incremental grading.
- To depict the overall position of the textbooks in the global picture using CEFR scales as a reference benchmark.
- To check whether the learning competencies of LSRW skills posited in the SCERT English textbooks are inclusive of NCERT English syllabus standards and global standards of CEFR.

1.7 Limitations of the study

The following are the limitations of the study conducted:

- The study is limited to evaluating the latest SCERT English textbooks taught in the academic year 2019-20. It also only evaluates textbooks at the secondary level (standards VIII, IX, and X).
- The Text Analysis conducted in the study is limited to lexical features only (vocabulary evaluation).
- Does not attempt an in-depth analysis in the validation of LSRW skills with respect to the type of activity.

- The study is limited to the textbooks in analysis and does not consider the opinions of the teachers or the students.

1.8 Key terms in the title of the study

The present study is titled: “A Critical Review of the SCERT Kerala English Textbooks at the Secondary Level”. The word ‘critical’ is used in the title as the present study accommodates an objective approach in reviewing the textbooks. The word ‘review’ is used instead of ‘analysing’ as the study goes beyond simple analysis by presenting concrete qualitative and quantitative results. This helps to provide an in-depth study of the subject matter. The word is also used in place of ‘evaluating’. Though the term ‘evaluation’ implies depicting strengths and weaknesses of the textbooks, it is not used on account of the multiple objectives of the study.

Consequently, the word ‘review’ is used to cover the broad spectrum of research objectives in the present study: textbook evaluation, analysing vocabulary input, computing textbook readability, ascertaining CEFR levels and validating LSRW skills with respect to national standard and global standard. Therefore, using the term ‘critical review’ posits the thesis to be more than just a simple summary of the textbooks. Instead, the present study incorporates descriptive evaluation and computational analysis of the selected textbooks- SCERT Kerala English textbooks at the secondary level.

1.9 Organization of the thesis

This thesis has eight chapters. Chapter 1 begins with an introduction that outlines the research context, the rationale behind the study, the research methodology, and the need for the study. It also presents the scope of the study and the limitations encountered during the

research conducted. The chapter further throws light on the organisation of the thesis and the content of the various chapters.

Chapter 2 presents the relevant literature and review that is crucial to the study undertaken. The literature discussed in this chapter covers six different areas; curriculum and syllabus, textbook and review of past textbook evaluation checklists, text analysis (lexical features and syntactic features), corpus and its use in language teaching, readability, and finally, a review of the relevant studies conducted in the past. The researcher discusses in detail the role of textbooks in language teaching and learning and the need for evaluation checklists with a discussion review of ten evaluation checklists. Following this, in the discussion of lexical features, the definition of the terms; word, lemma, type, token, type-token ratio, word frequency and word recurrence are presented. In the section on corpus, the different corpora and defining features of corpus-based analysis are discussed to introduce why the corpus-based approach is adopted in the present study. The chapter also talks about readability, textbook readability, and the need for computing readability, and a few important readability formulas. The review of literature presented in the chapter reviews 16 studies that deal with different areas that contribute to the present research.

In Chapter 3, the three different curriculum frameworks relevant to the study are reviewed; the NCF, the KCF, and the CEFR. The chapter briefly throws light on the history of education in Kerala and the background of the KCF, along with the general and language tenets of the framework. It further discusses how the CEFR came to be formulated with a particular focus on its history. It also talks about the comparisons between the NCF, the KCF, and the CEFR to provide conclusive evidence of why the CEFR can be adopted and implemented in the Indian context.

In Chapter 4, the research objectives, questions, methodology, and approach are discussed. The chapter presents in detail the research design elaborating on the different phases in the study. It also introduces the various computational tools that are employed in the study.

Chapter 5 presents the theoretical evaluation of the textbooks. It presents the evaluation parameters that are selected for the theoretical evaluation of the textbooks. Based on these evaluation parameters, the analysis of the textbooks for each standard (VIII, IX, and X) is conducted separately and presented. Following this, a comparison is drawn among the three standards and presented along with a 50-item evaluation checklist.

In Chapter 6, the researcher presents the empirical analysis obtained from the study using corpus methodology and computational tools. The data presented in this chapter involves evaluating vocabulary input in the textbooks, the textbook readability, and aligned CEFR levels. Each of the quantitative results reported is qualitatively explained and discussed. This chapter thus addresses research objectives two, three, and four mentioned above.

Chapter 7 provides information related to LSRW skills. It presents the identified learning competencies in the text and the learning outcomes prescribed in the NCERT English standard syllabus. These learning items are then correlated with the illustrative descriptors in CEFR. The chapter thus explores the validation of the learning competencies by examining whether it correlates with the global standards of CEFR and national standards of NCERT.

Chapter 8 presents the summary of findings and conclusions. The discussions of all the research objectives are addressed. The chapter also discusses the contributions and the scope of further research. It ends with the recommendations posed by the researcher on the conducted study.

Finally, the thesis ends with the list of references cited in the thesis and the list of sources used during the research for conducting the study.

Chapter 2: Background

2.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a background of the different aspects of the research and its literature review. Firstly, in this chapter, by discussing the need to differentiate between curriculum and syllabus, the two concepts are defined along with an understanding of syllabus design and curriculum development. Secondly, it discusses the role of textbooks and the importance of textbooks in teaching and learning. Thirdly, the chapter provides a review of the various evaluation checklists over the years. These different evaluation checklists are reviewed as the researcher creates a self-evaluative independent checklist to answer the predetermined objectives proposed in the present study. The checklist was determined as the instrument of study as this research method is systematic, convenient, cost-effective, and explicit.

Following this, the chapter talks in detail about text analysis- linguistic features and syntactic features. It explains the definition of ‘word’, types, tokens, and the importance of vocabulary frequency and vocabulary distribution in textbooks. It further deals with the definition of corpus and the role of corpus-based research in language teaching and learning. It also briefly discusses the different types of corpora. The chapter also provides a comprehensive account of textbook readability and the different readability formulas over the years. Finally, it concludes with a review of previous studies in these areas.

2.2 Curriculum and Syllabus

An understanding of syllabus design and curriculum methodology requires defining syllabus and curriculum. Though both these terms have often been used as conceptual

overlaps over the years, researchers also distinguish between the two. For example, Shaw (1975), in his PhD thesis distinguishes between curriculum and syllabus. He states:

Curriculum includes the goals, objectives, content, processes, resources, and means of evaluation of all the learning experiences planned for pupils both in and out of the school community, through classroom instruction and related programs” and syllabus as “a statement of the plan for any part of the curriculum, excluding the element of curriculum evaluation itself. (p. 15)

Nunan (1993) agrees with this point and proposes that curriculum provides a comprehensive plan for the teaching system, while syllabus involves a set of instructions to the teacher and learner (Nunan, 1993; Thakur, 2013).

2.2.1 Curriculum

The word ‘curriculum’ has its roots in the Latin word “currere” which means “to run a course.” The simplest basic definition of curriculum is that which is taught in schools comprising a set of subjects. In the broader sense, curriculum refers to the ‘total learning experience.’ It is anything and everything that teaches a lesson.

Allen (1984) defines curriculum as; “a very general concept which involves consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social and administrative factors which contribute to the planning of an education program” (as cited in Nunan, 1988, p. 6). It also includes activities that are designed for students to meet educational objectives.

In addition to these, Richards (2001) comments on another process involved in the curriculum: ‘the evaluation of the resultant program’. Stenhouse’s (1975) definition curriculum embodies this aspect. He states that a curriculum “is an attempt to communicate the essential principals and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open

to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice” (Anjani-Makam, (n.d.), p.1). Thus, “the curriculum is concerned with planning, implementation, evaluation, management and administration of education programs” (Rahimpour, 2010, p. 1661).

2.2.1.1 Two schools of thought

The history of the curriculum can be thought through two concepts:

1. the traditional concept of curriculum and
2. the modern concept of curriculum

In the traditional concept of curriculum, the curriculum was seen as a written document that comprised a plan of action to complete ‘courses of study.’ Later on, the traditional concept of curriculum gave way to a more refined and dynamic idea of curriculum. In this concept, curriculum comprised more than just a set of subjects. It included all learning activities inside and outside the classroom.

The traditional curriculum was limited in scope as it did not allow opportunities to develop critical thinking skills or problem-solving abilities. There was total neglect of options that would assist learning through collaborative skills. Theorists like Robert M. Hutchins, Arthur Bestor and Joseph Schwab advocated the concept of the traditional curriculum. According to Joseph Schwab, ‘discipline is the sole source of the curriculum’ (Alvior, 2014). Robert M. Hutchins and Arthur Bestor emphasized primary education through fundamental subject areas like literature, grammar, mathematics, science, history, etc. The traditional concept of the curriculum can be seen as a product of the essentialist school of thought. It essentially believed in the authoritative nature of curriculum, book-centred approach and rigidity in terms of discipline through subjects.

On the other hand, the modern concept of curriculum, referred to as the product of the progressive school of thought, saw curriculum in a much broader sense. For example, John Dewey, in 1928, defined this curriculum ‘as the total learning experience of the individual’ (Dewey, 1928). Other advocates of this progressive view of the curriculum were Caswell and Cambell (1935), Smith Stanley and Shores (1957), and Marsh and Willis (1999) (Marsh and Willis, 2003). They saw the curriculum as the cumulative of all experiences set up in school and guided by teachers.

2.2.1.2 Types of curriculum design

Overall, curriculum design can be classified into different types:

1. Subject-centred curriculum
2. Learner-centred curriculum
3. Problem-centred curriculum
4. Activity-based curriculum
5. Integrated curriculum

In the subject-centred curriculum, the focus is on the content of the curriculum. This model of curriculum is not concerned with the learners’ learning needs, objectives, or experiences. In this type, discipline design is emphasized. Thus, the curriculum focuses on traditional disciplines, the subjects, interdisciplinary topics, and specific life skills (problem-solving, teamwork, etc.). The drawback of this type of curriculum lies in its neglect of the learners themselves, resulting in passive learning. On the other hand, in the learner-centred curriculum, the focus is on the learners such that it revolves around their needs, experiences, and objectives. Though this learner-centred design curriculum provides additional encouragement and motivation by identifying links between in class and outside classroom

experiences, the competing needs of learners create an added strain on teachers and educators.

The third type of curriculum design, the problem-centred curriculum, considers the authentic form of learning. Learners are exposed to real problems and are expected to formulate solutions for the same. This type of curriculum design helps integrate different skills as learners' developed skills can be transferred to real-life situations. The problem-centred curriculum can also be observed to increase innovation, creativity, and collaboration in the classroom. However, the curriculum ends up being too broad in its scope of providing essential disciplined teaching. Several other alternatives to the learner-centred curriculum include the activity-centred curriculum and the integrated curriculum.

Broadly speaking, a curriculum can be classified to follow any of the three mentioned types: subject-centred curriculum, learner-centred curriculum, and problem-centred.

2.2.2 Syllabus

At the simplest traditional level, a syllabus can be described as a statement of what is to be learnt, elaborating all the decisions of content based on the learner's rationale for learning (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987 in Brunton, 2009). In this light, Yalden (1987) defined the syllabus "as a summary of the content to which learners will be exposed" (p. 87). Nunan (1988) too emphasized the traditional notion of defining syllabus, "a syllabus is a statement of content which is used as the basis for planning courses of various kinds", and the task is to "select and grade this content" (p. 9). Additionally, he stated that a syllabus must specify the order in which the content of the language programme needs to be taught (Nunan, 1988). This traditional notion was also asserted by Johnson (1982) and Crombie (1985) (Solanki, 2014). Johnson explains syllabus as an "organised syllabus inventory" which is an

inventory of items to be taught. Crombie also discusses the syllabus as such an inventory of items that learners have to familiarise themselves with. In summary, the purpose of the syllabus is to provide the rationale behind the specified content in terms of its need and order.

According to Parkes and Harris (2002), there are two fundamental areas in the syllabus: purpose (i.e., the reasons for writing the syllabus and content) and its material. In addition, they point out the three crucial functions or roles of the syllabus; as a contract (clarification of rules), as a permanent record (accountability and documentation function), and as an aid to student learning (to help students to become more effective learners) (Park and Harris, 2002). Consequently, these functions have implications in the syllabus content.

2.2.2.1 Syllabus design

As illustrated above, a syllabus has three essential elements: aim and objective, content matter and learning experience. Richards (2001) describes how essential these elements are for designing a syllabus: “The syllabus for a speaking course might specify the kinds of oral skills that will be taught and practised during the course, the functions, topics, or other aspects of conversations that will be taught and the order in which they will appear in the course” (p. 2).

The basic questions syllabus designers have to answer when developing a language syllabus are:

- What linguistic element should be taught from a language perspective?
- What does the learner want to do with the language from a learner’s perspective?
- What activities will help to promote the learning process from a teaching and learning perspective?

Nunan (1988) discusses Van Ek's (1975) account of the various components that must be considered when formulating a language course. For example, the three necessary components of a language syllabus are: learning activities, the degree of skill the learner needs to perform, and the language functions the learner will have to fulfil. Thus, the syllabus design aims to cater to the learner's need and provide means to help the learners' language growth and development.

2.3 Textbook

The textbook is a learning instrument as it is a manual of instruction dictating the principles of any subject or a specific field of knowledge. The textbooks are essential vehicles in promoting the vision of the curriculum as it is based on the prescribed syllabus, i.e., translating the philosophy of the curriculum into a detailed statement comprising teaching and learning elements. In simple terms, textbooks are books written for the purpose of teaching and learning. Stray (1993) defines textbooks as books "designed to offer a pedagogical and didactic presentation of a certain field of knowledge" (Lebrun et al., 2002, p. 54). According to the Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning, textbooks "are bound collections of textual and visual material, designed for teaching and learning a particular subject and following particular methodological and didactical principles" (Byram, 2004, p. 626). Therefore, the structure and content of the textbook are essential tools for curriculum implementation. Okeeffe (2013) quotes Valverde et al., (2002):

Textbooks are designed to translate the abstractions of curriculum policy into operations that teachers and students can carry out. They are intended as mediators between the intentions of the designers of curriculum policy and the teachers that provide the instruction in classrooms. (p. 2)

A much-detailed definition of a textbook is given in the NCERT (1970) document:

A systematic organisation and preparation of selected and summarised instructional material, based on the prescribed syllabus, keeping in view the needs and interest of pupils to facilitate teaching and learning, for the accomplishment of the desired goals of the subject for a particular level or class. (p. 21)

Thus, textbooks act as an instructional instrument for the teachers and a learning tool for the learners. Many features of textbooks have a significant impact on teaching or learning. Therefore, textbook research needs to be carried out to identify these features and increase the textbook's effectiveness in terms of its content and implementation. Thus, the primary purpose of textbook research is to identify the strengths and weaknesses and oust out the textbook's negative features. Presently, textbook research has become an indispensable part of educational reform and development.

2.3.1 Teacher handbook

In several curriculum, teachers are provided with handbooks. These handbooks also referred to as the sourcebooks, help play a crucial role in how instruction must be imparted in the classroom and how an effective classroom can be developed or implemented.

Baker (1958) cites the definition of handbook from the Encyclopedia of Modern Education, which states:

A handbook is a compact compilation of important facts, principles, theories and data in each of the various phases of education... to stimulate teachers and others interested in the profession to further study in the field of education...

consisting of a list of directions, suggestions, statements of policy, and rules of the school system. A guide, not a textbook. (p. 123)

There are two types of teacher's handbook depending on the contents provided:

1. General-Purpose Handbook
2. Subject-Specific Handbook

The General-Purpose Handbook comprises basic information for teachers-qualifications, salary, managing committee, responsibilities, and teacher's self-evaluation framework. Other characteristics involve administrative policies, curriculum information, pedagogy, learning outcomes, and information for parents. On the other hand, the Subject-Specific Handbooks serve as an instruction manual for everyday classroom activities with detailed inputs on every segment presented in the textbook.

2.4 Textbook Research

Changes in the political atmosphere, ideology, cultural perspectives, and social structure trigger revision in the State or Centre approved syllabi/curricula. Developments in teaching and learning theories also result in textbook revisions. In textbook research, two distinct concepts are interchangeably used: textbook analysis and textbook evaluation. In textbook analysis, an objective, verifiable description is obtained. The textbook analysis thus incorporates a content analysis of the textbook. On the other hand, in textbook evaluation, the analysis includes making judgments from the results obtained.

Weinbrenner (1992) was one of the first to posit that, studies conducted on textbooks should go beyond the scope of just content analysis (Lebrun et al., 2002). He presented three broad approaches: process-oriented (studying the whole cycle of a textbook, its design,

approval, adoption, use, and abandonment), product-oriented (examining textbooks with reference to contents, didactic and visual characteristics), and reception-oriented (dealing with the influence of the textbook on the teachers, learners, and reactions elicited from social groups). This detailed approach covering all three levels: analysis at documentation, analysis on the design, selection and use, and evaluation of actual practice comprises textbook research. Several frameworks provide the backbone for conducting textbook research.

2.4.1 Textbook Analysis

The textbook analysis is not limited to just the textual side but also the pictorial, graphic, technical and didactic aspects. All these aspects are part and parcel of the textbook message communicated to teachers and learners. According to Byram (2004), “textbooks can be evaluated with respect to aspects as varied as design, content, structuring and sequencing, types of guidance offered, forms of interaction envisaged, grammatical and lexical progression, variety of text types, variety of exercise types” (p. 627). Lebrun et al. (2002) points out the four themes identified by Richaudeau (1979) under which the textbook can be studied: “contents (analysed for their sociocultural, ideological, scientific and pedagogic dimensions), communication (communicative meanings, forms of the message, readability, density), method (organisation, method of use and adaptability) and textbooks as material objects (sturdiness, manipulability, cost)” (p. 55).

Thus, textbook analysis can be majorly seen to be dependent on content analysis or the analysis of textual structures. It involves the complete analysis of a textbook, a set of textbooks, or just studying various aspects in the textbook. The sets of textbooks that can be included in textbook research do not necessarily be new or current. Instead, they can be textbooks that have been abandoned. Textbooks also can be picked from different countries

and different periods. Then the research conducted is mostly the evolution of a concept, or value, or topic, or on various aspects at the national or international level.

2.4.2 Textbook evaluation

The textbook evaluation provides the strengths and limitations of the textbook. It thus goes one step ahead of textbook analysis. Textbook evaluation explains how effectively the textbook acts as instructional material for teachers and learners. A crucial point in textbook evaluation is selecting an evaluation approach, criteria, or checklist from the many available sources depending on the teaching and learning context. The purpose of the textbook evaluation can be aptly described in Tomlinson (1990) words:

1. “To select a textbook for a course
2. To select materials to supplement a coursebook
3. To select materials from different sources in an eclectic manner.
4. As a basis for adaptation of materials in order to make them more suitable for a particular course.
5. As a basis for improving materials (trailing or piloting materials).
6. In order to edit materials produced by others.
7. In order to review proposed materials for a publisher.
8. In order to review published materials for a journal
9. In order to help teachers or trainee teachers develop their understanding of methodology and/or materials writing.
10. In order to recommend a coursebook for an institution or a ministry of education.
11. As part of a research experiment.” (quoted from Davari, Iranmehr and Erfani, 2013, p. 817).

2.4.3 Evaluation Checklists

The discussion below focuses on a few dominant approaches, criteria, and checklists in textbook/ materials evaluation.

Tomlinson (2003)

Tomlinson (2003) puts forward a three-stage process for materials evaluation; pre-use evaluation, whilst-use evaluation, and post-use evaluation. In Tomlinson's (2003) words, the "pre-use evaluation is '...impressionistic and consists of a teacher flicking through a book to gain a quick impression of its potential value" (p. 23). This process of evaluation majorly focuses on the physical appearance, the contents page and overall layout of the book. One crucial point is that this evaluation does not involve any set of definite criteria and is mainly subjective as the evaluator becomes the sole interpreter. Tomlinson (2003) argues for this evaluation to be conducted by more than one evaluator simultaneously for a rigorous and systematic assessment.

Tomlinson's second stage process of evaluation, "whilst-use evaluation", involves evaluating materials in use. The potential value of the materials is determined through classroom observation and user's feedback. This evaluation stage involves a deeper evaluation of the content of materials and is more reliable as it employs "measurement rather than prediction" (Tomlinson, 2003, p. 24). In Tomlinson's whilst-use evaluation, some of the criteria that are measured are- clarity of instruction provided, clarity of layout, comprehensibility of texts, the credibility of tasks, flexibility, practicality, teachability, impact, and appeal of the given materials. He argues that although many of these criteria can be estimated in an open-ended impressionistic evaluation of materials in use, focusing on one criterion at a time contributes to a more systematic, objective and reliable evaluation

(Tomlinson, 2003). However, his suggestion of criteria lacks in terms of what exactly should/ can be measured.

The final stage in Tomlinson's approach of material evaluation is post-use evaluation. This evaluation addresses the impact the textbook has had on the teachers' students/learners, and administrators after its use (Tomlinson, 2003). Thus, the main short-term and long-term effects addressed are questions relating to what the learners learn from the materials and how effective and useful the materials are in teaching and learning. The post-use evaluation thus measures the actual outcome from using materials and helps make reliable decisions about its future use, adaptation, or replacement.

One significant lacking factor in Tomlinson's three-stage process is that he has failed to outline the specific details involved in every criterion and does not provide a standardised measure of the importance of different criteria. However, Tomlinson provides an overall description of the main approaches that have become mandatory for a reliable textbook evaluation.

McGrath (2002)

McGrath's (2002) argues for a dual-stage approach in terms of evaluative purposes. The two stages involve first-glance evaluation and close evaluation (McGrath, 2002, p. 29). The first-glance evaluation is feasible when a text has to be selected from a variety of texts. Selected material that passes the first-glance evaluation test is then submitted for a closer evaluation. The method employed in this evaluation is referred to as the impressionistic method. In this method, a general overview of the material is obtained. This is because the impressionistic method involves a description of the book from the back cover, the contents page and a view of the general layout, organisation, and visual input while skimming.

McGrath draws the list of criteria involved in the first-glance evaluation with the help of Grant's (1987) test for initial evaluation. He discusses Grant's acronym CATALYST stage 1 test that comprises eight criteria: communicative (is text communicative), aim (does it meet the proposed aims and objectives), teachability (is it well-organised and easy to use for teaching), available add-ons (are there additional materials), level (is the level appropriate), evaluator's impression (overall self-impression), student interest (will students find it interesting), tried and tested (is it tried and tested in a real classroom context) (p. 30). Out of these eight criteria, McGrath (2002) points out two features: communicative and teachability that requires a closer examination in textbook evaluation.

McGrath's (2002) summarises that first glance evaluation should be "a matter of establishing whether there is a rough match between learning context and needs on the one hand and materials on the other" (p. 31). Accordingly, he provides a checklist that comprises four criteria that deals with in-built questions. The four criteria are- Practical considerations (availability and cost), support for teaching and learning (whether there are additional components), context-relevance (in terms of suitability for course, for learners, and for teachers), and learner appeal (appeal of material (layout, visuals, and topics) for learners). The specific criteria evaluative questions can be answered using the Yes or No (Y/N) format. These criteria are selected as it does not require a close examination of the material.

Following the first-glance evaluation, if considered suitable, the material is subjected to the second stage of evaluation: the close evaluation. There are two most effective methods in the close evaluation stage: the checklist and in-depth analysis methods.

McGrath (2002) provides four different steps in designing a checklist (p. 41):

1. What are the general categories?
2. What are the specific criteria in each category?
3. How are the categories ordered? How are the specific criteria ordered?
4. What format should the prompts and responses follow?

The in-depth method involves techniques that go beneath the publisher's and author's claim. A few of the deeper issues looked into this method are questions such as- what kind of language description is provided and what assumptions the materials are based on.

McGrath's (2002) framework for the detailed material evaluation (from the perspective of the teacher) involves two phases. The first phase involved what does the material aim to, what do they contain, and effectiveness of the material in teaching learners. On the other hand, the second phase involved whether the materials are appropriate to learners' needs and learners' approaches to learners.

This detailed evaluation framework thus comprises questions regarding learners' needs and learning style preference and questions regarding teachers' experiences and belief about language learning and teaching. This analysis takes time, expertise and its output are very partial as analysis is mostly narrowly focused. In-depth analysis is often and mainly used alongside the checklist-based evaluation. In summary, materials are hand-picked for a thorough examination in the in-depth and impressionistic method, while in the checklist method, all essential criteria are mentioned and systematically examined.

Littlejohn (1998 & 2011)

Littlejohn (1998) argues for a framework that examines material ‘as they are’, which refers to analysing the content and objectives (ways of working proposed). This evaluation framework is different because it is not concerned with what happens in the classroom, implying it is not an analysis of materials in use. Littlejohn’s (1998) framework incorporates three separate questions;

1. What aspects of materials should we examine? – Publication (physical aspects) and design (thinking underlying the material)
2. How can we examine materials?
3. How can we relate the findings to our teaching contexts?

The first question explains the two aspects that should be examined in material evaluation- publication which involves physical aspects (paper quality, layout, binding, size, typeface, etc.) and design which involves the underlying thought- aims, content matter, types of teaching and learning activities, and grading of materials. The second questions deal with how these two aspects can be examined. As some aspects require more time and closer look, Littlejohn proposes three levels of analysis (Littlejohn, 2011). The first level involves objective description, which is the physical aspects of the book, publication aspects, and a preliminary idea about the roles of the teachers and learners. The second level of analysis, i.e., subjective analysis, involves a deeper level of analysis, that is, what the learners and teachers must do, the extent of participation, the nature of the available content material, and the expected outcome of the learners. Lastly, the third level of analysis, subjective inference, involves the significant aspects mentioned in the design section discussed above (the aims, sequencing and grading of content, the roles proposed by the teachers and the learners and the

role of the material as a whole in facilitating language teaching and learning). The analysis of these two questions moves away from making assumptions. Accordingly, it becomes a ‘neutral description’.

Finally, the third question on how the findings of the analysis be used. In answer to this, Littlejohn proposes that such a framework will aid in the material evaluation as a whole and serve three primary purposes: “teachers’ professional development, material designers’ critical self-evaluation and researchers’ study of language teaching” (p. 198).

McDonough and Shaw (1993)

McDonough and Shaw (1993) examined the criteria of textbook evaluation in three stages- external evaluation, internal evaluation and overall evaluation. External evaluation involves examining the organisation of the material as stated explicitly by the author or publisher by looking at “the ‘blurb’ or the claims made on the cover of the teachers/ student’s book” and “the introduction and table of content” (McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara, 2013, p. 54).

Often, the table of contents represents the link between the external claim made and what is represented inside the textbook. This comprehensive and external overview provides a critical evaluation and addresses questions such as what the material contains, the aims the material wants to achieve, and what learners are expected to do.

The external evaluation thus help denote the appropriateness and reliability of the selected material/textbook to the class. If the material passes all these criteria and is selected to be implemented in the classroom, then a more detailed evaluation- internal evaluation can be conducted.

The next stage, the internal evaluation, is “an in-depth investigation into the material” (McDonough et. al., 2013, p. 59). In this stage, the evaluator examines the extent to which the internal matter matches up with what is said by the author/publisher. To conduct such an in-depth internal examination, factors such as presentation of skills, grading and sequencing of materials, and teacher/ learner mismatch of materials.

Finally, the third stage in the evaluation procedure, which is the overall evaluation considers whether the materials are considers the factors of usability, generalizability, adaptability and flexibility (McDonough et. al., 2013: 60-61).

From the different stages in McDonough and Shaw’s (1993) evaluation procedure, the second stage- the internal evaluation can be observed to be similar to that of Tomlinson’s (2003) whilst-use evaluation and McGrath’s (2002) in-use evaluation. In Tomlinson’s (2003) words, the external evaluation can be termed macro-evaluation and internal evaluation, micro-evaluation.

Byrd (2001)

Byrd’s (2001) evaluation framework distinguishes between two approaches: (1) an ‘evaluation for selection’ and (2) an ‘an analysis for implementation’. While the former is concerned with decisions made by teachers or administrators in selecting a textbook, the latter deals with evaluating the selected text.

According to Byrd (2001), the initial important issues that must be addressed through the evaluation for selection are the “fit between the materials and (1) the curriculum, (2) the students and (3) the teachers” (p. 415). The first issue is observed through the set of guidelines set in the respective curriculum or the pedagogical goals of the program. On the

other hand, the fit between the materials and the students depends on four important elements, namely:

1. Content/ Explanations- Is it of interest and appropriate?
2. Examples- Does it explain the concepts?
3. Exercises/ Tasks- Is there variety in the exercises and tasks?
4. Presentation/ Format- appropriate to students' learning needs and age?

The same four elements are also used to explain the fit between the materials and the teachers with different criteria:

1. Content/ Explanations- Is it a teacher-friendly textbook?
2. Examples- Usability for the teachers?
3. Exercises/ Tasks- Does it have enough time to be completed?
4. Presentation/ Format- Is it aptly illustrated?

Byrd (2001) thus classifies the content of the textbook into two main categories for evaluation- linguistic content and thematic content. The criteria under these two categories can be summarized into the following points given below:

- Vocabulary (vocabulary load, grading and recycling)
- Topics (appropriate, up-to-date and logical arrangement of topics)
- Exercises (learning, speaking, reading and writing skills)
- Linguistic structure (grammar load and distribution)

One additional feature in Bryd's (2001) approach is the significant importance it gives to evaluating the teacher's manual, which is similar to one of Cunningsworth (1995) criteria; evaluation of the teacher's book.

Ellis (1997)

In material evaluation, Ellis (1997) distinguishes two main types- "predictive evaluation" and "retrospective evaluation" (p. 36). The predictive evaluation is designed to help in determining what materials are best suited to the determined or prescribed purposes. Teachers often find this predictive evaluation to be valuable as they can make a decision about which materials can be used. Predictive evaluation can be mainly carried out through a checklist and based on guidelines set by expert reviewers. However, Ellis points out that predictive evaluation is limited in how 'scientific' such an evaluation is, as such an assessment is often subjective.

The retrospective evaluation goes one step ahead and addresses whether the chosen materials have worked in their determined role. For teachers, the retrospective evaluation determines whether the materials are worth using and how the materials can be modified to make them more effective. According to Ellis (1997), the retrospective evaluation can also be instrumental in "testing the validity of a predictive evaluation" (p. 37). This evaluation can be carried out through an impressionistic evaluation or a systematic evaluation by conducting an empirical evaluation. This impressionistic evaluation is often performed by teachers in the course of the study itself. Accordingly, it is based on the overall involvement and enthusiasm on the part of the students in the classroom.

In addition to predictive and retrospective evaluation, Ellis (1997) also discusses the need for empirical evaluation. This type of evaluation takes more time and effort in forming an assessment. Ellis details two ways in empirical evaluation- macro-evaluation and micro-evaluation. Macro-evaluation involves the overall assessment of the materials, while micro-evaluation involves one particular task that will be systematically analyzed empirically. Micro-evaluation can be observed to be a less daunting task as it deals with one task at a time. A series of micro-evaluation can contribute to macro-evaluation or be taken as an individual practical and legitimate way of conducting an empirical evaluation of the material (Ellis, 1997). A micro-evaluation can reveal the extent of the materials' relevance or suitability and point out the weaknesses if there are any in its design, thus paving the way for materials improvement.

Cunningsworth (1995)

Cunningsworth's (1995) coursebook evaluation concerned a variety of factors. Firstly, the overview of the coursebook, i.e., a general introduction, forms the impressionistic evaluation. This involves a portrayal of the possibilities, the strength and the weakness in the coursebooks. Secondly, the impressionistic evaluation paves the way for a more detailed evaluation, i.e., an in-depth evaluation. This evaluation involves the identification of strengths and points out significant omissions and weaknesses in the coursebooks.

Cunningsworth's (1995) evaluation checklist offers a general and important approach in eight criteria ("Aims and approaches, Design and organisation, Language content, Skills, Topic, Methodology, Teachers' books, and Practical considerations") with 45 questions (pp. 3-4). This detailed evaluation checklist is provided in Appendix A.

From the evaluation checklist, it can be seen that Cunningsworth's (1995) evaluation purposes are designed to be a general, non-context specific evaluation. The evaluation process involved the careful selection of the material and an in-depth examination of whether the material meets the learners' need and the prescribed objectives. Thus, this evaluation procedure goes beyond a simple impressionistic assessment and can be used in collaboration with other evaluation approaches (for instance, the evaluation stages of Tomlinson, 2003, or McGrath, 2002, or Littlejohn, 2011).

Ur (1996)

Ur's (1996) approach to material evaluation is similar to the approaches put forward by Cunningsworth (1995) and Byrd (2001). She details 19 criteria used as "grounds on which one might criticize or reject a textbook" (Ur, 1996, p. 186) and provides her rating on the criteria. Some of the specific, vital criteria in this list are- objective, layout, availability, different topics, variety of tasks, clear instructions, sequencing and grading, vocabulary practice, grammar practice, and fluency in all skills.

Skierso (1991)

Skierso's (1991) framework involves a different approach, where the first step in the evaluation process is collecting information. He suggests this collection of information must pertain to the learner's background, the syllabus course, objectives and learning context as a mandatory step in the evaluation process (Skierso, 1991).

In the material evaluation Skierso (1991) divides the material into six subsections; "bibliographical data, aims and goals, subject matter, vocabulary and structures, exercises and activities, and layout and physical makeup" (discussed in Nguyen, 2015, pp. 49-50).

- “Bibliographical (information about the author’s qualification, the availability and cost of the textbook)
- Aims and goals (students’ needs and the syllabus requirements)
- Subject matter (the variety in text types, topics, content, grading, suitability of level, integration of cultural aspects)
- Vocabulary and structures (appropriate, accurate, suitable grammar and vocabulary and its clarity)
- Exercises and activities (the development of study skills)
- Layout and physical makeup (artwork, illustration, durability and attractiveness of the textbook)” (Nguyen, 2015, pp. 49-50)

Skierso (1991) also addresses the importance of the teachers’ manual to be included in the evaluation process.

Sheldon (1988)

Sheldon (1988) framework involves a “bell-jar summary of common-core factors” useful for the textbook evaluation process. Sheldon provides 17 factors or criteria, which in turn contains 53 evaluation questions. The 17 factors involved are- “rationale, availability, user definition, layout/graphics, accessibility, linkage, selection/grading, physical characteristics, appropriacy, authenticity, sufficiency, cultural bias, educational validity, practice/revision, flexibility, guidance, and overall value for money” (Sheldon, 1988, p. 242). These criteria sum up a cumulative framework on the evaluation parameters involved in the materials evaluation process.

There are several other approaches and models for textbook evaluation that are not detailed here, such as Scriven (1967), Tucker (1975), Davison (1975), Daud and Cele-Murcia (1979), William (1983), Levinson (1983), Robinson (1991), Rea-dickens and Germaine (1992), Brown (1995), Breen and Candlin (1997), and Richards and Rogers (2001). Few of these are listed in Hashemi and Borhani (2012) and discussed in Davari et. al., (2013).

To summarize, the various evaluation checklist reviews detail two types of evaluation; first, an overall evaluation followed by a detailed evaluation. Another opinion is when the evaluation process should occur or at what stages in the teaching-learning process should the learning materials be evaluated. Pre-use evaluation, which, as the name suggests, implies the evaluation of material prior to its use. Through the pre-use evaluation, the potential suitability of the material can only be indicated. To further establish the extent of whether the material is indeed suitable, the in-use evaluation and the post-use evaluation stages are necessary. The former evaluation is done when the material is in use, while the latter is done later.

2.5 Text Analysis

Text analysis focuses on explaining the linguistic and textual structures of text. This allows one to explore the given text quantitatively. Text Analysis thus involves computational analysis of the texts. Accordingly, text analysis takes into account both lexical features and syntactic features.

These features are further used to measure many indices like readability index, lexical variation and cohesiveness of the text. Following is a brief description of the lexical features that are relevant for text analysis in this study.

2.5.1 Lexical features

Lexical features refer to content words, function words, and word frequencies such as the count of tokens and types.

2.5.1.1 Vocabulary

The role of vocabulary is crucial to language comprehension, communication competence and language acquisition. Vocabulary knowledge correlates with overall reading ability and comprehension. Vocabulary simply is a list of words or phrases. In Lexico, a dictionary powered by Oxford, the meaning of vocabulary is given as ‘the body of words used in a particular language’. Vocabulary knowledge is recognized as an indicator of one’s proficiency in the language. Among the dimensions of vocabulary knowledge, the two critical dimensions are; breadth of vocabulary and depth of vocabulary (Webb, 2012). The breadth of vocabulary provides an estimation of vocabulary size. It points out how many words one knows.

On the other hand, the depth of knowledge illustrates the extent of how well one knows these words. It determines whether the words can be used successfully or not. Thus, vocabulary knowledge can be seen as a prerequisite to the performance of language skills (Nation and Waring, 1997).

The crucial nature of vocabulary knowledge in language has garnered much research. Extensive research has been carried out in major areas like vocabulary process, size, frequency, instruction, development, acquisition and pedagogy. Additionally, in second language acquisition the size of vocabulary has defined the competence in one’s use of language. Several researchers have outlined the link between vocabulary size and academic

development (Schmitt and McCarthy, 1997; Graves, 2016; Nation, 2006; Scott and Nagy, 2004; Milton and Treffers-Daller, 2013). The second dimension, the ‘depth of vocabulary’, signals how well words are known.

2.5.1.2 Defining ‘word’

In the hierarchy of grammatical constituents, words are one level above morphemes. ‘Words are made up of sound units, phonemes’ that are ‘the smallest contrastive unit of language.’ A simple definition of a ‘word’ would be ‘the smallest minimal unit that can be spoken/written and contain meaning’. According to Ferdinand de Saussure, a ‘word’ has two sides like a coin. One side is the form of a word, its structure, and the other side is the meaning of the word. Scott and Nagy provide a simple definition; the concept of ‘word’ as a term refers to ‘identifiable units in written and spoken language’ (Scott and Nagy, 2004).

Over the years, there have been different textbook definitions of what a ‘word’ is. According to the SIL Glossary of Linguistic terms (2003), “a word can be identified as being the largest unit resistant to insertion of new constituents within its boundaries or being the smallest constituent that can be moved within a sentence without making the sentence ungrammatical” (word- SIL International, 2003). In the online dictionary, Lexico powered by Oxford, ‘word’ is provided with two definitions. Firstly, as “a single distinct meaningful element of speech or writing used with others (or sometimes alone) to form a sentence and typically shown with a space on either side when written or printed”. Secondly, as “a single distinct conceptual unit of language comprising inflected and variant forms” (word- Lexico, n.d.).

The dictionary by Merriam-Webster also provides two definitions for ‘word’. Its first entry defines ‘word’ as “a speech sound or series of speech sound that symbolizes and communicates a meaning usually without being divisible into smaller units capable of independent use”. The second entry defines ‘word’ as “the entire set of linguistic forms produced by combining a single base with various inflectional elements without change in the part of speech elements” (word- Merriam-Webster, n.d.). Abdiev (2015) quotes the definition of word from Gak V.G. in ‘The Great Soviet Encyclopedia’ (1990): “word is a main structural-semantic unit of the language, it serves to name the peculiarities of events, things and objects of the universe and it is used practically as a combination of phonetical, lexical, semantical and grammatical signs” (p. 1299).

In text analysis, one of the first steps is counting the number of words. In this scenario, “word is defined as a sequence of characters split by whitespace(s), and stripped of non-word characters (commas, dots, quotation marks, etc.).”²

2.5.1.2.1 Function and Content words

Though a word might belong to a particular part of speech like noun, adverb, preposition, verb, etc., it can fundamentally be categorized under function words or content words. There have been numerous linguistic distinctions between function and content words. A preliminary distinction is characterizing function words as “closed class” and content words as “open-class words” (Smith and Witten, 1993, p. 3). Many scholars (Levelt, 1989; Schmauder, 1996) have defined function and content in terms of the grammatical relation or syntactic function. “Function words express or represent grammatical relations between

² Quoted from Text-Analysis-Python
https://advertools.readthedocs.io/en/master/advertools.word_frequency.html

content words, which denote actions, objects, entities and properties. Function words have less lexical-semantic content than content words” (Schmauder, Morris and Poynor, 2006, p. 1098).

In many Text Analysis processes, function words are eliminated from analysis through the use of stop lists. This usually happens at the pre-processing phase, where function words are considered as words that do not add much value to the overall meaning of the document. The underlying reason for this is to ensure that focus will be given to words that add meaning to the document. For instance, in the sentence ‘The pen is on the book’, the words ‘is’ and ‘on’ are not as crucial as ‘pen’ and ‘book’. In this present research, function words are removed using checklists while analysing the vocabulary recycling index.

2.5.1.3 Word, Lemma, Families

Baeur and Nation (1993) discuss the concept of ‘word family’, which includes “a base word, its inflected forms and a small number of reasonably regular derived forms” (quoted from Nation and Waring, 1997, p. 8). Consequently, the label ‘lexeme’ provides a more technical description to the interpretation of ‘word’. For instance, ‘walking’ is defined as a word but technically, ‘walking’ comprises ‘walk’ and an inflection suffix ‘-ing’. To this extent, it is adequate to use the term ‘lexeme’. Thus, when explaining ‘walking’, the lexeme is ‘walk’. This notion of ‘lexeme’ is an abstract notion that generalizes over inflected forms.

David Crystal (2019), in the Cambridge Encyclopedia of the English language, stated, “The headwords in a dictionary are all lexemes” (p. 128). Inflected variants of the lexemes are listed underneath the headwords in the dictionary. The concept of ‘lexeme’ as a theoretical construct is instrumental for morphological and semantic analysis. With respect to

vocabulary, lexeme carries the role of being headwords with inflected forms underneath it. So, in the question of vocabulary knowledge, it is necessary to understand whether vocabulary size deals with just the headwords (lexeme) or all words including inflected variants of the headwords. It is in this aspect, the concept of ‘word family’ is important. Thus, vocabulary size is expressed in terms of word families.

Additionally, Read (2000) points out the need to distinguish between word forms and word families. As mentioned earlier, word family comprises the base word, its inflected forms, and derived words that are closely related in terms of meaning and form (for example: extent- extended, extending, extends, extensive, extension (Read, 2000). On the other hand, word forms are words with similar forms with a range of meaning (for example: sociable, social, sociology, socialite, socialism, sociological, societal (Read, 2000).

2.5.1.4 Token, type and TTR

Lexical analysis involves identifying and computing the number of tokens and types. C. S. Peirce introduced type and token distinction in terms of two different ‘senses’. Peirce called words in the first sense as ‘types’ and words in the second sense as ‘tokens’. According to him, a token is an “instance of a type and that the token signifies the type”.³ In simple terms, ‘token’ refers to word/ characters separated by whitespace(s) and ‘type’ refers to the number of different tokens in the particular text. Montserrat Bausela (2016) provides another explanation on the terminology of tokens and types, ‘tokens’ are “running words in the corpus” and the “different words” are ‘types’ (p. 367).

³ source link (Types and Tokens- Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy
<https://plato.stanford.edu/entries/types-tokens/>)

In text analysis, the ratio of types to tokens is computed to identify the number of different words in a text. This ratio is generally called the Type-Token Ratio or TTR. Prior research has pointed out the importance of computing TTR in text. The higher the numerical value of type/token ratio, the richer the vocabulary or, in other terms, the more varied the vocabulary, or greater the vocabulary complexity (Arnaud, 1984). This fact highlights why computing TTR was selected as an objective in the present study as part of evaluating textbook vocabulary. However, this aspect is highly dependent on text length as the longer the text, the lower the TTR (Van Gijssel, Speelman, and Geeraerts, 2005). This is rectified with the computation of word frequency.

2.5.1.5 Word frequency

Though the type/token ratio helps to identify the number of different words that appear in the text, it does not provide much information on the frequency or quality of the words. Thus, word frequency, an important lexical characteristic in oral/written text, centres its methodology on counting the number of words (tokens) and identifying which occur more or less frequently.

Prior research (Laufer and Nation, 1995; Meara, Lightbown, and Halter, 1997; Nation, 2006 and Meara, 1993) has shown that vocabulary growth depends on the frequency of words. This is evident from Paul Nation's statement, "Not all words are created equal" (Coxhead, 2010, p. 5). Accordingly, categorizing words according to frequency (high frequency and low frequency) helps systematize vocabulary teaching/learning (Nation, 2001; Worthington and Nation, 1996; Nation and Coxhead, 2001). According to Coxhead, the idea behind this "is that high-frequency words need to be the main focus for learners initially and that low-frequency words should be dealt with using a variety of strategies" (p. 5).

Laufer and Nation (1995) propose a new measure, ‘Lexical Frequency Profile’ (LFP), to indicate the quality of vocabulary by measuring the lexical richness in learner writing. The LFP measures the proportion of low-frequency words versus high-frequency words. In LFP, the word tokens (families and not types) in the text are described in terms of frequency bands (Laufer and Nation, 1995, Meara, 2005; Smith, 2005, and Bardel, Gudmundson and Lindqvist, 2012). Four proposed frequency lists are:

1. First 1000 most common words (1-1000)
2. Second 1000 most common words (10001-2000)
3. Academic Vocabulary (University Word List)
4. Words not in any of the above lists

According to Laufer and Nation (1995), low-frequency words are an indicator of lexical richness. The first band frequency list words are acquired faster and easier by learners. Thus, the complexity of the vocabulary is described considering the vocabulary rank of the low-frequency words (Shao, 2015), referred to as lexical complexity. Laufer (1994) notes that for learners, “the general tendency is for basic vocabulary to decrease and be replaced by a more advanced vocabulary” (p. 29).

2.5.1.6 Word recurrence

Recurrence of words or the number of encounters of the word present in a text is an important factor in vocabulary acquisition. In reading research, the topic of vocabulary recycling is significant on account of the apparent fact that reading contributes to vocabulary growth. Several researchers have put forward different theories on the pedagogies of how and in what ways reading aids vocabulary growth (Waring and Nation, 2004; Horst, 2005;

Waring, 2001; Gardner, 2004; Gardner, 2008 and Atilgan, 2013). Webb (2007) discusses the frequency of recurrence of words as an essential aspect of vocabulary growth. According to him, the number of encounters in context matters (Webb, 2007).

Shan Liu cites a study conducted by Saragi, Nation and Meister in 1978 to be one of the first studies to “examine the effects of repetition on vocabulary acquisition” which found that “repetition affected learning” (Liu, 2018, p. 708). Horst, Cobb and Meara (1998) found that in a graded reader with L2 learners, the number of encounters required to acquire new words were eight or more times (Horst, Cobb and Meara, 1998; Webb, 2007 and Liu, 2018). Waring and Taraki (2003) too determined the need for at least eight encounters of the word (Waring and Taraki, 2003). On the other hand, according to Rott (1999), a minimum number of six encounters is enough (Liu, 2018). A more comprehensive range of encounters is illustrated by Nation (1990). He suggests the number of encounters should be “between four and sixteen” (Liu, 2018, p. 708). In the study conducted by Webb (2007), it was observed that a repetition of ten or more times was crucial to develop full knowledge of a word (Webb, 2007).

Accordingly, the present study looks into the recycling index of words to provide a base context for further research on vocabulary acquisition through school textbooks.

2.5.2 Syntactic features

Extraction of syntactic features is an important aspect in Natural Language Processing (NLP). In the present study of text analysis, syntactic features refer to the sentence length, number of sentences, number of words per sentence and number of syllables per sentence.

These different indices are used in different analysis formulas that are discussed later in this chapter.

Units of words separated by punctuation marks; full stop, question mark, and quotation marks constitute different sentences. This definition of a sentence is considered an adequate measure in a corpus-based study (Kelih, Grzybek, Antić, and Stadlober, 2006). With respect to word length, the word is analysed as an ‘orthographic-phonemic category’ (Antić, Kelih, and Grzybek, 2007). Thus, word length is measured in terms of the number of syllables per word (Grzybek, Stadlober, Kelih, and Antić, 2005).

2.6 Corpus

The word ‘corpus’ is derived from the Latin term ‘corpus’, meaning ‘body’ dating back to the early 18th century. The dictionary, Lexico powered by Oxford, defines corpus as “a collection of written texts, especially the entire works of a particular author or a body of writing on a particular subject” (corpus- Lexico, n.d.). The plural of the term corpus is ‘corpora’. In modern linguistics, the purposes of compiling corpora vary from linguistic to socio-pragmatic reasons. As a collection of naturally occurring texts, the corpus is a means of verifying hypotheses about a language (Crystal, 2008). Thus, the general objectives of the corpus can be said to be investigating or comparing linguistic phenomena or finding patterns in the data.

2.6.1 Defining corpus

In Linguistics, the definition of ‘corpus’ has become more definite over the years. The online dictionary, Lexico powered by Oxford, defines corpus in terms of language research, “a collection of written or spoken material in machine-readable form, assembled for the

purpose of linguistic research” (corpus- Lexico, n.d.). The Oxford English Dictionary too provides a similar definition, “the body of written or spoken material upon which a linguistic analysis is based” (corpus- Oxford English Dictionary, 2019). In consensus, the corpus can be a ‘body of text’ or ‘collection of text’. McEnery (2003) calls it a “well-organized collection of data” (p. 449).

Lynne Flowerdew (2012) puts forward four points as the criteria for defining a corpus:

1. “A corpus consists of authentic, naturally occurring data
2. A corpus is assembled according to explicit design criteria
3. A corpus is representative of a particular language or genre
4. A corpus is designed for a specific linguistic or socio-pragmatic purpose.” (p. 3)

On account of the corpus being ‘representative’, the size of the corpus is large and machine-readable. Leech (1991) states that a corpus can be considered representative of a language variety if the findings based on its contents can be generalized to that language variety.

Sinclair (1991) provides a much more elaborate definition of the corpus, emphasizing the large size of the corpus and its need to be representative.

A corpus is a collection of naturally occurring language text, chosen to characterize a state or a variety of a language. In modern computational linguistics, a corpus typically contains many millions of words: this is because it is recognized that the creativity of natural language leads to such immense

variety of expression that it is difficult to isolate the recurrent patterns that are the clues to the lexical structure of the language. (p.171)

Over the years, these large machine-readable collections of text have become an indispensable part of language research. Also, the increased need for qualitative and quantitative analysis in linguistics has emphasized the role of corpus in present linguistic studies. Furthermore, Fuster and Clavel (2010) discuss how corpus-based or corpus-driven research and analysis can be found in practically every discipline of linguistics.

Corpus linguistics can thus be said to be a methodology for approaching the study of language. However, it should not be confused as a theory of language. According to McEnery (2011), corpus linguistics is not monolithic, but a heterogeneous field that focuses on a set of procedures or methods for studying a language (McEnery and Hardie, 2011).

Not all researchers are convinced of corpus linguistics as a methodology. Instead, some researchers consider corpus linguistics as a theory (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001 discussed in Flowerdew, 2012). With the advancement of corpus linguistics as a data analytical tool for enhancing linguistic analysis, the role of corpus linguistics began to change from a tool to that of bringing together linguistic theory and data. Though corpus linguistics is interpreted with reference to linguistic and cognitive theories, it does not make corpus linguistics a theory. However, on account of the opposing views on the conceptual orientation of corpus linguistics, it is best to refer to corpus linguistics on the basis of corpus-based approach and corpus-driven approach (cf. Flowerdew, 2012).

In a corpus-based approach, theories are hypothesized and then verified against the corpus. While, in a corpus-driven approach, theories are drawn after detecting linguistic

phenomenon from the corpus. Widdowson (2000) has stated that corpus-based methods focus on corpus as a product (Flowerdew, 2012). In corpus-based research, there is a prior assumption of the validity of linguistic theories. The primary goal is to then analyse the corpus for the “systematic patterns of and use for those predefined linguistic features” (Biber, 2010, p. 159). According to Tognini-Bonelli (2001), corpus-driven approach is instrumental as:

There might be a large number of potentially meaningful patterns that escape the attention of the traditional linguist; these will not be recorded in traditional reference works and may not even be recognised until they are forced upon the corpus analyst by the sheer visual presence of the emerging pattern. (p. 86)

Thus, the corpus-based approach documents describe and explains the systematic linguistic patterns of language use. In contrast, the corpus-driven approach uncovers linguistic patterns that are not detected using standard linguistic analysis methods.

Corpora involved in corpus studies differ depending on the context of analysis and questions asked, as each type of corpus is designed for a particular purpose.

2.6.2 Types of corpora

There is a wide range of different types of corpora: spoken or written corpora of texts from one language, or several languages, or different type of texts (cf. Sketch Engine⁴, W3

⁴ source link ([Corpus types: monolingual, parallel, multilingual... | Sketch Engine](https://www.sketchengine.eu/corpora-and-languages/corpus-types/)
<https://www.sketchengine.eu/corpora-and-languages/corpus-types/>)

Corpora Project⁵, Hunston (2002), Hilary (2012)⁶, Xiao (2003-2015)⁷, Bennett, 2010; Evans, 2007).

Firstly, the different types of written corpora depending on the language are:

- Monolingual Corpus- As its name suggests, a monolingual corpus consists of texts in one language or language variety. An example of a monolingual corpus is the ‘Tehran Monolingual corpus’, which constitutes Persian texts.
- Parallel Corpus- A parallel corpus consists of a collection of texts that has been translated from one language to another language. Since exact translations are involved, the texts in the different languages need to be aligned against each other (words, phrases, sentences need to be aligned). This results in distortions as translations are not exact in terms of segments that appear in the language. An example of a parallel corpus is ‘The English-Turkish Aligned Parallel Corpora’.
- Comparable Corpus- A collection of ‘similar’ texts in different languages or varieties of language. In the comparable corpus, the different language texts though ‘similar’, need not be aligned in terms of language segments. An example of a comparable corpus is the ‘International Corpus of English’ (ICE), consisting of 1 million words, each belonging to different varieties of English.

Secondly, the different types of written corpus depending on time are diachronic corpus and synchronic corpus.

⁵ source link

(https://www1.essex.ac.uk/linguistics/external/clmt/w3c/corpus_ling/content/introduction2.html)

⁶ source link (<https://weblearn.ox.ac.uk/access/content/group/3a217dfd-a8cd-4034-8564-c27a58f89b9b/Handouts/CorpusTypes.pdf>)

⁷ source link (<https://www.lancaster.ac.uk/fass/projects/corpus/ZJU/xCBLS/chapters/A07.pdf>)

- A diachronic corpus consists of texts from different periods. It is also referred to as a historic corpus. An example of a diachronic corpus is ‘Helsinki Corpus of English Texts’. It consists of text from Old, Middle and Early Modern English.
- A synchronic corpus consists of texts present at the same time or from one point in time. It is the opposite of a diachronic corpus. An example of a synchronic corpus is the ‘Linguistic Variation in Chinese Speech Communities’ (LIVAC), containing representative synchronized texts from six Chinese communities.

Thirdly, corpora also differ on the nature of time- Static corpus and Monitor corpus.

- Static corpus- A collection of text that is designed with a specific time frame. Corpus built for this purpose are not maintained after its time frame. The content does not change. An example of a static corpus is the ‘Wellington Corpus’ (WWC), covering 1986 to 1990, representing New Zealand written English.
- Monitor corpus- It differs from a static corpus in that it is constantly updated and grows in size. Therefore, it is a much larger corpus evolving over time and can be used to track changes across time. An example of a monitor Corpus is the ‘Bank of English’ (BoE). Since its inception in 1980, the corpus has grown in size and presently has around 524 million words. Another example is the ‘Global English Monitor Corpus’ that was started in 2001.

Fourthly, depending on the feature of corpora and the purpose of its design, there are three different categories of corpora:

- General corpus- A collection of general texts providing a general representation of language. A general corpus does not belong to a single text type and can be used

for various linguistic studies. A well-known example of a general corpus is the ‘British National Corpus’ (BNC).

- Specialized corpus- A collection of texts belonging to a single subject or text type, or register, or domain-specific. Specialized corpus is designed for specific purposes. This type of corpus cannot be used for any other purpose other than its designed purpose. An example of a specialized corpus is the ‘Guangzhou Petroleum English Corpus’ specific to the petrochemical domain.
- Learner corpus- A collection of authentic texts produced by learners of a language. This type of corpus is related to the language classroom. The texts can be a product of foreign or second language learners. The learner corpus is significant in second language acquisition studies and to identify differences or difficulties faced by learners with reference to native speakers. A well-known example of a learner corpus is the ‘International Corpus of Learner English’ (ICLE). It constitutes the written text of advanced foreign language English learners from fourteen different language backgrounds.

In corpus studies, these different types of corpora overlap in their boundaries. For instance, a diachronic corpus or monolingual corpus can be discussed as a static or monitor corpus. Also, a learner corpus can be discussed as a monolingual corpus or static corpus. As seen from the different examples in the types of corpora, corpus is designed or compiled to serve several purposes. As this study focuses on language teaching-learning, the researcher will further discuss the role of corpus in language teaching.

2.6.2.1 BNC and COCA

The British National Corpus (BNC) is an example of a monolingual general corpus, a representative sample of written texts and spoken speech transcripts in modern British English. The creation of BNC began in 1991 and finished by 1994. This was done with the collaboration of three publishers (Oxford University Press, Longman Publishers, and W. R. Chambers Publishers), two Universities (University of Oxford and Lancaster University), and the British Library. The BNC corpus contains 100,106,008 (million words) organized in 4124 written texts and spoken transcripts. The spoken section comprising 10% of the total corpus comprises 863 transcripts of informal conversation selected from people belonging to different regions, ages, and social classes and spoken content from formal contexts like government briefings, business meetings, radio shows, and phone-ins (Xiao, 2003-2015⁸). The rest of the BNC content (90%) comprises different texts; fiction, magazines, newspapers, letters, academic and university essays. The spoken component of BNC helps in comparative-corpus dialect studies. Though BNC is a general corpus, it can be used for synchronic corpus research as the written component of the corpus can be divided into two periods: 1960-1974 and 1975-1992.

The Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) comprises 1.1 billion words of American English. It is a general monolingual corpus with the representation of both spoken and written content in American English. COCA is an example of a monitor corpus on account of its continuous updates since the creation of the corpus in 1990 by Mark Davis, professor at the Brigham Young University. Since COCA is five to six times larger than

⁸ source link (<https://www.lancaster.ac.uk/fass/projects/corpus/ZJU/xCBL/chapters/A07.pdf>)

BNC, the two corpora are integrated into corpus-based studies (Nation, 2004; Nation, 2016). This allows to refine the lists in terms of the off-list items and widen the scope of the written and spoken content to cover different genres and different periods. As a result, the compiled corpora is widely used in many corpus-based studies in language teaching. Some of the studies are Laufer and Nation (1995); Dongkwang and Chon (2011); Hajiyeva (2015); Yang (2016), Nation, 2004, Varela (2012), Nation (2012), and Szudarski (2017).

2.6.2.2 AWL

The Academic Word List (AWL) developed by Averil Coxhead (1998) at the Victoria University of Wellington is a representative list of words of academic text. The AWL is seen as an extension of the General Service List (GSL) compiled by West in 1953. In AWL, 570-word families were identified from an academic corpus of approximately 3.5 million running words of written academic text. This academic list constitutes four disciplines; arts, commerce, law, science, and 28 subject areas. To compile the AWL, Coxhead used three criteria for identifying words that could be selected for the AWL: the words families that occur frequently should be outside the 2000-word list of GSL, a member of the word family should occur at least ten times in the four disciplines and at least 15 times in the 28 subject areas, and members of the word family had to occur at least 100 times in the entire academic corpus (Coxhead, 2000; Newman, 2016). As a result, the AWL is stated to be “the main representative list of academic writing” (Yang, 2014, p. 29). Since the compilation of the AWL, it has been integrated with GSL and with the BNC/COCA for different corpus-based studies (Dongkwang and Chon, 2011; Csomay and Prades, 2018; Khani and Tazik, 2013; Chen and Ge, 2007; Chung and Nation, 2003).

2.6.3 Approaches in corpus research

With the advent of computerized corpora, linguistic researchers can check whether observed linguistic patterns are part of naturally occurring data across the language and speakers. According to Conrad (2002), there are four approaches in corpus-based research:

1. Investigating characteristics associated with using a language feature- focus on individual language features (words or grammatical constructions).
2. Examining the realizations of a particular function of language- focus on a function of language (lexico-grammatical patterns).
3. Characterizing a variety of language- focus on specific language variety in a specific domain (characterizing vocabulary).
4. Mapping the occurrence of a language feature through a text.

Corpus research embodies both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Biber, Conrad, and Reppen (1998) state that "A crucial part of the corpus-based approach is going beyond the quantitative patterns to propose functional interpretations explaining why the patterns exist. As a result, a large amount of effort in corpus-based studies is devoted to explaining and exemplifying quantitative patterns" (Biber, et al., 1998, p. 9). Thus corpus linguistics can characteristically be said to begin with quantitative findings leaning to qualitative interpretations. Therefore, corpus investigations involve the description and explanation of language structure and the use of language.

2.6.4 Corpus and language teaching

Hunston (2002) provides a very comprehensive view on the use of corpora in language teaching. "For language teaching, corpora can give information about how a

language works that may not be accessible to native speaker intuition...In addition, the relative frequency of different features can be calculated...Information such as this is important for syllabus and materials design” (Hunston, 2002, p. 13). According to Beeching (2014), there are three general ways in which corpus materials are connected with language teaching-learning: (1) how corpus can be used to create language teaching-learning materials, (2) how corpus can be used to explain what is presented in language teaching-learning materials, and (3) the role of learner corpora in language teaching-learning (Beeching, 2014).

Corpus studies in language teaching began in the late 1980s with the publication of the first corpus-based dictionary ‘Collins COBUILD English Language Dictionary’ for learners. This established the use of corpus linguistics in dictionary creation and reference materials for grammar (Gabrielatos, 2005; Flowerdew, 2012)). Corpora began to be used to identify patterns in the second language or foreign language speakers in terms of definite phrases and different linguistic features (Ellis, 2009; Granger, 2002).

With the advent of advanced technological developments, obtaining data from large corpora has become significantly easier. As a result, extensive research has been done on collocation patterns and distribution of words or grammatical constructions in corpora. Research work carried out in corpus-based analysis have pointed out how corpus-based findings have been instrumental in second or foreign language materials (Conrad, 2002; Biber, Douglas, Conrad and Reppen, 1998; Durrant and Schmitt, 2009; Bestgen and Granger, 2014; Gablasova, Brezina and McEnery, 2017; Paker and Ergül Özcan, 2017; Khojasteh and Shokrpour, 2014; Norberg and Nordlund, 2018; Chambers, 2019). Corpus research has thus been able to provide definite vocabulary statistics (Yang and Coxhead, 2020).

2.6.5 Defining features in corpus-based analysis

In the study of language materials, corpus analysis and evaluation provide information on the frequency profile of words, recycling index, word patterns, sentence structure, and representation of LSRW skills presented in the textbooks. In the present context where textbooks have become an indispensable part of the educational system, such quantitative and qualitative analysis is instrumental in the research on textbook design, development and evaluation.

2.6.5.1 Frequency lists

In corpus-based analysis, various types of frequency lists can be generated. The most common of the frequency list is the depiction of the count of token and type. This helps to compute the TTR in the text to show the lexical variation present in the text. Barnbrook (1996) discusses the need for frequency lists. “A frequency list for a corpus shows you the words that occur in it and the relative proportion that each contributes towards it. If your corpus is properly representative, this information can give a reasonably accurate picture of the language as a whole” (Flowerdew, 2012, p. 10). Flowerdew further explains that basic word frequency lists provide a good starting point for more detailed investigation into grammatical or content words in a text (Flowerdew, 2012). Another type of frequency list generated in this research is lemmatization. “Lemmatization involves grouping word forms from the same word class under the base or the uninflected form of the word” (Flowerdew, 2012, p. 12).

Overall, in this research, the different types of frequency lists generated are:

- Token and type count

- TTR
- Lemma count
- Recycling index
- Lexical Frequency Profile

The aspects analyzed in this frequency are discussed in earlier sections. An additional important feature in the corpus-based analysis is the collocational patterning, which is beyond the scope of this present research. Collocational patterns are discussed in terms of fixed and recurrent word combinations. Various studies have been conducted to observe collocation patterns in corpora (Hunston, 2002; Wang, Yang, Chang, Liu, and Hsieh, 2012; Stubbs, 1996; Sinclair, 2004; Myers and Chang, 2009; Zhang, Zhu, and Wan, 2018).

In the present study, corpus-based analysis is used to inform what is presented in the language textbooks.

2.7 Readability

In reading science, lexical and textual linguistic features play a significant role in comprehension in addition to the reader, his reading ability, interest, and motivation. McLaughlin (1969) focuses on this interaction between the text and its readers, their reading skill, prior knowledge, and motivation. Readability is defined as “the degree to which a given class of people find certain reading matter compelling and comprehensible” (McLaughlin, 1969, p. 639). DuBay (2007) states that two elements contribute to reading (DuBay, 2007). One element is the features of the reader, and the other element is the features of the text. Though the reader, his reading ability, interest, and motivation play a significant role in

reading, the book is a primary component. Gary and Leary (1935) discuss seventeen components that contribute to the features of the text (cited in DuBay, 2004):

1. “Average sentence length
2. Percentage of easy words
3. Number of words not known to 90% of sixth-grade students
4. Number of “easy” words
5. Number of different “hard” words
6. Minimum syllabic sentence length
7. Number of explicit sentences
8. Number of first, second, and third-person pronouns
9. Maximum syllabic sentence length
10. Average sentence length in syllables
11. Percentage of monosyllables
12. Number of sentences per paragraph
13. Percentage of different words not known to 90% of sixth-grade students
14. Number of simple sentences
15. Percentage of different words
16. Percentage of polysyllables
17. Number of prepositional phrases” (DuBay, 2004, p. 18)

These seventeen components can be classified under three broad categories: subject or content matter, the style of expression used on the content matter, and the format and organization of the content matter. Dale and Chall (1949) characterize these three categories into three different aspects: typography (“style of type, the spacing between lines, the length

of lines, the size of type, the width of margins, the colour of paper, etc., which make for optimal speed and ease of reading”), content and its effect on reading (“the subject matter, the themes and the elements in reading materials that appeal to different groups of readers”), and factors of the style of expression (“What kind of vocabulary, sentence structure and other expressional elements best suit the abilities of particular groups of readers?”) (Dale and Chall, 1949). It is on this third aspect that the concept of readability is defined as ‘comprehensibility’. According to Bailin and Grafstein (2016), “the study of readability is the study of those properties of written texts that aid or hinder the effective communication of ideas and information” (Bailin and Grafstein, 2016, p. 10).

In a similar manner, George Klare (1963) defines readability in terms of the style of writing (DuBay, 2004). Comprehension of text is thus bound by the degree of these features. Conversely, the more difficult and complex these features are, the more difficult it is to process the text. Later, subsequent research used sentence structure and vocabulary load as measures to measure comprehensibility.

2.7.1 Textbook readability

Readability refers to the level of difficulty that affects a person’s comprehension or the ease with which a person can understand a written text. Dale and Chall (1949) provides a comprehensive definition of readability:

In the broadest sense, then, readability is the sum total (including all the interactions) of all those elements within a given piece of printed material that affect the success a group of readers has with it. The success is the extent to

which they understand it, read it at an optimal speed, and find it interesting. (p.

23)

Though the concept of readability has been of interest for centuries, many researchers like Klare (1963), Chall (1988), Chall (1947), Lively and Pressey (1923), Fry (2002), DuBay (2004), and Dalecki, Lasora, and Lewis (2009) have acknowledged L. A. Sherman (1893) and Thorndike (1921) as the earliest researchers to use statistical analyses of text in measuring reading difficulty (discussed in Bailin and Grafstein, 2016). L. A. Sherman focused on readability in order to develop an objective method in selecting materials for teaching literature at the college level. Though Sherman heralded the beginning of readability research, he only attempted to “provide tools for selecting and sometimes creating texts that were easier to understand” (Bailin and Grafstein, 2016, p. 13). Assessing text in terms of readability formula followed later with the advent of graded instruction in the 1920s. Following this, the inclusion of immigrant students and students with prior formal education led to the need for presenting graded materials that would help students across different educational proficiency. In 1921, Thorndike attempted to develop tools that would help teachers to teach vocabulary. He focussed on vocabulary on the premise that unfamiliar words make a text more difficult to read. A word becomes unfamiliar because it is less frequently used. (Bailin and Grafstein, 2016).

The 1920s thus marked the beginning of incorporating readability as a factor in the field of education. Edgar Dale and Jeanne Chall (1949) point out that early researches carried out in readability were by educators who had to find some means of selecting books for different grades, “putting the right book into the hands of the right reader” (Dale and Chall, 1949, p. 19).

Though readability was considered a vital topic in the education literature between 1980 and 1995, the subsequent years (1995-2010) saw a decline in the interest in readability research. However, with the decline in students' ability to read complex text (Wray and Janan, 2013), textbook complexity has re-emerged as a significant issue in education literature.

2.7.2 Readability formulas

Post-1940s, the focus shifted from a readability research perspective to the need for developing a practical, ready-to-use measure. However, the premise remained the same; that is, the two measures of difficulty are vocabulary and sentence structure. Present research in computing readability has come a long way, with over 200 different formulas to measure readability. One of the traditional readability formulae still widely used to compute readability is the Flesch Reading Ease. Other commonly used formulas are Dale-Chall formulas, Gunning Fog Index, Fry's Readability Graph and McLaughlin's SMOG. Fry's Readability Graph and McLaughlin SMOG were just variants of the Gunning Fog Index. After the 2000s, readability formulas began to focus on linguistic and discourse features as measures that would affect the readability of texts. One such computational formula is the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula. Another additional measuring tool is the Coh-Metrix Common Core Text Ease and Readability Assessor.

2.7.2.1 Flesch Reading Ease formula

One well-known, highly regarded readability formula is the Flesch Reading Ease formula which indicates the reading ease of a text. Rudolf Flesch was concerned with developing a readability formula for written materials designed for adults. The formula devised by Rudolf Flesch in the early 1940s used two variables to compute the readability:

average sentence length in words and average word length in syllables. The Flesch Reading Ease formula is (Flesch, 1948):

$$206.835 - 1.015 \left(\frac{\text{total words}}{\text{total sentences}} \right) - 84.6 \left(\frac{\text{total syllables}}{\text{total words}} \right)$$

The computed score is between 0 and 100 and can be interpreted as 100 being extremely easy and 0 being unmistakably difficult to read. This classic readability measure takes into consideration word length, sentence length, and syllables. This is based on the positive correlation between ease of reading and shorter phrases or words.

Flesch discussion of his reading ease score scale is given in Table 1.

Table 1

Flesch Reading Ease score (DuBay, 2004)

Reading score	Style description	Estimated Reading Grade (U.S.)	Estimated Percent of U.S. Adults (1949)
0 to 30	Very difficult	College graduate	4.5
30 to 40	Difficult	13 th -16 th grade	33
50 to 60	Fairly difficult	10 th – 12 th grade	54
60 to 70	Standard	8 th and 9 th grade	83
70 to 80	Fairly easy	7 th grade	88
80 to 90	Easy	6 th grade	91
90 to 100	Very easy	5 th grade	93

Note: Source from DuBay (2004, p. 21)

In 1975, the Flesch Reading Ease formula was selected as one of the readability formulas by the US Navy to be validated for use by Navy personnel. This recalculation was done by testing 531 enlisted Navy personnel on their reading comprehension on Navy

personnel reading and training material. The objective of the study was to use the new validated readability formula to make the material easier to read (Kincaid, Fisburne, Rogers and Chissom, 1975).

As a result, a formula was devised jointly by J. Peter Kincaid and Rudolf Flesch, which later came to be called the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level. The Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level formula uses the same metric as the Flesch Reading Ease formula. The formula is (DuBay, 2004):

$$0.39 \left(\frac{\text{total words}}{\text{total sentences}} \right) + 11.8 \left(\frac{\text{total syllables}}{\text{total words}} \right) - 15.59$$

The computed grade level score in the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level corresponds with the US grade level (8.5 understood by 8th graders). The lower the number, the easier it is to read. In the present study, only the Flesch Reading Ease formula is used as the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level corresponds with the US grade level, which is entirely different from the Indian grade level.

2.7.2.2 Dale-Chall Readability formula

Another traditional readability formula is the Dale-Chall formula that focuses on vocabulary knowledge as a factor that affects readability. According to them, vocabulary is the most important factor, followed by sentence length (Dale and Chall, 1949). For this purpose, they used the ‘Dale expanded word list of 3000 words’ understood by 80% of fourth-graders to measure vocabulary difficulty. The Dale-Chall readability formula is (Dale and Chall, 1949):

$$0.1579 \left(\frac{\text{difficult words}}{\text{words}} 100 \right) + 0.0496 \left(\frac{\text{words}}{\text{sentences}} \right)$$

If the percentage of difficult words exceeded 5%, then 3.6365 should be added. This computed score would be the adjusted score. A lower score denotes that the text is easy to read, while a higher score means the text is difficult to read. The premise lies in the fact that readers find it easier to read when the words are familiar, making processing and recalling familiar. These traditional readability measures are based on the surface characteristics of the text like sentence length, word length and vocabulary. It does not take into consideration the deeper levels of text processing. Especially in the Dale-Chall formula, the readability measure depends on a fixed list of 3000 words which is problematic as vocabulary undergoes change and is not shared across all speakers of the language (Bailin and Grafstein, 2016).

2.7.2.3 Gunning Fog Index

The Gunning Fog Index proposed by Robert Gunning (1952, 1968) moved away from word lists (focussed in Dale-Chall formula) and counting syllables (focussed in Flesch Reading Ease). Instead, he identified “average sentence length to measure sentence complexity and the number of polysyllabic words to measure vocabulary difficulty” (Bailin and Grafstein, 2016, p. 42). While to compute sentence length, the number of sentences was checked per 100 words, to compute vocabulary difficulty, the number of words per 100 words with three or more syllables was checked. According to Bailin and Grafstein (2016), this resulted in ‘simplicity’, making it distinct from the more complicated Flesch Reading Ease formula and the Dale-Chall formulas.

Over the later years after the 2000s, it was observed that language-specific features like parts-of-speech, semantic features and discourse features significantly affect readability. (Feng, Jansche, Huenerfauth, and Elhadad, 2010; Phani, Lahari and Biswas, 2019). Thus, to

counter the limitations of the traditional readability formulas, the focus shifted to computational tools that would consider language-specific features.

2.7.2.4 Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula

The Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula is a unidimensional formula that predicts the readability of texts, particularly for second language readers. (McNamara, Graesser, McCarthy, and Cai, 2014). This readability measure for L2 text thus needs to account for L2 reader-based variables. Accordingly, the formula is sensitive to aspects like type, function, word frequency, and word redundancy in the text. “The Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula relates more to simple text complexity evaluation tools whose aim is to describe a text in accordance with its syntax, vocabulary, morphology, semantic, etc.” (Kiselnikov, Vakhitova, and Kazymova, 2020, p. 2). The Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score involves three variables: content word overlap, syntactic similarity, and lexical frequency from 103 computed indices. The Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score formula is (Crossley, Greenfield and McNamara, 2008):

$$- 45.032 + (52.230 \times \text{Content Word Overlap- CRFCW01}) + (61.306 \times \text{Sentence Syntax Similarity-SYNSTRUTa}) + (22.205 \times \text{Lexical Frequency-WRDFRQmc})$$

The content word overlap considers the proportion of content words that overlap between pairs of sentences or adjacent sentences. Sentence syntax similarity refers to the sentence-to-sentence syntax similarity computed by measuring the uniformity and consistency of syntactic constructions present in the text. Lexical frequency is the logarithm frequency of content words in the text (Crossley et al., 2008; Bailin and Grafstein, 2016; Graesser, McNamara, Louwerse and Cai, 2004). In other terms, the content word overlap is

referred to as the referential cohesion, sentence-to-sentence syntax similarity as syntactic complexity, and lexical frequency as word information (McNamara et al., 2014). This automated readability formula reports on these variables to select appropriate and authentic text. In the Coh-Metrix readability formula, the higher the indices, the more readable the text is.

2.7.2.5 Coh-Metrix T.E.R.A.

The Coh-Metrix Common Core Text Ease and Readability Assessor (T.E.R.A.) version of the Coh-Metrix is designed to analyse the “easability” and “readability” of texts. The Coh-Metrix- T.E.R.A. is based on the fact that “text difficulty is inherently multidimensional and follows a multilevel theoretical framework for language and discourse comprehension” (Graesser, McNamara, Cai, Conley, Li, and Pennebaker, 2014, p. 212). Coh-Metrix Text Ease Assessor (Coh-Metrix-T.E.A) analyses the text across several dimensions of content and provides scores for five components of text:

1. “Narrativity
2. Syntactic simplicity
3. Word concreteness
4. Referential cohesion
5. Deep cohesion” (Graesser, 2012, p. 215)

McNamara and Graesser (2012) define these different components. Narrativity depends on the mean count of verbs or common words per phrase. It relates to the overall story-like structure (McNamara and Graesser, 2012). According to Grassier et. al. (2014), narrativity is closely related to oral comprehension. So it involves the need for more dynamic

verbs in relatively smaller sentence structure. Second, syntactic simplicity refers to the syntactic structure of the text. The three parameters of syntactic complexity are the average number of clauses in sentences, the number of words in sentences, and the number of words in front of the main verb (Solnyshkina, Zamaletdinov, Gorodetskaya, and Gabitov, 2017). The third component, word concreteness refers to the proportion of concrete words to abstract words in a text. This is computed based on the Medical Research Council Psycholinguistic Database that contains a list of words based on specific attributes- linguistic and psycholinguistic. McNamara and Graesser themselves state that this tool has its limitations (McNamara and Graesser, 2012). Fourth, referential cohesion refers to the overlap between words in sentences. This is based on the premise that high cohesion text will have an overall of words and ideas across the sentences. This allows the reader to comprehend the text more easily in contrast to a low cohesion text (Grasser et al., 2014). The fifth component, deep cohesion, depends on the degree of connectives present between sentences in the text.

These components are characteristic of multiple levels of language and discourse going beyond traditional readability measures. For each of these components, the given score can be used to compare with other texts. Since these scores measure the ease of the text, the reversed scores depict the difficulty of the text.

2.8 Review of Literature

Review of related literature plays a vital role in the planning of a research study. In this light, a few relevant corpus-based and non-corpus studies, papers, and dissertations are reviewed in the context of investigating curriculum and textbook evaluation, textbook vocabulary evaluation, and textbook readability.

Divya Balachandran (2014) in her study focused on a critical analysis of the upper primary SCERT Kerala course books, with reference to KCF 2007. The KCF 2007 was conceptualized on the recommendations of the NCF 2005. With the KCF 2007, new upper primary course books were published on the reformed theoretical, ideological and pedagogical recommendations. According to Balachandran, the newly designed course books were based on a policy document and were implemented to be followed by every school irrespective of the diversity in learner's needs and types of school that catered to different strata of the society. On this account, she attempted to mainly answer the following questions through a critical analysis of the course books:

- “How far is it feasible for textbooks to fully implement the recommendations of the state curriculum framework document?
- What are the gaps that exist between policy and its implementation vis-à-vis the textbooks?” (Balachandran, 2014).

The researcher employed tools like questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and classroom observations to further investigate the relation of textbooks, its implementation and the role of the teachers along with their response and reaction to the new textbooks.

Analyzing the checklists of over four decades from 1970 to 2008, she used and modified ideas from the different checklists (the 1970s: Daoud and Celce-Murcia, Robinett, Tucker Haycraft, Bruder; the 1980s: Rivers, William, Cunningsworth, Mathews, Grant; the 1990s: Skierso, Bartlett and Morgan, Ur, Gearing, Littlejohn; and the 2000s: Byrd, McGrath, Rubdy, McDonough and Shaw, Tomlinson; as cited in Balachandran, 2014) to evolve a set of criteria that would satisfactorily cover all aspects of evaluating the Kerala Upper primary English

course books. The major aspects were: the layout of the textbooks, the selection and organization of elements in the textbook, its ability to reflect real-life and whether it satisfies learners' needs, and classroom activities. The insights gathered from this post-use evaluation could help teachers and educators reflect critically on the materials and help in the revision of the course books by rectifying the weak areas.

Haq Manwarul (2010) focused on the role of textbooks in teaching and learning English at the higher secondary level in rural Bangladesh. The researcher in his study observed that the English textbooks failed at motivating the learners. Therefore, he evaluated the textbooks with respect to how it helps meet learning objectives. The research tools included questionnaires, classroom observation and semi-structured interviews. Through his study, the researcher aimed at recommending steps that would improve teaching English at the higher secondary level in Bangladesh.

Pramod V. S (2005) investigated history education at the secondary school level in Kerala state. He analyzed the new history curriculum implemented in 2002-03 alongside the history curriculum implemented in 198-85 and 1992-93 by the Government of Kerala. He also investigated the learning strategies and methods of evaluation followed in schools. The researcher thus aimed at answering questions regarding the following aspects:

- What changes were made in the curriculum approaches, teaching methods and evaluation?
- What are the philosophical, psychological and sociological foundations of the curriculum framework?
- How far is the curriculum process-oriented?

- What learning strategies have been adopted?
- What are the pros and cons of grading in the curriculum?

Pramod conducted both an analytical and descriptive study. It was conducted in two phases; first, analysis of the history curriculum by the researcher and second, consolidation of viewpoints of experts and teachers for which interview schedules and questionnaires were prepared. The data was collected from 136 history teachers selected from 142 schools of Trivandrum and Kozhikode. It was analyzed by converting the responses to scores, one score for positive answers and zero scores for negative answers. These were then compiled in tabular forms and were classified for meaningful interpretations. One of the significant findings was that despite the new curriculum introducing innovative approaches like process-oriented, learner-centred, continuous and comprehensive evaluation, it was not efficient as the teacher-learner ratio remained the same, causing a major drawback in the effective use of classroom innovations. Other findings were:

- The history curriculum was found to be overloaded
- No proper specification of curriculum objectives
- Curriculum found to be not community-centred
- The history part in the curriculum was found to have lesser weightage when compared to other parts of social science
- There was also no proper sequencing which led to chronological errors
- The teacher's sourcebook was found to be incomplete, with no proper guidelines regarding the new innovative approaches of the curriculum

Based on these findings, changes were recommended in the revision of the history curriculum.

Gul Fatima, Syed Kazim Shah, Humail Sultan (2015) conducted an evaluation of the 7th grade (*Step Ahead 2*) and 8th grade (*Step Ahead 3*) English textbooks in the Pakistani context. First, the textbooks were quantitatively evaluated in the study following McGrath's (2002) methodology of dual stages (Impressionistic evaluation and In-depth evaluation) using evaluation checklists. In the impressionistic evaluation, the aspects evaluated were:

- Number of units in the textbook
- Number of activities in the textbook
- Number of lessons per unit
- Number of activities per unit
- Number of cultural units

Aspects in the in-depth evaluation involved:

- Activities for listening skills
- Activities for speaking skills
- Activities for reading skills
- Activities for writing skills
- Activities for computer skills
- Activities for thinking strategies
- Activities for vocabulary
- Activities for grammar
- Chapters for culture study.

These aspects were analyzed for the number of activities present in the respective skill and the different types of activities presented. A further qualitative analysis was done with the help of the checklists covering aspects of organization, content and aims of the activities. The qualitative and quantitative results showed that the LSRW skills were not given equal emphasis. While the number of writing tasks increased, the number of listening tasks and grammar activities was significantly less. In terms of the culture content, there was a higher exposure to foreign culture content. The researchers put forward implications and the scope of further studies. Overall, they pointed out the need for improving the textbooks, *Step Ahead 2* and *Step Ahead 3*.

A. Jahangard (2007) in his research evaluated four English Language Textbooks (ELT) taught in Iranian public high schools: *English Book 1*, *English Book 2*, *English Book 3*, and *Learning to Read English for Pre- University Students*. The research methodology involved a consolidation of 13 evaluation criteria from a review of 10 different evaluation checklists- Chastain (1971), Tucker (1975), Cowles (1976), Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979), Candlin and Breen (1979), Rivers (1981), Williams (1983), Sheldon (1988), Skierso (1991), and Ur (1996). The 13 criteria he proposed for evaluating the four ELT textbooks include:

1. “Are objectives explicitly laid out in an introduction, and implemented in the material?
2. Good vocabulary explanation and practice.
3. Approaches educationally and socially acceptable to target community.
4. Periodic review and test sections.
5. Appropriate visual materials available.
6. Interesting topics and tasks.

7. Clear instructions.
8. Clear attractive layout, print easy to read.
9. Content clearly organized and graded.
10. Plenty of authentic language.
11. Good grammar presentation and practice.
12. Fluency practice in all four skills.
13. Encourage learners to develop own learning strategies and to become independent in their learning” (Jahangard, 2007).

The result of the evaluation under each of these criteria showed a significant mismatch between the objectives proposed by the curriculum designers and the final goals of the ELT program. With reference to the criteria, explanation and use of vocabulary, it was seen that there was an incompatibility between the meaning of the words when introduced in different sections resulting in confusing the students. Also, there was a poor representation of new vocabulary items in the textbook. In terms of the merits of the textbook, Jahangard (2007) pointed out how among the four ELT textbooks, only *Learning to Read English for Pre- University Students* textbook was better suited in helping learners to develop learning strategies that are characteristic of good language learners. Though the representation of LSRW skills was limited, the textbooks had good use of authentic languages, attractive and interesting topics. However, the textbooks failed to meet some of the other evaluation criteria set by the researcher, namely: number of review exercises, good quality paper and clear layout, colourful illustrations, out-of-date topics, and textual instructions that went beyond the learner’s linguistic proficiency.

Cang Trung Nguyen (2015) evaluated *English 6*, the sixth-grade text for secondary schools in Vietnam, as part of her Ph.D. research work. The evaluation was performed in two stages: theoretical evaluation and empirical evaluation. The research design adopted a mixed-method approach involving questionnaires, document analysis, retrospective interviews and classroom observations. For the empirical evaluation, data were collected from 22 teachers and 313 students belonging to eight different schools from four different provinces in Mekong Delta. Nguyen adopted Tomlinson's (2003) textbook evaluation framework for her study. The other reviewed checklist included Cunningsworth (1995), Ellis (1991), Littlejohn (1998 and 2011), McGrath (2002), McDonough and Shaw (1993), Byrd (2001), Skierso (1991) and Ur (1996). In addition, Nguyen addressed the following research questions in the study:

- “What is the quality of the textbook? Is it appropriate to the language teaching-learning context in the Mekong Delta?
- How is the quality of the textbooks assessed by teachers and students?
- What are the recommendations posed by teachers and students for the improvement of the textbook?” (Nguyen, 2015)

Nguyen observed that the textbooks suit both the teaching, learning context and culture. Furthermore, the empirical evaluation showed a positive response from both teachers and students. Also, both types of the evaluation showed that the textbooks provide immense help to the teachers and students. Additionally, Nguyen presents the recommendations given by teachers and students and stresses the importance of conducting learner needs analysis before designing textbooks.

Azadeh Nemati (2009) performed two types of evaluation on the English Pre-University textbook of Karnataka state in India. One type of evaluation was a general evaluation with respect to selected general criteria in the form of a questionnaire. The second type of evaluation was a systematic evaluation of vocabulary. The questionnaire was adopted with features from previous evaluation checklists by Ur (1996), Cunningsworth (1995), Rivers (1987), Williams (1983), and Chastain (1971). The selected features included vocabulary teaching as the researcher deemed vocabulary as the foremost important aspect in the textbook. Around 26 teachers from 12 different government and non-government colleges took part in the study. They were asked to answer 38 Yes/No questions that were categorized into five main parts:

1. Logistical factors (availability and price)
2. Pedagogical factors (content and skill)
3. Human factors (teacher-friendly and learner-friendly)
4. Vocabulary factors (learning strategies)

The researcher observed that in evaluating the compiled corpus from fourteen units, 95% of teachers agreed on Logistical factors, 92.3% of teachers accepted the textbook is culturally acceptable, and 62% of teachers believed it was clearly organized in terms of easy to difficult. In terms of Pedagogical factors, 69% of teachers felt that the textbook devoted more to paragraph writing than on other writing exercises, and 84% of teachers agreed on the presence of communication activities. In the category of Human factors, while 64% of teachers believed it was learner-friendly, only 50% of teachers considered it to be teacher-friendly. Lastly, in the Vocabulary factors, only 40% of teachers were found to be satisfied with the vocabulary section. For the second phase of evaluation, Nemati selected five units at

random, excluding text and analyzed them using Nation's vocabulary profile. It was seen that there was an increasing rate of most frequent vocabularies from 500 to 1000 across the textbook except for one unit that had a very low frequency of easy words (K1). The researcher concluded that overall, only 70% of teachers agreed with the textbook being acceptable. Nemati also concluded that textbooks need to be designed keeping in mind the disparity existing in learners in the Indian educational context. Also, changes needed to be made in terms of grading with respect to vocabulary frequencies.

Sarinya Phunghaophan (2007) evaluated an English textbook *Super Goal 1* used in teaching the 7th grade at Thai schools that the Thai Watana Press published following the recommendations of the Standard Curriculum for Basic Education 2001. In Thailand, textbooks are published from several publishing houses and are not limited to just one. Therefore, the teachers get jurisdiction over what textbook should be followed, which leads to the question of whether the particular textbook selected is suitable for the given classroom learners' need. The researcher thus proposes a set of criteria that can serve as a measure in this respect. The objectives of the study are:

- An analysis of the content, topics, context and tasks in the textbooks.
- An analysis of whether the topics and content are suitable for the classroom with respect to the Standard Curriculum for Basic Education 2001.
- An evaluation of the four skills (Listening, speaking, reading and writing).
- To find if there are any errors in the textbooks.
- To observe the readability and reading level of the textbooks.

The subject material was the *Super Goal 1* textbook and sourcebook of the teachers. The tools included were: Fry's readability graph, Flesch-Kincaid reading level and checklists for evaluating textbooks. One of the analyses reported was the feature analysis: types of text- various types of text, colour- black and white, symbol or icon- significant or not, image and graphics- illustrations, pictures and photos. The following analysis conducted was the content analysis in which it was found that the textbook followed a grammatical and lexical syllabus along the lines of situational syllabus. The textbook evaluation checklists attempted to describe the content of the textbook in terms of skills to be learned, vocabulary, grammar units, exercise and activities provided. It was found that both the textbooks and the sourcebooks were suitable for use. The readability level was found to be adequate for the targeted 7th grade. The errors found were only spelling errors that the teacher could easily rectify in the classroom itself. The researcher summarizes the findings by recommending development in the textbook as there was scope for making the textbook more attractive and interesting. The researcher also puts forward further areas that could be analyzed, mainly phonology.

Shin Dongkwang and Yuah Vicky Chon (2011) conducted a corpus-based analysis of curriculum-based elementary and secondary English textbooks in the Korean English Foreign Language (EFL) context. A total of 140 textbooks, including activity books comprising 5,628,795 running words, were selected for analysis. The corpus-based analysis focused on the vocabulary profile of the textbooks. The research questions of this study were three-fold:

1. "What is the vocabulary level of the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology (MEST)-authorized textbooks and how do the results compare with native-speaker corpus?

2. What is the view of the stakeholders (students, teachers, and experts) on how vocabulary teaching and learning should be implemented in the new curriculum?
3. What are the implications of designing a subsequent word list?" (Dongkwang and Chon, 2011).

To examine the vocabulary profile of the MEST-authorized textbooks, the textbook corpus was analysed based on the 2000 high-frequency word families in the General Service List (GSL), the 570-word families present in the Academic Word List (AWL), and the 14000-word list of the British National Corpus (BNC). Further analysis involved comparing the 20 most frequent words in the textbook corpus against the Freiburg-LOB Corpus of British English (FLOB) and the Freiburg-Brown Corpus of American English (Frown). The comparative corpus-based analysis showed that only 32.22% of word families in the textbooks could be compared with the GSL and AWL, while 67.73% of words belonged to low-frequency going beyond the 2570-word level (GSL+AWL) or not in the list. Compared with the BNC 14000-word list, 12% of words were not listed in the BNC list. Also, the vocabulary level at the secondary school level (7430 words) exceeded the permissible number of words (3000 listed in the Basic Word List (BWL)) according to the National Curriculum of English. The comparative corpus evaluation with the Frown and FLOB corpora showed a mismatch in the use of high-frequency words (selected 20 most frequent words) between the textbook corpus and the analysed native-speaker corpora. In the following part of the analysis involving the view of stakeholders (600 responses including teachers, students, and experts), it was recommended that there must be a revision in the BWL in terms of the permissible number of words and representation of words.

Rosa María Jiménez Catalán and Rocío Mancebo Francisco (2008) conducted a corpus-based quantitative analysis on the vocabulary input in four EFL textbooks in two Spanish educational programs: 6th-year Primary education program (textbooks- *Join in 4* and *Super Bus 4*) and 4th-year Secondary education program (textbooks- *New Burlington Top Class for ESO* and *Changes for ESO*). Following a review of the different corpus-based studies on vocabulary frequency, the researcher outlined to answer the following objectives for each textbook in the different educational stage respectively:

- The number of word tokens and word
- The most frequent 50 words
- The most frequent 50 content words
- Shared vocabulary between the textbooks in each education stage
- Grading of vocabulary between the textbooks in each education stage

The analysed results showed a difference in the vocabulary input within the textbooks in both educational stages. In the Primary education program, there was a difference of 38 types and 1127 tokens. On the other hand, the difference between the vocabulary input in the two textbooks in the 4th stage Secondary education program was much larger- 526 types and 8198 tokens. Also, there is an appropriate increase of at least 2000 types in the Secondary education program between the two educational programs. However, though this incremental increase seems to be significant, it is not an adequate increase in vocabulary input considering a difference of four years between the two stages. Thus, the researchers propose the need to make changes in the textbook design so that textbooks at the same stage can contain equivalent vocabulary input.

Changzhong Shao (2016) carried out a longitudinal corpus-based study to explore the development of productive vocabulary with respect to lexical frequency profile and lexical complexity. The corpus included compositions by 30 English majors belonging to Grade one, two, and three in college. The compositions were collected from across six tests, totalling 180 materials. The research questions were two-fold:

1. What is the lexical frequency profile for each grade?
2. What is the lexical complexity for each grade?

The analysis was done using Range32, a computer software tool designed by Paul Nation and A. Coxhead (2002). The 180 composition materials were typed into the computer and analysed by LFP. The results showed that as the grade increased, the percentage of word types in the high-frequency word list (1-1000) were significantly lesser when compared to grade one. On the other hand, there was an increase in the use of the low-frequency words in grade three compared with grade one. This shows that the students tend to use more less-frequency words and less high-frequency words as the grades increase.

Furthermore, in terms of lexical complexity, it was seen that the ratio of academic words used in grade three was relatively more than in grade one and two. Thus lexical complexity increases with the increase in grade. Finally, the researcher points out the need for additional study on China's English teaching situation with a special focus on language output.

Thanaporn Srisunakruea and Tipamas Chumworataye (2019) explored the readability level and linguistic characteristics of the reading passages in the English textbooks (CPET) taught in grade 12 and the Thai National Education English Test (CONET). The first corpus

contained 155 reading passages and the second corpus contained 20 reading passages. The corpora were analysed using Coh-Metrix to answer the following research questions:

- What are the readability levels of the reading passages in CPET and CONET with respect to Flesch Reading Ease, Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability?
- What are the linguistic characteristics of reading passages in CPET and CONET with respect to eight linguistic characteristics (“narrativity, syntactic simplicity, word concreteness, referential cohesion, deep cohesion, verb cohesion, connectivity, and temporality?” (Thanaporn and Chumworataye, 2019).

The results showed that the readability levels from the two corpora were incongruent with reading passages of CPET easier to read than the passages in CONET. With respect to the second research question, the analysis showed significant differences in the linguistic characteristics of the reading passages. CPET had a higher narrative score indicating a text that is easier to read. Also, the reading passages of CPET accounted for higher referential cohesion value and temporality. On the other hand, CONET contained higher values in three features- word concreteness, deep cohesion, and connectivity. This is understandable given the nature of the second corpus. Between the two corpora, there were no significant differences with respect to syntactic simplicity and verb cohesion. The study illustrated the importance of considering readability level and linguistic characteristics when designing the text or reading passages of a textbook so that there can be compatibility between the texts and test.

Rahmad Hidayat (2016) investigated the readability level of the Senior High School grade XI semester 1 English textbook *Bahasa Inggris* published by the Ministry of Education and Culture of Indonesia in 2014 under *Kurikulum* 2013. The study employed the Flesch Readability Ease formula to analyse the content readability of the textbook. Five reading texts were selected from the textbook for analysis. The two measures of the formula, average sentence length and average syllables per word were computed separately and equated to find the Flesch Readability Ease score. The results showed that the five texts had an average readability score of 69.392 that is the standard difficulty level. The textbook was thus seen to match the expectations of the grade and was found to be readable. In this study, the Flesch Reading Ease score provided an accurate account of the text difficulty level, which is helpful in the second/foreign language setting. In addition, this readability score provides a reference for further studies on teachers' and students' opinions on the content of the textbook.

Elham Tabatabaei and Mohammad S. Bagheri (2013) analysed the readability of texts in relation with students' background knowledge and interest. The study set in the Iranian High School context analysed 30 reading passages of four English textbooks, *English Book 1*, *English Book 2*, *English Book 3* and *Learning to Read English for Pre- University Student*. The study had four objectives.

1. "To check the readability of the reading passages and whether the reading passages in the text are graded according to the readability score
2. To what extent the students are interested in or have background knowledge with respect to the reading passages in the text.
3. Whether there exists a relation between students' interest level and their background knowledge.

4. To consider the relationship between the students' interest level and background knowledge with the readability scores of the reading passages in the text" (Tabatabaei and Bagheri, 2013).

To find the student's interest and background knowledge, 120 participants were selected to answer a questionnaire that involved questions on the topics that interest them and how much knowledge they have beforehand. The readability score was computed using the Flesch Reading Ease formula. To find the extent of relationship between the different variables, regression and correlation analysis was carried out. The readability analysis of the textbooks showed that the textbooks were not in accordance with the difficulty level. Also, the passages in the textbooks are not logically ranked with regard to the readability score. In terms of students' interest and background knowledge, the questionnaire data revealed a low level of interest and prior background knowledge for the passages in the text. However, the data revealed a correlation between students' interest and background knowledge. Passages that involved prior background knowledge were found to have more interest. With respect to the final objective on the relation of the variables with readability, no correlation was observed between students' prior background knowledge and readability level.

On the other hand, a significant positive relationship was observed between the readability level and students' interest in *English Book 1*. An increase in readability score (making text easier) piped students' interest. This is in contrast to passages that had a higher difficulty level. The researcher proposes how changes must be carried out to incorporate students' interest and standard readability level in selecting textbook passages.

Marina Solnyshkina, Radif Zamaletdinov, Ludmila Gorodetskaya, and Azat Gabitov (2017) conducted a study on eight academic texts with similar Flesch Kincaid Grade level (8 and 9 indices) from the English textbook *Spotlight 11* approved by the Ministry of Education of the Russian Federation to be used for English language teaching in the 11th grade of Russian public schools. The study aimed to explore how the text complexity parameters correlate with each other using the T.E.R.A. tool. As the selected passages had a similar readability level, it provided a conclusive result on the correlation among the five text complexity parameters. One of the texts was excluded from the analysis as it was observed to have a really low narrativity score highlighting the descriptive nature of the text which would result in skewing the analysis. The narrativity score was observed to have a directly proportional ratio with word concreteness and an inverse ratio with deep cohesion. Word concreteness was also seen to have a strong correlation with Flesch-Kincaid Grade level. An increase in word concreteness score (lesser number of abstract words) decreases the Flesch Kincaid Grade level. The other three text complexity parameters, syntactic simplicity, referential cohesion, and deep cohesion, were observed to not correlate with the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level. This analysis provides a foundation where textbooks can be designed with relation to the cognitive and linguistic level of the students.

Aleksander Kiselnikov, Diliara Vakhitova, and Tatiana Kazymova (2020) analysed 13 academic texts from the English textbook *English for Engineers* recommended for all technical Universities in Russia by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education of the Russian Federation. The texts were analysed using the online computational tool, Coh-Metrix. The study involved three objectives:

1. What are the different readability indices of the texts?

2. Whether the texts are ordered as per any readability indices?
3. Whether there exists a correlation between the different computed readability variables?

Three readability indices were obtained during analysis; Flesch Reading Ease score, Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level, and the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score. The computed readability indices showed no logical ordering in the texts according to any of the readability measures. This clearly showed that there was a lack of implementation of readability formulas at the text design stage. With respect to the last objective, both indices were found to have a strong Pearson correlation with the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability indices.

2.9 Conclusion

The different concepts (curriculum, syllabus, textbook, corpus) discussed in this chapter are crucial to form a basic understanding of the research conducted. The review of various evaluation checklists shows how the evaluation process is “fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity, and that no neat formula, grid, or system will ever provide a definitive yardstick” (Sheldon, 1988: 245). From the discussion on textbook evaluation, it can be seen that this process involves assessing learning materials (textbook) to understand its value in successful classroom language teaching and learning. Among the ten evaluation checklists reviewed, five of them (Cunningsworth (1995), McGrath, (2002), McDonough and Shaw (1993), Littlejohn (1998 and 2011), and Byrd (2001)) are discussed in detail as the present research incorporates its approach and methodology in the study.

Discussions on ‘Text Analysis’ and ‘Readability’ introduce the different factors employed in this present study to conduct a critical review of the SCERT Kerala English

textbooks at the secondary level. Specifically, the systematic evaluation of vocabulary requires a comprehensive understanding of token, type, TTR, word frequency, and word recurrence.

The review of literature discussed in the last section (2.11) involved an overview of 16 studies. Of the 16 studies, three studies purely dealt with curriculum evaluation and exploring how the textbook meets the curriculum objectives. Another three studies reviewed research carried out in the textbook evaluation. The selected studies differed in terms of the evaluation framework adopted, though they all employed questionnaires or checklists. Two other reviewed studies involved both a general textbook evaluation and vocabulary evaluation. Three corpus-based studies on textbook vocabulary evaluation and vocabulary frequencies are also reviewed. Lastly, five studies on different aspects of readability employing different readability formulas are reviewed. Thus, the reviewed studies contribute to the present study in creating an appropriate evaluation checklist, investigating vocabulary evaluation, and estimating textbook readability level.

Chapter 3: Curriculum Frameworks

3.1 Introduction

This chapter introduces the NCF, KCF, and CEFR. It briefly discusses the history of education in India and Kerala in particular. It throws some light on the history of CEFR and discusses the illustrative scales and descriptors of CEFR. The chapter also deals with the general and language tenets of the NCF 2005 and KCF 2007. Finally, a special focus is drawn on the comparisons among NCF, KCF and CEFR and answers the question of why CEFR can be evaluated as part of the Kerala educational system.

3.2 National Curriculum Framework (NCF)

The NCF 2005 is the latest curriculum framework published by the NCERT formed in 1961. The previous three frameworks were published in 1975, 1988, and 2000. These documents provided the groundwork for making syllabi, forming textbooks, and deciding teaching practices within the school's educational programmes in India. The NCF 1975 and 1988 followed the recommendations of the 1968 and 1986 Education Policy, respectively. The subsequent NCFs (after 1988) have been revisions of the prior curriculum frameworks with reference to the changes and developments in the educational programmes in India and in light of the report, Learning without Burden 1993.

3.2.1 Education policy in India

The different education policies in India reflect the current situation of education in India. The history of education policy can be classified into two historical periods; pre-independence and post-independence. In the pre-independence period, the British government played a significant role in shaping the education system. Though the British

government's purpose was to produce educated clerks for administrative work, they helped establish schools and colleges. After India's independence in 1947 and the adoption of the Constitution in 1950, education became the responsibility of both the central and state governments. Following this, different Education Commissions were set up to address the challenges and recommend policies for improving the education system in India.

The different education policy and curriculum frameworks proposed after the independence of India are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

National policies and curriculum frameworks in India

<u>National Policy on Education</u>	<u>National Curriculum Framework</u>
1968	
1986	1975
Revised 1986 (1992)	1988
	2000
	2005
<u>National Education Policy 2020</u>	

3.3 NCF 2005

The NCF 2005 was formulated when the educational programmes were dominated by curriculums based on the principles of behaviourism. In such a methodology, the child's individual learning capacity is ignored, denying every child's potential. The NCF 2005 brought about a paradigm shift from this existing system by establishing “the need to recognize the child as a natural learner, and knowledge as the outcome of the child's own

activity” (p. 12). The fundamental change is to move away from the teacher-centred perspective of education towards a ‘child-centred education’. This child-centred pedagogy meant giving “primacy to children’s experiences, their voices, and their active participation” (p. 42). It provided them with an opportunity to critically reflect on issues with respect to their political, social, economic and moral aspects. This approach to learning also incorporated the constructivist perspective in which the learners actively construct their knowledge by connecting new ideas to old ideas from their experience. Accordingly, the revised curriculum emphasized a holistic approach to the learner’s development and learning.

3.3.1 Language tenets of NCF

In a language curriculum, the first and foremost goal is to attain basic proficiency in the language. The second goal is its development as an instrument for knowledge acquisition and abstract thought. The NCF 2005 guidelines on language uphold the multilingual⁹ character of Indian society. The curriculum emphasizes the need to implement the three-language formula¹⁰ to promote multilingual proficiency and national harmony. The focus should be on the “recognition of children’s home language(s) or mother tongue(s) as the best medium of instruction (these include tribal languages)” (p. 127). Language teaching thus “needs to be multilingual in terms of the number of languages offered to children and in terms of evolving strategies that would use the multilingual classroom as a resource” for the enrichment of school life (p. 37).

⁹ Multilingualism in education refers to the use of two or more languages as medium of instruction.

¹⁰ Three-language formula: In the Hindi speaking states, the languages taught must be Hindi, English and any other Indian language. In the non-Hindi speaking states, the languages taught are the regional language, English and Hindi.

In this multilingual scenario, English has become a global language at the academic, social and political front. In the NCF 2005, it is stated that “the aim of English teaching is the creation of multi-linguals who can enrich all our language; this has been an abiding national vision” (p. 39). However, the English language teaching situations are heterogeneous because of the variation in English proficiency across teachers and the learner’s exposure to English outside the classroom. English as a language also cannot stand alone in the curriculum. Instead, it must find its place along with other Indian languages in different states to curtail the perceived hegemony of the English language. English must also “be seen in relation to other subjects” as it will help “bridge the gap between ‘English as a subject’ and ‘English as medium of instruction’”(p. 39). For this, an across-the-curriculum approach should be adopted. In such an approach, language learning will be taught and facilitated in language classrooms and other subject classrooms. This provides the student with the opportunity to develop and use their skills in English in non-language courses.

When English is introduced, the main aim at the initial level includes developing the child’s familiarity with the language in meaningful situations to help them build a working knowledge of the language. The Position Paper, titled ‘National focus group on the teaching of English’ published by NCERT in 2006, discusses in detail the goals of a language curriculum with regard to English and the shape of the curriculum with respect to the resources it needs and the procedures involved. It notes that one way for a true production is through ‘pseudo production’ in which the input provided, such as rhymes, poems, greetings, requests, short stories, and others, are mimicked. At a later stage, pseudo-production can lead to the true production of language. Subsequently, a holistic approach must be promoted through these pre-literacy activities by complementing the top-down approach (recognition of

whole words) with the bottom-up approach (letter-sound mapping). Other pre-literacy activities in the classrooms could be displaying charts, signs, notices, labels, and labelling diagrams. These oral and print pre-literacy activities can develop the child's ability to relate the spoken and written language codes and promote language growth in the early years.

The higher-order skills, vocabulary, reading, and writing are focused at the later levels of English. Lexical knowledge is crucial to communicative competence and the acquisition and development of a language. Prior research has shown that vocabulary is not learnt all at once but is a continuous process that involves a gradual increment through listening and extensive reading. With adequate language teaching in the early years, there can be a natural development of higher-order skills independently. From prior research, the encyclopaedia approach where word meaning is formed with the association of contexts and other words is observed to be better in the development of language when compared to the traditional dictionary approach in which word meanings are learned.

An acknowledged method to introduce writing at the later stages is through authentic letter writing tasks. The traditional method of writing essays on well-known topics should be replaced with written study skills that involve note-making, note-taking, and reference skills. In addition, spoken and written communication skills can be developed through public speaking, conducting interviews, participating in debates, analysing logical, emotional arguments, and exposure to well-known speeches.

The introduction of grammar is best done on the foundation of basic linguistic competence. Grammar should not be seen as a tool for developing the primary knowledge of the language. Instead, it should be seen to expand language repertoire. At the later stage,

grammar is a means of reflecting on the academic language, meaningfully using dictionary entries that incorporate grammar in its notes and understanding the construction of argumentative and rhetoric text.

Materials for classroom purposes include both print and multimedia formats. In addition to accessible and culturally appropriate pieces from literature (prose, fiction, and poetry), materials must cover contemporary issues dealing with the “perspective of equity (gender and societal) and harmony (between humans, and between humans and nature)” (NCERT Position Paper, 2006, p. 11). Provisions for optional study of literature in English (British and American) and literature in translation (Indian, European, Commonwealth, etc.) are provided. “Literary appreciation and the role of language in gendering” (NCERT Position Paper, 2006, p. iii) are additional higher-order skills that “can be developed once fundamental competencies are ensured” (NCF 2005, p. 39).

Presently in English classes of regional-language context, the mother tongue creeps in like an unwelcome intruder as the teacher translates and explains text before answering questions. This can be given a legitimate position by using the first language effectively to give the background information necessary for the subsequent understanding of the text in English. Materials provided should address the range at which language mixing is admissible at different levels. Tolerance must be developed in the use of the different languages via code-mixing and code-switching in the classroom. In this light, the introduction of parallel text in more than one language would be very effective. Such translations though imperfect, would help reconstruct the attempted expressions in the unknown language with the known language. Also, concurrent reading of parallel text develops reading skill as improvement of reading in one language results in improved reading in the other language because reading is

a transferable skill. Another suggestion is to produce bilingual learners' dictionaries as it encourages bilingualism, literacy, and independent reading and comprehension of the input text. One major factor is not to view these attempts as a means to dilute the English curriculum but rather as a means to elevate the delivery systems for the easy transaction of English in and out of classrooms.

In contrast to the above scenario, in the English-medium context, a learner is faced with a lack of usable knowledge in any language other than English. To counter this, texts from Indian writing in English and translations from Indian languages have been introduced. For better results, the interaction between English and other Indian languages must be focused by introducing parallel texts in the original language and English. An additional option includes newspapers and magazines with parallel language editions and parallel television channels into the materials and classroom teaching. This integration of resources must happen at all levels of education.

The above discussions provide a comprehensive view of how the textbook must be designed with respect to the curriculum. However, in the present scenario, curriculum freedom does not exist, as the teacher and learner control over textbooks is limited on account of a single prescribed text. This can be rectified by implementing the practice of having a range of textbooks from which the teacher and learner can choose based on their situation and needs. Furthermore, the focus of the textbooks should be 'dynamic'. This refers to the exposure to new occurrences of language every day instead of the same repeated text. By allowing the use of the learner-chosen text- authentic materials from articles, books, print news or features, etc., to enter classroom discussions, learners are encouraged to read extensively. Additional sources can be radio or television news and also cartoons, small

paragraphs, or jokes. Presently, there is a dearth in the range of imaginative literature and creative text that can be rectified only by providing more space for text. Accordingly, a balance must be developed between the use of predictable textbook material and learner-chosen unpredictable text.

One important factor behind an effective curriculum is the effectiveness of its implementation. This depends on the proficiency of the teacher and understanding of language learning, the processes of language and literacy acquisition. Another factor that has become an obstacle to curriculum reform is the examination process or the assessment of language. Currently, the evaluation of language is observed to hamper language learning instead of enabling it. The two ways in which language evaluation can be conducted with respect to all the different language skills are ongoing continuous evaluation and summative evaluation. However, these two earlier mentioned points (teacher education and assessment) are not discussed here as it is beyond the attempted research scope.

In conclusion, it can be seen that an input-rich curriculum is necessary for a holistic approach in language growth and to promote multilingualism. This is possible only with the inclusion of a variety of materials that focuses on different language skills. Thus, the thrust of the new syllabi must be to create a meaningful context for language acquisition. Concisely, research must be initiated to comprehend the progress of the current curriculum and suggest future effective innovations in curriculum design and implementation.

3.4 Kerala Curriculum Framework (KCF)

The KCF 2007 is the latest curriculum framework formulated for Kerala state's entire educational context. In 1997 the state took its first effort to formulate a comprehensive

curriculum focusing on teaching and learning following the NCF 1975 and NCF 1988. Steps were then taken to implement the National Policy of Education (NPE 1986 revised in 1992) and Programme of Action (1992). Though official national educational reforms began in 1968 with the National Policy on Education in 1968, education in Kerala has a much longer history. The history of education in Kerala can be traced as early as the Vedic system of education in the years 5000 BC to 650 AD with the rise of Adi Shankaracharya. However, it was the Christian missionaries in the 19th century that laid the foundation of modern education in Kerala. The long history of education in Kerala has led to the high literacy rate in Kerala. The 2011 census ranked Kerala as the state with the highest literacy rate of 93.91%. This is following the high literacy rate recorded in 2007 that was at 90.86%. This achievement in Kerala is linked to the provision of free universal primary education, easy access to education, low drop rate during schooling, and gender equality in imparting education.

3.4.1 Early education in Kerala

The present state of Kerala comprises three princely states; Travancore, Cochin, and Malabar. The Travancore and Cochin zones played a crucial role in the present-day high literacy among the states of India. As a Hindu state, the Travancore state had initially solely patronized the education of Brahmins, disregarding the education of the masses. Early education was under the purview of the “asans”, village schoolmasters in indigenous schools called ‘pial’ schools” (Koji, 1994, p. 140). Various castes; Ambalavasi and Nayar were involved in indigenous education. After the 1860s, the Travancore state established several government vernacular schools to help spread education. Consequently, the indigenous schools began to be regarded as inferior institutions. The 1889-90 Administration Report

stated that the indigenous schools could not be “regarded as valuable instruments for the regeneration of the masses” (Koji (1994) quoted from The Administration Report 1889-90, p. 149).

However, the advent of Christianity and subsequent teaching of Christian theology and learning led to the establishment of different institutions. The arrival of Portuguese and Dutch missionaries in the 16th century and the influence of British rule in the 19th century made significant contributions to education. Though the initial teachings were dedicated to the teachings of Christianity, “Christian values are ultimately human values” and religious conversions, the institutions began to become “centres of imparting the human values such as equality, freedom” that gradually penetrated “in to the native societal structure” (Sheeba Kumari, 2011, p. 123).

3.4.2 Advent of modern education in Kerala

The critical aspects that aided modern education were the contributions by the Travancore Royal Family and the role played by the Christian Missionaries. With the issue of the Royal Rescript in 1817, education became the state’s primary concern. Following this, the first English school was set up in Trivandrum, which marked the beginning of English education in Travancore (Mettleda, 1983). Though the Travancore government established several English schools, the Christian missionaries still dominated the area of education. The formation of the “London Missionary Society (LMS) in 1795 and the Church Missionary Society (CMS) in 1799” paved the way for the educational activities and progress by the Christian Missionaries (Mathew, 1999). The government thus continued to depend on the missionaries for the education of officials. It was only after the 1860s; the state took organized efforts to expand vernacular and English education.

3.4.3 Educational reforms in 1860s

The first organized step taken to expand education was during the time of Sir Tanjore Madhava Rao, Diwan of Travancore (1857- 1872). Along with general financial and legislation development, he paid great attention to education. Sir T. Madhava Rao created a 'Vernacular Education Department' establishing separate Malayalam schools (Mettleda, 1983). The subsequent years thus saw an increase in the number of English and vernacular schools. In 1866, 'Taluq Schools' were opened in the various taluq of Travancore in addition to the 'Central School' established in Trivandrum (Koji, 1994). Thus at the end of 1868-69, there were around 29 vernacular schools across Travancore (Mathew, 1999). Sir T. Madhava Rao also paid great attention to female education, establishing female schools.

Education in vernacular schools was modelled on the system of education that existed in English schools. Accordingly, a 'Book Committee' was created to translate textbooks taught in the English schools into Malayalam to be used in the vernacular schools (Koji, 1994). Following this, in 1894-95, the Education Department revised the 'grant-in-aid' rules and passed a code of rules as the 'Travancore Educational Rules'.

The 'Travancore Educational Rules' assisted in prescribing the curriculum in vernacular and English schools, determining the qualification of teachers, the state of the school building, the sanitation of aided schools, and the inspection system (Koji, 1994). The subsequent years did not witness any substantial changes until 1902.

3.4.4 Educational reforms in 1900s

The Travancore Educational Rules introduced in 1894-95 were revised in 1902. Based on this revised curriculum, schools were classified as High, Middle, Upper Primary, and

Lower Primary (Mettleda, 1983; Mathew, 1999). Efforts were taken to develop each class syllabus in the different subject areas; Domestic Economic, Agriculture, Practical Geometry, Hygiene and Drawing. Among the different classifications of schools, the vernacular language was introduced as a medium of instruction in the Upper Primary and Lower Primary. In these schools, English was taught only as the second language.

3.4.5 Education Code of 1909-10

The education code introduced in 1909-10 superseded all the education policies and reforms that took place until then. The Education Code brought about changes in the classification of schools, conditions of grant-in-aid, school management, curriculum, and teacher's qualification. The Education Code also introduced the School Leaving Certificate scheme (Mettleda, 1983; Nair, 1976; Koji, 1999).

As per the stipulation of the Education Code 1909-10, schools were reclassified into Secondary and Elementary schools. Thus, it separated elementary education (vernacular education) from secondary education (English education). Another significant tenet of the Education Code was the introduction of the School Leaving Certificate scheme. This scheme was intended to grant certificates to students who have completed their secondary course.

Later in 1933, a permanent School Leaving Certificate Board was established that became responsible for the conduct of examinations and prescription of textbooks for the secondary course.

3.4.6 The introduction of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate (S.S.L.C)

In 1949, following the integration of the two princely states, Travancore and Cochin, vernacular schools were abolished across the state. With this abolition, the School Leaving

Certificate Examinations began to be uniformly called the Secondary School Leaving Certificate (S.S.L.C.) Examination in 1951 as there was no need to distinguish between the two types of schools, vernacular schools and English schools. The first S.S.L.C. examination was held in 1952. Subsequent years saw the introduction of a Committee to examine the existing syllabus and curriculum of the different subjects in schools. Accordingly, a new vocation and craft-oriented syllabus (commerce, printing technology, domestic science, agriculture, needlework, etc.) were introduced in the different schools.

3.4.7 Formation of Kerala State

The state of Kerala was formed on 1st November 1956 following the reorganisation of Indian states along linguistic lines. Consequent to the integration of the three princely states, the Education Department was reorganized along with the reorganization and classification of academic schools. The Kerala Education Bill introduced in 1957 following the formation of the Kerala state was modified and passed by the State Assembly in 1958. It was then enforced as the Kerala Education Act 1958. The Act gave way to the formation of the Kerala Education Rules 1959, which classified schools for general education into primary and secondary schools. Secondary schools providing three-year courses with standards VIII, IX, and X were called ‘High Schools’

3.4.8 Kerala Education Act 1958

The Kerala Education Act 1958 aimed at providing “better organization and development of educational institutions in Kerala” (The Kerala Education Act- 1958). The Act was crucial in uniting school education that existed in the three states, Travancore, Cochin, and Malabar. The Act introduced several legislative measures that involved organisation and management of schools, qualifications and salaries of teachers, distribution

of maintenance grant to aided schools, and establishment of academic administrative personnel (District Educational authorities, Educational Development Committee) (The Kerala Education Act- 1958). An additional tenet of the Act was the Compulsory Education section: “the Government shall provide for free and compulsory education of children throughout the state within a period of ten years from the commencement of this act” (The Kerala Education Act- 1958, p. XIV). Recommendations of the following expert committees were accepted to introduce changes in the syllabus. The 1961 Syllabus Revision Committee played an important role in the preparation of the syllabus. With the revision of the S.S.L.C. examinations in 1964, the revised 1961 syllabus came into force (Mettleda, 1983).

3.4.9 Early educational curriculum reform

Between 1957-59, the government emphasized the need to develop scientific education in school. Accordingly, textbooks in General Science were published along with the distribution of periodicals and scientific appliances. During this time, the mother tongue, Malayalam, continued to be the medium of instruction in state schools. The government also took the initiative to develop Hindi education in the state to strengthen national integration.

In the move to improve efficiency in education, the government attempted to reform the school syllabus. By 1959, the government had published textbooks in language and different non-language subjects. Textbooks were thus standardized, and a central system of textbook distribution was introduced in the state. The 1958-59 attempt to revise textbooks can be seen as the first unified attempt to publish and prescribe textbooks based on experts' recommendations under the ‘Text-Book-Writing Committee’ for each subject (language and non-language) (Mettleda, 1983). However, these attempts of syllabus revision were subject to flaws and disapproval on account of the content and language variant used in the textbooks.

3.4.10 Curriculum reforms and framework

The official curriculum reforms began with the formation of the SCERT Kerala in 1994 by the Kerala State Government. SCERT Kerala was formed along with the NCERT lines set up in 1961 by the Government of India.

The first official curriculum formulated in Kerala was the KCF 1997. The KCF 1997 focussed on the process of teaching and learning following the recommendations set out in the NCF 1975 and NCF 1988:

Rooted in the emerging methodology and strategies, an integrated method of learning, a process-oriented, activity-based approach, viewing learner as a constructor of knowledge, recognizing the role of society in knowledge construction and the idea of continuous and comprehensive evaluation came into effect. (p. 15)

Though there is not much available discussion on the KCF 1997, the same tenets are focused in the KCF 2007. The KCF 2007 also followed the recommendations of the NCF 2000 and NCF 2005. Later on, KCF 2013 was developed by SCERT Kerala for Higher Secondary education.

3.5 KCF 2007

The old culture of a passive classroom with the teacher at the centre of language teaching and learning was discarded. In its place, the learner became the active participants and at the centre of the learning process. This new model was founded on the NCF 2005 perspective of critical pedagogy and constructivism. However, the KCF 2007 goes one step further by incorporating the perspective of social constructivism in its curriculum reform. The

curriculum stresses activity-based, process-oriented learning, “enquiry-based learning, and liberal democratic learner-friendly approach that lead to the overall development of the learner” (KCF 2007, p. 13). As KCF 2013 majorly impacted the curriculum for higher secondary education, it is not discussed in detail. However, the question of whether such a change in curriculum has affected the older framework of secondary education needs to be seen.

3.5.1 Language tenets of KCF

In Kerala, “learning of English language begins at class I”, and later, “at the higher secondary level, English is taught as the first language” (KCF 2007, p. 45). “The new curriculum of language is based on the principles of Social Constructivism, Linguistics, and Neuro-Psychology” (KCF 2007, p. 39). The ideas emerging from Gestalt-Psychology¹¹ and Humanism also helped shape the perspective of language learning (KCF 2007). Primarily, the KCF 2007 brought a shift in the language pedagogy that taught English with letters and sounds. The old textbook material presented isolated letters, words, and sentences in a structured linear fashion. However, the later development of teaching methodology on the principles of behaviourism under the innateness of language approach resulted in the revision of practices like imitation and repetition.

In Kerala, the first step towards reforms in English teaching-learning, with subsequent changes in syllabus design and textbooks, happened with the Second Language Acquisition

¹¹ “Graf Christian von Ehrenfels took the holistic approach to learning by putting forth the idea that learning takes place as students were able to comprehend a concept in its entirety rather than broken up into parts.” (Britannica Encyclopedia). Source (<https://www.britannica.com/science/Gestalt-psychology>)

Programme (SLAP). SLAP is the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP)¹² to teach English as a second language. It was conceived by Dr K. N. Anandan, a consultant of DPEP, Kerala. The “programme bases itself on the convergence of linguistics and the methodology of language teaching. It is also heavily influenced by Noam Chomsky’s theory on Universal Grammar and the Whole Language Approach of Constance Weaver” (Sreejith, 2020, p. 19). Though the DPEP was formulated for enhancing primary education strategies, it emanated a change in the syllabi design and textbook material of secondary education. In an interview with P. K. Jayaraj (2012), Dr K. N. Anandan emphasized the need behind the formulation of this programme, which is giving primary importance to language acquisition by focusing on a holistic approach to language teaching.

A language cannot be acquired by simply learning the elements of the language and practising language skills. Instead, the language exists only as meaningful discourses and thereby, both the output and input should be in the form of discourses. This pedagogical model came to be called the Discourse Oriented pedagogy. In this, the textbooks did not have slots for practising language elements and vocabulary. Instead, they contained discourse tasks that cover both language elements and skills. The revised textbooks thus moved away from skill-based pedagogy to discourse-based pedagogy. After the formulation of the KCF 2007, the Kerala textbook writing team revised the textbooks from class I to X. The team followed the issue-based approach, which contrasts with the theme-based approach followed in NCERT textbooks and recommended in NCF 2005. In the former, the contents revolved

¹²“DPEP was conceptualized from the National Policy on Education (NPE) that was formulated in 1986 and updated in 1992. It was introduced at the national level in 1993 with the aim to develop efficient strategies for enhancing education at the state and district level. The approach considered the spiral form of learning and its implementation resulted in the development of a child-centered curriculum framework.”

around social issues which had local and global implications. On the other hand, in a theme-based approach, the issues or themes discussed will be independent of the interaction with the context or culture.

In terms of language skills and language competence, the KCF 2007 follows the same route as the NCF 2005. At the primary level, the learners are exposed to simple discourses such as rhymes and conversations. In contrast, at the upper primary level, the learners are exposed to higher discourses such as story, poem, proverb, letter, and notice in the latter. At the secondary level, along with the discourses mentioned above, one-act play, autobiography, screenplay, biography, and travelogue are attempted. In addition, the higher discourses such as novel, essay, script, and seminar are included at the higher secondary level. The KCF 2007 recognizes the need for various learning materials instead of a single textbook and additional resources like movie clips, newspaper extracts containing social issues, and interactive CDs.

The KCF 2007 and KCF 2013 highlight the significance of integrating Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the classrooms to facilitate language skills learning.

3.6 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)

CEFR published in 2001 focussed on second/foreign language teaching and learning in a plurilingual and multilingual education. CEFR provides a thorough insight into what language learners need to communicate using a language. In addition, it provides a standard reference toolkit, a common basis for language textbooks, curriculum, and examinations across Europe and other countries.

3.6.1 History of CEFR

The history of CEFR is entwined in the history of the Council of Europe (CoE). Following the destruction caused by the Second World War and the subsequent Cold War, Europe found itself in a state of discord. The post-war situation necessitated the need to promote and develop mutual understanding and tolerance amidst the cultural disharmony and linguistic diversity. With this objective, the CoE was founded by ten western European countries in 1949. It aimed to restore and develop communication, co-operation, democracy, and common rule of law. It now has 47 member countries and five observer countries. The historical period that led to the launch of the official CEFR in 2001 can be reviewed under different stages.

3.6.1.1 Formation of the CoE

After the inception of the CoE, in December 1954, the then members of the CoE ratified the European Cultural Convention considering the aim of the CoE. The European Cultural Convention was adopted to “foster among the nations of all members and of such other European states as may accede thereto, the study of the languages, history and civilization of the others and of the civilization which is common to them all” (European Cultural Convention, 1954). This signalled the first step of CoE in the field of language education.

Although the European Cultural Convention was adopted, it took another five years for a language policy for Europe. Subsequently following the suggestion, the French government and a Committee of Experts were set in 1959 to plan the development of Modern Language Teaching.

3.6.1.2 Major Project in Modern Languages

In 1962, the French government proposed the institution of a European Institute of Applied Linguistics that would be modelled on the Centre for Applied Linguistics in the United States. This proposal was rejected on account of the expense it would incur. In its place, the member states launched the Major Project in Modern Languages (1963-1972). It encouraged “co-operation among the successive sectors of the educational system” and “co-operation among corresponding sectors in different European countries”. It “promoted the interaction between the university language research and language teaching profession”. It encouraged “the development and use of audio-visual technology and methodology in language teaching” (Trim, 2001, p. 3). The Major Project in Modern Languages also established the institution, International Association for Applied Linguistics (AILA), recognizing applied linguistics as an academic discipline (Trim, 2001).

Work carried out under the Major Project in Modern Languages followed the basic tenets posited in Resolution (69)2 (1969) which is provided in Appendix B. This resolution adopted by the Ministers’ Deputies on 25th January, 1969 proved to be a milestone in the history of language teaching of the 20th century. It emphasized the importance of safeguarding the linguistic and cultural diversity of European heritage. It affirmed the need to study modern languages to ensure mutual understanding and complete cooperation in Europe. The Resolution (69)2 rejected the notion of language only for the elite, emphasizing that the study of modern languages should be made available to all irrespective and become a source of information and culture. Only this would ensure economic and social progress in Europe.

3.6.1.3 The unit/credit system

In 1971, on account of the “differing social situations” demanding “different degrees and directions of linguistic knowledge and skills”, the ‘unit/credit’ system operated in the US was recommended as a language teaching and learning model in Europe (Trim, 2002). To introduce the unit/credit system three main concerns were investigated- the forms of organisation of linguistic content, the types of evaluation that must be incorporated in the system, and the means to implement such a system in modern language teaching and learning in adult education.

For this purpose and to examine the feasibility of the unit/credit system in Europe, an Expert Group comprising John Trim, René Richterich, Jan van Ek and David Wilkins was set up.

3.6.1.4 The Threshold Level

Between 1972-1973, one member of the Expert Group, René Richterich “developed a model for the description of language needs of adults and undertook an analytical classification of the categories of adult needing to learn foreign languages” (Trim, 2002, p. 19). This introduced the concept of the ‘Threshold Level’ in the unit/credit system. Later on, the term was elaborated by Jan van Ek in 1974 as (cited in Trim, 2002):

a detailed specification of the minimum language requirements of people who want to themselves in a general way, to be able to communicate socially on straightforward everyday matters with people from other countries who come their way and to be able to get around and lead a reasonably normal social life when they visit another country. (p. 19)

Through this, the Expert Group posited the need for a system that could define the levels of language proficiency. They considered the Threshold level to be the lowest level in language proficiency.

Before the examination of levels of proficiency, emphasis was given to vocabulary and grammatical structures. However, this brought about a change in the model of language learning. Instead of constructing sentences without errors, situations that required learners to use language were listed. It specified six categories that required different language functions. The six categories elaborated situations that required learners to understand and express the language. The objectives listed in the Threshold level shifted attention from form to function. This marked a significant change in the world of English language teaching and learning.

Though the Threshold level was initially considered the lowest level of language proficiency in a unit/credit system, a lower level ‘Waystage’ was developed. This level was developed by Jan van Ek and C. G. Alexander to help increase the productive mastery of the language. The Waystage level became the “basis for the course design of Follow ME!, a 72-unit multimedia broadcasting led English course produced by BBC Norddeutscher Rundfunk and Bayrischer Rundfunk under the aegis of Council of Europe” (Trim, 2002, p. 21). This course became highly successful in Europe and across the world.

Thus, the 1974 to 1977 period marked the beginning of analysing language proficiency in terms of levels in the history of language teaching and learning. At the Ludwigshafen symposium held in 1977, the framework of the unit/credit system and threshold level, Waystage level, were presented. It was decided that the principles that were developed and formulated during the feasibility study could be applied to projects that had

broader applicability and scale. The new projects spanned across different sectors of secondary, vocational, adult education, and migrant education.

3.6.1.5 Project for Modern languages (1977-1981)

Following the symposium, the Expert Group was disbanded and replaced with a Project Group with 19 members representing 13 countries, which was led by John Trim (Trim, 2002). The aim of this project remained the same, to promote mutual understanding and co-operation. Along with this, the project emphasized the need to cater to the learner's needs. Thus, this project heralded a significant shift to catering teaching/learning methods and materials to suit the learners. The project also considered the importance of training and retraining teachers of modern languages.

The 1971 meeting and subsequent measures in the field of education during 1974-1976 led to the launch of an Action programme. The CoE adopted the very first Community action programme in 1977. The Community action involves pilot projects, studies, visits, etc., in identified areas (Fogg and Jones, 1985). For higher education, the Community action programme involved three measures; joint study programmes, short study visits and a uniform educational administrative programme (De Wit and Verhoeven, 2001). This period marked a symbolic start for higher education cooperation in Europe. However, the economic and political instability in Europe on account of the 1970s global economic crises stifled the significant but marginal progress of the Community Action programme.

The results of the project (1977-1981), including projects with studies carried out in schools, among adults, migrants, and teacher training. In response to this, Following this, the

Committee of Ministers issued the Recommendations (82)18 in 1982 recommending all member states of the CoE the reforms involved in modern language teaching.

3.6.1.6 Recommendation No. R (82)18 (1982)

Adopted by the Committee of Members, Recommendation No. R(82)18 summarizes and highlights the aims of the CoE and objectives undertaken till then. The recommendation outlined the measures to be implemented concerning the learning and teaching of modern language and how to implement the same. The appendix of the Recommendation No. R(82)18 is provided in Appendix C. It discusses the basic approach to language learning and teaching, which is now commonly referred to as the ‘Council of Europe approach’ (Trim, 2002).

Alongside the general measures, additional measures were specified in language learning for schools, higher education, adult education, migrant children and worker’s education, teacher training and international co-operation. In the measure for language learning schools, the objective of the Threshold level is specified, stating the need of language learning is an efficient use of the language for communication with other speakers to facilitate everyday living and to establish personal and business relations in accordance with mutual understanding, co-operation and respect for others. The recommendations also highlighted the importance of acknowledging the mother tongue of migrants in language learning by migrants and their families. Another noteworthy point in this approach was the request to make full use of advanced information technology to cover all the different aspects of language learning, teaching, and research.

The recommendation laid the groundwork that propelled the great leap towards creating a comprehensive European educational system that would be inclusive.

3.6.1.7 Project 12 (1982-1988)

To implement the recommendations laid out in Recommendations (82)18, the Project 12 was set up. To aid the implementation, two steps were taken. The first step was the School Interaction Network that would help member states share their experience and expertise. The visits were made by a group of experts from different countries and professions (administrators, teachers, researchers, and trainers). The objective of these visits was to implement a communication-oriented language teaching approach.

The second step was a series of workshops conducted for teacher trainers. The workshop's main priority was discussing a more effective methodology for language learning and teaching for communication. These workshops witnessed the beginning of a learner-centred communicative language learning system. Another substantial development in this period was the revisions in the Threshold level and Waystage and versions of it in different national and regional languages (Trim, 2002).

3.6.1.8 Project: Language learning for European citizenship (1990-1997)

By 1990, significant effort and positive progress were made at the lower secondary level of education. This led to the addition of more priority sectors in the educational system. One of which was the need to focus on primary education. Other priority sectors included upper secondary education, adult education, an educational interface between school and university, and vocationally-oriented education and training. Two new mentions in the

priority areas were Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and bilingual education (Trim, 2002).

Focus on the adult educational sector necessitated a new objective above the Threshold level. This led to the need for a new benchmark for learning which van Ek and Trim undertook. The new level, Vantage, was later published in 2001.

3.6.1.9 Birth of the Common European Framework (1991- 2001)

By the end of the twentieth century, the need for a common reference standard that is descriptive in nature was felt. Such an initiative would allow mutual recognition of qualifications and communication as achievements could be calibrated against the agreed common reference. This launched the introduction of a Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) that would outline a description of objectives and methods for language learning and teaching, curriculum and course design, materials production and language testing and assessment (Trim, 2001; Trim, 2002)

The formulated framework was proposed to fulfil the demands of being ‘comprehensive’, ‘transparent’ and ‘coherent’. ‘Comprehensive’ refers to the specification of all language knowledge, skills, and uses that are possible to describe all possible objectives. ‘Transparent’ refers to the explicit mention of formulated information that is easily accessible, while ‘coherent’ refers to being free from internal contradictions in the objectives and descriptions (Trim, 2002). the first draft of the proposal of CEFR was published. Later, the second draft following research and analysis of 200 evaluative questionnaires and consultation was published in 1997. Appendix D presents the chronology of CEFR 1991-2001.

This revised second draft of the proposal of CEFR saw the first use of the concept ‘plurilingualism’ (“an overall communicative competence within which varying degrees and directions of competence in a number of languages interact” (Trim, 2002, p. 40)). This concept has become the defining feature of CEFR. As stated in CEFR 2001, the concept of plurilingualism has grown in importance in the CoE’s approach to language learning (CoE, 2001). The Recommendation No. R (98)6 adopted by the Committee of Ministers of member states also states the need to promote plurilingualism.

3.6.2 Recommendation No. R(98)6 (1998)

According to the R(98)6, one important measure concerning the learning and teaching of modern languages to ensure the continued progress in the effort to fulfil the aim of CoE is to promote widespread plurilingualism.

Following the adoption of the Recommendation No. R(98)6 (discussed in Appendix E), the Committee of Ministers recognized the progress and efforts taken so far from the conception of the CoE to achieve the aim of mutual understanding and co-operation among European countries. In the light of these additional objectives, the Committee of Ministers stressed the need to promote plurilingualism for a pan-European context to develop educational links and exploitation of communication and information technologies (CoE, 2001, p. 4).

3.6.3 The European Language Portfolio

Another development from the Rüschlikon symposium of 1991 was the European Language Portfolio (ELP). The ELP is a document that is personal, allowing its respective users to record their experience, qualifications and language proficiency. Their progress

could be then guided with reference to the self-assessment grid of the CEFR. ELP thus presented itself as a self-assessment grid. The CoE explains that the overall goal of the ELP is to increase support and motivation for studying languages by providing the means to record learning experiences of different kinds in several languages. This will allow learners to document their progress towards plurilingual competence (Valax, 2011, p. 35; CoE, 2001, p. 20). It thus supported the development of learner autonomy, intercultural awareness and competence.

Presently, ELP has been taken up by 33 countries across the world (CoE, n.d.). The official website of CoE provides different templates that can be used when compiling an ELP. Specifically, there are two different template texts; text about the CoE for older learners and text about the CoE for younger learners. In addition, accredited and registered ELP can also be found by educational sectors (CoE, n.d.).

Though the ELP can be seen as a positive tool for teachers and learners in a classroom, it has its disadvantages. One major drawback is the lack of suitability for learners at different levels in the same class. Another factor is the need for proper integration of ELP into the learning-teaching programme.

3.7 CEFR (2001)

The CEFR published in 2001 focussed on second/foreign language teaching and learning in plurilingual and multilingual education. CEFR provides a thorough insight into what language learners need to communicate using a language. It provides a common reference toolkit, a common basis for language textbooks, curriculum and examinations across Europe and other countries. As outlined in the CEFR 2001 (CoE, 2001):

The Common European Framework provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe. It describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively... The framework also defines levels of proficiency which allows learners' progress to be measured at each stage of learning and on a life-long basis. The common European Framework is intended to overcome the barriers to communication among professionals working in the field of modern languages arising from the different educational systems in Europe. It provides the means for educational administrators, course designers, teachers, teacher trainers, examining bodies, etc., to reflect on their current practice, with a view to situating and co-ordinating their efforts and to ensuring that they meet the real needs of the learners for whom they are responsible. (p. 1)

The CEFR is thus used as a reference tool that can provide transparency and reference points for assessment and inform curriculum reform and pedagogy. Fundamentally, the CEFR works from what the learners' need to do in the language and plans out curricula, course design and examinations. CEFR itself states that it is not a standardization tool. From the Notes to user (CoE, 2001): "We have NOT set out to tell practitioners what to do, or how to do it... It is not the function of the CEF(R) to lay down the objectives that users should pursue or the methods they should employ" (CoE, 2001, p. a:xi).

Philippe Valax (2011) discusses John Trim's and Brian North's position on the purpose of the CEFR. According to John Trim, "the CEFR is not a manual, but a framework, a catalogue rather than a description" (Valax, 2011, p. 45). Similarly, Brian North states that the function of the CEFR is "to stimulate reflection and discussion", to "empower and to facilitate, not to prescribe or control" (Broek and van den Ende, 2013, p. 29). In an interview with Nick Saville (2005), John Trim admits how several people expressed the notion that the framework should only be used by those who worked in accordance with CoE. However, Trim states that such an outlook and step would lead to a "prescriptive approach". This is problematic as CEFR defines itself as a "descriptive tool" (Saville, 2005).

The nature of CEFR as a reference tool, a framework of reference has propelled it to be used across different countries in addition to the European Union. CEFR is presently recognised in more than 40 countries, including Mexico, Canada, Japan, China, Vietnam, Taiwan, New Zealand and Malaysia (Mohd Don and Hayati Abdullah (2019); Ministry of Education Malaysia (MOE)). In addition, the power of CEFR extends to the US, Chile, Australia and Hong Kong (Valax, 2011, p. 49). Thus, the CEFR is "accepted as the international standard for language teaching and learning" (North, Ortega, and Sheehan, 2010, p. 6). Though CEFR is a language-independent framework, it has become a credible benchmark widely used as a reference tool to assess English proficiency.

3.7.1 Outline of CEFR

According to the 2013 study by the European Parliament, 'The implementation of the Common European Framework for languages in European education systems', CEFR, officially published in 2001 has been translated and published in almost 40 languages across Europe and beyond (Broek and van den Ende, 2013). Furthermore, the official site of CoE

presents 22 official translations of the CEFR Global Scale and 32 official translations of the CEFR Self-assessment grid. This shows the increased presence and influence of CEFR on the different educational systems across the world.

The CEFR document begins with a prefatory note (i-ix), notes for the user (xi-xiv) and synopsis (xv-xv). Following which, there are nine chapters (pp. 1-196), general bibliography (pp. 197-204), four appendixes (pp. 205-257) and index (pp. 258-260). The detailed outline of the CEFR chapters (CEFR 2001) is provided in Appendix F.

3.7.2 Action-oriented approach

Advances in language teaching have come a long way, beginning from the grammar-translation method (L1 as intellectual exercise) to the audio-lingual method/ audio-visual method (L1 as habit formation, acquiring linguistic reflexes) to the communicative method (L1 as communication) (Piccardo, 2014). With the introduction of the CEFR, the action-oriented approach came to the forefront in the educational context. The action-oriented approach embraces all the salient points of the communicative approach. The communicative approach had already introduced the notion of learner-centredness and the importance of realizing learners' needs. It additionally introduced the use of authentic materials and learning activities to build communicative proficiency. This notion of communicative competence by Dell Hymes in 1972 involved using language meaningfully and effectively in real-life situations (Piccardo, 2014). Thus, learners were asked to interact in the language rather than practising the target language in isolation.

Accordingly, the action-oriented approach considers all the tenets posed in the communicative approach and places it in a social context such that communication is seen as

a social activity designed to accomplish specific tasks. The underlying aim is to increase the learners' communicative competence by accomplishing these tasks that are illustrative of real-life situations. The action-oriented approach considers that different acts involve different strategies and different communication acts. By exposing specific acts, there is an overall increase in communicative competence. The involvement of tasks that need to be performed makes the action-oriented approach a step ahead of the communicative approach, as the former takes the concept of language needs into consideration. (Piccardo, 2014).

CEFR sees learners as language users and social agents. CEFR 2018 points out the role of learners in an action-oriented approach: "Seeing learners as social agents implies involving them in the learning process, ... Seeing learners as language users imply extensive use of the target language in the classroom- learning to use the language rather than just learning about the language (as a subject)" (CoE, 2018).

The CEFR also recognizes the social nature of language learning and use. This outlook allows the interaction between the learners and the social context in the process of learning. The action-oriented approach also involves the need for interactive, collaborative tasks in the classroom whose primary focus is not learning the language as a subject; instead, it can develop learners' proficiency in effective communication (CoE, 2018).

For the CEFR, the co-construction of meaning is central to language teaching and the language learning process. This signals the importance of the interaction that is needed among the learners and between learner and teachers. Language is thus no longer taught as a subject in the classroom. Brian North explains this through Rüschoff's comment (quoted from North, 2020):

This action and language use oriented framework helped shift the focus of attention from a second/foreign language classroom intent on training linguistic control of a target language towards language learning context aimed at fostering real-world relevant communicative and interactive proficiency together with related strategic competences. It also helped shift the focus from language classrooms concerned with the traditional four skills towards learning and teaching, contexts and settings committed to competence-orientation. (p. 551)

This contributed to the beginning of the languages across the curriculum approach instead of individual language setting and real-life situations and scenarios in the classrooms. It connects what happens in the classroom to what is happening in the real world. This adopted approach is in line with the task-based approach, a recent development in the area of second language teaching (CoE, 2018). In task-based language teaching, the focus is on authentic material that involves learners performing tasks that are meaningful using the target language. Despite the CEFR's attempt to not advocate a specific teaching method, the principles of the CEFR and the action-oriented approach lend themselves to a task-based language teaching approach.

3.7.3 The Concept of Plurilingualism and Multilingualism

The concept of plurilingualism and multilingualism came to the forefront with the 'White Paper: Teaching and learning: towards the learning society'¹³ published in 1995 by

¹³ Commission of the European Communities. (1995). *Teaching and learning- Towards the learning society*. White paper on education and training.
https://europa.eu/documents/comm/white_papers/pdf/com95_590_en.pdf

the European Union. It stressed the importance of multiple language proficiency and intercultural understanding. Language proficiency is necessary for the European Union citizens if they want to benefit from the opportunities in the border-free Single Market. Also, this language proficiency must involve the ability to adapt depending on the working and living environments of different cultures (White Paper, 1995). Thus, the European Union advocated for learning two Community languages (Union languages) and the mother tongue. It required everyone to acquire and develop the ability to communicate in three Community languages.

Judit Dombi (2010) points out that this document clearly presents the concept of plurilingualism even though there is no explicit mention of the term (Dombi, 2010). Instead, the term ‘multilingualism’ is used and is stated to be an integral part of European citizen/identity and the learning society (White Paper, 1995). However, John Trim (2002) disagrees with him, stating a distinction between the Council and the European Union's approach. According to him, the European Union explicitly advocates learning two additional Union languages over the mother-tongue, whereas the Council advocated the objective of plurilingualism (Trim, 2002).

The concept of both ‘plurilingualism’ and ‘multilingualism’ appears for the first time in Draft 2 of the CEFR (1998) and Recommendation No. R(98)6. The term ‘plurilingual’ is relatively a new term that is still not widely used or understood. On account of this, there is a lack of clear-cut distinction between the two. The CoE emphasized the role and importance of the term ‘plurilingual’ and the need to distinguish between the two. The CEFR (CoE, 2001) states:

Plurilingualism differs from multilingualism, which is the knowledge of a number of languages, or the co-existence of different languages in a given society. Multilingualism may be attained by simply diversifying the languages on offer in a particular school or educational system or by encouraging pupils to learn more than one foreign language, or reducing the dominant position of English in international communication. Beyond this, the plurilingual approach emphasizes the fact that as an individual person's experience of language in its cultural context expands, from the language of home to that of society at large and then to the languages of other people (whether learnt at school or college, or by direct experience), he or she does not keep these languages and cultures in strictly separated mental compartments, but rather builds up a communicative competence to which all knowledge and experience of language contributes and in which languages interrelate and interact. (p. 4)

It distinguishes between the two in terms of the competency involved. In a multilingual approach, different languages co-exist separately alongside each other such that there is an idealized competency (ideal native speaker) that the person must attain in each language. On the other hand, in the plurilingual approach, an ideal competency of individual language is ignored. Instead, effective competency is believed to be a product of all the varied repertoire of linguistics and cultural knowledge across languages. The CoE and ECML (European Centre for Modern Languages) document on 'Promoting plurilingualism- majority language in multilingual setting' (2011) posits the distinction in this light: "While plurilingualism is the competence of an individual being able to use different languages,

multilingualism is a feature of societies with members speaking different languages” (CoE and ECML (2011, p. 78). Beacco and Byram (2003) provides this same distinction between plurilingualism and multilingualism: “plurilingualism as a speaker’s competence (being able to use more than one language) and multilingualism as the presence of languages in a given geographical area” (Beacco and Byram, 2003). Accordingly, this entails a shift from the perspective of focusing on languages (state) towards focusing on speakers. It is thus possible to say that there can be a multilingual society without plurilingual speakers as a “society can incorporate a co-existence of different languages” (CoE and ECML, 2011).

This distinction highlights the need to distinguish the two in an educational setting. For instance, often a foreign language teaching or second language teaching just serves the purpose of multiple languages co-existing as the speakers cannot themselves effectively communicate in either or both languages together. On the other hand, a plurilingual approach allows the speakers to employ code-switching and code-mixing effectively. Also, in a plurilingual setting, an ideal speaker competency is not the aim. Instead, different degrees of proficiency is possible. As per the CoE (2007): “The aim of plurilingualism and plurilingual education is not simultaneously teaching a range of languages, teaching through comparing different languages or teaching as many languages as possible. Rather, the goal is to develop plurilingual competence and intercultural education, as a way of living together” (CoE, 2007, p. 18). The plurilingual approach places great emphasis on developing competence from all linguistic and cultural experiences.

Thus, it is right to say that plurilingualism embraces a holistic communication competence made up of different languages the individual is exposed to and acknowledges the varied degree of proficiency irrespective of whether it is the first language or not. So, the

plurilingual perspective centres on the learners/speakers and underlines the interdependence between them and the social context. “The language learner becomes plurilingual and develops interculturality. The linguistic and cultural competences in respect of each language are modified by knowledge of the other and contribute to intercultural awareness, skills, and know-how. They enable the individual to develop an enriched, more complex personality and an enhanced capacity for further language learning and greater openness to new cultural experiences” (CoE, 2007, p. 43). Thus, the plurilingual approach ensures effective communicative competency and moves away from the traditional rote learning to attain an idealized competency of an ideal native speaker.

3.7.4 Levels of scales and descriptors

The CEFR posits three main ways the Framework can be used (CEFR, 200, p. 178).

1. “For the specification of the content of tests and examinations:” *“what is assessed”*
2. “For stating the criteria to determine the attainment of a learning objective:” *“how performance is interpreted”*
3. “For describing the levels of proficiency in existing tests and examinations, thus enabling comparisons to be made across different systems of qualifications:” (CoE, 2001, p. 178). *“how comparisons can be made”*

For this purpose, the CEFR provides a common descriptive format that focuses on language proficiency. In this format, the learner’s ability to use a language is categorized into three broad categories: A1 and A2- Basic User, B1 and B2- Independent User and C1 and

C2- Proficient User. Illustrative ‘Can Do’ statements are provided to these descriptive levels with respect to the action-oriented approach. These statements describe what a learner should be able to do or can do in effective communication at the determined level. In this six-level, though C2 is termed a ‘Mastery’, it does not refer to the performance of an idealized native-speaker. Also, C2 is not the highest imaginable level of proficiency. In fact, seven levels were proposed for the unit credit scheme, but only six levels were adopted as it felt the seventh level was beyond the scope of mainstream education (CoE, 2020, p. 37). Similarly, though A1 is the bottommost level of the CEFR levels, it is not the lowest level of proficiency, instead it is the lowest level of generative language proficiency that can be identified.

In each level, the ‘Can Do’ statements are described under five skills: listening, reading, spoken interaction, production, and writing (CoE, 2020). The different levels are labelled as:

- “A1- Breakthrough or beginner
- A2- Waystage or elementary
- B1- Threshold or intermediate
- B2- Vantage or upper intermediate
- C1- Effective operational proficiency or advanced
- C2- Mastery or proficiency” (CoE, 2001)

Table 2 lists the CEFR Global Scales and ‘Can Do’ statements. (Source: CoE, 2001)

Table 2*CEFR scales and 'can-do' descriptors*

Levels	'Can-do' statements
"A1"	"-Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. -Can introduce him/herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. -Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help."
"A2"	"-Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). -Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. -Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need."
"B1"	"-Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. -Can deal with most situations likely to arise while travelling in an area where the language is spoken. -Can produce simple connected text on topics that are familiar or of personal interest. -Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans."
"B2"	"-Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. -Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. -Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various opinions."

“C1”	“-Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts and recognise implicit meaning. -Can express ideas fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. -Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. -Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.”
“C2”	“-Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. -Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. -Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in the most complex situations.”

Note: From CoE, 2001. Global scale: Common Reference Levels

The main function of these descriptors is to help align curriculum, provide reference for teaching and a benchmark for assessment.

As depicted in the CEFR Companion Volume with New Descriptors (CoE, 2020), “Users of CEFR are invited to select the CEFR levels and illustrative descriptors that they consider to be appropriate for their learners’ needs, to adapt the formulation of the latter in order to better suit the specific context concerned and to supplement them with their own descriptors where they deem it necessary” (CoE, 2018, p. 42). The CEFR Companion Volume 2020 (CoE, 2020) has updated the CEFR 2001, its illustrative descriptors and overall framework. Some of the updated tenets in the Companion Volume are gender-neutral descriptors, added detail on listening and reading, new Pre-A1 level, enriched descriptions at A1 and C levels and new scales for sign language competence.

During 2014- 2017, work was taken up to extend the already existing CEFR 2001 illustrative guidelines. One of the three different projects taken up during this time was the collation of illustrative descriptors for young learners. This project involved identifying the extent of relevance the existing CEFR illustrative descriptors had with young learners since these descriptors were “developed, validated and calibrated irrespective of age groups”. For this purpose, a representative sample was gathered from existing validated European Language Portfolios and assessment descriptors developed across member states. Subsequently, in 2018 the “Collated Representative Samples of Language Competences Developed for Young Learners’ drawn from European Language Portfolios and other sources and mapped to the extended set of illustrative descriptors of the CEFR” organized by CEFR level was developed into two different documents, for ages 7-10 and 11-15 (CoE, 2020). The rationale behind this objective was to “provide a useful reference document for educators developing objectives for language learning curricula for young learners in the age group described” and as a “road map for educators to identify competences” (Goodier and Szabo, 2018, p. 11).

3.7.5 Studies on CEFR

Several studies and research work have been carried out on the application and impact of CEFR. As a language-independent framework with an action-oriented approach, the influence of CEFR can be seen across and beyond Europe. In the words of North, Ortega and Sheehan (2010), the CEFR is “now accepted as the international standard for language teaching and learning” (North, Ortega and Sheehan, 2010, p. 6). Seminal work conducted in some countries has developed their own framework of reference with the CEFR as the foundation. The framework is also being applied in many Asian countries. One such

prominent framework is CEFR J. The CEFR-J as its name suggests, is a modified version of the original CEFR for English language teaching in Japan.

As a first step in the process of developing CEFR-J, Negishi Masashi “carried out a series of surveys to investigate the applicability of the CEFR to Japanese learners of English” (Negishi, 2012, p. 106). The results showed that such an attempt is possible but only with modifications in the original CEFR levels. Accordingly, the second step involved identifying the CEFR levels for Japanese English learners. Two surveys were conducted, one investigating the “English proficiency level of Japanese secondary school students” and the second investigating the “English proficiency levels of all the employees of an electronics manufacturer in Japan” (Negishi, 2012, p. 109-110). From the analysis of the surveys, it was found that among Japanese English users, more than 80% of were Basic Users (A1/A2), less than 20% were Independent Users (B1/B2), and Proficient Users (C1/C2) were almost nil (Negishi, 2012; Negishi, Takada and Tono, 2013). This signalled the need of adopting a lower level, Pre-A1, dividing existing A1 level into three levels (“A1.1, A1.2, A1.3”), A2 into two levels (“A2.1, A2.2”), B1 into two levels (“B1.1, B1.2”), B2 into two levels (“B2.1, B2.2”) and modifying ‘can-do’ descriptors “to accommodate the needs of Japanese users” (Uchida and Negishi, 2018, p. 464). As a result, CEFR-J was adapted with 12 categories, and subsequently, the CEFR-J wordlist was also developed.

Some of the other countries that have aligned English language teaching and learning with CEFR are Vietnam, Malaysia, Canada and China. In addition, several research studies (P. Lindhout, Teunissen and M. Lindhout, 2012; Sung et.al., 2015; Chong and Yamat, 2021) have also been carried out to align CEFR levels to exams, textbooks, and exercises in different language textbooks.

3.8 Reasons for Evaluating CEFR in the Indian context

One of the critical criteria why the CEFR reference level has found such widespread application is discussed in the aim of the framework; “to facilitate comparisons between different systems of qualifications” (CoE, 2001, p. 21). Also, one can consider one of the reasons why the CEFR is needed: “to promote and facilitate co-operation among educational institutions in different countries”.

The following are the reasons why CEFR can be evaluated in India with reference to the KCF 2007, NCF 2005, and NEP 2020.

1. Departure from rote learning

One of the five guiding principles of the NCF 2005 is “ensuring that learning shifts away from rote methods” (NCF 2005, p. 5). The KCF 2007 too stresses on a curriculum that moves away from the “mechanical transactional strategy and rote learning” (KCF 2007, p. 14). The CoE expressed the same ideology between 1972-1973 via the development of the Threshold level that aimed at defining the levels of language proficiency. With the development of the Threshold level, the focus shifted to the ability to communicate socially from the emphasis given to grammatically correct sentences and vocabulary.

2. A learner-centric approach

Both the NCF 2005 and the KCF 2007 elucidated the importance of a learner-centric approach in language teaching and learning. The notion of teaching with the learner at the centre had come to the forefront of Kerala’s educational system in 1997. This initiative was taken during the implementation of the NPE 1986 and the Programme of Action 1992. In the case of NCF 2005, the focus is only child-centred pedagogy. However, the CEFR 2001 has

vehemently pointed out that it is not a manual and does not endorse any pedagogy.

Nevertheless, it does focus on the methodology of learner-centred communicative view of language learning with the 1982-1988 Project 12 ‘Learning and teaching modern languages for communication’. Though the learner-centric approach falls short of the CEFR benchmarks of basing the learner-centred language learning with learners’ needs, it is a common central tenet of the KCF 2007 and CEFR 2001.

3. Emphasis on plurilingualism

As emphasized earlier, the CoE’s aim to promote plurilingualism, linguistic diversity, and language learning materialized into the introduction of CEFR 2001. Similarly, India has incorporated this aim to ensure unity among diversity as it manifests a high degree of multilingualism. The co-existence of linguistic families was first officially documented in the Linguistic Survey of India conducted by G. A. Grierson between the years 1866 to 1927. Later on, the first census after India’s independence in 1951 identified 845 languages, including dialects and including 60 languages that had more than 10,000 speakers. In the 1961 census, 1652 mother tongues were identified into 193 languages belonging to four language families (Dravidian, Indo-Aryan, Tibeto-Burman and Austric). According to the 1991 census, there was a rise in the number of mother tongues reported, after which it went through a process of linguistic scrutiny and rationalisation (Census Data¹⁴). Table 3 provides the details of the language census in the years 1991, 2001 and 2011.

¹⁴ Source- Census Data [Census of India: General Note \(censusindia.gov.in\)](https://censusindia.gov.in)

Table 3*Census data on languages 1991- 2011*

Census Year	Raw return of languages	Rationalized mother tongues	‘Unclassified’ Relegated to ‘other’ mother tongue category
1991	10,400	1576	1796
2001	6,661	1653	1957
2011	19,569	1369	1474

Note. From Census Data Census of India: General Note (censusindia.gov.in)

Keeping in mind this linguistic diversity in India, language education in India has always been a topic of discussion. However, multilingualism in India has resulted in the notion of one language’s dominance over the other. Steps to curb this is pursued with the formation of the NCF 2005 and NEP 2020. As a result, the concept of plurilingualism became a necessary intervention in the Indian educational context. This also enables to eradicate the perceived hegemony or dominant position of one language.

In the Indian context, the need for a common reference framework differentiating or identifying different learner’s competencies uniformly across states in India would eliminate confusion facilitating co-operation among educational institutes and exams.

4. Language across the curriculum not to be seen as a subject
5. Importance of L1 (mother tongue) in education
6. Action-oriented tasks based on real-life situations, themes, subjects, and social situations

Discussed above are some of the tenets that are incorporated into the Indian educational context. As the CEFR 2001 discusses the same tenets incorporated in the NCF and KCF, the study accommodates the possibility of aligning CEFR in India's educational context.

3.9 Conclusion

The NCF and KCF play a vital role in the present educational context of Kerala. The similarities that these curriculum frameworks have with the CEFR allow a comparison analysis. Considering the shared pedagogy among the CEFR, NCF, and KCF, the Kerala educational context can be analysed with respect to CEFR. Accordingly, KCF and SCERT Kerala textbooks can be referenced from an international perspective that is universal. This allows for the standardization of textbooks and framework tenets.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

Research methodology has been defined as the “general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research project” (Leedy and Omrod (2001) as cited in Williams (2007, p. 66). Following this definition, the present chapter describes the overall research design, the approaches taken, and the different tools employed to analyse data. It additionally discusses the research questions and various aspects of the methodology employed in the study.

4.2 Research Aim

The research mainly evaluates the SCERT Kerala English textbooks at the secondary level with reference to the KCF, NCF and CEFR. Using corpus methodology, a systematic vocabulary evaluation, estimation of readability and CEFR level of the textbooks is conducted along with validating language learning competencies with reference to global and local standards. The research objectives of this research are provided below.

4.3 Research Objectives

1. Appropriateness of the latest SCERT Kerala English textbook at the Secondary level (VIII, IX, and X) taught in the academic year 2019-2020 with reference to the KCF 2007 and KCF 2013.
2. Systematic vocabulary evaluation of the SCERT Kerala Secondary English textbook.
3. Estimating SCERT Kerala Secondary English textbook readability/ complexity and grading order.
4. Aligning CEFR levels to the SCERT Kerala Secondary English textbooks.

5. Analysing whether the SCERT Kerala Secondary English syllabus is inclusive of national and global standards with reference to identified competencies of LSRW skills.

4.4 Research Questions

The purpose of the present study is to address the following research questions:

1. What is the quality of the latest version of SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X standard English textbooks (taught in the academic year 2019- 2020) with reference to KCF 2007 and KCF 2013?
2. What is the coverage of vocabulary in the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X standard English textbooks in terms of tokens, types and TTR?
3. What is the number of most frequently used words, less used words and academic words according to Nation's (1990) English vocabulary classification in the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X standard English textbooks?
4. What is the number of unique and shared (recycled/repeated) types, tokens and word families within the units and across the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X standard English textbooks?
5. Are units in the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX and X standard English textbooks and SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X English textbooks graded sequentially with respect to vocabulary frequencies?
6. What is the Flesch Readability Ease score and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score for the units in the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X standard English textbooks?

7. Are the units in the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X English textbooks and SCERT Kerala VII, IX, and X standard English textbooks graded sequentially with respect to textbook readability?
8. What is the percentage of word types at CEFR levels A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2 with respect to the English Vocabulary Profile (EVP) from the Cambridge University Press in the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X standard English textbooks?
9. What is the CEFR level of the different units in the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X standard English textbooks?
10. Are the units in the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X standard English textbooks and SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X English textbooks graded as per the estimated CEFR level?
11. Does the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX, and X standard English textbooks reflect national standard- NCERT in terms of competencies of LSRW skills?
12. Does the SCERT Kerala VIII, IX and X standard English textbooks reflect global standard- CEFR in terms of competencies of LSRW skills?

4.5 Research Approach

The research incorporated both qualitative and quantitative approaches. As such, it can be said to imbibe a mixed-method approach. This approach helps to answer the formulated research questions that require both numerical and textual data. The quantitative method relies on numerical data and statistical procedures for data analysis, while the qualitative method relies on a descriptive narrative employing words for data analysis. This allows describing, explaining and interpreting data using textual information. According to

Creswell (2003), in the mixed-method approach to research, “researchers incorporate methods of collecting or analysing data from the quantitative and qualitative research approaches in a single research study” (Williams, 2007). The mixed-method approach is thus an effective way to ensure the validity and reliability of the research. ‘Words can be used to add meaning to numbers, and numbers can be used to add precision to words’ (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 45).

Additionally, Corpus methodology is incorporated into the research design of the study. Viewing corpus linguistics as a methodology, a corpus-based analysis approach (Ngula, 2018) is employed in this study. The corpus methodology also involves both qualitative and quantitative analysis techniques.

4.6 Research Method

The two research methods employed in this study are document analysis and content analysis. While document analysis focuses on educational files, records and reports, content analysis focuses solely on the textbook. Document analysis is “a systematic procedure for reviewing and evaluating documents” (Bowen, 2009, p. 27). As documents are a means of tracking change and developments, data is examined and interpreted to elicit meaning, gain understanding and knowledge. Content analysis is a research method that “makes valid reference from text” (Weber, 1990, p. 9). In this process of summarizing and interpreting written data, the vast amount of written data is reduced to smaller groups of information.

Another research method is employing various computational tools to carry out the different phases of research. The online corpus tool Compleat Lexical Tutor v.8.3 was used for the second phase of the study, Coh-Metrix for the third phase of the study and Text

Inspector for the fourth phase of the study. These different online tools/programmes are discussed later in this chapter.

4.7 Research Design

As mentioned at the beginning of this chapter, the research approach embodies both a qualitative and quantitative approach. It also involves the use of the evaluation checklist and corpus-based approach. The overall research design can be categorized into four different phases:

- Phase 1: General evaluation of the textbooks with the help of the checklist and content analysis.
- Phase 2: Corpus-based evaluation of textbook vocabulary using the online tool, Compleat Lexical Tutor.
- Phase 3: Corpus-based evaluation of the textbook content using the online tool, Coh-Metrix.
- Phase 4: Linguistic evaluation of the textbook using the online tool, Text Inspector.
- Phase 5: Content and document evaluation of identified competencies of LSRW skills in the syllabus against national and global standards.

The first phase of the research involved the general evaluation of the textbook with the help of an evaluation checklist. According to Tomlinson (2003), for an evaluative checklist to be systematic and objective, it is necessary to evaluate the various checklists and develop a set of criteria to match the study's specific parameters. Accordingly, an evaluation

checklist was formulated from the review and evaluation of ten fundamental textbook evaluation checklists.

For the second phase of the research on textbook vocabulary evaluation, the whole textbook wise and unit wise (passage) corpus was selected for analysis. The systematic vocabulary evaluation phase involved four steps: (1) ascertaining the lexical profile of the corpus (2) measuring Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP) of the corpus (3) Analysis of lemmas (4) degree of word repetition or recycling of words. For the first step, the compiled corpus was copied and pasted into the Frequency Indexer section of the Lextutor to ascertain the word count, frequency of type and token, type-token ratio. In the second step of analysis, the corpus is copied and pasted into the Vocabprofile (VP-Classic) section of the Lextutor to obtain LFP. The VP-Classic provides an account of the word count of function words and content words. It also gives four levels of vocabulary information “(1) list of the most frequent 1000-word families (2) the second 1000- word families (3) the academic word list and (4) words that do not appear on other lists” (Laufer and Nation, 1995). The third step involved the analysis of lemmas across the different corpora. This was done using the Lemmatizer tool in Lextutor. In the fourth and final step, the corpus is uploaded to the Text-Lex Compare section of Lextutor. This helps to compare the different text files to obtain different recycling index: Token recycling index, Type recycling index, Families recycling index and Phrases (3- word string) recycling index. Recycling of words/ phrases/ content words done across unit-wise (passage) and across textbooks of each standard in sequential order. This second phase of research would provide a systematic understanding of the vocabulary frequencies in the textbook.

The third phase of the research was conducted on the written content of the text. In this phase, the corpus-based evaluation was conducted via the online tool, Coh-Metrix to investigate the readability of the text. Textbook readability was estimated using two readability formulas; Flesch Readability Ease formula and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula.

In the fourth phase of the research, a linguistic evaluation was conducted to align CEFR to the text and to analyse the percentage of word types at A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2 levels under EVP. This, too, involved corpus methodology and was conducted using the online tool Text Inspector. The text was copied and pasted in the text window of the Text Inspector to obtain the respective CEFR levels.

The final phase of the study involved content analysis with a qualitative approach. Different learning competencies of LSRW skills were identified from the textbooks and were checked with reference to identical items represented in the standard documents. NCERT English syllabus was selected as the document representing the national standard while CEFR 2001, 2018, 2020 and “Collated Representative Samples of Language Competences Developed for Young Learners aged 11-15 years” were selected as the documents representing the global standard.

4.8 Research Materials for Document and Content Analysis

According to Krippendorff (1980), document and content analysis is a “research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from data to their context” (Krippendorff, 2004, p. 18). This research technique is part of descriptive research and presents a qualitative analysis. The primary materials selected for analysis are:

- KCF 2013
- KCF 2007
- NCF 2005
- Position Paper- National Focus Group on Teaching of English (2006)
- NEP 2020
- NPE 1986
- NPE 1968
- CEFR 2001, 2018, 2020
- Collated Representative Samples of Language Competences Developed for Young Learners. Volume 2: Aged 11-15 years (Goodier and Szabo, 2018).

4.9 Research Materials for Corpus-based Evaluation

In the present study, the corpus was compiled from the SCERT Kerala English textbook taught in the academic year 2019-2020 for different secondary school standards (VIII, IX, and X). The textbooks selected were the latest textbooks used for study as per the curriculum. Overall, there were six textbooks, two textbooks for each standard. Two of these textbooks (Standard VIII part 1 and 2) were typed manually to compile the corpus, while the other four textbooks had to be converted to word files from the pdf format. On account of the graphic presentation and other typological features, modifications were made, and editing was done to obtain the text file used for analysis. The corpus was saved unit-wise (passage) and whole textbook-wise. The textbooks selected for corpus- evaluation are:

- Kerala Reader English- Standard X Part 1
- Kerala Reader English- Standard X Part 2

- Kerala Reader English- Standard IX Part 1
- Kerala Reader English- Standard IX Part 2
- Kerala Reader English- Standard VIII Part 1
- Kerala Reader English- Standard VIII Part 2

4.10 Evaluation Checklist Criteria used in this Research

Textbook evaluation is an indispensable part of language teaching-learning as textbooks have become a crucial part of instruction and learning. In this regard, an evaluation checklist has been deemed as the best facilitator in textbook evaluation. Following Byrd's (2001) distinction of textbook evaluation into 'evaluation for selection of textbook' and 'evaluation of implementation of textbook', this research follows the latter approach (Byrd, 2001). It is therefore an analysis of the textbook that administrators and educators have already selected. In this light, the textbook's evaluation addresses the fit between the materials and the curriculum.

The second chapter provides a review of some fundamental checklists over the last years 1970 to 2003. Later studies by researchers have formulated evaluation checklists based on the review of the earlier fundamental checklist. For instance, Miekley (2005) constructed a checklist from the review of Byrd's (2001) and Skierso's (1991) checklist (Miekley, 2005); Munir (2015) reviewed ten evaluation checklists and constructed a checklist for evaluating reading comprehension textbook (Munir, 2015) and Jahangard (2007) reviewed ten textbook evaluation schemes and selected 13 criteria (Jahangard, 2007). The checklists reviewed by Jahangard were- "Chastain (1971), Tucker, 1975, Cowles (1976), Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979), Candlin and Breen (1979), Rivers (1981), Williams (1983), Sheldon (1988), Skierso

(1991) and Ur (1996)” (Jahangard, 2007). Similarly, Jayakaran Mukundan and Toura Ahour reviewed textbook evaluation checklists over four decades (1970- 2009); five checklists from the 1970s, nine checklists from the 1980s, 15 checklists from the 1990s and 19 checklists from the 2000s (Mukundan and Ahour, 2010).

From a review of the checklists so far, the researcher has observed that one of the fundamental differences lies in how the textbook evaluation is carried out. Tomlinson’s (2003) and Ellis’s (1997) models discuss textbook evaluation in relation to period stages; pre-use/ predictive, in-use or whilst-use and post-use/ retrospective. On the other hand, Cunningsworth’s (1995), McGrath’s (2002), and McDonough and Shaw’s (1993) models discuss two types of evaluation devoid of evaluation stages; first glance/ external evaluation and an in-depth/ internal evaluation. This present research is conducted with this latter approach in mind; an internal evaluation and external evaluation. The external evaluation involves evaluating the textbook from the outside and internal evaluation is to see how far the textbooks match up with what it is aimed at. The present research also adopts Littlejohn’s (1998 and 2011) framework of examining materials ‘as they are’. Another aspect is the inclusion of the teacher’s manual in the evaluation of the textbook. Skierso’s (1991), Cunningsworth’s (1995), and Bryd’s (2001) framework of evaluation emphasize the importance of incorporating the teacher’s manual.

In this internal and external evaluation approach, the relevant criteria for textbook evaluation were meticulously selected from the review of several evaluation checklists. The selected criteria ranged from the general layout of the textbook to the sequencing and grading of textbook content. The present study’s theoretical evaluation focused on the physical appearance, textbook organization and structure, exercises and activities, language level in

the textbook and representation of LSRW skills, vocabulary, grammar and other supporting resources. The selected criteria, along with the qualitative analysis, are presented in the next chapter.

4.11 Online Computational Tools used in this Research

In this present study, three major online computational tools were used for the study:

1. Compleat Lexical Tutor
2. Coh-Metrix online tool
3. Text Inspector

4.11.1 Compleat Lexical Tutor

The Compleat Lexical Tutor v.8.3 created by Tom Cobb is dedicated to ‘data-driven language learning on the web’ (Cobb, 1997). This online free tool contains various resources that range from teaching and learning to vocabulary and grammar (<https://www.lex tutor.ca/>). The Compleat Lexical Tutor provides resources in three languages: English, French and Spanish.

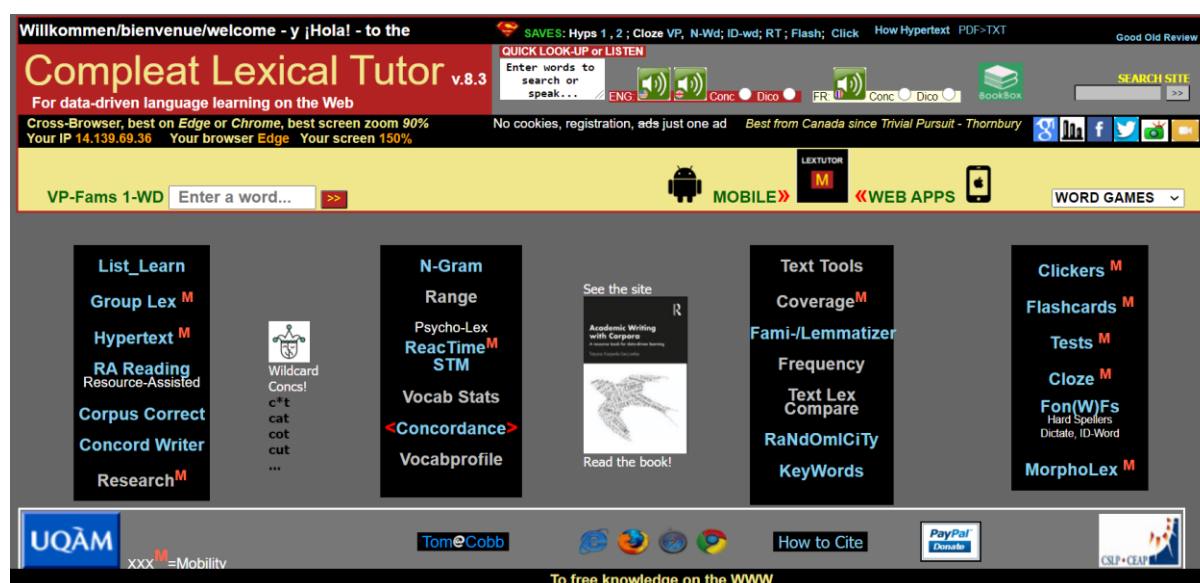
The Compleat Lexical Tutor version used in this study is v.8.3. The various tools in the Compleat Lexical Tutor can be deciphered from Figure 1. For this study, five different tools were used;

1. Frequency tool
2. VP Classic in Vocabprofile
3. Range for Texts
4. Text Lex Compare

In the frequency tool, the text is analyzed in terms of frequency of types, tokens, and Type-Token Ratio (TTR). The Vocabprofile provides data on how many words the text contains from the different frequency bands (Laufer and Nation's (1995) account). The Range for Texts tool compares corpora up to 25 text files to analyze how many text files a particular word appears in. This helps us to differentiate between unique words and frequently used words. The Text Lex Compare tool is an advanced pedagogical version of the Range for Texts tool. In addition to the data on the degree of word repetition, the tool compares the texts on unique or shared tokens, types, families and phrases.

Figure 1

Compleat Lexical Tutor page



4.11.2 Coh-Metrix

Coh-Metrix 3.0 is a computational linguistic online tool developed by Arthur C. Graesser and Danielle S. McNamara (cohmetrix.com). It was developed as a project in the

field of Learning under the Institute for Intelligent Systems, University of Memphis (cohmetrix.com).

This tool considers language properties that go beyond the simple and shallow metrics involved in traditional formulas, under the premise that sentence, word length, and vocabulary are not by themselves adequate metrics to explain text difficulty (Collins-Thompson, 2014). Coh-Metrix makes use of the language and discourse components that exist in the text for analysis. Coh-Metrix was made possible by the advances in disciplines such as psycholinguistics, corpus linguistics, computational linguistics, discourse processing, information extraction and retrieval (Crossley et. al., 2008). According to Graesser et. al. (2004), Coh-Metrix “analyses texts on over 200 measures of cohesion, language, and readability. Its modules use lexicons, parts-of-speech classifiers, syntactic parsers, templates, corpora, latent semantic analysis, and other components that are widely used in computational linguistics” (Graesser et al., 2004, p. 193). In addition, it considers deeper levels of text processing- decoding, syntactic parsing, and meaning construction (Crossley et al., 2008). Coh-Metrix thus reports on complex language and cohesion features. Cohesion is an objective property of the text which reflects the degree of logical ‘connectiveness’ between the sentences. Coh-Metrix examines the test using linguistic features that are related to cohesion.

The different indices reported by Coh-Metrix are grouped into 11 sections:

1. “Descriptive
2. Text Easability Principle Component scores
3. Referential Cohesion
4. LSA

5. Lexical Diversity
6. Connectives
7. Situation Model
8. Syntactic Complexity
9. Syntactic Pattern Density
10. Word Information and
11. Readability” (Kiselnikov et. al., 2020)

These different sections together comprise 106 indices. The 11th section readability, reports the Flesch Reading Ease, the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level, and the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score. The selected text was copied and pasted in the input section (Figure 2) (<http://141.225.61.35/cohmetrix2017>). For the study, the Flesch Reading Ease and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score were computed from the analysis done with Coh-Metrix.

Figure 2

Coh-Metrix Page

Created: September 1, 2012
Coh-Metrix 3.0
Last updated: Aug. 16, 2017

Enter your input

Entering your Text

1. You may write OR cut and paste text.
2. Please try to limit text to a maximum of 15,000 characters and remove irregular characters.
3. Paragraphs are marked by hard returns.
4. Press "Submit" and Coh-Metrix will analyze your text.

Viewing and Understanding your Results

1. When Coh-Metrix has analyzed your text the results will appear on the right side of the screen.
2. You may continue to enter and submit text on this screen. The results will continue to appear on the right side of the screen.

Download results

1. The result table can be downloaded by clicking the button Save Data

4.11.3 Text Inspector

Text Inspector is an online language analysis tool created by “Stephen Bax (Professor of Applied Linguistics) and supported by academic partners, The Centre for Research in English Language Learning and Assessment (CRELLA)” (<https://textinspector.com/>).

Text Inspector has the option of selecting the mode of text that is to be analyzed from three modes of text- writing, reading and listening (Figure 3). For this study, all the passages were analyzed using the mode of text as ‘reading’ and additional analysis to exclude all numbers (Figure 3). Text Inspector provides detailed information regarding readability (Flesch Reading Ease), complexity, lexical diversity, estimated CEFR level, EVP, BNC, COCA, AWL and phrases and parts of speech tagger. The EVP tool in the Text Inspector is developed with the Cambridge University Press and Cambridge English Language Assessment as part of the English Profile Project. This tool uses the Cambridge Learner Corpus (CLC) to help analyze texts in terms of their CEFR level (A1-C2) by classifying words by levels according to their meaning (<https://textinspector.com/workflow>).

The CEFR level estimated in the Text Inspector is based on the Overall Lexical Profile of the reading text. The Lexical Profile of the reading text is calculated based on the following seven metrics:

1. Statistics (sentence, word and syllable count, type/token ratio, etc.)
2. Lexical Diversity (MTLD- Measure of Textual Lexical Diversity and vocd-D)
(Malvern, Richards, Chipere and Durán, 2004; McCarthy and Jarvis, 2010)
3. Lexical sophistication: EVP (including % of words at each level)
4. Lexical sophistication: BNC

5. Lexical Sophistication: COCA
6. Lexical Sophistication: AWL (Coxhead, 2000)
7. Metadiscourse markers (linguistic features that add extra information to a text; 13 categories of metadiscourse markers) (Hyland, 2004; Bax, Nakatsuhara and Waller, 2019).

The Metadiscourse markers consist of textual metadiscourse markers- sequencing, label stages, announce goals, topics shifts as frame markers; code glosses; endophoric markers; evidentials and interpersonal metadiscourse markers- attitude markers, hedges, relational markers, person markers and emphatics (Bax et al., 2019; Hyland, 2004).

Based on these metrics that were attributed to CEFR levels, the overall analysis provides an estimate of CEFR level. The Text Inspector divides the 4 levels in each level of CEFR following the revision of the original descriptors in 2008 to include plus levels:

- A1 - Beginner
- A1+ - Beginner
- A2 - Beginner
- A2+ - Beginner
- B1 - Independent
- B1+ - Independent
- B2 – Upper-Intermediate
- B2+ - Upper-Intermediate
- C1 - Advanced
- C1+ - Advanced

- C2 – Proficiency
- C2+ - Proficiency.
- D1 – Academic (University- undergraduates)
- D2 – Academic (University- postgraduates and above)

The Text Inspector thus provides an account of the Lexical Profile and estimates the CEFR level of the text.

Figure 3

Text Inspector Page

The screenshot shows the Text Inspector web application interface. At the top, there is a dark blue header with the logo 'TEXTINSPECTOR' on the left and navigation links 'ANALYSE TEXT', 'REGISTER FOR FREE', 'MY ACCOUNT', and a 'MENU' icon on the right. Below the header, the main content area has a light yellow background. It starts with the heading 'Enter text' followed by instructions: 'Copy and paste, or type text into the box below. Then click ANALYSE. You can also analyse multiple documents by separating them with '#' or any other delimiter token. If you want to do this, tick split and choose the delimiter in the options below.' A blue banner below this states: 'Guests are limited to 250 words per document. To process larger documents upgrade your subscription.' There is a large text input box with the placeholder 'Paste or type text...'. Below the input box, a question asks: 'Is this student writing, or a reading/listening text? Choose the correct mode below for an accurate score.' To the right of this question is an 'ANALYSE' button. Below the input box and question, there are two sections. The left section, titled 'ANALYSIS OPTIONS', contains a 'Mode of text:' dropdown menu set to 'Writing', and three checkboxes: 'Split documents at this character:' (with a '#' character selected), 'Exclude all digits', and 'Use custom known words list'. The right section is titled 'UPLOAD FILES TO ANALYSE' and has a dropdown arrow.

4.12 Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the research aims and objectives along with the research approach adopted. The research analyses the quality of the textbooks with reference to the KCF and NCF in terms of a general evaluation via a textbook evaluation checklist. Corpus methodology is used to present objective data on vocabulary coverage, readability score and

CEFR level via computational tools. In the research, the competencies of LSRW skills is traced in comparison to the national standard as specified in NCERT and the global standard as reflected in CEFR. These data can be instrumental for future studies in textbook evaluation in applied linguistics and language education. Thus, the overall approach adopted in the research is both qualitative and quantitative (mixed-method approach). The analysis to address the various research questions discussed in this chapter is presented in the following chapters.

Chapter 5: Theoretical Evaluation of the Textbooks

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents a theoretical evaluation of the SCERT Kerala English textbooks at the Secondary level. As per the KCF 2007, a course in English at the secondary level aims to help the learner become an efficient user of English. Therefore, at the end of the course, he/she should be able to use the English language appropriately, fluently, and accurately.

For the evaluation process in the study, different categories of evaluation were selected from a review of evaluation checklists discussed in chapter 2. Against these selected evaluation parameters, the evaluation of each standard textbook is done separately, followed by a comparison of the standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks with the help of an evaluation checklist. The chapter then proceeds to evaluate the appropriateness of the textbooks with reference to KCF 2007 and KCF 2013. It ends with a summary of the theoretical evaluation of the textbooks.

5.2 Classroom Context

The textbooks selected for this evaluation study are used to teach and learn English in Kerala, a state in India, at the secondary school level. The secondary level is the 3rd stage (VIII to X) in Kerala's twelve-year educational schooling system. Secondary education or High School is the bridge between the Upper Primary or Elementary and the Higher Secondary education.

During this period, English is taught as the second language following the formal introduction of English as a language subject in the fifth standard (KCF 2007). Typically, the secondary standard learners belong to the age group of 14 to 15 years. Presently, secondary

school teachers are appointed based on the Kerala Teacher Eligibility Test (TET) qualification that began in 2012. Language teachers at the secondary have to clear the Category III of TET, both the general paper and the subject-specific area- English. The TET English syllabus includes pedagogical understanding and content, concepts, and ideas. The teachers are tested on English literature, phonetics, grammar and use, and vocabulary. The content of the syllabus heavily depends on what is prescribed in the secondary English curriculum. A baseline study on assessment of student's performance based on learning outcomes by SCERT conducted in 2019¹⁵ found that the teachers rely heavily on the textbook as the only resource material. On account of this, textbook evaluation has been carried out in the study.

5.3 Textbook evaluation

As discussed in the earlier chapter, textbook evaluation followed Cunningsworth's (1995), McGrath's (2002), and McDonough and Shaw's (1993) evaluation framework involving first glance/ external evaluation and an in-depth/ internal evaluation. This evaluation framework is different from the evaluation conducted in period stages. The evaluation checklist also adopted the view of Littlejohn's (1998 and 2011) framework of examining materials 'as they are' and Byrd's (2001) approach of evaluating textbooks to find the fit between the textbook and curriculum.

For this study, evaluation categories were selected following the different parameters from various evaluation checklists mentioned above. The criteria chosen for the evaluation could be grouped under the following 12 parameters.

¹⁵ Comprehensive assessment of students' performance based on learning outcomes. (2019). SCERT.

1. Physical makeup
2. Layout and visual aspect
3. Availability and affordability
4. Supplementary materials
5. Aims and objectives
6. Organization and structure
7. Language type
8. Vocabulary list/ index
9. Content type
10. Activities, exercises, and tasks
11. Representation of LSRW skills
12. Vocabulary and grammar

The ‘layout and visual aspect’ parameter selected was also reviewed in terms of student’s perception. Harp and Mayer (1997) found that illustrations and colourful details in scientific texts positively affected students’ learning and interest (Harp and Mayer, 1997). The same was observed in the case of the visualization checklist of EFL textbooks in Iran. Yazdanmehr and Shoghi (2014) highlighted the importance of visual aspects of the textbook; typography, visual arts (illustrations), page layout, cover design, and physical makeup on the process of learning (Yazdanmehr and Shoghi, 2014).

Following these evaluation parameters, a qualitative analysis was conducted. The selected materials for analysis involved six textbooks- two textbooks for each standard. The evaluation is carried out for each standard in the order of VIII, IX, and X, taught in the academic year 2019-2020.

5.4 Evaluation of Standard VIII textbooks.

The standard VIII textbooks contained two textbooks:

- Kerala Reader English Standard VIII Part 1
- Kerala Reader English Standard VIII Part 2

The evaluation checklist with questions in the different categories is given in the Appendix E. The following is the qualitative discussion on these questions in the evaluation checklist.

5.4.1 Physical makeup

The standard VII textbooks, Part 1 and Part 2, were of the same size (26.5 x 20.5 cm) as the other prescribed subject textbooks of SCERT Kerala. In terms of the book size, these textbooks are longer in size than those of NCERT textbooks. The binding of the textbooks was simple stapled binding. The cover page of the textbook is thicker compared to the remaining pages in the textbook. However, the hardcover page is not as durable as the colour fades along with the textbook's binding, and corners curl up with repeated use. On the other side of the textbook's front binding page, Article 51 A, Fundamental Duties of Citizens, Part IV A in the Constitution of India, has been mentioned. The National Pledge and the National Anthem are provided on the second page of the textbooks. The back binding of the text mentions the Kerala State Commission for Protection of Child Rights and the contact address of the Kerala State Commission for Protection of Child Rights, Child Helpline, and Kerala Police Helpline. The Kerala Reader English standard VIII, Part 1 and Part 2 textbooks are published by the Kerala Books and Publications Society (KBPS), Kakkanad, Kochi. Both the textbooks together contained 200 pages.

5.4.2 Layout and visual aspect

The cover design, content page, typography, visual aspects, and page layout have been analysed in this category. The front page looks moderately attractive with an artistic illustration of men, women, children, animals, vehicles, and buildings. The illustration artist is mentioned in the textbook along with the rest of the textbook development members and experts on the fourth page of the textbook. However, the content page lacked information as only units were written with no additional details on the text (poems and prose text). The next page did contain this information under the title, 'Unit at a Glance'. However, no page numbers were provided. This lack of details does not give the adequate clarity needed as the contents of the textbook.

In terms of the typography parameter, it was seen that the font of the text (poems and prose text) was uniformly written in the font Garamond size 14. The title heading of the prose and poem texts are distinctively larger than the text with font Times New Roman size 20. Additional information, tips, and questions along the prose text were uniformly written in the Arial font 10. However, there was a lack of uniformity in terms of font size and type among the activities. This was because of the interchange of font size between 10 and 11 and font type between Arial and Segoe Script. Overall, typography fonts interchanged among Garamond, Times New Roman, Arial, and Segoe Script. Line spacing was seen to appropriately clear. With respect to the typographical colour, the title of the text provided on the textbook's cover page is in highlighted ink. The rest of the pages in the textbook were a dull grey. The pages were therefore unattractive and unappealing. Still, the text colour was adequately visible with appropriate contrast.

The textbook's visual aspects are explained in terms of illustrations, images, visual sizes and colours, authentic pictures, and charts. In the textbook, each prose and poem text were given appropriate illustrations. However, the colours and sizes of these illustrations were different. The illustrations were hand-drawn pictures with darkened shading, which could easily be duplicated. Accordingly, some of the images lacked clarity. Also, on account of the dark shading in some of the images, it distorted the appearance of the text in the subsequent page, which caused a hindrance in reading. The given illustrations could be seen to provide an extended imagery representation of the respective text. Charts were used in the exercises and activities section, which was observed to be adequately valid in size and colour.

In terms of the general use of the page, almost all illustrations were formatted with 'wrap text' function. As the wrap text function wraps the text around the image regardless of the shape of the image (tight text wrap function), it creates difficulty in the continuous reading of the text. This resulted in spacing issues. There was also no proportion between the text and visual content on the page. The bottom section on each page of the prose text and poem text contained exercises (questions from different extracts, information about author, information about words, and vocabulary) in small font size Arial 10.

Each prose and poem text in different units were presented on separate pages. The exercises and activities were also given adequate boundaries.

5.4.3 Availability and affordability

The SCERT Kerala textbooks printed at the KBPS State Government-owned publication house are provided only in the different schools (Government, Aided, and Unaided schools) in Kerala or SCERT directed centres. The textbooks have been prohibited

for sale in local bookstores. Accordingly, in Thiruvananthapuram, textbooks can only be obtained at the SCERT Kerala textbook office. The textbooks are affordable, with each text reasonably priced at 60-70 rupees.

5.4.4 Supplementary materials

Though the KCF 2007 advocates using supplementary materials, no supplementary materials are prescribed in the syllabus. Also, there is no mention of any additional resources in the textbook exercises or activities.

5.4.5 Aims and objectives

In the textbook page addressing the learners by the SCERT Director, the design behind the textbook is stated. The textbook has been designed with the intent to provide authentic pieces of literature and a variety of language learning activities. The need to become confident English language readers enriched with the ability to use English effectively and efficiently is emphasized.

Though an overall objective is not provided, each unit contains a list of learning outcomes that are expected from the respective unit. The learning outcomes mentioned in each unit are specific to the particular unit. At the end of each unit, a table of learning outcome statements was provided for the student to fill in. The statements had to be marked against one of the three categories; 'I can do it myself', or 'I can do it with the help of my friends', or 'I need further improvement'. These statements corresponded with the learning outcomes mentioned at the start of every unit.

5.4.6 Organization and structure

The first textbook, Kerala Reader English Standard VIII Part 1, contains three units, while the second textbook, Kerala Reader English Standard VIII Part 2, comprises two units. Each unit contains two prose and two poems by different authors. According to the VIII syllabus directive, the second prose in each unit is given exclusively for extra reading. This implies that exam papers do not necessarily contain questions from these prose texts. Furthermore, the prose and poem texts in the units do not follow any particular order.

In each unit, there were seven sections, ‘Let’s revisit’, ‘Let’s enrich our vocabulary’, ‘Let’s write’, ‘Let’s speak’, ‘Let’s discover how grammar works’, ‘Let’s edit’, and ‘Let’s play with language’. Each of these sections contained different activities dedicated to developing language skills, vocabulary knowledge and mastery of language use.

5.4.7 Language type

The language in the text matches the present-day usage of English making the language material authentic. As units are categorized based on themes, there is a variety in language content and type.

The language is treated at the discourse level. Accordingly, all the prose texts in the textbooks are in the format of stories, irrespective of their original format. All the prose texts are also adapted from the original texts.

5.4.8 Vocabulary list/ index

No vocabulary list is provided at the end of each unit. Glossary is provided only at the end of each Reader textbook. Though vocabulary exercises are presented in each unit, the students are asked to refer to the glossary given at the end of the textbook or a dictionary.

5.4.9 Content type

The content of the text is categorized based on themes. The different units with the respective themes are listed in Table 1.

Table 1

Units and themes of standard VIII textbook

Units	Name of the Unit	Theme
Unit 1	Hues and Views	Art
Unit 2	Wings and Wheels	Travel
Unit 3	Seeds and Deeds	Work
Unit 4	Flowers and Showers	Nature
Unit 5	Share and Care	Human Values

Table 2 lists the multiple sub-themes reflected in the prose and poem texts of each unit.

Table 2

Sub-themes of the units in standard VIII textbooks

Unit: Theme	Unit: Sub-themes
Unit 1: Art	Importance of art
	Dedication to art
	Artistic freedom
	Art and life
	Eternity of art
Unit 2: Travel	New ideas of travel
	Adventure in traveling

	Knowledge and insights on traveling
	Mental and spiritual aspects of traveling
Unit 3: Work	Various forms of work
	Dedication to work
	Role of work in life
	Dignity of labor
Unit 4: Nature	Healing power of nature
	Communion with nature
	Harmony in nature
	significance of nature
Unit 5: Hyman Values	Friendship
	Empathy
	Understanding and co-operation
	Need of love and care to people with disabilities

5.4.10 Activities, exercises, and tasks

Table 3 provides a list of the multiple activities, exercises, and tasks provided in each unit. Most of these are directly linked to the content of the respective unit. From the analysis of each unit's activities, it was seen that different activities contributed to the different language elements and vocabulary learning.

Table 3

Activities in the standard VIII textbooks

Unit	Activities
Unit 1	Story map
	Conversation writing
	Script reading and interpretation

	Script developing
	Skit performance
	Character map- character analysis
	Compose tune for the poem (song) (not a separate activity)
Unit 2	Mind map
	Story narration from illustrations
	Speech
	Story writing
	Writing news report
	Developing breaking news headlines
	Interview
	Word web
	Choreograph the poem in the form of stills
Unit 3	Short story analysis
	Diary entry
	Letter of appreciation
	Character sketch
	Speech
	Interpretation of signboards
	Flow-chart
	Word puzzle
Unit 4	Poem comprehension and interpretation (metaphor and simile)
	Story analysis
	Character sketch
	Letter (sad) writing
	Diary entry
	Poster interpretation
	Speech (condolence meeting)
	Crossword puzzle
	Story completing and retelling

Unit 5	Developing blog (not a separate activity)
	Describing different personalities from illustrations
	Drafting notice
	Character sketch
	Developing character profile
	Slideshow using photos and posters

Some of these activities are required to be performed in pairs or small groups. This allowed for an interactive, cooperative learning setting that would inculcate team spirit.

5.4.11 Representation of LSRW skills

The different activities enabled the development of LSRW skills. From the activities, it can be seen that reading, writing, and speaking were more emphasized as there was a lack of audio elements in the textbook. Listening skills were limited to text reading. Both the listening and reading skills majorly involved listening, reading, and comprehension of prose texts and poems. Accordingly, it is not explicitly mentioned in Table 4. The Speaking and Writing skills represented in the different units are:

Table 4

Representation of speaking and listening skill in the units in standard VIII textbooks

Unit	Speaking	Writing
Unit 1	Classroom interaction- skit, conversation, and story narration	Scriptwriting
	Composing tune for the poem (song)	Character sketch
Unit 2	Speech presentation	Preparing graphic novel
	Conducting interviews	Speech writing

	Presenting poem choreograph	Developing news report
		Breaking news headlines
Unit 3	Sharing experiences (happy/ unhappy)	Diary entry
	Speech presentation	Letter of appreciation
		Speech writing
Unit 4	Story retelling	Designing posters
	Speech at a condolence meeting	Letter writing
		Diary entry
		Critical appreciation of the poem
		Story writing
		Blog writing
Unit 5	Slide presentation	Drafting notice
		Character sketch

In addition to specific speaking skills, classroom interaction is a uniform aspect across the different units' activities. This is, however, dependent on the teacher and overall classroom performance. Also, the lack of audio-visual elements in the syllabus is jarring as it highlights the disproportion in the representation in LSRW skills.

5.4.12 Vocabulary and grammar

Vocabulary was explicitly mentioned in the exercises of each unit. In the glossary given at the end of the textbooks, the Part 1 textbook contained 130 words, while the Part 2 textbook had 65 words. The standard VIII textbooks aimed to teach 15 grammar points mentioned in Table 5.

Table 5

Grammar elements in standard VIII textbooks

No.	Grammar Elements
1	Suffixes
2	Prefixes
3	Question tags
4	Singular forms and plurals
5	Formal language
6	Noun phrases (sentence analysis)
7	Possessive pronouns
8	Determiners
9	Conditional clause (If- clause)
10	Regular and irregular verbs
11	Synonyms
12	Antonyms
13	Phrasal verbs
14	Simple present tense
15	Present progressive tense

From the textbook, it can be seen that grammar is recycled across the units in both textbooks. These different language elements were also practised through the activities mentioned above and other additional exercises. One activity that was consistent across the units was a passage that had to be edited.

5.4.13 Detailed evaluation of a unit

A unit is taken at random from the five units of the textbook for detailed evaluation. One unit is selected as all units follow a similar organization and structure form. For example, Unit 3. This unit titled ‘Seeds and Deeds’ with the theme ‘Work’, contains two prose and two poems. The prose texts are: ‘The light on the hills’ by Lucy Clifford and ‘Rosa

Parks sat still’ by Rosa Parks. The two poems are: ‘The sower’ by Victor Marie Hugo and ‘The village blacksmith’ by H.W. Longfellow.

At the beginning of Unit 3, learning outcomes expected from this unit are listed. The following is what the learner will be able to do by learning the unit:

- Listen, read and comprehend various forms like stories, poems and biographies.
- Analyse short stories based on the reading of the text.
- Read aloud with proper stress and intonation.
- Construct linguistic discourses like a diary, letter, character sketch, etc.
- Identify the main events and prepare flow charts.
- Analyse poems based on their theme and structure.
- Identify, locate and understand poetic devices like images, rhyming words, simile, etc.
- Use prefixes to form antonyms
- Use past tense in various contexts.
- Identify noun phrases used in predicate.
- Present a speech before the class.
- Share his/her experiences with other learners in the class.
- Gain confidence and motivation to achieve success.

The Unit 3 content begins with an anecdote titled, ‘Smart work versus hard work’.

The student is asked to find out the moral conveyed in the anecdote. Following this is the first prose, ‘The light on the hills’. Some of the paragraphs are numbered so that it corresponds with the questions provided alongside the text. In addition to the questions related to the text,

15 words were marked in the bottom section of the text for vocabulary learning. However, these words were given as questions rather than as a dictionary. These new words are later used in only one activity in the ‘Let’s enrich our vocabulary’ section. This does not allow much practice of new language material that is introduced in the text.

The first two activities in the ‘Let’s revisit’ section, following the text, were based on the short story analysis. The first activity was in a story template, while the second activity was in a flow-chart form. The following section, ‘Let’s enrich our vocabulary’, contained four activities. The first activity was the completion of a passage with appropriate words that were selected from the text. The second and third activities looked into the use of suffixes and prefixes, respectively. Finally, the fourth activity dealt with regular and irregular verbs.

The ‘Let’s write’ section contains three activities, a diary entry, a letter of appreciation, and a character sketch. All the content of these activities is related to the prose. The ‘Let’s speak’ section involves two activities, sharing experiences and presenting a speech. The first activity is the only activity that allows for classwork in groups. In the second activity, the speech activity is related to an additional resource, a video of a speech given by Severn Suzuki at the UN Earth Summit 1992. However, though there is a reference to the video, no link is provided for the same. The speech highlighting motivation and the need for hard work is again related to the prose text. These were the only two activities that aid speaking skill. However, both these activities have space provided for writing. So, whether this is utilized as a speaking skill exercise or a writing skill exercise is up to the teacher.

In the final section's first activity, 'Let's discover how grammar works', students are asked to identify conditional clauses from the sentences provided in the prose text. The second activity involves a review of grammar activity done in the previous two units, analysis of sentences with respect to noun phrases. Lastly, the third activity presents real-life pictures of signboards where the head nouns of noun phrases have to be marked. Unfortunately, the coloured signboard print was visible on the sides of the pages around it. As a result, the pages were unattractive and obscured question reading and answer writing.

The following two sections, 'Let's edit' and 'Let's play with language', did not have separate activities. In the former, the students had to edit the errors underlined in a passage and rewrite it. In the latter, a word puzzle with words relating to emotion was given. Also, jumbled verbs were shown as words which the students had to identify. Both these tasks were interactive, informative, and fun.

Following these activities is the second prose text, 'Rosa Parks sat still'. This prose text is provided exclusively for extra reading. This prose text was not numbered, but it had related questions and eight words marked for vocabulary learning. After the prose text, a flowchart on the major events in the text is provided, which the students had to fill up.

Two poems were provided in the unit. Each poem had questions corresponding to it. In the first poem, questions were asked on the rhyming words and poetic devices present in the poem -alliteration. However, there was no reference to any other poems or additional materials in the exercises. The second poem only contained related questions. No vocabulary items were marked though the words were present in the glossary given at the end of the textbook.

Overall, in terms of LSRW skills, writing skill seems to be given importance, with a diary entry, letter of appreciation, speech writing, story-completion, character sketch, and editing passage error. Listening skill is limited to the students listening to the prose text reading and the reference given to watch the mentioned speech in YouTube, a 7-minute video. This need not be easily accessible in all classrooms. With respect to the learning outcome, ‘Read aloud with proper stress and intonation’, no specific instruction or direction is given for the same.

5.5 Evaluation of Standard IX textbooks.

The standard IX textbooks contained two textbooks:

- Kerala Reader English IX Part 1
- Kerala Reader English IX Part 2

The two textbooks were analysed with respect to the evaluation parameters mentioned in section 5.2. The present evaluation is presented with comparisons to the textbook evaluation of the standard VIII textbooks.

5.5.1 Physical makeup

Part 1 and Part 2 were of the same size (26.5 x 20.5 cm), similar to the standard VIII textbooks. However, the textbooks had a saddle stitch binding which was different from the standard VIII textbooks. Though the cover page was thicker than the rest of the pages, it was not that durable. Still, compared to the standard VIII textbooks, the pages were of better quality. Both textbooks together had a page count of 204. Similar to the standard VIII textbooks, Article 51 A, Fundamental Duties of Citizens, Part IV A in the Constitution of India, the National Pledge, the National Anthem, and the Kerala State Commission for

Protection of Child Rights along with the contact address of the Kerala State Commission for Protection of Child Rights, Child Helpline, and Kerala Police Helpline are provided.

However, there is a difference in the organization of these pages. The Kerala Books and Publications Society (KBPS), Kakkanad, Kochi, also published the standard IX textbooks.

5.5.2 Layout and visual aspects

The textbooks are analysed alongside the same attributes as the analysis conducted on the previous textbooks. Compared to the standard VIII textbooks, the standard IX textbooks' content page provides additional details. The titles of the prose text and poem text have been mentioned without page number as references. Still, there is a lack of clarity as page numbers could be provided in the content page for each prose/ poem text.

Multiple font types were used to increase the textbook appeal in terms of attractiveness. Major font types involved, Garamond 12 in the content page, Book Antiqua 30 and Bahnschrift Light 22 for the title of prose/ poem text, Bookman Old Style 12 for text, Calibri 11 for questions in the text, Arial 11 and Times New Roman 12 in exercises. Though there is a mixture of different font types, it was not distracting. In contrast with the dull grey pages of the standard VIII textbooks, these were much whiter in colour and thereby had better contrast and brightness. Overall, the textbook was considerably better in terms of attractiveness, increasing the textbook's appeal. The same can be said about the illustrations, charts, and pictures in the textbook. The pictures and illustrations used were much better in terms of clear-cut margins. Though some of the textbook illustrations employed the 'wrap text' function, it does not distort line spacing or hinder reading. Additionally, the activities section involved increased use of illustrations.

Regarding the overall general layout, the right-side section on each page of the prose text and poem text contained questions related to the different extracts in font type Calibri 11.

5.5.3 Availability and affordability

The SCERT Kerala textbooks are sent directly to the different schools (Government, Aided, and Unaided schools) in Kerala, or SCERT directed centres. In Thiruvananthapuram, the centre of the SCERT office, textbooks are sold at a reasonable price of 50-60 rupees. The textbooks are not allowed for sale in local bookstores.

5.5.4 Supplementary materials

No supplementary materials are prescribed for the standard IX syllabus. However, the textbooks have several references to additional resources. In addition, there is an integration of Information and Communication Technology (ICT). Quick Response (QR) code is provided in different activities to aid ICT-enabled learning.

5.5.5 Aims and objectives

The standard IX textbooks aim to improve students' proficiency in the use of the English language. The textbooks include meaningful, engaging, interactive, purposeful activities aiding the construction of life-related discourses and enrichment of linguistic and literary skills. The purpose of the QR code is to connect the textbooks to a wealth of digital assets.

Compared to the standard VIII textbooks, where learning outcomes are provided in each unit, there is no mention of the same in the standard IX textbooks.

5.5.6 Organization and structure

The first textbook, Kerala Reader English IX Part 1, contains three units, while the second textbook, Kerala Reader English IX Part 2, contains two units. Each unit consists of two prose texts (story, autobiography, anecdote, play, memoir, speech, narrative) and one poem text (poem/ song).

Two main sections are presented in each unit, ‘Let’s revisit and reflect’ and ‘Language Activities’. In some units, these sections are repeated. The prose texts are given under the heading ‘Read and reflect’, while the poem text is mentioned under ‘Read and enjoy’.

5.5.7 Language type

The language used in the text matches with current real-world English. Original texts are adapted to fit the present-day language. As the content type is life-related discourses, it ensures language authenticity. Care has been taken to incorporate inside and outside classroom experiences for students' holistic learning development.

The textbooks are designed based on themes with the view that the thematic unit integrates LSRW skills communicatively, exposing students to interact naturally in the language.

5.5.8 Vocabulary list/ Glossary

A glossary is provided at the end of each unit. The glossary list is provided with QR code (e-glossary) that contains three options; ‘meaning’, ‘pronunciation’, and ‘example’. However, the option of ‘example’ is not presently functional. The ‘pronunciation’ option is advantageous as students can pronounce the word correctly without relying entirely on how

teachers pronounce the word. However, complete dependence on teachers' pronunciation does not always have a positive result, as teachers sometimes make mistakes when pronouncing a word. This feature is not present in the standard VIII textbooks.

5.5.9 Content type

Similar to the standard VIII textbooks, the content of the standard IX textbooks is also theme-based. Accordingly, Table 6 list the themes of the five units in the textbooks.

Table 6

Units and themes of standard IX textbooks

Units	Name of the Unit	Theme
Unit 1	Aspire to win	Sports
Unit 2	Bonds of love	Values and attitudes
Unit 3	Care for the morrow	Preservation of Nature
Unit 4	Dawn of hope	Power of hope
Unit 5	Enlightening souls	Happiness

Each unit also contains multiple sub-themes as listed in Table 7.

Table 7

Sub-themes of the units in standard IX textbooks

Unit: Theme	Unit: Sub-themes
Unit 1: Sports	Sportsman spirit
	Motivation
	Family support
	Hard work for success

	Health consciousness
	Goal setting
Unit 2: Values and Attitudes	Social ethics
	Universal love
	Maternal love
	Selfless service
	Truth, peace and sacrifice
Unit 3: Preservation of Nature	Natural calamities
	Environmental issues
	Natural phenomena
Unit 4: Power of hope	Willpower
	Determination
	Inspiration
	Optimism
	Compassion
	Sacrifice
	Disaster management
Unit 5: Enlightening souls	True happiness lies within us
	Need for open conversation
	Live in the present
	Friendship

5.5.10 Activities, exercises, and tasks

The different units contain several activities and exercises. Some of these are directly related to the content of the text, while other activities have integrated various tasks with the text content. The different activities in the units are listed together in Table 8.

Table 8*Activities in the standard IX textbooks*

Unit	Activities
Unit 1	Character sketch Write-up (discussion and write-up) [not mentioned as group activity] Read given announcement script Prepare announcement and present Prepare Curriculum Vitae (CV) Listen to commentary (QR code) Complete commentary from illustrations (screenshots from video) (QR code) Prepare profile and introduction script Blog Poem analysis (Refrain and Consonance) Listen to songs (Celine Dion and Whitney Houston) Discuss the role of songs in sports and games Write theme song for sports meet or games championship
Unit 2	Paragraph writing Interpreting chart reading Classroom discussion Interpreting posters Designing posters Preparing cinquains and presenting in class Analysing poem (imagery) Perform tableau in groups Choreography of the poem Poetic devices (Metaphor, simile, personification, alliteration) Write an appreciation of the poem

	Complete talk show model (group activity)
	Prepare album
Unit 3	Analyse poem (metaphorical expression, personification, alliteration)
	Prepare note of appreciation of poem
	Collect similar song to sing/ recite in class
	Write-up
	Conduct debate
	Role-play
	Writing email
	Read aloud scene from the given play
	Prepare class magazine
	Organise formal release of the magazine
	Prepare notice
	Prepare poster
	Prepare welcome speech script
Unit 4	Write-up
	Classroom discussion
	Prepare paper for webinar
	Read and analyse news report
	Prepare news report
	Poem analysis (personification, alliteration, visual images)
	Story map
	Character indication map
	Paragraph writing
	Make greeting cards
	Create a comic strip from a scene in prose text
	Read given radio play (perform and upload) (QR code)
	Analyse a radio play
	Prepare a script of a radio play and perform

Unit 5	Watch cartoon animation of the prose text (QR code)
	Complete storyboard
	Construct conversations to prepare a script
	Watch the film to evaluate the prepared script (QR code)
	Prepare dialogue from a scene of the film (QR code)
	Write subtitle
	Interpreting cartoon strip
	Conduct debate
	Paragraph writing
	Analyse poem (alliteration, simile, metaphor)
	Dialogue completion
	Character sketch
	Letter writing
	Write-up
	Vocabulary activity

In addition to these activities, all units contained an editing activity and a listening activity with QR code titled ‘BOBO’. Since these are activities that appear across all units, it is not explicitly mentioned in Table 8. Some of these required students to work in pairs or groups.

5.5.11 Representation of LSRW skills

The different activities mentioned in the above table enable the development of LSRW skills. LSRW skills representation in standard IX textbooks contrasts with the standard VIII textbooks, where there is a lack of equal representation of LSRW skills. Listening activities were enabled with the inclusion of ICT (QR code) in the textbooks. Also, at the beginning of Unit 4 and 5, independent theme-related questions (Power of hope and

Happiness) with the help of QR code were posed to the students. Table 9 lists out the representation of LSRW skills across the units.

Table 9

Representation of LSRW skills in the standard IX textbooks

Unit	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Unit 1	Listen to the poem (QR code)	Present prepared announcement	Read given announcement script	Complete commentary from
	Listen to Commentary (QR code)	Discuss the role of songs in sports and games	Poem analysis (Refrain and Consonance)	illustrations (screenshots from video- QR code)
	Listen to songs (Celine Dion and Whitney Houston)	Present theme song for sports meet or games		Character sketch
	BOBO (QR code)	championship		Write-up
				Prepare announcement
				Prepare CV
				Prepare profile and introduction script
				Blog
				Write theme song for sports meet or games championship

Unit 2	Listen to the poem (QR code)	Classroom discussion	Interpreting chart reading	Paragraph writing
	Language Activity:	Presenting cinquains in class	Interpreting posters	Designing posters
	Reported Speech (QR code)	Perform tableau in groups	Analysing poem (imagery)	Preparing cinquains
	BOBO (QR code)	Choreography of the poem	Analyse poetic devices (Metaphor, simile, personification, alliteration)	Write an appreciation of the poem
		Conduct talk show model (group activity)		Prepare album
				Complete talk show model
Unit 3	Listen to the poem (QR code)	Collect similar song to sing/ recite in class	Read aloud scene from the given play	Prepare note of appreciation of the poem
	Listen to speech (prose content- 3:30 minutes)	Conduct debate	Analyse poem (metaphorical expression, personification, alliteration)	Write-up
	BOBO (QR code)	Role-play		Writing email
		Organise formal release of the magazine		Prepare class magazine
		Present		Prepare notice
		welcome speech		Prepare poster
				Prepare welcome speech script
Unit 4	Listen to the poem (QR code)	Perform given radio play	Read and analyse news report	Write-up
	Listen to the radio play (QR code)	Classroom discussion	Poem analysis (personification, alliteration)	Prepare paper for a webinar
				Prepare news report
				Story map

Unit 5	Watch cartoon animation of the prose text (QR code)		alliteration, visual images)	Character indication map
	Listen to a song -language activity (QR code)		Read and analyse given radio play	Paragraph writing
	Watch video of memoir (QR code)			Make greeting cards
	BOBO (QR code)			Create a comic strip from a scene in prose text
	Listen to the speech (QR code)	Conduct debate	Analyse poem (alliteration, simile, metaphor)	Prepare a script for a radio play
	Watch film (prose text) to evaluate prepared script (QR code)		Interpreting cartoon strip	Complete storyboard
	Listen to the poem (QR code)			Construct conversations to prepare a script
	Watch movie in Hindi of prose text (QR code)			Prepare dialogue from a scene of the film (QR code)
	BOBO (QR code)			Write subtitle
				Paragraph writing
				Dialogue completion
				Character sketch
				Letter writing

In the above activities across units, reading skill related to reading and comprehension of the prose text and poem text is not explicitly mentioned.

Across all units, poems (five in total) are provided with QR code of the poem recitation. Listening skill representation in Unit 2 is limited to language activity (Reported speech and BOBO). Also, in Unit 3, listening skill is limited to the prose text, listening to the speech. No activity is given in relation to this listening activity as the same is presented as prose content (reading skill). In Unit 5, QR code provided with the text shows the Hindi movie of the text, which is an episode from the show 'Malgudi days'. This listening activity fosters the integration of two languages, English and Hindi.

In speaking skill representation, speaking skill activity in Unit 5 is significantly less, with just a debate performance that focuses on the use of expressions agree/disagree.

From the above analysis, it can be seen that there is a proportional representation of LSRW skills through writing skill activities is comparatively more than the activities of the other skills.

5.5.12 Vocabulary and grammar

Vocabulary activities are very limited in standard IX textbooks compared to the standard VIII textbooks' vocabulary activities. In Unit 1, vocabulary was limited to finding 17 action words from the jumbled puzzle. However, these words were not present in the text content. Instead, they were generally related to the unit's theme, sports. In Units 2 and 3, there was no vocabulary activity.

On the other hand, vocabulary activity was present in Unit 4 and Unit 5. Unit 4 involved vocabulary activity related to words in different professions. Vocabulary activity in Unit 5 involved identifying the word from the letters in jumbled order, understanding the meaning, and using the word in appropriate situations. However, these words were not present in the prose texts. From this vocabulary analysis, it can be seen that vocabulary learning solely depended on glossary learning.

Grammar related language elements are provided under the title ‘Language activity’. The same is used here to discuss the different elements of grammar and language and is listed in Table 10.

Table 10

Language activity in standard IX textbooks

No.	Language activity
1	Usage of idiom
2	Subject and predicate
3	Subject-Verb agreement
4	Auxiliary verb question vs question word question
5	Main clause and if-clause
6	Linkers
7	Imperative sentences
8	Direct and Indirect speech / Reported speech
9	Sentence Analysis- Noun Phrase and Verb Phrase
10	Determiner
11	VP constituents / Adverbs
12	Present perfect and simple past tense forms
13	Present continuous tense (am/is/are + verb + ing)

14	had better + verb construction
15	Phrasal verbs
16	Modal auxiliaries
17	Would rather constructions
18	Connectors (and, but, or, neither...nor, either...or, both, so...that)
19	Prepositions
20	Prefixes and suffixes
21	Active and passive voice
22	Relative pronoun
23	Relative clauses
24	Non-defining relative clauses

From the textbooks, different elements of grammar were taught in the different units. However, there was no recycling of these grammar elements across the units in the textbooks. There is thus a lack of grammar revision in the textbooks. Additionally, Unit 1, 3, 4, and 5 has a 'Let's edit' activity.

5.5.13 Detailed evaluation of a unit

From the five units in the standard IX textbooks, Unit 4 was selected for detailed evaluation on account of the comparatively equal proportion of LSRW skills representation. Unit 4, 'Dawn of Hope' with the theme, 'Power of Hope', consists of two prose texts and one poem text. The prose texts are: 'The jungle air crash' adapted text from Julianne Margaret Koepcke's memoir, 'When I fell from the sky' and an adapted version of the story, 'The last leaf' by O. Henry. The poem text is 'On killing a tree' by Gieve Patel.

Unit 4 begins with Walt Whitman's quote, "Keep your face always towards the sunshine- and the shadows will fall behind you." A picture of sunrise accompanies the quote.

This image's source was traced to the entry, 'Let the light in' by Karen Ball (2nd October 2013) in the blog, 'The Steve Laube agency'¹⁶. Following this are questions relating to personal experiences requiring students to write about something or someone who has inspired them and how the inspiration helped shaping their personality. In addition to this, students were required to identify the picture of a famous personality and listen to the video about the person. The QR code for the same was provided. Students were then asked to write how they would face challenging situations. This introductory page of the unit is very beneficial as students are asked to pen down their thoughts which will help develop their thought process.

The first prose text in this unit is 'The jungle air crash'. In the prose text pages, questions relating to the prose content are given in the page's right-side section. Three illustrations are provided in this prose text. This prose text is also embedded with a QR code that is a movie of this real-life incident. Following this prose text, is the first section, 'Let's revisit and reflect', which comprises questions on the prose text content. Activity 1 too contained questions on the text content, while the questions in the remaining three activities were related to the sub-theme, 'Disaster management'. So, activities 3 and 4 involved questions on the 2018 Kerala floods. The inclusion of this calamity helps students to discuss real-life situations. The activities involve write-up, classroom discussion, preparing paper for webinars, analysing news reports, and preparing news reports. This involves the integration of LSRW skills.

¹⁶ <https://stevelaube.com/let-the-light-in/>

Following the prose text is the poem, 'On killing a tree'. As stated earlier, the poem text is linked with a recitation of the poem via QR code. The poem is illustrated with a painting. The subsequent section, 'Let's revisit and enjoy the poem' involves activities on the content of the poem. The students are required to analyse the poem with respect to poetic devices, alliteration, personification, and visual images.

The unit ends with the last prose text, 'The last leaf'. Under the first section, 'Let's revisit and reflect', five activities are provided. Each of these activities is related to the prose text. The writing skill activities involve; story map (Activity 1), character sketch (Activity 2), paragraph writing (Activity 2), greeting cards (Activity 3), completing conversations between story characters (Activity 4), developing conversation into a comic strip (Activity 4), and preparing the script of a radio play (Activity 5). Activity 5 also includes watching the cartoon animation of the story on YouTube, reading and performing the given radio play, and presenting a self-created radio play. It also involves a classroom discussion on the features of the radio play. QR code is provided for the same. The activities in this section can be seen to incorporate integration of LSRW skills effectively.

Following this is the 'Language activities', which comprises nine activities. Activities 8 and 9 involve vocabulary exposure and learning. In Activity 5, prepositions are explained via a song provided in written format and audio form (QR code). Such integration of audio-visual elements helps the students to understand aspects of grammar without being bored. The unit ends with the BOBO activity and e-glossary of words from the prose and poem texts in the unit.

5.6 Evaluation of Standard X textbooks.

The standard X textbooks contained two textbooks:

- Kerala Reader English X Part 1
- Kerala Reader English X Part 2

These two textbooks were analysed with respect to the evaluation parameters mentioned in section 5.2. The present evaluation is presented with comparisons from the textbook evaluation of standard VIII and IX textbooks.

5.6.1 Physical makeup

The standard X textbooks, Part 1 and Part 2, were of the same size (26.5 x 20.5 cm), similar to both the standard VIII and IX textbooks. Like the standard IX textbooks, these textbooks had a saddle stitch binding, different from the standard VIII textbooks. The standard X textbooks are similar to the standard IX textbooks in terms of durability. The textbooks published by the KBPS, Kakkanad, Kochi contain 176 pages. In these textbooks too, details on the Article 51 A, Fundamental Duties of Citizens, Part IV A in the Constitution of India, the National Pledge, the National Anthem, and the Kerala State Commission for Protection of Child Rights along with the contact address of the Kerala State Commission for Protection of Child Rights, Child Helpline, and Kerala Police Helpline are provided. The organization of these pages is similar to the standard IX textbooks.

5.6.2 Layout and visual aspects

As mentioned in the earlier sections 5.4.2 and 5.5.2, the cover design, content page, typography, visual aspects, and page layout are analysed. Firstly, on the content page, the titles of the units, prose, and poem texts are provided with page numbers. In addition, each

unit is equipped with the beginning page number and ending page number. The different prose and poem texts are also separately provided with numbers. This is different from the standard IX textbooks, where no page numbers were provided, and the standard VIII textbooks, where there was no mention of the prose and poem text titles. This feature provided clarity and also would allow easy access to the content of the textbooks. In contrast to the standard VIII textbooks, the pages were much clearer, whiter, and of better quality. The standard X textbooks were thus more attractive than the standard VIII textbooks.

In terms of typography features, the font type across all the units (text content and activities) was uniformly Times New Roman. The only exception was the introduction lines of each prose/ poem text which was either in Arial 10 or Times New Roman 11. Otherwise, only the font size differed depending on whether the text is a title heading or heading or content or activities.

The illustrations in the textbooks were a mix of drawings and real-life pictures. Photographs were also used in certain prose texts. Compared to the standard IX textbooks, there were relatively fewer illustrations in the textbooks. The wrap text function was used to incorporate illustrations and text content.

Regarding general page layout, the questions on the prose texts were provided along the right side of the text in bubbles with no spacing to write the answers. This contrasts with the standard VIII and IX textbooks that provided dotted line spaces to fill in the answers to the questions written.

5.6.3 Availability and affordability

The SCERT Kerala centre provides all schools (government, aided, and unaided) textbooks to distribute to students and teachers. Otherwise, textbooks are sold at SCERT approved centres in the different districts at an affordable price of 60-70 rupees. It is not sold at local bookstores.

5.6.4 Supplementary materials

The standard X syllabus is not prescribed with additional resources. Instead, the textbooks contain QR code that provides the input of audio-visual materials in the classrooms.

5.6.5 Aims and objectives

The standard X Reader Part 1 and Part 2 is designed with the idea that school experiences must be linked with outside school experiences (real-life situations). To reduce the gap between school, home, and community and become confident users of English, the textbooks attempt to provide contemplation and reflection opportunities. Hands-on experiences and group discussions are given priority. Like the standard IX textbooks, QR codes are provided to connect the printed material with digital assets.

Learning outcomes and objectives are not specified in each unit of these textbooks, as seen in the standard VIII textbooks.

5.6.6 Organization and structure

The standard X textbooks contain five units where the Kerala Reader English X Part 1 textbook contains three units, and the Kerala Reader English X Part 2 textbook comprises two units. Each unit consists of two prose texts and one poem text. These prose texts are short

stories, memoir, screenplay, anecdote, one-act play, or speech. The poem texts are either poems or songs.

Among the prose texts, with the exception of the screenplay and one-act play, some of the texts had numbered paragraphs. Five prose texts out of the eight prose texts were numbered. From the different units, it was seen that there are three sections, ‘Let’s revisit’, ‘Let’s learn more about words’, and ‘Language activity’/ ‘Let’s find out how language elements work’. However, these sections are not uniformly present across all units. Also, both prose and poem texts contain QR codes on the author’s details, the text's content (recitation in the case of poem text), and e-glossary.

5.6.7 Language type

The language of the textbooks is consistent with present-day English. Moreover, the content of the textbooks is categorized under themes representing real-life discourses. The textbooks can thus be attributed to being authentic materials for teaching and learning.

5.6.8 Vocabulary list/ glossary

A glossary is provided at the end of each unit. This is similar to how the glossary is presented in the standard IX textbooks. However, the unit’s penultimate glossary list in the standard X textbooks are not provided with QR code that assists in the pronunciation and grammar of the words as seen in the standard IX textbooks. Instead, QR code on e-glossary is provided along with the prose and poem texts. The prose text already has two QR codes: one about the author and the other about the prose text itself. So, the inclusion of a third QR code in this prose text is confusing rather than helpful. The same can be said about the poem text. Thus, the e-glossary should be at the end of the unit, as seen in the standard IX textbooks.

5.6.9 Content type

Like both standard VIII and IX textbooks, the standard X textbooks' contents are also theme-based. Table 11 lists the themes of the different units.

Table 11

Units and themes of standard X textbooks

Units	Name of the Unit	Theme
Unit 1	Glimpses of green	Nature
Unit 2	The frames	Films
Unit 3	Lore of values	Values
Unit 4	Flights of fancy	Self-esteem
Unit 5	Ray of hope	Hope

Table 12 list out the sub-themes of each unit.

Table 12

Sub-themes of the units in standard X textbooks

Unit: Theme	Unit: Sub-themes
Unit 1: Nature	Harmony of nature
	Conservation of nature
Unit 2: Films	Making films
	Genres of films
	Films using animals
	Script for a film
Unit 3: Value	Need for taking initiative
	Selfless service to the poor and needy

	Need for understanding and accepting cultural differences
Unit 4: Self-esteem	Value of recognition without losing self-esteem
	Value of hard work
	Need of fighting for one's rights
Unit 5: Hope	Family relations
	Childhood
	Life led by instincts and impulses

5.6.10 Activities, exercises, and tasks

The different sections in the unit consist of several activities provided in Table 13. While some of the activities and exercises were on the textbook content, other activities were related to the units' theme or sub-themes.

Table 13

Activities in the standard X textbooks

Unit	Activities
Unit 1	Story tree
	Letter writing
	Paragraph
	Diary entry
	Provide illustrations with cutlines
	Prepare narrative based on cutlines
	Prepare digital poster
	Classroom discussion
	Analyse illustration/ pictures
	Conduct seminar

	Prepare documentary
	Watch documentary (QR code)
	Prepare word card
	Analyse poem (personification, visual images, alliteration, rhyme scheme)
	Listen to poem (QR code) and comment on it
Unit 2	Conversation
	Newspaper notice
	Official letter writing
	Paragraph
	Conduct debate
	Classroom discussion
	Write script for a short video
	Shoot short video and upload
Unit 3	Classroom discussion
	Paragraph writing
	Description about friend/famous personality
	Prepare a speech
	Prepare prose text story in third person narrative
	Present prepared third-person story narrative
	Prepare diary entry
	Prepare and present seminar/ poster/collage/cultural events/ screening films
	Word web
	Choreograph poem (group activity)
	Analyse poem (visual, auditory, rhyme scheme)
	Listen to TED speech (QR code)
	Analyse TED speech and prepare write-up
Unit 4	Paragraph (character sketch)
	Present prepared character sketch

	Prepare speech (thankyou speech) and present it before class
	Formal letter writing
	First-person narrative
	Prepare news report of an award ceremony
	Analyse poem (alliteration)
	Word web
	Classroom debate
	Prepare script based on prose text
	Role-play the prepared script
	Enact the one-act play (prose text)
Unit 5	Paragraph
	Character sketch
	Story map
	Letter to editor
	Organize a campaign
	Publish manuscript (magazine- digital or print)
	Analysis of story (write alternate ending)
	Event notice
	Conduct competition event
	Classroom discussion
	Write-up

Unit 1 included an extended activity; to collect similar English or Malayalam stories expressing harmony in nature. Unit 5 involved an activity that incorporated the parallel use of languages, Malayalam and English. The students were asked to read the Malayalam poem ‘Kozhi’ by Kadammaniitta Ramakrishnan (provided in the textbook) to find out the thematic parallel between the poems and present their ideas before the class. The two poems revolved around the advice given by the mother to her child. Both these activities introduce the

integrated approach stated in the KCF 2007. It helps to connect the languages across the curriculum. This is not seen in the standard VIII and IX textbooks.

Before the start of each unit, questions related to the unit's theme were posed to the students. These questions involved self-reflection, contemplation and expressing one's own ideas and perspective. For example, at the beginning of Unit 2, students were asked to prepare a profile from biodata after watching the video on different filmmakers (QR code). The same was also seen in Unit 5, where students watched speeches from two famous personalities and answered different questions. While Unit 3 involved interpretation of an illustration strip (story without words), Unit 4 had excerpts from different award-winning personalities (literature award).

Across all units, authors of prose and poem texts were linked to videos about them (QR code).

5.6.11 Representation of LSRW skills

Each unit comprises different activities that aid the development of LSRW skills. Table 14. lists out the various activities in the different skills separately. Similar to the earlier analysis on representation on reading skills, read, 'comprehend and analyse prose text' is not explicitly mentioned as it is a standard activity across all units.

Table 14

Representation of LSRW skills in the standard X textbooks

Unit	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Unit 1	Listen to a poem (QR	Classroom discussion	Prepare documentary	Story tree Letter writing

	code) and comment on it Watch the documentary (QR code) Listen to the given poem text (QR code)	Conduct seminar Present documentary	Analyse illustration/ pictures Analyse poetic devices (personification, alliteration, visual images, rhyme scheme)	Paragraph Diary entry Cutlines for illustrations Narrative from cutlines Digital poster Prepare documentary Prepare word cards
Unit 2	Watch video on prose text (QR code) (no activity) Listen to the poem (QR code)	Conduct debate Attempt conversation Shoot short video Classroom discussion	Newspaper notice	Official letter writing Prepare newspaper report Conversation writing Paragraph Prepare a script for the short video
Unit 3	Listen to TED speech (QR code) Listen to the poem (QR code)	Classroom discussion Recite poem with proper stress and intonation	Read details on famous personalities Read diary entry Analyse the poem (simile, visual images,	Paragraph writing Description about friend/famous personality Prepare a speech

Unit 4	Listen to the poem (QR code)	Choreograph poem (group activity) Present prepared third- person story narrative Present seminar/ poster/ collage/ cultural events/ screening films	auditory images)	Prepare prose text story in third person narrative Prepare diary entry Prepare seminar/poster/ collage/cultural events/ screening films Word web
		Present character sketch Present thank you speech Role-play the prepared script Enact the one- act play (prose text) Classroom debate	Analyse the poem (alliteration)	Paragraph (character sketch) Prepare thank you speech Formal letter writing First-person narrative Prepare news report of an award ceremony Word web Prepare script based on the prose text

Unit 5	Watch animation of prose text (2:48 minutes) (no activity) Listen to the poem (QR code)	Organize a campaign Conduct competition event Classroom discussion	Analysis of prose text- story (write alternate ending) Thematic parallel between Malayalam and English poem Analyse poem (metaphor, extended metaphor)	Paragraph Character sketch Story map Letter to editor Publish manuscript (magazine- digital or print) Write alternate ending to story Event notice Write-up

The video shown via the QR code in Unit 2 lacked clarity. In terms of listening skill representation, there was no listening activity in Unit 4. Also, in Unit 5, the QR code provided showed the animation video of prose text, but there was no associated activity.

Overall, in terms of LSRW skill representation, there is a proportion between the SRW skills in the activities. However, it is essential to note that all poem texts were provided with the respective poem's recitation. Author details were also provided via listening activity (QR code).

5.6.12 Vocabulary and grammar

Across the units, words that appear in the glossary are presented in bold in the texts. In the 'Let's learn more about words' section, Unit 2 introduced film terminology (QR code), Unit 3 involved profession vocabulary terminology and vocabulary exercises on the written

text, Unit 4 required students to find appropriate meaning for the words in the unit text and Unit 5 involved questions on phrasal verbs from the story. In comparison with the standard IX textbooks, it can be seen that there was vocabulary recycling and continued exposure activities in the standard X textbooks.

The elements of grammar or language elements introduced in the standard X textbooks are listed in Table 15.

Table 15

Language elements in standard X textbooks

No.	Language elements
1	Synonyms
2	Adjectives
3	Punctuation and Sentence type (Interrogative, Exclamatory, Imperative, Assertive)
4	Negative sentences
5	Noun phrases and modifiers
6	Base word
7	Affixation, prefixation and compounding
8	Statements and questions
9	Main verb and auxiliary verb
10	Modal auxiliaries and functions
11	Affirmative question (Yes/No questions)
12	Wh-questions
13	Noun phrase and verb phrase
14	Analyse verb phrase- (subject/verb/object/complement/adverbial)
15	Closed word classes and open word classes
16	Noun suffixes, verb suffixes and adjective suffixes
17	Syllable

18	Formal and informal expressions
19	No sooner... than... construction
20	Hardly/ Scarcely... when... construction
21	As soon as... construction
22	Prepositional phrases
23	Idiomatic expressions
24	Usage of 'enough'
25	Relative pronouns
26	Question tag
27	Indirect and direct speech
28	Phrasal verbs
29	Active and passive voice
30	Adjectives ending in '-ed' vs. Adjectives ending in '-ing'
31	Sentence pattern
32	Constituents in phrase (NP, VP, Pre.P, Adv.P, Adj.P)

Overall, 32 grammar points or language elements were introduced and taught via activities and exercises in the textbooks. From a closer analysis, it was seen that there is a sequential ordering in how language elements were introduced. For instance, the students first were introduced to noun phrase and then verb phrase, prepositional phrase, adverbial phrase, and adjectival phrase. In addition, some of the exercises on language elements were provided with QR codes where students could check the answers. Also, there is a sequential increase in the number of language elements taught in the standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks (Table 5 (p. 167), Table 10 (p. 185), and Table 15 (p. 201)).

5.6.13 Detailed evaluation of a unit

Unit 3 was selected to conduct a detailed evaluation from the standard X textbooks. This unit was chosen as it involved all three sections, ‘Let’s revisit’, ‘Let’s learn more about words’, and ‘Let’s find out how language elements work’. The unit consisted of two prose texts; ‘The best investment I ever made’ (anecdote) by Archibald Joseph Cronin and ‘The danger of a single story’ by Chimamanda Ngozi Adichie and one poem text; ‘The ballad of Father Gilligan’ by William Butler Yeats.

Unit 3 begins with a classroom discussion involving the interpretation of an illustration strip in the form of a story without words. This illustration strip was found to be a typical online picture for discussion on the importance of teamwork. The illustration strip's discussion in this unit is related to the sub-theme, ‘Need of taking initiatives’. The first prose text in the unit is ‘The best investment I ever made’. QR codes on author details and e-glossary are provided in the prose text, and questions on the prose text in bubbles and illustrations. Following the prose text, the first section, ‘Let’s revisit’, comprises seven activities. The activities provided in this section is related to the prose text content and aid the development of writing (paragraph, character sketch, speech, third person narrative, and diary entry), speaking (presenting narrative, presenting speech, presenting seminar/ poster/ cultural events/ screening videos) and reading (famous personalities) skills. There is a lack of listening skill representation in this section of the unit.

The following section in the unit is, ‘Let’s learn more about words’, consisting of four activities. First, new vocabulary items (professional vocabulary) are introduced in addition to the words in the prose text. The second activity required students to identify open-class words and closed-class words and fill appropriate words in a passage from the words in the given

prose text. The third activity involves sentences not taken from the text to identify root words and suffixes from different words. Finally, in the fourth activity, the students had to fill in the blanks present in the passage with the given appropriate word. These vocabulary activities contrast to the standard VIII and IX textbooks with little or no vocabulary exercises.

The following text in the unit is the poem, ‘The ballad of Father Gilligan’ where the author details, poem recitation and e-glossary are provided with QR codes. Following this is the ‘Let’s revisit section’ that requires students to do a character sketch and paragraph writing. Additionally, students are asked to choreograph the poem and analyse the poem to identify simile, visual images, auditory images, and rhyme scheme. This is the only poem in the textbooks that include reciting the poem with proper stress and intonation as an activity.

Representation of listening is only present in the next prose text of the unit, ‘The danger of a single story’, in the form of a speech. The TED talk speech is provided with the QR code, and students are asked to listen, analyse the speech and prepare a write-up on the features of the speech. The following section is, ‘Let’s find out how language elements work’. In this section, language elements like formal and informal expressions in oral and written communication, if clauses, prepositional phrases, and constructing sentences with linkers (no sooner...than, hardly/scarcely...when, as soon as constructions) are provided. Also, a QR code with exercise on linkers is given in this section.

Overall, it can be seen that there is a proportion between LSRW skills, vocabulary and language elements (grammar) in the units in the standard X textbooks.

5.7 Comparison between standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks

A comparison can be made between the three standard textbooks from evaluating the standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks. For this, the evaluation checklist is used presented in Table 16 (provided in Appendix G). This checklist's detailed criteria are limited to the following parameters- physical makeup, layout and visual aspects, availability and affordability, supplementary materials, aims and objectives, organization and structure, language type, vocabulary, and representation of LSRW skills. The comparisons are tabulated for ease in understanding with ✓ for Yes and ✗ for No.

Table 16

Evaluation checklist for comparison between standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks

No.	Evaluation criteria	VIII	IX	X
1	Is the cover page informative?	✓	✓	✓
2	Is the cover page attractive and well-designed?	✓	✓	✓
3	Is the colour composition on the cover page appealing?	✓	✓	✓
4	Is the cover page durable?	✗	✗	✗
5	Are the textbooks easy to carry?	✓	✓	✓
6	Is the binding of the textbook good?	✗	✓	✓
7	Are the pages in the textbook durable?	✗	✓	✓
8	Is the quality of the pages good?	✗	✓	✓
9	Is the colour of the pages good?	✗	✓	✓
10	Is the colour composition of the pages attractive, appealing and harmonic?	✗	✓	✓
11	Is the colour ink of good quality?	✗	✓	✓
12	Is the colour adjusted to maximize naturalness?	✗	✓	✓
13	Are the text colour and background colour in appropriate contrast?	✓	✓	✓
14	Is the content page informative?	✓	✓	✓

15	Are all the prose and poem texts mentioned in the contents?	✗	✓	✓
16	Are page numbers given to the prose and poem texts mentioned in the contents?	✗	✗	✓
17	Are decorative fonts used in the textbooks?	✓	✓	✓
18	Is there uniformity in text font type?	✗	✗	✓
19	Are the size of titles and headings considerably larger than the text?	✓	✓	✓
20	Is there appropriate line spacing?	✓	✓	✓
21	Is there appropriate word spacing?	✓	✓	✓
22	Is the text justified?	✓	✗	✗
23	Is text split into columns?	✓	✗	✗
24	Are there visual illustrations?	✓	✓	✓
25	Are real photographs used as part of illustrations?	✗	✗	✓
26	Is the presentation of visual illustrations appealing, attractive and harmonic with text?	✗	✓	✓
27	Is the colour composition of visual illustrations appropriate?	✓	✓	✓
28	Do the illustrations help in conveying extended comprehensive information?	✓	✓	✓
29	Are the textbooks available in stores (easy access)?	✗	✗	✗
30	Are textbooks affordable?	✓	✓	✓
31	Do the textbooks have supplementary materials?	✗	✗	✗
32	Does the textbook include additional readings?	✓	✗	✗
33	Are objectives/ learning outcomes present in each unit?	✓	✗	✗
34	Are students able to self-evaluate their learning outcomes?	✓	✗	✗
35	Are different sections clearly organized?	✓	✓	✓
36	Is there clarity in the structure of the textbook?	✓	✓	✓
37	Does the language type match present-day English usage?	✓	✓	✓
38	Is there an integration of different languages in the textbook?	✗	✗	✓
39	Is the content of the textbook theme-based?	✓	✓	✓
40	Is a glossary provided at the end of each unit?	✗	✓	✓
41	Is a glossary provided at the end of the textbook?	✓	✗	✗

42	Is there an integration of ICT in the textbooks?	✗	✓	✓
43	Is e-glossary available?	✗	✓	✓
44	Are pronunciation norms present in the textbook?	✗	✓	✓
45	Is there a representation of listening skills with QR code?	✗	✓	✓
46	Is there a representation of LSRW skills?	✓	✓	✓
47	Is there a proportional representation of LSRW skills?	✗	✗	✓
48	Are language elements taught in the textbooks?	✓	✓	✓
49	Are activities and exercises provided for the representation of LSRW skills?	✓	✓	✓
50	Are separate vocabulary exercises present in the units?	✓	✓	✓

Tables 4 (p. 166), 9 (p. 181), and 14 (p. 197) depicts the detailed analysis of LSRW skills representation in the standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks. Tables 5 (p. 167), 10 (p. 185), and 15 (p. 201) provide the list of language elements taught in the standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks. The following chapter offers an account of the systematic evaluation of vocabulary and grading of prose texts.

5.8 Appropriateness of SCERT Kerala textbooks at the Secondary level with respect to KCF 2007 and KCF 2013.

This section aims to answer the first research question on the appropriateness of the English textbook taught in the academic year 2019-2020 with reference to the KCF 2007 and KCF 2013. To evaluate this appropriacy, the textbooks are reviewed against the tenets of the KCF 2007 and KCF 2013.

KCF 2007 adopts the social constructivism approach and critical pedagogy as the foundation of the curriculum. As discussed in the previous chapter, in the constructivism-based learning approach, the learner actively learns with the opportunity to process, apply,

interact and share experiences with others. The KCF 2007 moved away from rote learning of language, imitation, mechanical repetition, which presented isolated letters, words, and sentences in a linear fashion. The KCF 2007 believed that language does not exist as isolated words or sentences. Instead, it exists as meaningful discourse. Also, there should be a change from the text-centred approach to the child-centred approach.

At the secondary level, “narratives, poems, descriptions, conversations, short stories, notices, letters, reports, posters, diary”, plays, autobiography, “travelogues, biographies, choreography, etc.”, should be included (KCF 2007). The discourses at the secondary must accommodate learner’s intervention into social issues. Thus, the curriculum must provide discourses that the learners can use to creatively participate in various social phenomena. The content, language, and presentation of knowledge must be from a critical point of view.

According to KCF 2007, at the secondary level, students try to learn different ideas and theories. At this stage, students are able “to express his/ her ideas, construct knowledge and acquire the skill to use language effectively” (KCF, 2007, p. 34). Thus, secondary level education helps create an inclination for imagination, group learning, motivation, and the ability to imbibe and engage in discussions on abstract ideas.

Theme-based learner text- The KCF 2007 calls for meaningful and need-based language experiences in the textbooks. By accommodating the use of theme-based units, the learners can integrate knowledge from life situations with knowledge from school. The theme can be looked at from different perspectives, thus helping the learners develop their own identities. The learners are exposed to authentic language, which challenges them to interact naturally. Thematic units also integrated all four language skills, LSRW, communicatively.

Thus, learners can gain a higher level of comprehension, develop effective strategic skills, and focus less on word-by-word comprehension. The standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks can be seen to incorporate themes in the form of different units (Table 1 (p. 163), Table 6 (p. 176), and Table 11 (p. 193)), respectively.

Issue-based curriculum/ Process-oriented curriculum/ Activity-based approach- In the KCF 2007, the issue-based curriculum is explained in terms of the importance of the local experiences of the learner. “A curriculum becomes more meaningful when the local issues are reflected well in the learning materials and the lessons” (KCF, 2007, p. 28). This is observed in Unit 4 of standard IX textbooks, where the 2018 Kerala flood is introduced as part of the unit’s activities. Also, alongside the issues detailed in context, students are provided with opportunities to reflect and find solutions. Furthermore, the process-oriented curriculum helps to create a conducive and collaborative atmosphere that allows for effective communication. Accordingly, activities that are process-oriented and attractive are employed in the textbooks. The standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks can be seen to validate these tenets posited by the KCF 2007.

Learning outcome- The KCF 2013 stresses the need to ensure awareness of learning outcomes among learners, teachers, and parents. “Learning outcomes are the aims to be achieved by the learner during the various stages of school education” (KCF 2013, p. 12). The framework states the need to adopt an ‘Outcome Focussed Assessment Approach’. This allows for the active participation of the students to attain learning outcomes adopted in different units. In the textbook evaluation, it was observed that learning outcomes in each unit were specified only in the standard VIII textbooks. Both the standard IX and X textbooks did not contain explicit mention of learning outcomes. However, the previous revision of the

standard IX and X textbooks 2015-2016 listed the specific learning outcomes in each unit separately.

Self-assessment checklists- As per the KCF 2007, learners should be allowed to introspect on their achievement after undertaking the various linguistic tasks. However, only the standard VIII textbook accepts this as a basic premise for the development of the textbook. Accordingly, the self-assessment checklist in the form of 'I Can' statements are included in all textbook units. The standard IX and X textbooks do not provide self-assessment checklists. The previous revision of the standard IX and X textbooks 2015-2016 contained a specific self-assessment checklist.

Information and Communication Technology (ICT) integration- The KCF 2013 recognizes the importance of ICT in constructing and disseminating knowledge. ICT helps students to gather relevant and appropriate information, make presentations and prepare quality results. ICT also helps in incorporating visual and auditory media as effective learning tools in the classrooms. The standard IX and X textbooks are thus integrated with QR codes that help learners to go beyond the mechanical instruction present in the textbooks. It also allows for the integration of LSRW skills and languages across the curriculum.

5.9 Conclusion

Overall, the SCERT Kerala English textbook at the secondary level corresponds with the tenets posited in the KCF 2005. The revised standard IX and X textbooks were found to impart a positive teaching-learning environment compared to the standard VIII textbooks. However, there are points in which the new version of the standard IX and X textbooks did not match the curriculum framework's tenets.

The chapter provides a detailed qualitative account of the textbook evaluation of standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks separately. This is followed by a comparison of the selected textbooks. Thus, the chapter addresses the first research question on the quality of the SCERT Kerala English textbooks and the appropriateness of the textbooks with respect to the tenets of KCF 2007 and KCF 2013.

Chapter 6: Data Analysis and Interpretation

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides the quantitative evaluation of the textbook and qualitative analysis of the results obtained through the evaluation. Each section of the chapter is devoted to different corpus analysis conducted in the study. The different sections are:

- Systematic evaluation of textbook vocabulary
- Evaluation of textbook readability
- Analysing CEFR level using EVP
- Estimating CEFR level

This chapter thus strives to answer the three research objectives that are discussed in Chapter 4 by analysing the following:

1. Coverage of vocabulary in terms of tokens, types and TTR.
2. Lexical Frequency Profile with respect to VocabProfile.
3. Analysis of lemmas across the textbooks.
4. Recycling index in the units and across the textbooks.
5. Grading of textbooks with respect to vocabulary frequencies.
6. Readability score of the units in the textbooks.
7. Grading of textbooks with respect to textbook readability.
8. Percentage of word (types) at CEFR levels with respect to the EVP.
9. Estimating CEFR level with respect to Lexical Profile.
10. Grading of textbooks as per the estimated CEFR level.

6.2 Creating Textbook Corpus

The first step in the quantitative textbook evaluation involved creating the textbook corpus. Four textbooks (standard IX and X) were available in pdf format, while the other two textbooks (standard VIII) were available in hard copy. The former's pdf files were then converted to word format, and selected prose passages were separated into different word files. In the case of the standard VIII textbooks, the passages had to be manually typed. Passages in respective standards were saved as separate corpora, and each standard was saved as a separate corpus. Titles were also removed from the created corpus. The selected passages belonged to the narrative, descriptive, factual, or anecdotal text type.

6.2.1 Corpus of standard VIII

The two textbooks, 'Kerala Reader English Standard VIII Part 1 and Part 2' comprised five separate units. From this, ten passages were selected after eliminating the poems. Four were adapted texts from the ten passages (T3, T6, T8, and T10). The sixth passage, T6, is an adaptation from a bibliography. The following are the ten selected passages from the two standard VIII textbooks:

- VIII. T1 The mysterious picture
- VIII. T2 The boy who drew cats
- VIII. T3 A shipwrecked sailor
- VIII. T4 The little round red house
- VIII. T5 The light on the hills
- VIII. T6 Rosa Parks sat still
- VIII. T7 The nightingale and the rose

- VIII. T8 A day in the country
- VIII. T9 The school for sympathy
- VIII. T10 The merchant of Venice

6.2.2 Corpus of standard IX

Eight passages were selected from the five units in the two textbooks, 'Kerala Reader English Standard IX Part 1 and Part 2 textbooks. Again poems were removed from the compiled textbook corpus on account of poetic devices. Also, a play by an Indian novelist and an adapted rendition of a speech by an American actor was removed from the analysis from the ten prose passages. Out of the eight passages, four were by Indian authors, two by American authors, one by a Greek author, and one by a German author. Of the eight passages, seven passages were adapted text except for one passage by an Indian author (T4).

The following are the eight passages that were selected from the standard IX Part 1 and Part 2 textbooks:

- IX. T1 The race
- IX. T2 Learning the game
- IX. T3 Maternity
- IX. T4 Tolstoy farm
- IX. T5 When I fell from the sky
- IX. T6 The last leaf
- IX. T7 The happiness machine
- IX. T8 The trio

6.2.3 Corpus of standard X

Eight passages were selected for analysis from the two ‘Kerala Reader English Standard X’ Part 1 and Part 2 textbooks. Along with five poems, a screenplay and a one-act play were also removed from the created corpus. This was done to ensure that the passages were uniform in the form of prose. Out of the eight passages, two were translated passages, one from an Indian author (T2) and another by a Russian author (T7). Three passages were also adapted passages (T3, T6, T8).

The following are the eight passages present in the created corpus.

- X. T1 Adventures in a banyan tree
- X. T2 The snake and the mirror
- X. T3 Project Tiger
- X. T4 The best investment I ever made
- X. T5 The danger of a single story
- X. T6 The scholarship jacket
- X. T7 Vanaka
- X. T8 The castaway

6.3 Textbook Vocabulary Evaluation

A systematic vocabulary evaluation was conducted using the Lextutor computational tool. This involved the analysis of tokens, types, TTR, lemmas across textbooks, and recycling index. The corpus analysis of textbook vocabulary focuses on two aspects of vocabulary: frequency and repetition/recycling.

6.3.1 Analysis of Tokens, Types, and Type-Token Ratio (TTR)

In Lextutor, the token and type count were found to be affected by punctuation marks. To ascertain whether this is indeed the case, a manual calculation was done. Accordingly, the researcher first tried adding spaces before the punctuation marks. However, that resulted in punctuation marks being calculated in the token and type count. Later, the researcher attempted to remove the punctuation marks other than commas and full stops (single quotation marks, exclamation marks, semi-colons, etc.). This resulted in a correct count of type and token that matched the manual correction. The result was also double verified through an additional corpus analysis tool, LancsBox. Thus, all the compiled corpus had to go through three stages of calculations (raw calculation- editing- final estimate) to ensure the correct token count and type were reported.

Another factor that had to be considered was the presence of ‘Proper nouns’ in the passages. In this count of tokens and types, the researcher decided to analyse without considering proper nouns as a criterion that affects the analysis. However, in the later stages of vocabulary evaluation, proper nouns were also selected as a necessary criterion that had to be factored during analysis along with punctuation marks.

6.3.1.1 Analysis of Standard VIII corpus

Table 1 shows the count of tokens and types for each passage

Table 1

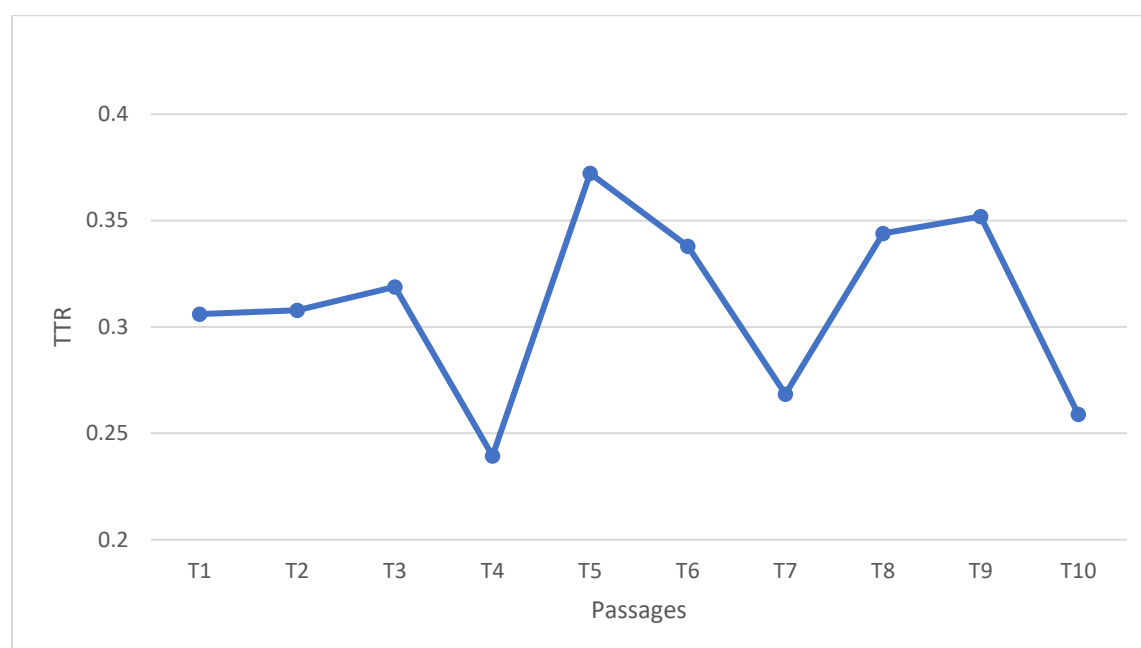
Token count and type count within standard VIII corpus

Passages	Tokens	Types
VIII. T1	1957	599

VIII. T2	1267	390
VIII. T3	1612	514
VIII. T4	1692	405
VIII. T5	755	281
VIII. T6	1009	341
VIII. T7	1646	442
VIII. T8	1729	594
VIII. T9	1111	391
VIII. T10	2627	680

Figure 1

Line plot on TTR within Standard VIII corpus



As discussed in the second chapter, TTR signals the lexical variation in the language. The passage with the highest TTR is passage T5, ‘The light on the hills’, which is the smallest passage in the 8th standard textbooks (Figure 1). On the other hand, the three long

passages T4, T7, and T10 had relatively lower TTR, 0.2394, 0.2685, and 0.2589. Thus the result shows that the short passage with a very low token count would give a higher TTR, and a long passage with a high token count would give a low TTR.

6.3.1.2 Analysis of Standard IX corpus

Table 2, given below, provides the computed count of tokens and types.

Table 2

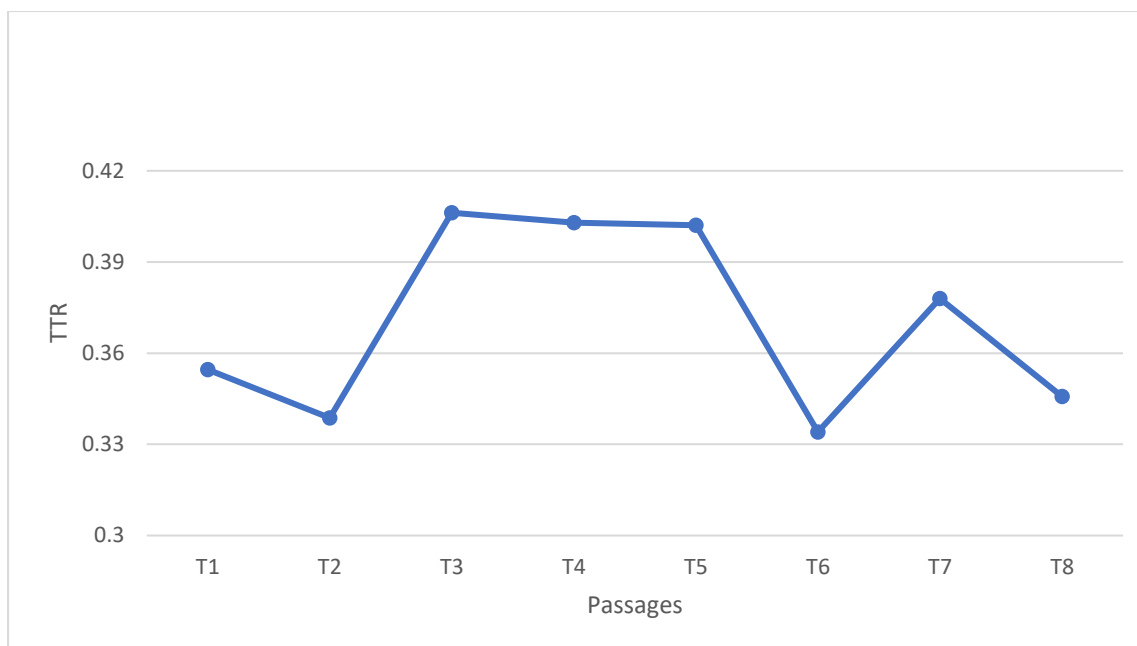
Token count and type count within standard IX corpus

Passages	Tokens	Types
IX. T1	1382	490
IX. T2	1600	542
IX. T3	1280	520
IX. T4	819	330
IX. T5	1644	661
IX. T6	1691	565
IX. T7	1492	564
IX. T8	1857	642

Figure 2 illustrates a line plot on TTR for the standard IX passages.

Figure 2

Line plot on TTR within Standard IX corpus



Again, it can be seen that the shortest passage, T4 has the second-highest TTR 0.4029, and the highest TTR 0.4062 is IX T3 which is the second smallest passage in the textbooks (Figure 2). Following the previous interpretation, this observation seems satisfying. However, the third-highest TTR 0.4021 is by passage IX T5 which has a higher token count than five other passages (Table 2, p. 218). One possible explanation is the nature of the prose passage, in that it is a memoir.

6.3.1.3 Analysis of Standard X corpus

The count of tokens and type is tabulated and shown in Table 3.

Table 3

Token count and type count within standard X corpus

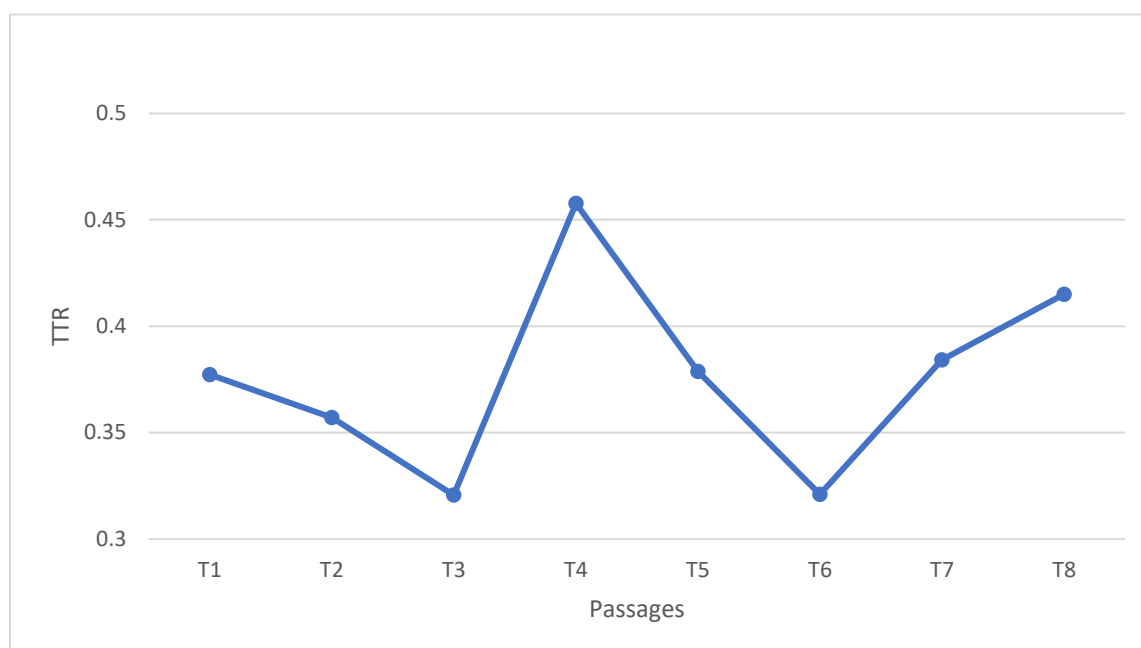
Passages	Tokens	Types
X. T1	1580	596
X. T2	1294	462

X. T3	1959	628
X. T4	1337	612
X. T5	1088	412
X. T6	1985	637
X. T7	1627	625
X. T8	1542	640

Compared to the standard VIII and IX corpus passages, all the X corpus passages contain more than 1000 tokens (Table 3, p. 219). Figure 3 illustrates a line plot on TTR for the standard X corpus.

Figure 3

Line plot on TTR within Standard X corpus



The fourth passage, T4, is computed to have the highest TTR 0.4577 with a relatively smaller number of tokens. This is because the type count is higher for T4 in contrast with the

other passages. Finally, the third passage, T3, had the lowest TTR value, 0.3206, and the highest number of tokens, 1959 (Table 3, p. 219).

6.3.1.4 Analysis across standard VII, IX, and X corpora

The count of tokens, types, and TTR was calculated for all the passages together in each textbook. Table 4 provides the types, tokens, and TTR data across the three standard textbooks (6 textbooks).

Table 4

Token count, type count, and TTR across standards VIII, IX, and X corpora

Standard	Tokens	Types	TTR
VIII	15403	2444	0.1587
IX	11765	2460	0.2091
X	12412	2700	0.2175

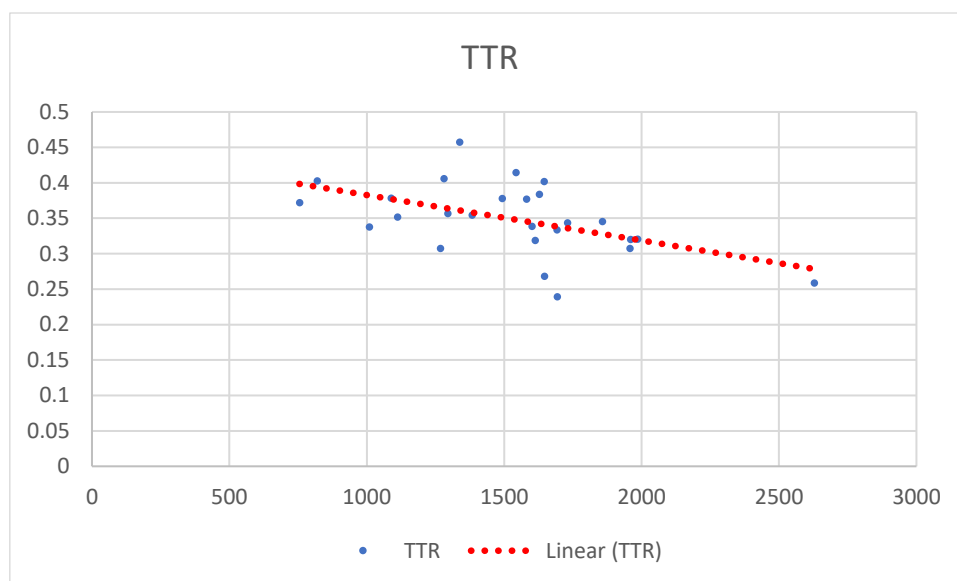
Across the textbooks, there is an increase in the token count for the prose passages. As shown in Table 4, TTR also increases linearly from a lower TTR in standard VIII and the highest TTR in standard X.

6.3.1.5 Discussion on Analysis of Tokens, Types, and TTR

As discussed earlier, the correlation of tokens and TTR was analysed. For this, the Pearson correlation coefficient was computed for the token count and TTR for all passages across the textbooks $r = -0.53$ (illustrated in Figure 4 given below). A negative correlation was observed between token count and TTR, showing a negative association between Tokens and TTR. As the value of one variable increases, the value of the other decreases.

Figure 4

Pearson Correlation visualized as scatterplot- Tokens by TTR



Though there is a variation around the line of best fit (Figure 4), a negative correlation is present between the values.

Another point is the systematic progression in the number of tokens and types across the different standards. Higher TTR is also observed in the higher grade (Table 4, p. 221). However, in each standard's corpus, token count progression and TTR do not follow a similar systematic progression. For instance, the fifth passage in both VIII and X corpus (Table 1, p. 216 and Table 3, p. 219) has a low token count, while in the IX corpus, it is the fourth passage (Table 2, p. 218).

The systematic increase in the TTR also shows that the higher the standard, there is an increase in the lexical variation present in the text's prose passages. Higher TTR signals a

considerably more amount of lexical variation (more varied the vocabulary of a text) when compared to a text with lower TTR.

Though TTR is reliable in depicting lexical variation, it must be noted that TTR is sensitive to the length of a text (Hussein, 2015). Gilbert Youmans (1990) was the first to point out that calculating TTR to highlight lexical variation is problematic when texts are of differing lengths. Shorter texts would appear to have a higher TTR (Youmans, 1990). To rectify this, Youmans introduced the Type-Token Curve (TTC). In a TTC graph, the running type count is plotted against the running token count. Another proposed solution is the Moving Average Type Token Ratio (MATTR) advocated by Köhler and Galle (1993) and later researched by Covington and McFall (2010). In MATTR, the TTR is computed for each set that contains a fixed number of words (Kubát and Milička, 2013). The calculated value will thus be independent of text length (Thomas, 2005). However, this is not an acceptable option in this corpus-based study as the passages in the corpora are from multiple authors and are of varying length.

Also, TTR fails to provide an account of lexical richness in the passage. In this regard, the count of content words to function words and count of words as per Nation's word list becomes significant. The LFP analysis provides a much more accurate account of the lexical richness in the textbook passages.

6.3.2 Analysis of lemmas across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora

The created corpus was computed for the number of lemmas and the respective number of tokens. For this, the corpus of each standard was copied and pasted into the

Lemmatizer tool in Lextutor. The obtained result is provided below in tabulated form (Table 5).

Table 5

Number of lemmas across standards VIII, IX, and X corpora

Standard	Number of lemmas	Number of tokens	Words unclassified
VIII	2129	5400	35 (1.64%)
IX	2184	5479	116 (5.31%)
X	2388	5857	60 (2.51%)

The analysis also listed the different Headwords and all members under the headwords. It also listed out which all were the words that came under the unclassified word types. It was seen that in the analysis of the VIII and X corpus, the unclassified word types were mostly proper nouns. However, in the IX corpus, it was seen that the double quotes present before and after the words resulted in those words marked under the unclassified word types. This would also answer the high percentage of unclassified word types in the IX corpus analysis compared to the VIII and X corpus (Table 5).

6.3.3 Computing Lexical Frequency Profile

Another step in the systematic evaluation of textbook vocabulary was utilizing the VocabProfile tool in the Compleat Lexical Tutor to measure LFP. Each passage was copied and pasted in the VP-Classic window to obtain vocabulary analysis at four frequency levels: (1) the list of the most frequent 1000-word families (2) the second 1000 (3) Middle School Vocabulary List (MSVL), and (4) words that do not appear on the other lists. The first two lists follow Nation's (1990) division of English vocabularies into 1000 most frequently used

words followed by 2000, 3000, and so on depending on the number of the words in the respective corpus. The stats in this analysis are based on Laufer, Nation and Coxhead's lexical Frequency Profiler. The MSVL is an updated vocabulary list that integrates the Academic Word List (AWL) with middle school subjects. It contains five subject-area sub-corpora: English grammar and writing, health, mathematics, science, and social studies and history, consisting of 109 content area textbooks designed for the sixth, seventh, and eighth graders in the United States public schools. The total word count of the corpora was well over 18 million words.

In the analysis, the first 1-1000 K1 words are further subdivided into two categories: function and content word tokens and respective percentage. Additionally, during the computation of the corpus data, all punctuation marks were eliminated, and shortened constructions were replaced by their respective constituent words (didn't- did not, I've- I have and so on). Also, all figures were uniformly replaced by the term 'numbers' and single letters except for 'a' and 'I' were eliminated.

6.3.3.1 LFP of standard VIII corpus

The same ten passages were selected for the analysis. Table 6 below shows the computed token value and the percentage at the four frequency levels mentioned above. Also mentioned is the token value of the function and content words.

Table 6

LFP within standard VIII corpus

Passages	K1 words %	K1 Function words %	K1 Content words %	K2 words %	MSVL words %	Off-list words %
VIII. T1	87.77	52.88	31.88	7.29	0.91	7.03
VIII. T2	88.71	51.78	36.94	8.13	0.32	2.84
VIII. T3	81.86	52.51	29.35	6.56	1.41	10.17
VIII. T4	90.16	51.96	38.20	5.35	0.12	4.37
VIII. T5	95.24	54.10	41.14	2.51	0.26	1.98
VIII. T6	86.55	51.04	35.51	8.11	0.79	4.55
VIII. T7	87.12	53.10	34.02	5.71	0.24	6.93
VIII. T8	80.37	49.60	30.77	8.73	0.34	10.56
VIII. T9	88.22	55.22	33.01	6.60	0.80	4.37
VIII. T10	81.84	51.18	30.65	5.52	1.33	11.31

6.3.3.2 LFP of standard IX corpus

The percentage of K1 words, K2 words, MSVL, off-lists words, and function words and content words belonging to K1 words are provided in Table 7.

Table 7

LFP within standard IX corpus

Passages	K1 words %	K1 Function words %	K1 Content words %	K2 words %	MSVL words %	Off-list words %
IX. T1	83.92	50.97	32.95	6.06	1.87	8.15
IX. T2	83.06	52.32	30.74	6.99	2.10	7.85
IX. T3	81.75	50.70	31.05	6.55	1.01	10.69
IX. T4	87.53	55.99	31.54	3.91	1.59	6.97
IX. T5	80.44	50.76	29.68	9.51	1.51	8.54

IX. T6	85.36	48.89	36.46	6.65	0.76	7.23
IX. T7	80.88	47.83	33.05	8.02	0.99	10.12
IX. T8	80.05	51.24	28.82	6.45	1.02	12.47

6.3.3.3 LFP of standard X corpus

Table 8 lists the percentage of K1 words, K2 words, MSVL, off-lists words, function words, and content words belonging to K1 words.

Table 8

LFP within standard X corpus

Passages	K1 words %	K1 Function words %	K1 Content words %	K2 words %	MSVL words %	Off-list words %
X. T1	78.79	50.06	28.71	7.70	1.01	12.50
X. T2	84.88	54.24	30.63	8.26	1.70	5.17
X. T3	82.29	51.09	31.20	6.90	1.57	9.23
X. T4	81.87	51.01	30.86	6.22	2.92	8.99
X. T5	86.26	54.76	31.50	3.48	2.20	8.06
X. T6	85.06	55.14	29.93	7.47	1.77	5.70
X. T7	77.52	50.70	26.82	10.08	0.55	11.85
X. T8	79.43	48.55	30.88	7.41	1.81	11.35

6.3.3.4 LFP of standard VIII, IX, and X corpora

The corpus of all passages combined across VIII, IX, and X was analysed to find the percentage of K1 words, K2 words, and MSVL across the textbook to understand vocabulary grading. The computed values are provided in Table 9.

Table 9*LFP across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora*

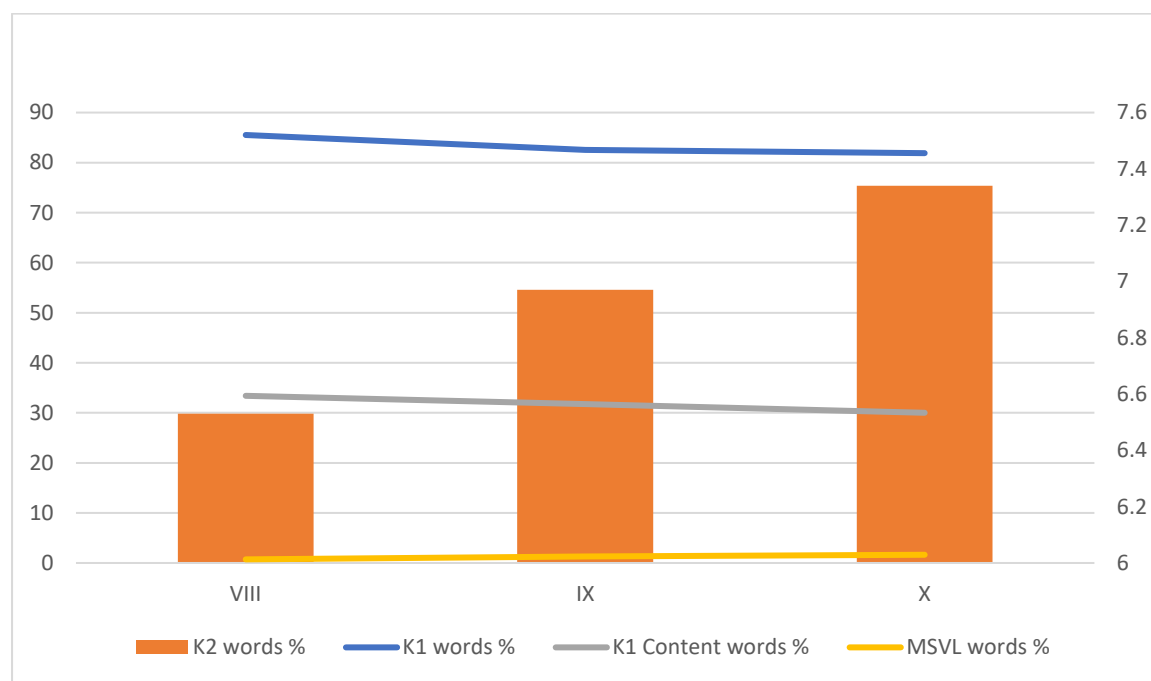
Standard	K1 words %	K1 Function words %	K1 Content words %	K2 words %	MSVL words %	Off-list words %
VIII	85.52	52.12	33.40	6.53	0.72	7.23
IX	82.54	50.78	31.76	6.97	1.33	9.16
X	81.89	51.88	30.01	7.34	1.64	9.13

6.3.3.5 Discussion on analysis of LFP

As listed in Tables 8 (p. 227) and 9, standard X corpus contained a higher percentage of K2 words (1001-2000), signalling vocabulary progression and the inclusion of more terms that do not belong to the highly frequent 1-1000 K1 word lists. This is clearly illustrated in Figure 5, shown below. The clustered column in orange colour depicts the increase in K2 words as the standard progresses. This is also the case with MSVL words. The lesser percentage of MSVL words in the case of standard VIII corpus (Table 6, p. 225 and Table 9) can be attributed to the fact that the MSVL corpus integrated with the AWL contained textbooks designed for the US public school's secondary grade. Therefore, despite the lesser percentage of MSVL words, there is a positive progression of word count as the standard increases (Table 9). Standard VIII corpus contained 111 MSVL tokens, standard IX corpus had 158 MSVL tokens, and standard X corpus contained the highest MSVL tokens, 205. From the computed results on vocabulary frequency, the LFP of the corpora is in the range of 80-85%, 6.5-7.5%, 0.5-1.5%, 7.5-9. This contrasts with the LFP result of a typical native speaker text (written) at 70%-,10%,10%,10% (Laufer and Nation, 1995).

Figure 5

Clustered column chart and line plot of K1, K2 words and MSVL across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora



However, across the units in the respective textbooks, the progression of K1 words and K2 words is not linear and graded sequentially. For instance, the second passage in standard VIII corpus (Table 6, p. 225) contains a higher percentage of K2 words. So does the second passage in the standard X corpus (Table 8, p. 227). On the other hand, the ninth passage in the standard IX corpus contained a significantly lesser percentage of K2 words, 3.91 (Table 7, p. 226).

Another fact to be noted is the high number of off-word lists. The researcher analysed the reason for the presence of such a high percentage of off-list words. The researcher observed that in addition to proper nouns like names of people and places, many verbs,

adjectives and adverbs were also categorized under the off-list words. Some of the common words marked under off-lists were panic, destination, embarrassment, tomb, wedding, weeping, yell, misfortunate, boots, gazed, infant and others. Overall, 3348 tokens across all the textbooks were marked as off-lists. From the perspective of the BNC-COCA corpus, this implies that these words are beyond the 10 million designed word list in terms of frequency. The question then is whether the same (frequency of the occurrence) is true about these words in the context of corpus containing Indian texts.

6.3.4 Recycling Index of Tokens, Types, and Families

Testing the amount of lexical repetition found in the textbooks would show whether there is a systematic process aiding vocabulary expansion. The recycling index or the degree of repetition was calculated across the units in the textbooks and across the different standards. For this analysis, the created corpus first had to be divided equally into two corpora. This was because the recycling index was computed along with finding Unique to the first corpus (token, types, and families), Unique to the second corpus (token, types, and families), and Shared tokens, types, and families. For this analysis, the compiled corpus were all converted to plain text format to be uploaded.

In Lextutor, the analysis process has the option of using ‘stoplists’. The research used this option of stoplists by selecting function words as an item to be factored in during analysis. This ensured that function words would be eliminated from the analysis so it would not be a factor in the recycling index. The researcher decided to do this because the function words showed a high percentage of recycling index, which dimmed the presence of content words that relied on frequency and repetition.

Both Families Analysis and Types Analysis were computed. In Families Analysis, the family headword or base word is used as the unit of comparison. For instance, cat and cats could be grouped under the family cat, and therefore cats and cat in the two different corpora would be seen as a recurrence of the same word. This contrasts with Types Analysis, where cat and cats would not be considered a recurrence of the same word. Additionally, in Families Analysis, the words with no families and off-listed words would be analysed through Types Analysis.

The analysis also provided data by listing the tokens unique to the first corpus, unique to the second corpus, and shared tokens.

6.3.4.1 Recycling index of standard VIII corpus

The standard VIII corpus was divided into two corpora: T1 to T5 passages in one corpus and T6 to T10 passages in the second corpus. The first corpus T1 to T5 contained 7330 tokens and the second corpus contained 8116 tokens. The result obtained in Families Analysis and Types analysis is tabulated and shown below in Tables 10 and 11.

Table 10

Families Analysis of standard VIII corpus

Families Analysis	Shared	Total	Recycling Index %
Token Recycling Index	4078	15446	26.40
Families Recycling Index	439	1568	28.00

Table 11

Types Analysis of standard VIII corpus

Types Analysis	Shared	Total	Recycling Index %
Token Recycling Index	3500	15446	22.66
Families Recycling Index	459	2262	20.29

6.3.4.2 Recycling index of standard IX corpus

The Standard IX corpus was divided into two corpora containing an equal number of passages: T1 to T4 and T5 to T8. The first corpus contained 5090 tokens and the second corpus contained 6728 tokens. Tables 12 and 13, mentioned below, list the values obtained from the Families Analysis and Types Analysis.

Table 12

Families Analysis of standard IX corpus

Families Analysis	Shared	Total	Recycling Index %
Token Recycling Index	2857	11818	24.17
Families Recycling Index	422	1758	24.00

Table 13

Types Analysis of standard IX corpus

Types Analysis	Shared	Total	Recycling Index %
Token Recycling Index	2394	11818	20.26
Families Recycling Index	420	2352	17.86

6.3.4.3 Recycling index of standard X corpus

Like the previous two analyses, the standard X corpus was divided into two groups with an equal number of passages: T1 to T4 and T5 to T8. The first corpus contained 6181 tokens, and the second corpus contained 6306 tokens. The computed values are tabulated below in Tables 14 and 15.

Table 14

Families Analysis of standard X corpus

Families Analysis	Shared	Total	Recycling Index %
Token Recycling Index	3094	12487	24.78
Families Recycling Index	475	1821	26.08

Table 15

Types Analysis of standard X corpus

Types Analysis	Shared	Total	Recycling Index %
Token Recycling Index	2524	12487	20.21
Families Recycling Index	459	2494	18.04

6.3.4.4 Recycling Index across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora

Across the three standards, the recycling index was computed between standard VIII and IX, IX and X, and VIII and X. For this purpose, Families Analysis was selected as the criteria for analysis. Again, function words were eliminated as a factor from the analysis. The results obtained are given below in Table 16.

Table 16

Families Analysis across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora

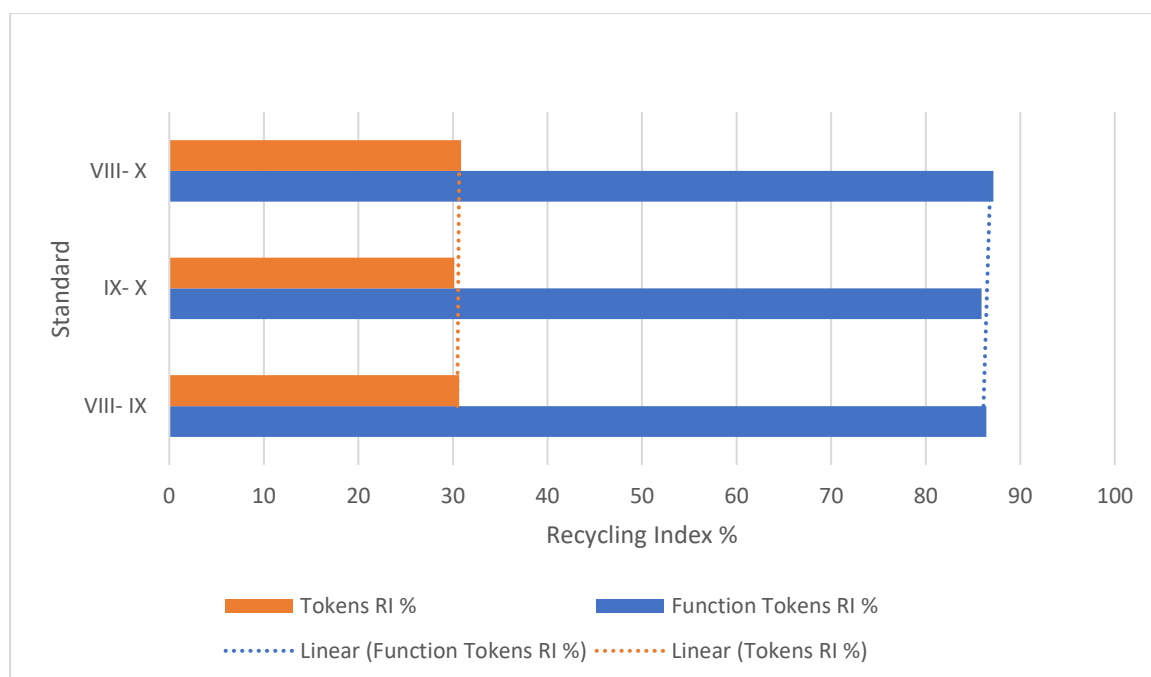
Across standards	Tokens Recycling Index %	Families Recycling Index %
VIII-IX	30.67	32.59
IX-X	30.14	31.05
VIII-X	30.86	31.66

6.3.4.5 Discussion on Recycling Index

The degree of repetition across the passages in the textbooks and across the standards can be understood through this analysis. Across the standards, there is a slightly higher Families recycling index between VIII and IX corpora compared to IX and X corpora (Table 16). But overall, the average recycling index is only 32.76%. Compared to the Token recycling index of 30.67% when function words were eliminated from the analysis, the Tokens Recycling index with function words between VIII and IX corpora was 86.40% (Figure 6 given below).

Figure 6

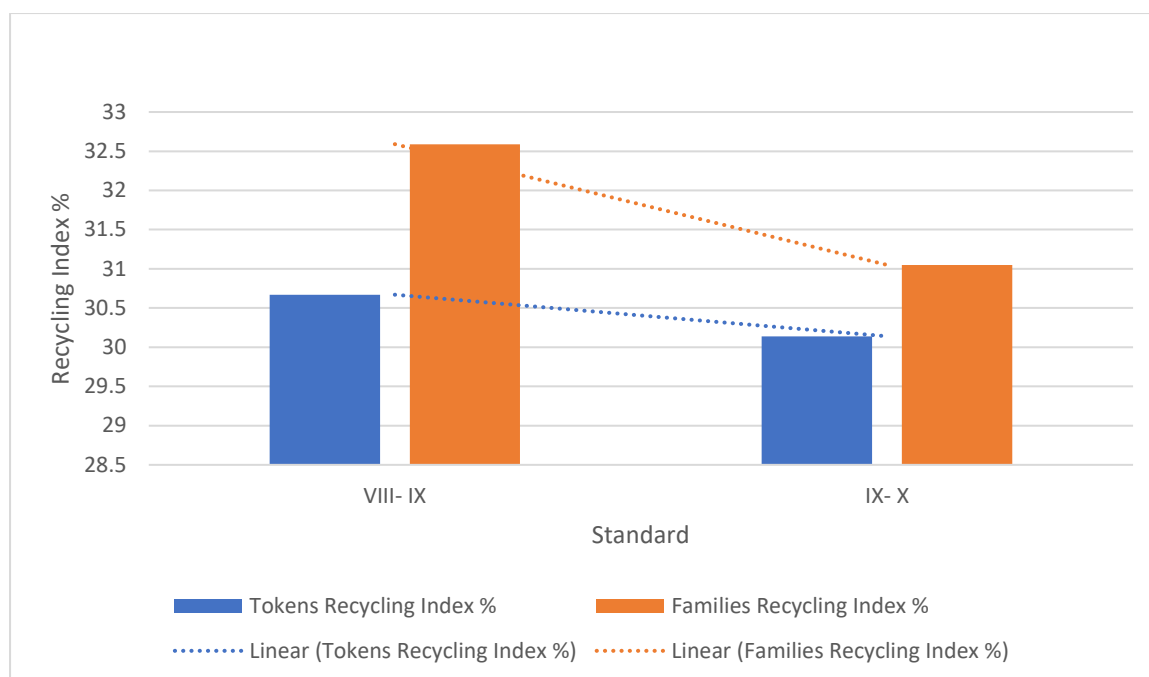
Clustered bar chart of Tokens RI % and Functions R1 % across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora



As discussed in the second chapter, prior studies have shown that repetition affects vocabulary learning (Saragi, Nation and Meister, 1978 (discussed in Liu, 2018); Horst, Cobb and Meara, 1998; Rott, 1999 (discussed in Liu, 2018); Waring and Tataki, 2003 and Webb, 2007). A minimum exposure of ten times was illustrated to be crucial for vocabulary growth by Stuart Webb (2007). In this light, the degree of repetition or recycling index is important. Yet, as seen in Figure 7 below, there is a very low token recycling index % and families recycling index %.

Figure 7

Clustered column chart and line plot Tokens RI % and Functions RI % across standard VIII-IX corpus and IX- X corpus



Also, within the textbooks, standard VIII corpus (Tables 10 and 11, p. 231), IX corpus (Tables 12 and 13, p. 232), and X corpus (Tables 14 and 15, p. 233), the recycling index is below 28% in both Families Analysis and Types Analysis. This shows that there must be additional explicit learning of vocabulary to ensure learners' vocabulary growth.

6.3.5 Grading in Vocabulary Frequencies

The question of whether the units in the different standard corpora and across VIII, IX, and X corpora are graded sequentially with respect to vocabulary frequencies is addressed in this section. The standard VIII and X units follow an overlap in the TTR (Figure 1, p. 217 and Table 3, p. 219). However, in standard IX, the third, fourth, and fifth passages (T3, T4, and T5) were found to have a significantly higher TTR when compared against the later passages T8 and T6 (Figure 2, p. 218).

From the above analysis in section 6.4, it can be seen that the average TTR of standard VIII is 0.3105, the average TTR of standard IX is 0.3702, and the average TTR of

standard X is 0.3764 (Table 4, p. 221). This shows a linear increase in lexical richness/lexical variation as the standard becomes higher.

Also, in terms of K2 words (1001-2000), there is a linear increase in K2 words percentage, standard VIII- 6.53%, standard IX- 6.97%, and standard X- 7.34% (Table 9, p. 228). These two factors, a linear increase of TTR and K2 words, depict sequential grading in vocabulary frequencies among Standard VIII, IX, and X corpora. In terms of recycling index percentage, standard VIII- IX showed a slightly increased percentage compared to standard IX and X (Table 16, p. 234).

6.4 Textbook Readability/ Complexity

The research employed a descriptive qualitative approach to analyse the corpus along with quantitative data analysis. The content analysis approach was chosen as the study only involved the written data in the textbook. Though the corpus of standard VIII, IX, and X was the same as discussed in section 6.2, the selected passages were original text without editions. In the corpus for vocabulary evaluation, changes were made with respect to punctuation marks and shortened constructions. However, this was not the case with the corpus to compute readability score.

Textbook readability was computed using two formulas, the Flesch Reading Ease formula and the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula discussed in chapter 2. The statistical analysis of computing readability of the passages using the Flesch Reading Ease readability formula and the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score was carried out in the same computation tool, Coh-Metrix This is discussed in chapter 4. The higher the indices, the more readable the text is in both the Flesch Reading Ease and the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formulas.

6.4.1 Analysis and discussion of readability in standard VIII corpus

Table 17 shows the Flesch Reading Ease and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score computed from Coh-Metrix for the ten passages in the standard VIII corpus.

Table 17

Flesch Reading Ease score and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score within standard VIII corpus

Passages	Flesch Reading Ease score	Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score
VIII. T1	84.51	15.00
VIII. T2	81.85	22.54
VIII. T3	80.14	16.00
VIII. T4	93.38	20.26
VIII. T5	88.94	23.32
VIII. T6	86.83	29.32
VIII. T7	90.15	12.19
VIII. T8	84.02	13.13
VIII. T9	88.20	19.41
VIII. T10	73.97	19.42

The analysis shows that except for one passage, all passages were ‘easy’ or ‘very easy’ as per DuBay’s (2004) style description of Flesch Readability Ease score. Only T10 was deemed ‘fairly easy’ under Flesch Readability Ease and was observed to be the passage with the lowest Flesch Readability Ease score. However, the same passage in Coh-Metrix was moderate in terms of its readability difficulty (Table 17). The low Flesch Reading Ease score can be attributed to the fact that T10 was the longest passage (The Merchant of Venice) with a token count of 2627 and had a high average in terms of syllables per sentence (19.14) and words per sentence (13.50).

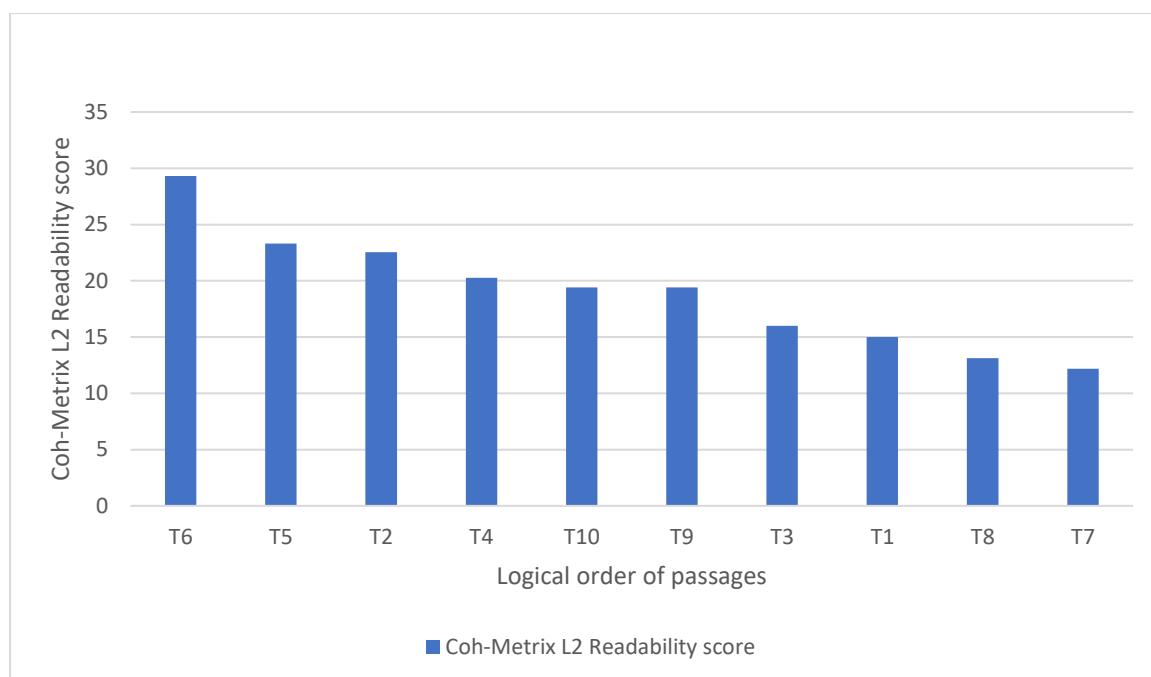
Another observation was on the seventh passage, T7, which had the second-highest Flesch Reading Ease score (90.15) but the lowest Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score (12.19) (Table 17). Accordingly, T7 could be attributed as an easily readable passage under the Flesch Reading Ease and the most difficult passage under Coh-Metrix L2 Readability. T7 passage ‘The Nightingale and the Rose’ was observed to have a relatively low referential cohesion (0.081). Also, the passage had the lowest value (0.076) in the ‘Sentence to Sentence Syntax Similarity’ (syntactic complexity) metric compared to the other passages in the corpus. As these two metrics are important factors in the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula, it explains the low Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score.

The reverse can be seen regarding T6, which had the highest Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score (29.32) on account of its high referential cohesion (0.107) and high syntactic complexity (0.198).

In terms of logical ordering under the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score, the passages' rank order is illustrated in Figure 8 below. The order of the passages is ranked from easy to difficult.

Figure 8

Clustered column chart of the logical rank order of passages within standard VIII corpus based on the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score



6.4.2 Analysis and discussion of readability in standard IX corpus

Table 18 shows the comparison of the computed Flesch Reading Ease of the various passages in standard IX corpus against the description provided by William DuBay (2004) as discussed in chapter 2. The higher the Flesch Reading score, the easier the text is to read.

Table 18

Flesch Reading Ease score within standard IX corpus with reference to DuBay's description (DuBay, 2004) and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score

Passages	Flesch Reading Ease score	Style description	Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score
IX. T1	82.37	Easy (80-90)	20.359
IX. T2	72.65	Fairly easy (70-80)	21.263
IX. T3	76.84	Fairly easy (70-80)	15.436
IX. T4	67.01	Standard (60-70)	20.624
IX. T5	78.10	Fairly easy (70-80)	16.237

IX. T6	86.55	Easy (80-90)	18.186
IX. T7	84.63	Easy (80-90)	15.860
IX. T8	78.88	Fairly easy (70-80)	18.276

Of the eight passages, the fourth passage, T4, can be seen to have the lowest readability score, the highest being 86.55 and the lowest being 67.01 (Table 18). Interestingly, the only passage that seemed to be attributed ‘standard’ readability and estimated at 8th, 9th grade (the US estimated reading grade) is the original rendition of Mohandas Karamchand Gandhi’s autobiography’s extract ‘Story of my Experiments with Truth’. All the rest of the passages are adapted versions of the original text. When the researcher had enquired about the process of adaptation, it was told that no significant process was carried out.

The logical ordering of these passages based on the Flesch Reading Ease and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability Ease score can be seen in Figures 9 and 10, respectively. The ranking is in accordance with the fact that passages must be ranked from easy to hard passages.

Figure 9

Clustered column chart of the logical rank order of passages within standard IX corpus based on Flesch Reading Ease score

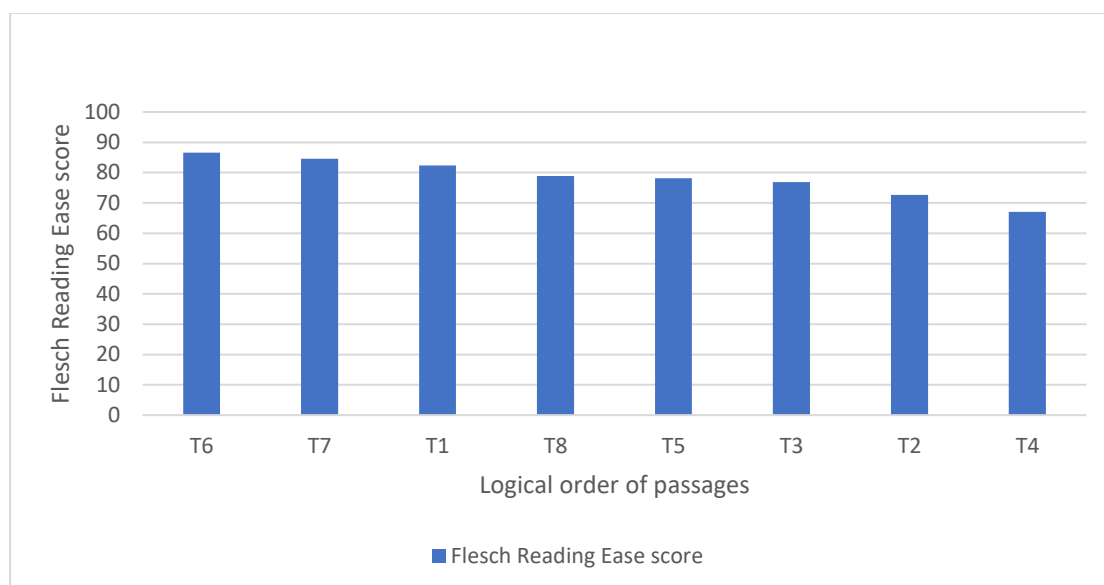
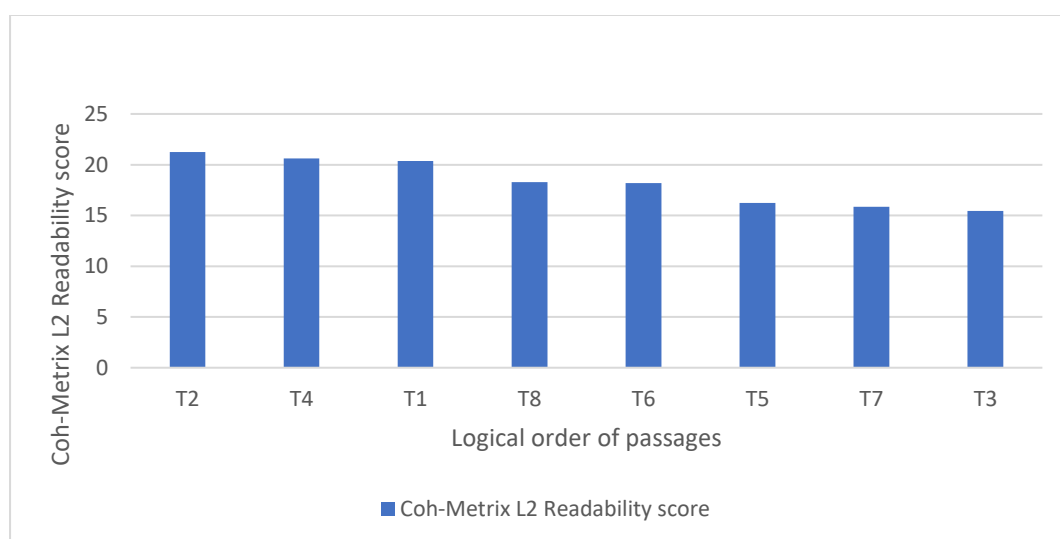


Figure 10

Clustered column chart of the logical rank order of passages within standard IX corpus based on the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score



As shown in the figures above (Figures 9 and 10), the grading of the passages as per the two formulas is very distinct in some passages. The passage T4 that had the lowest Flesch Reading Ease score, 67.01 (making it highly difficult), was the second easiest passage to be

understood according to Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score 20.62 (Table 18, p. 240). On close examination, it was observed that the difference in the readability was because of the high referential cohesion between sentences in the text (0.107) in contrast with the referential cohesion of other passages. This shows that, unlike the other adapted passages in the text, there is a higher degree of logical connectiveness between the sentences. This might be because this passage was an extract from the original text and not an adaptation. Also, the easiest passage as per the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score was found to have the highest referential cohesion of 0.131. This made the passage T2 that had the second to least Flesch Readability Ease score being computed as the easiest passage in the corpus. These two passages T2 and T4, also had a high average sentence length and high average syllables per sentence when compared against the same in the other passages.

6.4.3 Analysis and discussion of readability in standard X corpus

The analysis of readability formulas on standard X corpus yielded a greater range in readability in comparison to the readability result of standard VIII and IX corpus (Table 17, p. 238 and Table 18, p. 240). The computed Flesch Reading Ease and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score are shown in Table 19 below.

Table 19

Flesch Reading Ease score and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score within standard X corpus

Passages	Flesch Reading Ease score	Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score
X. T1	72.37	11.93
X. T2	88.09	24.26
X. T3	74.45	15.55
X. T4	70.17	15.36

X. T5	65.80	27.53
X. T6	85.09	19.80
X. T7	80.70	13.19
X. T8	72.67	13.78

The analysed results show that Flesch Reading Ease score ranges from 88.09 (T2) to 65.80 (T5). The fifth passage, T5 ‘The Danger of a Singer Story’ by a Nigerian author, was deemed as the most difficult as per Flesch Reading Ease formula. However, the same had the highest value in the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula 27.53 (Table 19, p. 243). Compared to other passages in the standard X corpus, T5 had the highest average of syllables per sentence and words per sentence with values 27.95 and 19.00, respectively. Additionally, it had the lowest token count 1088 (Table 3, p. 219). This is unlike T10 in the standard VIII corpus that had the highest token count (Table 1, p. 216) and high average syllable per sentence and word per sentence resulting in a low Flesch Reading Ease score (Table 17, p. 238).

In contrast, though T5 in the standard X corpus had the lowest token count, the high average syllables per sentence and words per sentence led to the low Flesch Reading Ease score. However, this passage had the highest referential cohesion 0.138. This resulted in a high Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score of 27.53, making it the easiest passage in terms of readability (Table 19, p. 243).

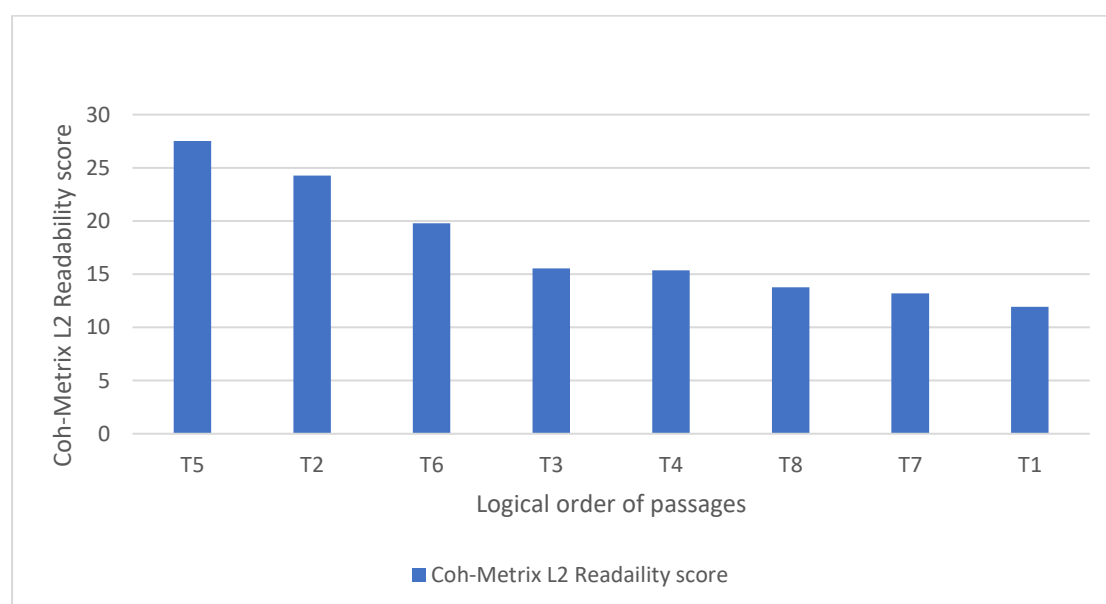
The lowest average of syllables per sentence and average words per sentence was observed to be in the case of T2 with the values 13.59 and 10.66, respectively. Along with this, T2 also had the second-highest referential cohesion, 0.113, and the highest value in the

sentence-to-sentence syntax similarity metric, 0.183. These factors have contributed to the high indices in the Flesch Reading Ease formula and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula. The Flesch Reading Ease score of T2 being 88.09 and the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score being 24.26 (Table 19, p. 243).

As only these two passages T5 and T7, differed in the reading ease value, the logical order of passages was only ranked according to the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score. This is illustrated in Figure 11.

Figure 11

Clustered column chart of the logical rank order of passages within standard X corpus based on the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score



6.4.4 Analysis and discussion of readability across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora

The complete corpus of each standard was analysed to observe the grading of readability across standard VIII, IX, and X corpus. Table 20 below lists the Flesch Reading Ease score and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score for the different corpora.

Table 20

Flesch Reading Ease score and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score across the different standard VIII, IX, and X corpora

Standard	Flesch Reading Ease score	Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score
VIII	83.87	19.62
IX	79.78	17.99
X	77.11	17.76

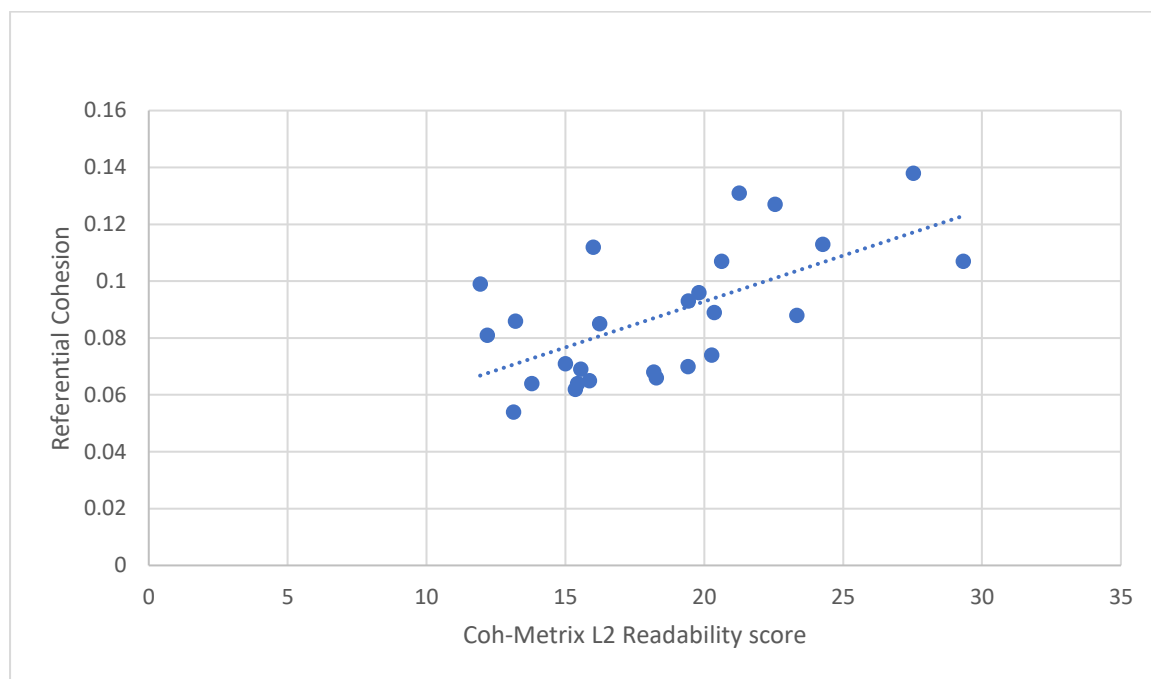
From Table 20, it is evident that the textbook is sequentially graded in terms of textbook readability. The overall Flesch Reading Ease for standard VIII can be described as ‘easy’ following DuBay’s (2004) style description of Flesch Reading Ease. The standard IX and X corpus belong to the ‘fairly easy’ category. The overall Coh-Metrix L2 Readability ranges between 17.70 to 19.70 highlighting the corpus as easily readable text.

6.4.5 Discussion on Coh-Metrix L2 Readability

From the results analysed, it would be interesting to note whether there is a definite correlation between referential cohesion and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score and between sentence-to-sentence syntax similarity (syntactic complexity) and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score. For this purpose, correlation analyses were used to measure the association between these variables. This is illustrated in Figure 12 shown below.

Figure 12

Pearson correlation visualized as scatter plot Coh-Metrix L2 Readability by Referential Cohesion



The statistical application was carried out between the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score and referential cohesion across all passages in the combined standard VIII, IX, and X corpora illustrated in Figure 12. The correlation analyses carried out in terms of Pearson Correlation showed a positive correlation between these two variables with a referential coefficient $r=0.62$. Statistically, $r>0.5$ indicates a high positive correlation. This means that as the value of one variable increases, so does the value of the other variable. In this case, an increase in the referential cohesion increased the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score making the text easier to read. The same was observed in the correlation analysis between Coh-Metrix L2 Readability and syntactic complexity with the referential coefficient $r=0.56$.

This shows a correlation between the referential cohesion and syntactic complexity indices with Coh-Metrix L2 Readability.

6.4.6 Grading in textbook readability

So, merely computing Flesch Reading Ease does not help in predicting readability. Though sentence length certainly plays a role in readability, a high cohesion text will yield a better readability level than a low cohesion text with a lesser average sentence length and average syllable per word. In this sense, the passages' logical rank order based on the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score is mentioned (Figure 8, p. 239, Figure 10, p. 242, and Figure 11, p. 245).

Table 20 (p. 246) in section 6.4.4 shows that standard VIII, IX, and X corpora are graded in textbook readability with respect to both Flesch Reading Ease and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability.

6.5 Analysing CEFR level of vocabulary using the English Vocabulary Profile

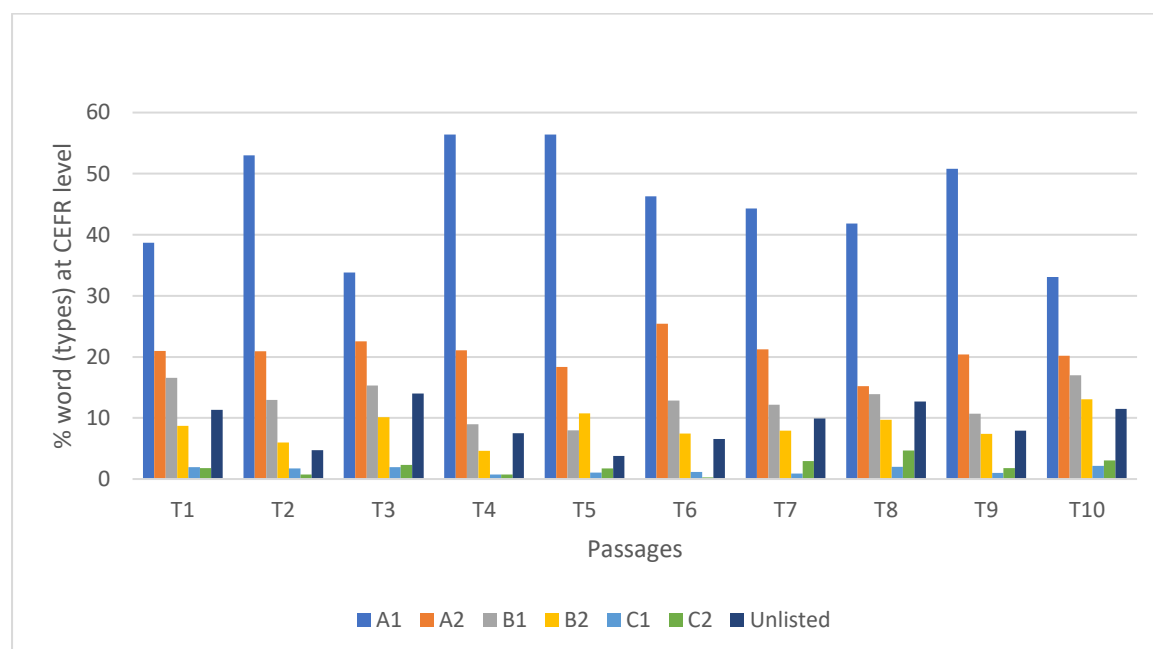
In this section, analysis was carried out with respect to lexical sophistication at the English Vocabulary Profile (EVP) level. According to EVP, the text was analysed to compute the percentage of words (types/ tokens) at each CEFR level, A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2. Identifying the level of which word, phrase, idiom, and collocation found in the text would aid ESOL (English for Speaker of Other Languages) teaching and learning.

6.5.1 EVP word list for various passages in standard VIII corpus

According to the EVP, the CEFR level of vocabulary is illustrated in Figure 13.

Figure 13

EVP: % of word (types) at A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2, and Unlisted levels within standard VIII corpus



From figure 13, it can be seen that T8 (4.68 %), T10 (3.05 %), T7 (2.93 %), and T3 (2.33 %) contained a higher percentage of C2 word types. However, the consequent percentage of C1 word types was relatively less, ranging from 2.18 % to 0.90 %. From section 6.4.1 (Table 17, p. 238), the passages T8, T7, and T3 were categorized as easy to read under the Flesch Reading Ease textbook readability except for T10, which was marked as fairly easy.

The analysed results also indicate a high percentage of ‘unlisted’ words. In the analysis of these words, it was seen that several ‘unlisted’ words were common verbs, adverbs, and adjectives in addition to proper nouns. This is discussed in the later discussion section 6.5.5. However, when checked against BNC and COCA, the ‘unlisted’ word types were always under 2.00%.

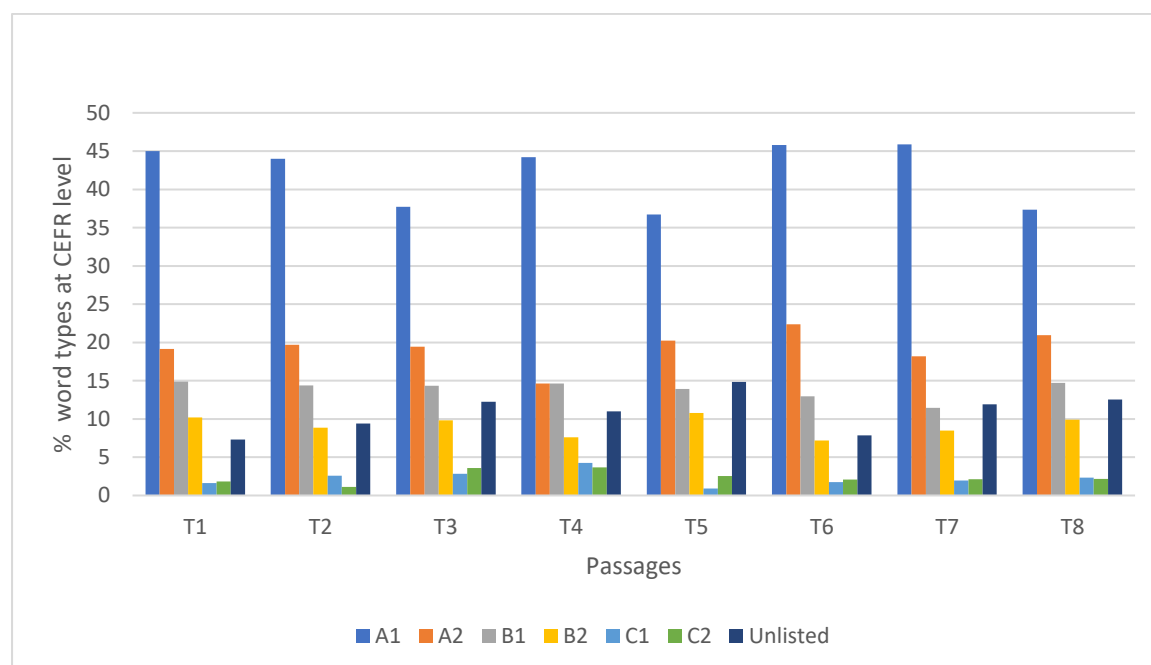
In standard VIII corpus, it was seen that overall, eight words- recognised, otherside, rulebook, realised, mermaiden, caressingly, hearted, and tragical were marked as errors in the lexical profile. The same was also observed to be labelled as ‘unlisted’ in EVP. The two words- recognised and realised were marked as ‘unlisted’ on account of their spelling. When the words ‘recognized’ and ‘realized’ were analysed, they were not marked as errors.

6.5.2 EVP word list for various passages in standard IX corpus

With respect to the research step of analysing text using EVP, it was seen that the percentage of words (types) at each CEFR level, A1, B2, and C1, did not follow any significant logical order. The percentage of words (types) at each level is illustrated in Figure 14 below.

Figure 14

EVP: % of word (types) at A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2, and Unlisted levels within standard IX corpus



As illustrated in Figure 14, the fourth passage had a high concentration of words that belonged to the higher level of C1 (4.27 %), while the fifth passage had a negligible percentage of words at the C1 level (0.90). Thus, during the analysis using EVP, it was seen that an average of 10.90 % of words (types) went ‘unlisted’ from the passages. So, the researcher went through the analysis of the text using the BNC and the COCA corpora. From this analysis, it was observed that the percentage of words (types) that went ‘unlisted’ were mainly names (people and places), numbers, and specific phrases that did not have a reference in EVP. The analysis also revealed a spelling error with the word ‘sockes’ in passage eight.

From the analysis using EVP, CEFR level C1 was observed to be attributed to two phrases, ‘give way’ and ‘make it’. CEFR level C2 was attributed to four phrases; ‘I dare say’, ‘take it’ ‘pay the price’ and ‘talk about’. CEFR level C2 also included one idiom, ‘caught sight of (someone/something)’. Additionally, CEFR level B2 included three phrases, ‘make fun of’, ‘it seems’ and ‘to do with’.

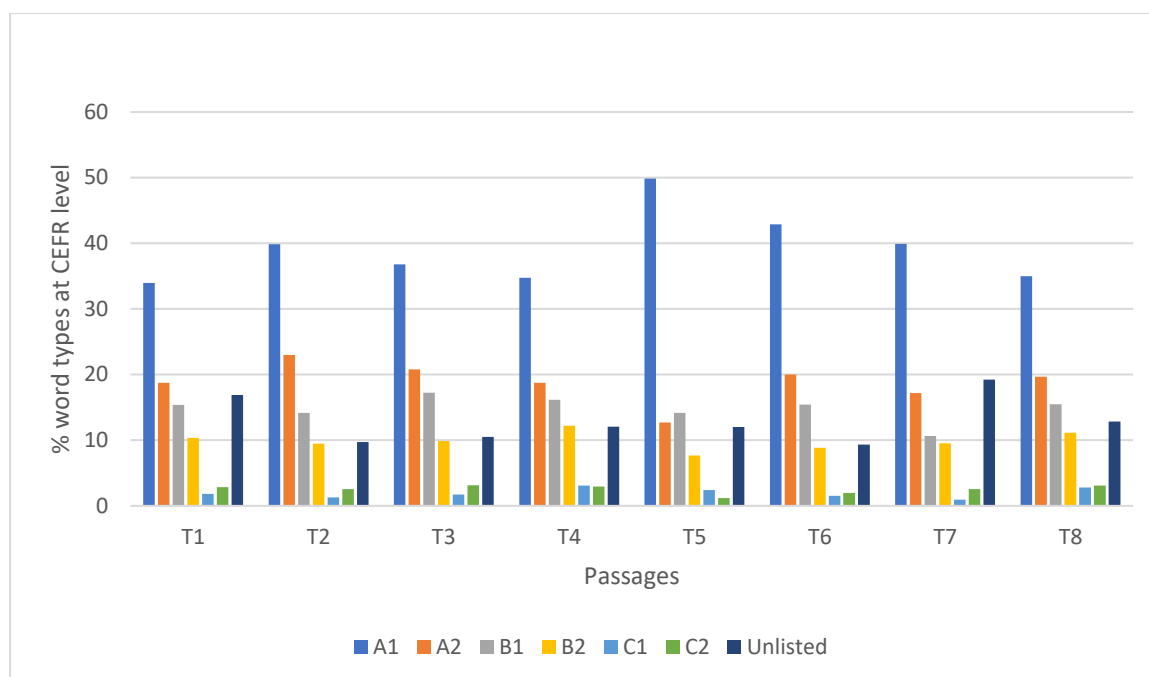
Another observation from the lexical analysis was that ‘amongst’ was marked as an error in the Lexical Profile analysis. However, EVP categorized the word under CEFR level B2.

6.5.3 EVP word list for various passages in standard X corpus

Figure 15 illustrates the results obtained after analysing the CEFR level of vocabulary using the EVP in the standard X corpus.

Figure 15

EVP: % of word (types) at A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, C2, and Unlisted levels within standard X corpus



As depicted in Figure 15, the range of words (types) at the C2 CEFR level is higher than that at the C1 level. Phrasal verb-transitive like ‘insisted on’ and ‘related to’ are categorised under C1, while ‘cleaned out’, ‘come out’, and ‘paced up and down’ are categorised under C2. Other phrasal verb-intransitive under C2 include ‘slipped out’ and ‘sprang up’ while ‘moved on’ is attributed to the C1 CEFR level. Additionally, the C1 level also includes the phrase ‘when it comes to’.

The analysis observed that a total of 37 words including proper nouns were marked as errors in Lexical Profile analysis. Two error words, ‘spoil’ and ‘leapt’ were classified under CEFR level B1 and C2, respectively. Also, error words, ‘recognised’, ‘realised’, and ‘patronising’ were marked as ‘unlisted’ on account of their spelling.

6.5.4 Discussion on EVP word list

From Figures 13 (p. 249), 14 (p. 250), and 15 (p. 251), it can be seen that there is a high number of words that are categorized as ‘unlisted’ under EVP. So the researcher analysed the

same under BNC and COCA. It was seen that many of the off-listed words under BNC and COCA included proper nouns, excluded numbers, and shortened construction. The ‘unlisted’ words according to the EVP are mentioned in the Appendix H.

The increased percentage of word types under ‘unlisted’ might be because of the size limitation of the Cambridge Learner Corpora used to analyse the text in terms of CEFR level. On the other hand, the BNC and COCA include more than 700 million words together.

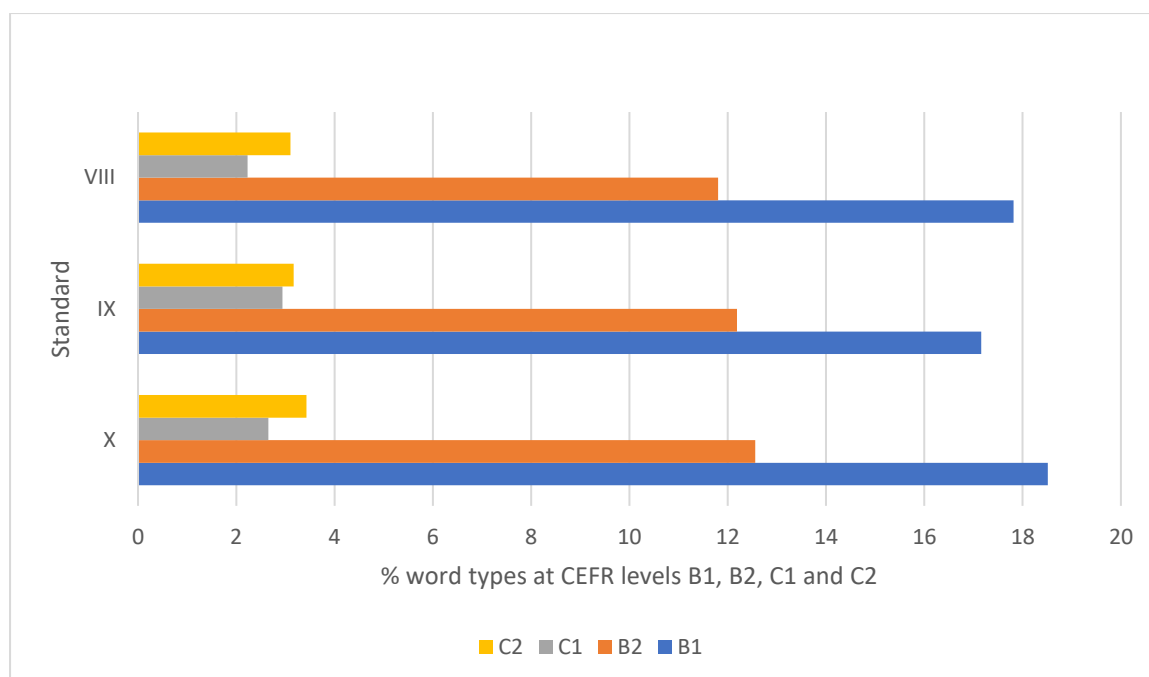
6.5.5 Grading according to EVP word list

Considering the limitation of 10000 words per document for analysis in Text Inspector, each corpus was divided into two corpora with an equal number of passages. Accordingly, the standard VIII corpus was divided into two corpora T1 to T5 and T6 to T10; the standard IX and X corpus were divided into two corpora T1 to T4 and T5 to T8. Later on, the analysis for each standard was clubbed.

To check the grading of vocabulary as per the CEFR level using EVP, the researcher looked into CEFR levels B1, B2, C1, and C2. The percentage of word types at each of these levels was computed to check the grading. The same is illustrated in Figure 16.

Figure 16

Clustered bar plot of % of word (types) at B1, B2, C1, and C2 CEFR levels across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora



From Figure 16, it can be observed that there is a linear grading in the C2 CEFR level. There is also a gradual increase in the percentage of word types at the B2 and C2 levels. At the C1 level, there is an increase in the word types in the standard IX corpus. On the other hand, the B1 CEFR level in the standard IX corpus contains the lowest percentage of word types.

Overall, it can be said that there is a gradual positive grading of word types at CEFR levels B1, B2, C1, and C2 from standard VIII to X when analysed using EVP.

6.6 Estimating CEFR level

The CEFR level for the standard VIII, IX, and X corpora was estimated to obtain a clear understanding of the textbook's level with reference to the common framework (CEFR). The CEFR level estimated in the Text Inspector is based on the Overall Lexical Profile of the reading text. The Lexical Profile assesses only vocabulary and metadiscourse. This is discussed in chapter 4 under the section of computational tools- Text Inspector.

6.6.1 CEFR level for various passages in standard VIII corpus

With the Text Inspector tool's help, the estimated CEFR of the ten passages in the standard VIII corpus is tabulated below in Table 21.

Table 21

CEFR level and description for passages within standard VIII corpus

Passage	CEFR level	Level description
VIII. T1	B1+	Independent
VIII. T2	B1	Independent
VIII. T3	B1+	Independent
VIII. T4	A2	Beginner
VIII. T5	A2+	Beginner
VIII. T6	A2+	Beginner
VIII. T7	B1+	Independent
VIII. T8	B2	Upper-Intermediate
VIII. T9	A2+	Beginner
VIII. T10	B1	Independent

The data analysis shows that only one passage is estimated at CEFR level B2 that is the eighth passage T8 (Table 21). T8 is a slightly adapted text from a Russian author. Among the other passages in the standard VIII corpus, T8 has the highest percentage of word types at the C2 CEFR level when analysed using EVP (Figure 13, p. 249). Though the passage belongs to the 'easy to read' category in terms of Flesch Readability Ease (Table 17, p. 238), the high number of words at the C2 level would have contributed to the higher CEFR level B2 in relation to other passages. The fourth passage, T4 estimated at CEFR level A2 had the highest Flesch Readability Ease score (93.38) belonging to the 'very easy' category (Table 17, p. 238).

6.6.2 CEFR level for various passages in standard IX corpus

The estimated CEFR level of the passages in the standard IX corpus is shown in Table 22.

Table 22

CEFR level and description for passages within standard IX corpus

Passage	CEFR level	Level description
IX. T1	A2+	Beginner
IX. T2	B1+	Independent
IX. T3	B2	Upper-Intermediate
IX. T4	B1+	Independent
IX. T5	B2	Upper-Intermediate
IX. T6	A2+	Beginner
IX. T7	A2+	Beginner
IX. T8	B1+	Independent

From the estimated CEFR level, it can be seen that only two passages, T3 and T5, were estimated at CEFR B2- Upper Intermediate, and three passages, T2, T4 and T8, estimated at CEFR level B1+- Independent. On more detailed analysis, it was observed that passages T3 and T5 had a higher percentage of words that belonged to the BNC and COCA corpus, lending to a higher CEFR level in the lexical sophistication metric of the Lexical Profile calculation.

Of all the passages, only the seventh passage, T7, belonged to the descriptive text type. T7 passage was computed to have a high Flesch Readability Ease score and low Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score (Table 18, p. 240). Accordingly, with respect to the former, it is an easy text, and with respect to the latter, it is a difficult text. The estimated CEFR from Lexical Profile

places it at A2+ (Beginner). This is because the text type is non-descriptive and has a low average sentence length and low average syllables per sentence. However, Lexical Profile's Metadiscourse metric places it at C1+ on account of the high metadiscourse markers other than logical connectives.

6.6.3 CEFR level for various passages in standard X corpus

Table 23 depicts the estimated CEFR level from the analysis of the passages in the standard X corpus.

Table 23

CEFR level and description for passages within standard X corpus

Passage	CEFR level	Level description
X. T1	C1	Advanced
X. T2	B1+	Independent
X. T3	B1	Independent
X. T4	B2+	Upper-Intermediate
X. T5	B1+	Independent
X. T6	A2+	Beginner
X. T7	B2+	Upper-Intermediate
X. T8	B2+	Upper-Intermediate

Only one passage in the standard X corpus is marked at the C1 CEFR level. However, as per the Lexical Sophistication analysis, the percentage of word (types) at A1 level and B2 level were identified at the C1 level (Advanced). Similarly, T8 was also identified with the C1 level at the percentage word types of A1 and B2, attributing to T8's B2+ CEFR level.

In relation to the other corpus, it can be seen that only in the standard X corpus, a passage has been estimated at the C1 CEFR level (Table 21, p. 255, Table 22, p. 256, and Table 23, p. 257).

6.6.4 CEFR level and grading across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora

To analyse the CEFR level across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora, the corpora had to be modified. Accordingly, the standard VIII corpus was split into T1-T5 and T6-T10 corpora, while standard IX and X corpora were split into T1-T4 and T5-T8.

The result obtained from the analysis is illustrated below in Figure 17. It depicts the grading of CEFR level across the corpora.

Figure 17

Clustered column plot of CEFR level across standard VIII, IX, and X corpora

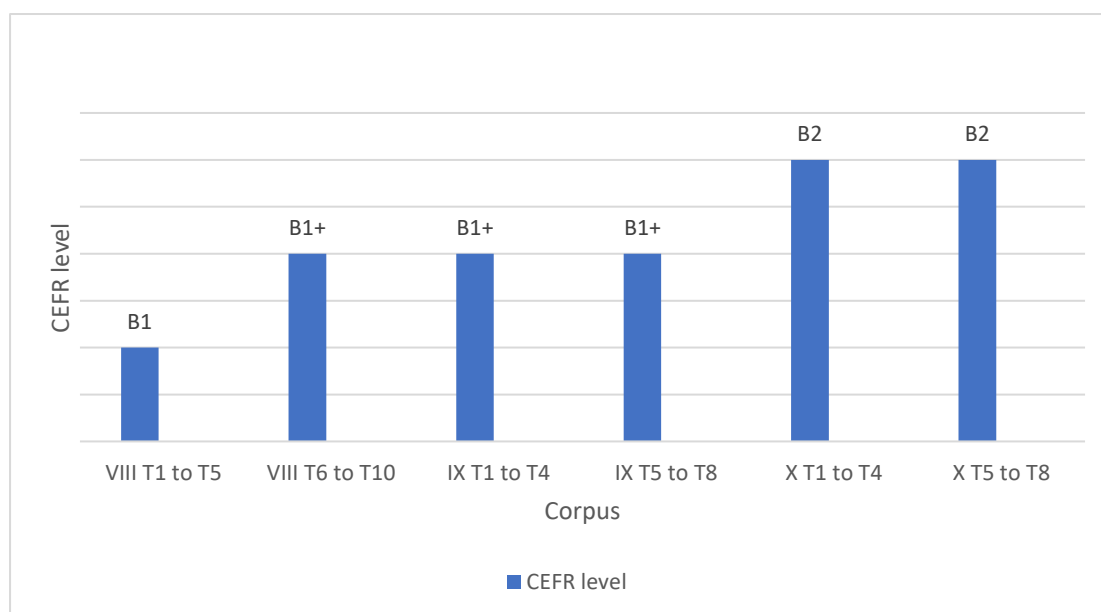


Figure 17 shows that the textbooks are graded with respect to the estimated CEFR level. The standard IX corpus is at the B1+ CEFR level, and the standard X corpus is at the B2 CEFR level.

6.6.5 Discussion on CEFR level

From the result, the Lexical Profile analysis estimating the CEFR level of the text can be seen as an adequate representation of the text's level. As per CEFR 2001, the different CEFR levels provide reliable grading of reading text. From Figure 17 (p. 238), it can be seen that the CEFR level of the standard VIII, IX, and X corpus ranges from CEFR level B1 to B2. Additionally, only one passage in the complete corpus (standard VIII, IX, and X corpus) was estimated at CEFR level C1, which is T1 in the standard X corpus (Table 23, p. 257). From a review of Ivanka Natova's (2019) study, the 9th-grade equivalent CEFR can be observed to be between B2 and C1 (Natova, 2019). Accordingly, a reading text of B2, B2+, and C1 would prove to form an adequate text for 9th graders. However, keeping in mind that levels of development and literacy vary depending on the social, national and educational context, detailed, in-depth analysis needs to be carried out to map the prospective learner's proficiency levels to align textbooks with prospective learners.

The Lexical Profile uses only a limited number of measures to estimate CEFR levels. This estimation is limited as it does not consider other aspects of grammatical complexity and the context of use. For a more definite calibration of the CEFR level, it is necessary to analyse what the various passages require the learners to do as per the curriculum directives. This would allow for a clear-cut, precise estimation of the CEFR level.

6.7 Conclusion

A quantitative and qualitative review of the SCERT Kerala English textbooks at the secondary level has been carried out in this chapter. It reviews the lexical variation and recycling index of the textbook. It also reports the computed readability score using the Flesch

Readability Ease formula and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula. By analysing the text using EVP and estimating the CEFR level, the chapter also focuses on the logical ordering of the units within the textbook and across the standards. Accordingly, the textbooks were found to be appropriately graded in terms of vocabulary frequencies, readability, and CEFR level. Furthermore, the research poses the question of whether these textbooks align with the learners. Hence, this current research presents a groundwork for further studies that need to be carried out to eliminate the ‘mismatch’ that exists between textbook and learners.

Chapter 7: Validation of Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing Skills

7.1 Introduction

The aim of this chapter is to identify the correlation of learning outcomes chosen from the competencies of Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing (LSRW) skills with established standards. The CEFR illustrative scales were selected to validate the competencies in terms of global standard, while the NCERT English syllabus was used to validate the national standard. Additionally, the Kerala SCERT Teacher Text English (standard VIII, IX, and X) were used to identify the competencies of LSRW skills present in the Kerala SCERT English syllabus at the secondary level.

This analysis helps validate the SCERT Kerala English syllabus design at the secondary stage based on KCF 2007 and KCF 2013 with the NCERT English syllabus based on the NCF 2005.

7.2 LSRW skills

Competency in a language depends on four basic skills: Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing (LSRW). In the context of first language acquisition, language skills are said to be acquired in the order: listening-speaking-reading and finally writing. This is based on the fact that a child's first exposure to language is what he/she hears in the home or local environment, followed by the child's attempt at reproducing sounds and words that he has heard and as a result develops the speaking skill. Later on, formal education in school introduces the child to reading and writing.

Among the four language skills, speaking and writing are referred to as productive skills, while listening and reading are referred to as receptive skills. Speaking and writing

skills require learners to produce the language. Therefore, they need to become active participants in the production of language. The integration of speaking and writing skill helps to foster oral communication (Sadiku, 2015). On the other hand, listening and reading skills are used to receive information. In this scenario, the learner is passive as it does not involve the production of language. The integration of these two skills helps to achieve effective written communication (Sadiku, 2015). Thus listening and writing skills are also called passive skills, while speaking and writing are active skills. All of these four skills need to be integrated for effective communication and mastery of language.

7.2.1 NCERT

The NCF 2005 states that “reading and writing, listening and speech, contribute to the child’s progress in all curricular areas and must be the basis for curriculum planning” (NCF, 2005, p. ix). In addition, the curriculum framework emphasizes that the development of communicative competence can occur only when all the skills are used in an integrated manner. Language learning is thus essentially a matter of acquiring the important skills of LSRW in an integrated manner.

To evaluate the textbook, the SCERT Kerala English syllabus of three standards VIII, IX, and X is analysed and compared in the framework of the NCERT English syllabus at the elementary level “English (Classes I-VIII), Syllabus for Classes at the Elementary Level” and the secondary level “English (Classes IX-XII), Syllabus for Secondary and Higher Secondary Levels” in terms of learning outcomes.

7.2.2 CEFR

The CEFR as a reference tool for language syllabuses describes what skills learners must learn to act as effective communicators in society (CoE, 2001). From the discussion of CEFR in chapter 3, CEFR is defined as comprehensive, transparent, and coherent. In this definition, ‘comprehensive’ involves the specification of the full range of language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) in the illustrative descriptor scales. Accordingly, the illustrative descriptors of CEFR that describe learning outcomes are used to analyse whether the SCERT Kerala English syllabus conforms with the established global standards.

The CEFR norms of LSRW skills are different in comparison to other established norms. For example, in the first and second dimension, the CEFR divides reception skills (typically, listening and reading) into three different reception activities: oral comprehension, audio-visual comprehension, and reading comprehension. On the other hand, production skills (typically speaking and writing) are divided into two production activities; oral production and written production (CoE, 2020). There is also a third dimension which deals with other aspects of communicative competence (sociolinguistic, pragmatic and other strategic competences). The CEFR 2020 scales are an extension of the original CEFR illustrative descriptors of 2001. Illustrative descriptor scales and levels from CEFR 2001, CEFR 2018, and CEFR 2020 classification are used to perform the present study.

7.3 Listening skill validation

Listening is considered the most critical prerequisite skill in learning a language. This skill is seen as the foundation of communication. Listening skill involves comprehending what is being said.

As per the CEFR 2020, in oral comprehension (listening); “the language user receives and processes live or recorded input produced by one or more people” and in audio-visual comprehension (listening), “the user watches TV, video or a film and uses multimedia with or without subtitles, voiceovers or signing” (CoE, 2020, p. 47). Therefore, the illustrative descriptor scales of both these comprehensions are categorized under listening skill learning outcomes in the analysis.

7.3.1 Standard VIII textbooks

The standard VIII textbooks did not contain any specific listening activities. The only specified learning outcome in the SCERT Kerala Standard VIII textbook is “listen, read and comprehend various literary forms like stories, poems and biographies” (SCERT VIII) in Unit 3 and 5. The equivalent CEFR statement of the same is, “can understand the main points made in clear standard language or a familiar variety on familiar matters regularly encountered at work, school, leisure, etc., including short narratives” (CoE, 2018) at CEFR level B1. The NCERT equivalent statement (Level III- Classes VI-VIII), is “to understand, enjoy and appreciate a wide range of texts representing different cultures, ways of living’ and ‘to understand and enjoy jokes, skits, children’s films, anecdotes and riddles” (NCERT VIII). Compared with the different listening outcomes in the NCERT standard VIII English syllabus, there is a distinct lack of listening objectives in the SCERT Kerala standard VIII English syllabus.

7.3.2 Standard IX textbooks

The competencies of listening skills are taken from the listening activities in Table 9 of Chapter 5 (p. 181). Table 1 shows the competencies of listening skill and the learning outcomes of the standard IX syllabus (taken from the English Teacher Text Standard IX).

Table 1

Listening options provided in SCERT standard IX textbooks and listening outcome specified in SCERT Teacher Text standard IX

Activities of listening skill (Listening options provided in textbooks)	Learning Outcomes specified in Teacher Text
• Listen to poem recitation • Listen to commentary, speech, and radio play • Listening to songs • Watch cartoon animation, video of memoir, film to evaluate prepared script, movie in Hindi of prose text • Language activity (imperative sentences) • Listening to comprehend language activity (BOBO)	• Listen with comprehension

Note: Source- SCERT IX

Though there are several listening options in the standard IX syllabus, the learning outcome only specifies, ‘listen with comprehension’. Also, many of the learning options provided with QR code do not have any specific questions or exercises. For instance, watching the cartoon animation, listening to the running commentary, video of memoir, radio play, and speech are not provided with any corresponding questions. Accordingly, there is a high chance that these listening options may be ignored. Considering the lack of specific mention of learning outcomes, the researcher has attempted to define listening learning outcomes from the learning competencies of listening skill activities (listening options provided in the textbook). In Table 2, CEFR equivalent statements and CEFR level is provided for the defined learning outcomes.

Table 2

Listening options present in the SCERT Kerala standard IX English textbooks and equivalent CEFR statements and levels

Listening options (QR code provided) of SCERT standard IX	CEFR equivalent statement for learning competencies from the listening options provided in the textbooks
• Listen to poem recitation • Listen to commentary, speech, and radio play • Listening to songs • Watch cartoon animation, video of memoir, film to evaluate prepared script, movie in Hindi of prose text • Language activity (imperative sentences) • Listening to comprehend language activity (BOBO)	• Can understand and extract the essential information from short, recorded passages or narratives dealing with predictable everyday matters. (A2) • Can follow many films in which visuals and action carry much of the storyline, and which are delivered clearly in straightforward language. (B1) • Can understand straightforward factual information about common every day, identifying both general messages and specific details, provided people articulate clearly in a generally familiar variety. (B1) • Can understand recordings in the standard form of the language likely to be encountered in social, professional or academic life and identify viewpoints and attitudes as well as the information content. (B2) • Can understand documentaries, live interviews, talk shows, plays and the majority of films in the standard form of the language or a familiar variety. (B2)

Note: Source- SCERT IX and CoE (2020)

From the equivalent CEFR statements, it can be seen that the learning competencies of listening skill can be attributed to being A2 or B2 level. From the listening activities in SCERT IX English syllabus, it seems that the learning competency acquired here will be at A2 level considering all the other available options in developing listening skill competency. If, for example, instead of the present provided task of writing running commentary from the screenshots of the match, there is a task to “listen to running commentary of a sports match” with QR code and a corresponding activity where students are asked to extract information, the level of listening competency acquired by the student would be much higher. The

corresponding CEFR level for the same is at C1 with the CEFR equivalent statement, “Can extract specific information from poor quality, [audibly and/or visually] distorted public announcements, e.g. in a station or sports stadium, or on an old recording” (CoE, 2020).

To validate the correlation of the SCERT Kerala standard IX English syllabus, the learning outcome of the NCERT standard IX English syllabus is analysed. Table 3 depicts the learning outcomes of the NCERT English IX syllabus and the equivalent CEFR statements and levels.

Table 3

Listening skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard IX English syllabus and equivalent CEFR statements and levels

Learning outcomes of NCERT standard IX English syllabus	Equivalent CEFR statements and levels
• Listens to announcements, instructions, read aloud texts, audio and videos for information, gist and details. • Takes notes and makes notes while listening to TV news, discussions, speech, reading aloud/silent reading of texts, etc., and summarises.	• Can understand the main points and important details in stories and other narratives. (B1) • Can follow many films in which visuals and action carry much of the storyline, and which are delivered clearly in straightforward language. (B1) • Can understand straightforward factual information about common every day, identifying both general messages and specific details, provided people articulate clearly in a generally familiar variety. (B1) • Can understand announcements and messages on concrete and abstract topics delivered in standard language or a familiar variety at normal speed. (B2) • Can understand documentaries, live interviews, talk shows, plays and the majority of films in the standard form of the language or a familiar variety. (B2)

Note: Source- NCERT IX and CoE (2020)

From the learning outcomes in the NCERT English IX syllabus, the learning outcome, “listens to and speaks on a variety of verbal inputs, viz. debate, speech, group discussion, PowerPoint presentation, radio programme, interview, mock parliament, etc.” (NCERT IX), is categorized under the speaking skill learning outcomes.

The Table results show a difference between the NCERT and SCERT syllabus on the lack of correlation in learning outcome (Tables 2 (p. 266) and 3 (p. 267)). However, whether the specified learning outcome in the NCERT English IX syllabus is adopted in the NCERT standard IX textbooks needs to be questioned.

7.3.3 Standard X textbooks

The integration of ICT in the textbooks has accommodated an increase in listening learning outcome in the SCERT Kerala standard X English syllabus. However, the same has not been specified in the learning outcomes of the syllabus. Also, some of the listening options did not have any associated activity; instead, it was up to the teacher and students to make use of the QR code.

Since learning outcomes have not been specified in the textbooks, the same had to be analysed with the Teacher Text. In this analysis, it was seen that there were more suggestions to the teachers to use video clips. For instance, the manual suggested that teachers screen a BBC radio play from a YouTube link (provided only in the teacher text) as a model for the students to prepare a radio play script. Also, teachers could screen a readers’ theatre radio (the true story of three little pigs) and ask the students to prepare a reader’s theatre script based on the model shown. However, these two activities had no mention in the Reader Text.

The listening options provided to the students as per the Teacher Text are listed in Table 4 with equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors and their level.

Table 4

Listening options recommended in the SCERT Teacher Text of standard X with CEFR equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels

Listening options recommended in the SCERT Teacher Text of standard X	CEFR equivalent illustrative descriptors and level
• QR code to get profile of famous personalities • QR code to get video profile of authors • QR code to get e-dictionary • QR code to get the recitation of poem • QR code to watch video and generate discussion on the quote • QR code watch video to obtain relevant clips for preparing documentary • QR code to extract information from a general video on poetic devices • QR code to listen to a song and initiate discussion on the song • QR code to extract information on different topics • QR code to listen to speech	• Can follow many films in which visuals and action carry much of the storyline, and which are delivered clearly in straightforward language. (B1) • Can follow a straightforward conference presentation or demonstration with visual support (e.g. slides, handouts) on a topic or product within their field, understanding explanations given. (B1) • Can understand recordings in the standard form of the language likely to be encountered in social, professional or academic life and identify viewpoints and attitudes as well as the information content. (B2) • Can understand most documentaries and most other recorded or broadcast material delivered in the standard form of the language and can identify mood, attitude, etc. (B2) • Can understand the main ideas of propositionally and linguistically complex discourse on both concrete and abstract topics delivered in standard language or a familiar variety, including technical discussions in their field of specialisation. (B2) • Can understand documentaries, live interviews, talk shows, plays and the majority of films in the standard form of the language or a familiar variety. (B2)

Note: Source- SCERT X and CoE (2020)

One thing to be noted from Table 4, is that the different statements in the two columns (from the left, one and two) do not have a one-to-one correspondence. The different listening

options can aid in the development of listening learning competencies if appropriately utilised.

In contrast to the SCERT Kerala standard X English syllabus, the NCERT standard X English syllabus has provided definite listening skill learning outcomes. The latter is listed in Table 5 with equivalent CEFR statements and levels.

Table 5

Listening skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard X English syllabus and equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors and levels

Listening skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard X	Equivalent CEFR statements and levels
• Listens to announcements, instructions, read-aloud texts, audio, videos for information, gist and details; responds by answering questions accordingly. Listens to and discusses literary / non-literary inputs in varied contexts to infer, interpret, and appreciate. • Takes down dictation using appropriate punctuation marks and correct spelling of the words dictated. • Takes and makes notes while listening to TV news, discussions, speech, reading aloud or silent reading of texts, etc., and summarises.	• Can understand announcements and messages on concrete and abstract topics delivered in standard language or a familiar variety at normal speed. (B2) • Can understand recordings in the standard form of the language likely to be encountered in social, professional or academic life and identify viewpoints and attitudes as well as the information content. (B2) • Can understand most documentaries and most other recorded or broadcast material delivered in the standard form of the language and can identify mood, attitude, etc. (B2) • Can understand the main ideas of propositionally and linguistically complex discourse on both concrete and abstract topics delivered in standard language or a familiar variety, including technical discussions in their field of specialisation. (B2)

Note: Source- NCERT X and CoE (2020)

Table 4 (p. 269) and Table 5 (p. 270) show a difference in the learning competencies between the SCERT Kerala standard X English syllabus (Table 4, p. 269) and the NCERT

standard X English Syllabus (Table 5, p. 270). Therefore, the projected learning outcome that can be obtained from the SCERT Kerala standard X English syllabus is more than that specified in the NCERT standard X English Syllabus. However, there is no definite correlation of the learning outcomes between the SCERT Kerala standard X English syllabus and the SCERT Kerala standard X English textbooks.

7.4 Speaking skill validation

Speaking skill is considered as the second skill in the course of learning a language. Speaking is the ability with which one can communicate. According to CEFR, speaking skill can be divided into two groups; oral production and oral interaction. In oral production, one or more listeners receive the oral text produced by the user (spoken production). On the other hand, oral interaction includes spoken interaction where the language user is actively involved in an interaction. Both these categories are written under speaking skill to follow the established standard norm.

7.4.1 Standard VIII textbooks

As discussed in chapter 5, speaking skills in the SCERT Kerala standard VIII textbook are more emphasized than listening skills. Table 6 lists the learning outcomes from SCERT standard VIII English textbooks and the equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors with levels, while Table 7 list the learning outcomes from NCERT standard VIII syllabus and the equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors with levels.

Table 6

Speaking skill learning outcomes of speaking skills of SCERT Kerala standard VIII English syllabus and CEFR equivalent statements and levels

Learning outcomes of SCERT standard VIII	Equivalent CEFR statements and levels
• Answer in simple English during classroom interaction. • Perform a speech in class. • Share his/her experiences with other learners in the class. • Form opinions and substantiate them using facts. • Express ideas and feelings in the target language. • Speak at a condolence meeting.	• Can deliver very short, rehearsed announcements of predictable, learnt content which are intelligible to recipients who are prepared to concentrate. (A2) • Can reasonably fluently sustain a straightforward description of one of a variety of subjects within their field of interest, presenting it as a linear sequence of points. (B1) • Can clearly express feelings about something experienced and give reasons to explain those feelings. (B1) • Can describe dreams, hopes and ambitions. (B1) • Can communicate detailed information reliably. (B2)

Note: Source- SCERT VIII and CoE (2020)

The CEFR level ranges from A2- B2.

Table 7

Speaking skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard VIII English syllabus and CEFR equivalent statements and levels

Speaking skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard VIII English syllabus	Equivalent CEFR statements and levels
• To be able to articulate individual/personal responses effectively. • To use language and vocabulary appropriately in different contexts and social encounters. • To develop production skills (fluency and accuracy in speaking). • Narrate simple experiences, describe objects and people, report events to peers. • Speak accurately with appropriate pauses and clear word/sentence stress to be intelligible in familiar social contexts.	• Can clearly express feelings about something experienced and give reasons to explain those feelings. (B1) • Can reasonably fluently sustain a straightforward description of one of a variety of subjects within their field of interest, presenting it as a linear sequence of points. (B1) • Can report straightforward factual information on a familiar topic, for example to indicate the nature of a problem or to give detailed directions, provided they can prepare beforehand. (B1) • Can communicate detailed information reliably. (B2)

Note: Source- NCERT VIII and CoE (2020)

The analysis shows that there is not much difference between the SCERT syllabus and the NCERT syllabus in terms of learning competency of speaking skills. However, in the SCERT standard VIII syllabus, there is the addition of speaking skill, addressing audience/public talking with the activity, ‘speak at a condolence meeting’.

7.4.2 Standard IX textbooks

Compared to the standard VIII syllabus, the standard IX syllabus is equipped with more speaking skill activities. The performance-based activities in the SCERT Kerala syllabus and NCERT syllabus have been categorized under speaking skill.

For the ease of understanding of CEFR statements, the equivalent statements were correlated with the descriptors of “Collated Representative Samples of Language Competences Developed for Young Learners aged 11-15 years (2018) that was mapped on the CEFR extended set of illustrative descriptors. In all the following analysis, it is clubbed with CEFR 2018 and CEFR 2020. The illustrative scale of these collated descriptors of language competencies involve plus levels and are in the format of ‘I can’ statements. Table 8 lists the learning outcomes of the SCERT Kerala standard IX syllabus taken from the Teacher Text Standard IX and the equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years.

Table 8

Speaking skill learning outcomes of SCERT standard IX and equivalent CEFR statements and levels

Speaking skill learning outcomes of SCERT standard IX	Equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years

• Engage in performance-based activities like commentary, announcement, group discussions, etc., and enhance their communicative skills. • Speak and express their views in group discussion. • Conduct talk show. • Speak with proper stress, rhythm, and intonation. • Participate in a debate, panel discussion, reader's theatre. • Perform radio drama • Conduct interview. • Express thought."	• I can talk in detail about my experiences, feelings and reactions (B1) • I can briefly explain and justify my points of view, my assumptions and my plans. (B1) • I can work with my friends to make a short play and can ask about different uses and styles of language (B1) • I can take part in group work and class discussions and give my own views. (B1) • I can interview someone if I have prepared a questionnaire; I can sometimes ask a further question without having to think for too long. (B1) • I can clearly express my feelings on something that I have experienced and I can also give reasons to explain my feelings (B1+) • I can express my opinion on different themes concerning everyday life and I can also justify my opinion (B1+) • I can announce something briefly using simple words (B1+)

Note: Source- SCERT IX, CoE (2018) and CoE (2020)

From Table 8, it can be seen that one of the learning outcomes that could not be validated with CEFR level is 'speaking with proper stress, rhythm, and intonation'. Though this learning outcome is part of speaking skill, it is not accommodated under the CEFR LSRW language competencies, as the description of phonology has a separate set of illustrative descriptors and scales. Since the phonology scale has not been analysed, this learning outcome is not validated.

Table 9 lists the speaking skill learning outcomes of the NCERT standard IX English syllabus and the CEFR equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years along with CEFR 2018 and CEFR 2020.

Table 9

Speaking skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard IX and equivalent CEFR statements with levels

Speaking skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard IX English syllabus	Equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years
• Responds by answering questions relating to listening of announcements, instructions, read-aloud texts, audio, videos for information, gist and details. • Discusses literary / non-literary inputs in varied contexts to infer, interpret, and appreciate. • Communicates thoughts, ideas, views and opinions verbally and non-verbally. • Speaks on a variety of verbal inputs, viz. debate, speech, group discussion, power point presentation, radio programme, interview, mock parliament, etc. • Participates in role plays, skits, street plays, etc., for the promotion of social causes.	• I can give a short and straightforward prepared presentation on a personal project or chosen literary work in a reasonably clear manner (B1) • I can readily handle conversations on most topics that are familiar or of personal interest, with generally appropriate use of register. (B1) • I can work with my friends to make a short play and can ask about different uses and styles of language (B1) • In discussions, I can briefly express my own point of view with regard to opinions expressed by other people. (B1+) • I can express my opinion on different themes concerning everyday life and I can also justify my opinion (for example in a short talk on a subject such as “violence at school”). (B1+) • I can give clear detailed descriptions on a wide range of personal, cultural, intercultural and social issues. (B2) • I can present something in a clear, systematic manner and can appropriately highlight the main points and important details. (B2+)

Note: Source- NCERT IX, CoE (2018) and CoE (2020)

Similar to the phonology related learning outcome in the SCERT Kerala standard IX Teacher Text, the NCERT standard IX English syllabus’s learning outcome, “Speaks fluently with proper pronunciation, intonation and pause, using appropriate grammar” (NCERT IX) is not validated with CEFR illustrative descriptor.

From Table 8 (p. 273) and Table 9 (p. 275), it can be seen that, two illustrative descriptors, “I can give clear, detailed descriptions on a wide range of personal, cultural, intercultural and social issues”(CoE, 2020) and “I can present something in a clear, systematic manner and can appropriately highlight the main points and important details” at B2 and B2+ level present in correlation with the NCERT standard IX syllabus is absent in the SCERT Kerala standard IX syllabus. CEFR level of learning outcomes specified in SCERT Kerala standard IX is at B1-B1+, while for NCERT standard IX syllabus, it is at B1- B2+. A contributing factor to this is the lack of proper representation of learning outcomes in the SCERT Kerala standard IX syllabus.

7.4.3 Standard X textbooks

The speaking skill learning outcomes present in the SCERT Kerala standard X Teacher Text is also validated against the descriptors of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years on account of the increase in learning outcome.

Table 10 lists the speaking skill learning outcomes of SCERT Kerala standard X as mentioned in the Teacher Text and equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15.

Table 10

Speaking skill learning outcomes of SCERT Kerala standard X and equivalent CEFR statements and levels

Speaking skill learning outcomes of SCERT standard X	Equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years

• Engage critically and constructively in oral exchanges of ideas/ discussions (peer group assignments, classroom discussions). • Communicate ideas fluently. • Express clearly and with confidence, one's own personal points of view in a debate. • Compare or contrast written text with its cinematic rendering by responding through discussion.	• In discussions, I can briefly express my own point of view with regard to opinions expressed by other people. (B1+) • I can express my opinion on different themes concerning everyday life and I can also justify my opinion (for example in a short talk on a subject such as "violence at school"). (B1+) • Can use the language fluently, accurately and effectively on a wide range of general, academic, vocational or leisure topics, marking clearly the relationships between ideas. (B2+) • Can communicate spontaneously with good grammatical control without much sign of having to restrict what he/she wants to say, adopting a level of formality appropriate to the circumstances (B2+) • I can present something in a clear, systematic manner and can appropriately highlight the main points and important details. (B2+) • I can express my ideas and opinions precisely and put forward persuasive arguments; I can also respond to complex arguments put forward by others. (B2+)

Note: Source- SCERT X, CoE (2018) and CoE (2020)

Table 10 clearly shows a distinct lack of speaking skill learning outcomes specified in standard X Teacher Text. This does not mean that there is a lack of speaking activities (Table 14, p. 197 in chapter 5) clearly shows the higher number of speaking-related activities than the standard VIII and IX textbooks (role-play, organize campaign, conduct competition event, shoot short video). The speaking activities in the textbook were considered while validating the speaking skill competencies with CEFR descriptors. The CEFR level of the learning outcomes ranged between B1+ to B2+.

Compared with the SCERT Kerala standard X English syllabus, the NCERT standard X English syllabus has a wider range of learning outcomes listed in Table 11. Accordingly, the NCERT learning outcomes in Table 11 is not validated with CEFR descriptors as it involves all the CEFR descriptors mentioned in Table 10.

Table 11

Speaking skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard X English syllabus

Learning outcomes of NCERT standard X English syllabus
• Responds by answering questions relating to listening of announcements, instructions, read-aloud texts, audio, videos for information, gist and details. • Discusses literary / non-literary inputs in varied contexts to infer, interpret, and appreciate. • Speaks with coherence and cohesion while participating in interactive tasks. • Uses language appropriate to purposes and perspectives. • Talks on key contemporary issues like social justice, environment, gender, etc., in speech. • Participates in bilingual or multilingual discourses on various themes. • Collects evidences and discusses in groups for reading autobiographies, history and science based literary texts. • Participates in role play, skit, street plays for the promotion of social issues. • Speaks or writes on variety of themes. • Consults or refers to dictionary, periodicals, and books for academic and other purposes; and uses them in speech.
<i>Note:</i> Source- NCERT X

The preliminary review shows that the speaking skill language competencies acquired from the NCERT standard X English syllabus are higher than the specified learning outcomes of the SCERT Kerala standard X English syllabus in the standard X Teacher Text.

Specifically, from Table 11, learning outcomes such as “participates in bilingual or multilingual discourses on various themes” (NCERT X), “collects evidences and discusses in groups for reading autobiographies, history and science based literary texts” (NCERT X) are not considered in the SCERT Kerala standard X English syllabus.

7.5 Reading skill validation

Reading considered the third skill in the sequential order of LSRW skills, is a fundamental skill of formal education. Reading skill involves more than just the ability to read words and sentences. It includes comprehending and analysing the written text.

7.5.1 Standard VIII textbooks

Reading skill in SCERT Kerala standard VIII English syllabus is limited to reading and comprehending the prose and poem texts and reading with proper stress and intonation. The reading skill learning outcome of the state SCERT standard VIII textbooks with the equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years is provided in Table 12.

Table 12

Reading skill learning outcome of SCERT Kerala standard VIII textbooks and equivalent CEFR statements and levels

Reading skill learning outcomes mentioned in SCERT standard VIII textbooks	Equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years
• Read and enjoy short stories and grasp the elements of a story. • Read, enjoy and appreciate poems. • Read and comprehend various literary forms like biographies. • Read aloud with proper stress and intonation.	• Can follow the plot of stories, simple novels and comics with a clear linear storyline and high frequency everyday language, given regular use of a dictionary. (B1) • I can give I can give and explain my views about a story or poem. (B1) • Can understand the description of places, events, explicitly expressed feelings and perspectives in narratives, guides and magazine articles that are written in high frequency, everyday language. (B1) • I Can understand simple poems and song lyrics written in straightforward language and style. (B1+)

Note: Source- SCERT VIII, CoE (2018) and CoE (2020)

The learning outcome, ‘read aloud with proper stress and intonation’ is not validated with CEFR illustrative descriptor. Table 12 denotes how the learning outcomes involved CEFR levels B1 and B1+.

In comparison, the NCERT standard VIII English syllabus involved a more distinct learning outcome, “use his/her critical/thinking faculty to read between the lines and go beyond the text” (NCERT VIII). The equivalent CEFR statement for the mentioned learning outcome are, “can scan longer texts in order to locate desired information, and gather information from different parts of a text, or from different texts in order to fulfil a specific task” (B1+) and “can extrapolate the meaning of a section of a text by taking into account the text as a whole” (B1+). Though this learning outcome seems to be beyond the ones specified in the SCERT Kerala standard VIII textbooks, teachers can assimilate reading strategies to develop this particular language competency.

7.5.2 Standard IX textbooks

The reading skill activities in the standard IX textbooks vary from reading and comprehending prose text to announcements, news report, radio play script, interpreting chart reading, comic strips, and poem analysis. The learning outcomes specified in the standard IX Teacher Text includes the language competencies of all these activities. Table 13 lists the reading skill learning outcomes of SCERT standard IX mentioned in the Teacher Text and the equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years.

Table 13

Reading skill learning outcomes of SCERT standard IX and CEFR equivalent descriptors

Reading skill learning outcomes of SCERT standard IX as mentioned in Teacher Text	Equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years

• Read and comprehend stories, autobiographies, plays, letters, memoir, and speech. • Read and appreciate poem. • Read and understand blogs. • Read with proper stress, rhythm and intonation.	• Can follow the plot of stories, simple novels and comics with a clear linear storyline and high frequency everyday language, given regular use of a dictionary. (B1) • I can give I can give and explain my views about a story or poem. (B1) • Can understand the description of places, events, explicitly expressed feelings and perspectives in narratives, guides and magazine articles that are written in high frequency, everyday language. (B1) • Can understand simple poems and song lyrics written in straightforward language and style. (B1+)

Note: Source- SCERT IX, CoE (2018) and CoE (2020)

An additional not distinctly specified learning outcome is poem analysis. In this activity, students had to critically analyse the poem to identify poetic devices (alliteration, personification, metaphorical expression, simile, visual images). Also, interpretation of chart readings, comic strips, and posters does not have a specified learning outcome as shown in the learning outcomes of standard IX English syllabus (Table 14); “interprets map, graph, table to speak or write a paragraph based on interpretation” (NCERT IX) The CEFR level of the learning outcomes is B1-B1+.

The learning outcomes of the NCERT standard IX English syllabus is mentioned in Table 14.

Table 14

Reading skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard IX English syllabus

Learning outcomes of NCERT standard IX English syllabus
• Reads aloud and recites poems/prose with proper stress, pause, tone, and intonation. • Reads with comprehension the given text/materials employing strategies like skimming, scanning, predicting, previewing, reviewing, inferring, and summarising. • Reads silently with comprehension and interprets layers of meaning.

-
- Reads with understanding information in his environment outside the schools as in hoardings, advertisements, product labels, visiting market place, etc.
 - Interprets map, graph, table to speak or write a paragraph based on interpretation.
 - Understands and elicits meanings of the words in different contexts, and by using dictionary, thesaurus, and digital facilities.
 - Reads literary texts for enjoyment/pleasure and compares, interprets and appreciates characters, themes, plots, and incidents and gives opinion.
-

Note: Source- NCERT IX

From Table 14, it can be seen that learning outcomes are distinctly specified, which is of great help to the teachers, parents, and students. For example, one of the learning outcomes with no correlated activities is “reads with understanding information in his environment outside the schools as in hoardings, advertisements, product labels, visiting market place, etc” (NCERT IX).

7.5.3 Standard X textbooks

Compared to standard IX learning outcomes, the reading skill learning outcomes of standard X are higher. This is because the textbooks contain additional activities on reading for pleasure and employing different strategies in reading.

Table 15 lists standard X reading skill learning outcomes as given in the standard X Teacher Text and equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years.

Table 15

Reading skill learning outcomes of SCERT Kerala standard X and equivalent CEFR statements and levels

Reading skill learning outcomes of SCERT standard X as mentioned in Teacher Text	Equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years

• Read, comprehend and analyse a text critically. • Read and appreciate poems. • Read individually for information and pleasure. • Read orally with expression, indicative of comprehension and tone. • Comprehend a text using different reading strategies. • Comprehend the word meaning in a given context and use it appropriately.	• Can extrapolate the meaning of occasional unknown words from the context and deduce sentence meaning provided the topic discussed is familiar. (B1+) • Can understand simple poems and song lyrics written in straightforward language and style. (B1+) • Can read with a large degree of independence, adapting style and speed of reading to different texts and purposes, and using appropriate reference sources selectively. (B2) • Can use a variety of strategies to achieve comprehension, including listening for main points; checking comprehension by using contextual clues. (B2) • Can read for pleasure with a large degree of independence, adapting style and speed of reading to different texts (e.g. magazines, more straightforward novels, history books, biographies, travelogues, guides, lyrics, poems), using appropriate reference sources selectively. (B2)

Note: Source- SCERT X, CoE (2018) and CoE (2020)

The CEFR level of equivalent illustrative descriptors of learning outcomes is at B1+ to B2. Table 16 lists the reading skill learning outcomes of the NCERT standard X English syllabus.

Table 16

Reading skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard X English syllabus

Reading skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard X English syllabus
• Reads, comprehends, and responds to complex texts independently. • Reads stories and literary texts, both fiction and non-fiction, with understanding for pleasure and enjoyment and discusses about these. • Analyses and appreciates a point of view or cultural experience as reflected in the text; presents orally or in writing. • Draws references from books, newspapers, internet, etc., and interprets using analytical skills. • Recognises and appreciates cultural experiences given in the text. • Uses bilingual or multilingual ways to exchange ideas or disseminating information with the help of written scripts.

Note: Source- NCERT X

Validating the learning outcomes specified in the SCERT Kerala standard X Teacher Text with the learning outcomes of the NCERT standard X English syllabus shows that the learning outcome “uses bilingual or multilingual ways to exchange ideas or disseminating information with the help of written scripts” in the latter is not considered in the former. Though some of the other learning outcomes in Table 16 (p. 283) are not specified in Table 15 (p. 282), the language competencies involved are present in the syllabus. However, this must be specified in the learning outcomes of the SCERT Kerala standard X syllabus.

7.6 Writing skill validation

Writing skill is the last skill in the LSRW sequence. Writing helps to convey one’s thoughts into written form. As per the CEFR 2020, writing skill is categorized into written production and written interaction. In written production, the written text is accepted by one or more readers, while written interaction includes interactive communication through the medium of writing.

For this study's purpose, the illustrative descriptor scales of both these categories are grouped together in terms of learning outcomes.

7.6.1 Standard VIII textbooks

The writing skill learning outcomes of the SCERT Kerala standard VIII textbooks and the equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years are mentioned in Table 17.

Table 17

Writing skill learning outcomes of SCERT Kerala standard VIII and equivalent CEFR statements and levels

Learning outcomes of SCERT standard VIII	Equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years
• Write dialogues based on a situation. • Develop a script based on a picture or story they have read. • Prepare graphic novels based on the text and the pictures given. • Prepare text for breaking newspaper reports, interviews, etc. • Construct linguistic discourses like diary, letter, character sketch, notice, etc. • Design posters to create social awareness. • Prepare an appreciation of a poem. • Make slide presentation. • Construct word pyramids. • Edit errors in a given passage.	• I can write clearly about a familiar topic, giving my own views and using different styles of writing. (B1) • I can write a description of an event. (B1) • I can write personal letters giving news, describing experiences and impressions, and expressing feelings. (B1) • I can write standard letters giving or requesting detailed information. (B1) • Can describe in simple sentences the main facts shown in visuals on familiar topics (e.g. a weather map, a basic flow chart). (B1) • Can describe the personality of a character. (B1) • Can describe the key themes and characters in short narratives involving familiar situations that are written in high frequency everyday language. (B1) • I can present a holiday destination on a poster using photographs and short personal texts. (B1) • I can draft a text on topical subjects that interest me (for example protection of the environment, breeding animals, drugs) and highlight what is particularly important to me. (B1+) • I can summarize short discursive or narrative material (e.g., written, radio, television) (B1+) • I can write a simple summary of factual information on familiar topics. (B1+)

Note: Source- SCERT VIII, CoE (2018) and CoE (2020)

From Table 17, it can be seen that the writing skill learning outcomes were more specified and distinctly mentioned than the learning outcomes of other skills Table 6 (p. 270) and Table 12 (p. 279). In contrast to this, the NCERT standard VIII English syllabus mentions the writing skill associated with learning outcome in one sentence, “write simple messages, invitations, short paragraphs, letters (formal and informal) application, simple narrative and descriptive pieces, etc.” (NCERT VIII). The CEFR of the learning outcomes of SCERT Kerala standard VIII textbooks includes B1 and B1+.

7.6.2 Standard IX textbooks

Chapter 5th, section 5.5.11 (pp. 180- 184), on the theoretical evaluation of the textbooks, discusses the writing activities in the standard IX textbooks. The analysis shows that students take part in various writing tasks beginning from simple paragraph writing to paper for webinar/ seminar.

Table 18 lists the writing skill learning outcomes of SCERT Kerala standard IX textbooks as mentioned in the Teacher Text with the equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years.

Table 18

Writing skill learning outcomes of SCERT Kerala standard IX and equivalent CEFR statements and levels

Learning outcomes of SCERT standard IX	Equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years
• Make notes and summarise passages. • Construct discourses like character sketch, note of appreciation, curriculum vitae (CV), profile, write- up, diary entries, letters to editors, and news report. • Create own blogs. • Construct dialogues and prepare skits. • Prepare comic strips, • Prepare the script for a radio play. • Prepare interview questions. • Preparation of class magazine. • Prepare papers for webinar/ seminar.	• Can describe the personality of a character. (B1) • I can write standard letters giving or requesting detailed information. (B1) • I can write a report on an important event or a personal experience in a school newspaper. (B1) • I can write a curriculum vitae in the form of a table. (B1) • Can present a topic in a short report or poster, using photographs and short blocks of text. (B1) • Can write very brief reports to a standard conventionalised format, which pass on routine factual information and state reasons for actions. (B1) • Can write basic emails/letters of a factual nature, for example to request information or to ask for and give confirmation.

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• Prepare Power Point. presentation slides. • Write the script for a speech. • Draft email. • Prepare notices and posters.	• I can write messages and reports communicating enquiries and factual information, explaining problems. (B1+) • I can draft a text on topical subjects that interest me (for example protection of the environment, breeding animals, drugs) and highlight what is particularly important to me. (B1+) • I can summarize short discursive or narrative material (e.g., written, radio, television) (B1+) • I can write a simple summary of factual information on familiar topics. (B1+) • I can write clear detailed text on a wide range of subjects (personal, cultural, intercultural and social issues). (B2) • I can write summaries of articles on topics of general, academic or professional interest, and summarize information from different sources and media. (B2)
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Note: Source- SCERT IX, CoE (2018) and CoE (2020)

The writing skill learning outcomes of SCERT standard IX cover CEFR levels B1, B1+, and B2. Table 19 lists the writing skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard IX English syllabus.

Table 19

Writing skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard IX English syllabus

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- | |
|---|
| <p>Writing skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard IX English syllabus</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Writes short answers, paragraphs, reports using appropriate vocabulary and grammar on a given theme. • Writes letters both formal and informal, invitations, advertisements, notices, slogans, messages, and e-mails. • Writes short dialogues and participates in role plays, skits, street plays, etc., for the promotion of social causes. • Takes notes and makes notes while listening to TV news, discussions, speech, reading aloud/silent reading of texts, etc., and summarises. • Interprets map, graph, table to speak or write a paragraph based on interpretation. • Edits passages with appropriate punctuation marks, grammar and correct spelling. • Writes short stories and composes poems on the given theme or on their own. |
|---|
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Note: Source- NCERT IX

One of the learning outcomes that do not correlate with the SCERT Kerala standard IX textbook is writing short stories and composing poems independently on given themes. The NCERT learning outcomes too cover B1, B1+, and B2.

7.6.3 Standard X textbooks

Table 20 lists the writing skill learning outcomes mentioned in the standard X Teacher Text and equivalent CEFR illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years.

Table 20

Writing skill learning outcomes of SCERT Kerala standard X and equivalent CEFR statements and levels

Learning outcomes of SCERT standard X	Equivalent illustrative descriptors and levels of language competencies developed for young learners aged 11-15 years
- Construct discourses like review of the story, description, narrative, character sketch, letter to friend, diary entry, seminar paper, etc. - Prepare and publish documentaries. - Draft writing which demonstrate an understanding of cultural perspectives. - Engage in formal writing assignments that require utilization of all stages of the writing process. - Compare or contrast written text with its cinematic rendering by responding in writing.	- I can write a story (B1) - Can write a simple review of a film, book or TV programme using a limited range of language. (B1+) - Can summarise and give his or her opinion about a short story, article, talk, discussion interview, or documentary and answer further questions of detail. (B1+) - I can write a simple summary of factual information on familiar topics. (B1+) - I can write clear detailed text on a wide range of subjects (personal, cultural, intercultural and social issues). (B2) - I can write summaries of articles on topics of general, academic or professional interest, and summarize information from different sources and media. (B2) - I can draft detailed texts (for example essays, reports and summaries) on numerous subjects that interest me; in so doing I can provide information and

• Produce simple sentences and short paragraphs in response to questions. • Use formal and informal expressions in writing. • Prepare posters on socially, relevant issues.	- present and compare different positions and also express my own thoughts. (B2) • I can write a short review of a film or book. (B2) • Can give clear, detailed descriptions of real or imaginary events and experiences marking the relationship between ideas in clear connected text, and following established conventions of the genre concerned. (B2)

Note: Source- SCERT X, CoE (2018) and CoE (2020)

Between Table 18 (p. 286) and Table 20 (p. 288), the latter involves a more significant number of B2 level CEFR illustrative descriptors. Also, many of the writing activities in standard X are clubbed with discussion activities. Therefore, it is up to the teacher to enforce classroom participation, which might not always lead to a positive result.

Table 21 details the writing skill learning outcomes of the NCERT standard X English syllabus.

Table 21

Writing skill learning outcomes of NCERT standard X English syllabus

Learning outcomes of NCERT standard X English syllabus
• Writes paragraphs, narratives, etc., by planning revising, editing, rewriting, and finalising. Writes reports of functions in school, family, and community activities. • Writes personal, official and business letters, articles, debates, paragraphs based on visual or verbal clues, textual inputs, etc. • Writes on variety of themes. • Writes scripts and participates in role play, skit, street plays for the promotion of social issues.

Note: Source- NCERT X

One of the differences observed between the standard X English syllabus of SCERT Kerala and the NCERT was the focus given to the writing skill in the syllabus. The former was seen to have more resources dedicated to writing activities.

7.7 Conclusion

The analysis in this chapter validated the reflection of global standard (CEFR) and national standard (NCERT) in the SCERT Kerala English syllabus at the secondary stage with reference to the LSRW skills. All the learning outcomes in the respective skills accommodate A2 to B2+ levels of illustrative scale of CEFR. There is also a sequential progression among the VIII, IX, and X standards, with the X standard accommodating a wider range of higher illustrative CEFR scales. However, the competencies of LSRW skills did not maintain a consistent level in standard VIII and standard IX corpus. The competencies of listening skills in both standard VIII and IX corpus were found to have a lower CEFR level when compared to the competencies of other skills (speaking, reading, and writing). In addition, the competencies of speaking skill in the standard VIII corpus were also relatively low compared to the competencies of speaking skill in standard IX and X corpora.

Some of the learning outcomes incorporate the integration of LSRW skills. One example is the learning outcome, “demonstrate literal and inferential comprehension of works of non-fiction (i.e., newspaper and magazine articles) through participation in discussion and writing activities” mentioned in the SCERT Kerala standard X Teacher Text.

Another observation drawn from this analysis was the lack of representation of learning outcomes in the SCERT Kerala IX and X textbooks. Also, there was a lack of correspondence between the LSRW skills activities and the respective options provided in the textbook and the expected learning outcomes. Often, the learning outcomes were observed to fall short of what the textbook activities claim. As a result, textbook activities are not effectively utilized to their full potential.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of the present study was to evaluate the SCERT Kerala English textbooks at the secondary level. The standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks were analysed within the KCF 2005. The study conducted a systematic evaluation of vocabulary input, computation of text readability, and estimation of the CEFR level. Additionally, the study examined whether the SCERT Kerala English syllabus reflected global and national standards in terms of competencies of LSRW skills. It also investigated the vertical distribution of these competencies from standard VIII through standard X.

8.1 Summary of research objectives

This qualitative and quantitative corpus-based study addresses the following research objectives:

1. Appropriateness of the textbooks with reference to KCF 2007.
2. Systematic vocabulary evaluation of the textbooks.
3. Estimating text readability in the textbooks.
4. Ascertaining CEFR level of the text in the textbooks.
5. Examining national and global standards of the textbooks in terms of competencies of LSRW skills.

The discussion of the findings addressing each research objective is summarized and presented below.

8.1.1 Research Objective 1: Appropriateness of the textbook with respect to KCF

The theoretical evaluation of the textbooks was conducted under various parameters selected from the review of multiple checklists discussed in Chapter 2. The study incorporated the evaluation framework of Cunningsworth (1995), McGrath (2002), McDonough and Shaw (1993) of ‘first-glance evaluation and in-depth evaluation’. It adopted Littlejohn’s (1998 and 2011) approach of evaluating materials ‘as it is’ focussing on Byrd’s (2001) framework of evaluating the textbooks to find the ‘fit between the textbooks and the curriculum’. The selected parameters were then grouped into 12 categories for the ease of analysis: Physical makeup, Layout and visual aspects, Availability and affordability, Supplementary materials, Aims and Objectives, Organization and structure, Language Type, Vocabulary list/ index, Content type, Activities, exercises, and tasks, Representation of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, and Vocabulary and grammar. Also, the appropriateness of the textbooks with reference to the KCF 2007 was addressed from the analysis.

From this qualitative evaluation of the textbooks, the textbooks were observed to be largely appropriate with reference to the tenets in the KCF 2007. With respect to the organisation and structure, content matter, physical makeup, availability and affordability, and visual aspects, the standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks were found to have positive results. In terms of the appropriateness or the fit between the textbooks and the curriculum, the following are the aligned tenets:

- Learner-centred or child-centred approach.
- Adoption of the activity-based approach in teaching and learning.

- Adequate representation of different types of discourses (poems, narratives, conversations, short stories, autobiographies, biographies, travelogues, descriptions, notices, letters, diary, reports, posters, plays, choreography, etc).
- Inclusion of social and local issues in the textbooks.
- Developing theme-based learner text.
- Inclusion of different activities incorporating LSRW skills and provision of vocabulary lists/ glossaries.

Although the textbooks involved the above-mentioned tenets posited in the KCF 2007, there were also certain discrepancies.

- Learning outcomes were specified in the standard VIII textbooks, while they were not mentioned in the standard IX and X textbooks.
- The standard VIII textbooks were provided with ‘I can’ assessment statements. The same was not provided in the standard IX and X textbooks.
- The standard IX and X textbooks fully adopted and implemented the integration of Information and Communication Technology (ICT) in the textbooks while it was not incorporated in the standard VIII textbooks.

Overall, the theoretical evaluation provided positive results on the quality of the textbooks and the appropriateness with the KCF 2007 despite discrepancies in the inclusion of some tenets.

8.1.2 Research Objective 2: Evaluation of vocabulary input

To conduct a systematic evaluation of vocabulary input in the textbooks, different corpora were compiled for each standard and analysed using the Compleat Lexical Tutor computational tool. This corpus-based study provided both quantitative and qualitative results.

From the analysis of the count of token and type, the frequency list revealed that the standard VIII corpus contained 15403 tokens and 2444 types, the standard IX corpus contained 11765 tokens and 2460 types, and the standard X corpus contained 12412 tokens and 2700 types. The dip in the number of tokens in the standard IX corpus was because two of the passages were removed from the compiled corpus as it could not be included in the narrative discourse (a play and a speech). The TTR of the standard VIII, IX, and X corpora are 0.1587, 0.2091, and 0.2175, respectively. The results reveal an incremental progression in the TTR as the standard increases. However, the analysis showed that there was a lack of incremental progression or uniformity within each standard's corpus. In the analysis of lemmas, the results showed that the number of lemmas in the standard VIII corpus was 2129, the standard IX corpus was 2184, and the standard X corpus was 2388. This too highlights the incremental progress in the number of vocabulary input as the standard increases from VIII to X.

With respect to the Lexical Frequency Profile (LFP), the analysis of the data utilizing the VocabProfile tool showed that the standard X corpus contained a higher percentage of K2 words (7.34%) in contrast with the standard VII corpus (6.53%) and the standard IX corpus (6.975%). Subsequently, there was a decrease in the number of K1 words across the corpora. The standard VIII corpus contained 85.52%, while the standard X corpus contained only

81.89%. This result reveals that as the standard progresses, there is an increase in the inclusion of low frequency words. Also, there was an incremental increase in the percentage of MSVL words. The standard VIII corpus contained 0.72% of MSVL words, while the standard X corpus contained 1.64% MSVL words. Thus, it can be seen that the difficulty level and exposure to low-frequency words increases as the students progress to the next standard.

The distribution of the vocabulary input was observed by analysing word recurrence in the corpora. The results showed that the Families recycling index percentage was highest between the standard VIII-IX corpora (32.59%). Overall, there is a gradual increase in the lexical richness and incremental growth in the inclusion of low-frequency words. However, the low recycling index percentage within the corpora (<28%) reveals the need for additional explicit resources to aid vocabulary growth.

8.1.3 Research Objective 3: Estimating readability measures

Readability measure was computed using the Coh-Metrix online computational tool. The corpora were analysed using two formulas: the Flesch Reading Ease formula and the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula. Additional analysis was also carried out to see the correlation between referential cohesion and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability and between sentence-to-sentence syntax similarity and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability.

From the analysis, it was seen that simply computing the Flesch Reading Ease formula does not help in estimating readability. In addition to sentence length, factors such as cohesion and syntactic complexity play a role in readability measure. Despite these differences, both the Flesch Reading Ease score and the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score

were highest in the standard VIII corpus with values 83.87 and 19.62. On the other hand, the standard X corpus contained the lowest scores, with the Flesch Reading Ease score 77.11 and the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability score 17.76. This shows the textbooks are sequentially graded with the greater difficulty level textbooks belonging to standard X and the easier to read textbooks belonging to standard VIII. However, there were discrepancies in the grading of texts within each standard corpus. Accordingly, analysis was done to estimate what could be the most logical order of passages within each standard corpus in terms of textbook readability.

Overall, the textbooks belonged to the ‘easy’ category which invites the question of whether it aids students’ incremental progress. This analysis data can thus be used against the reader’s proficiency to check for any disparity or mismatch between the students’ level and observed textbook readability level.

8.1.4 Research Objective 4: Aligning CEFR levels

To ascertain the CEFR level of the textbooks, corpus-based analysis was first carried out with respect to lexical sophistication at the EVP level in Text Inspector. For an accurate analysis of the vocabulary input level, the percentage of word types at the A1, A2, B1, B2, C1, and C2 were analysed. The analysis revealed that there was a gradual, incremental increase in the percentage of word types at the B2 and C2 levels from standard VIII corpus to the standard X corpus. The standard X corpus contained the highest percentage of word types at the C2 level.

Based on the Overall Lexical Profile that takes into consideration the vocabulary and metadiscourse aspects in the assessment of the text, CEFR levels were estimated using Text

Inspector. From the analysis, it was observed that in the standard VIII corpus, the CEFR level ranged from A2 to B1+, in the standard IX corpus, the CEFR level ranged from A2+ to B2, and in the standard X corpus, the CEFR level ranged from A2+ to C1. Therefore, in an overall estimation of the complete corpus, the standard IX corpus was estimated to be at CEFR level B1+ and the standard X corpus at CEFR level B2. The results clearly showed that there is a gradual increase in the CEFR level as the standard progresses. However, despite the overall incremental growth, the passages within the text did not follow a gradual, incremental growth. For instance, it was the first passage in the standard X corpus that was assigned CEFR level of C1.

8.1.5 Research Objective 5: Validating LSRW skills

A qualitative analysis incorporating content analysis method was done to validate whether the textbooks reflected global and national standards in terms of competencies of LSRW skills. For this analysis, the CEFR (2001, 2017, 2018, and 2020) documents and NCERT English syllabus were used. Accordingly, correlations were drawn between competencies of LSRW skills and CEFR illustrative scales for each skill separately. The same was also done between the competencies of each skill identified in the SCERT Kerala English syllabus and the NCERT English syllabus.

From the analysis with respect to the examination of global standard, it was observed that the competencies of listening skill incorporated in the SCERT Kerala English standard VIII syllabus accommodated A2 through B1 level of the CEFR illustrative scale. In the case of standard IX, the competencies of listening skill accommodated A2 through B2 levels of the CEFR illustrative scale. On the other hand, the competencies of listening skill in standard X accommodated B1 through B2 levels of the CEFR illustrative scale. With respect to the

competencies of speaking skill incorporated in the SCERT Kerala English syllabus, standard VIII accommodated A2 through B2 levels of the CEFR illustrative scale, standard IX accommodated B1 through B1+ levels of the CEFR illustrative scale, and standard X accommodated B1+ through B2+ levels of the CEFR illustrative scale. In the case of competencies of reading skill incorporated in the SCERT Kerala English syllabus, standard VIII and standard IX accommodated B1 through B1+ levels of the CEFR illustrative scale, while standard X accommodated B1+ through B2 levels of the CEFR illustrative scale. Finally, with respect to the competencies of writing skill incorporated in the SCERT Kerala English syllabus, standard VIII accommodated B1 through B1+ levels of the CEFR illustrative scale, while standard IX and X accommodated B1 through B2 levels of the CEFR illustrative scale. The analysis clearly shows an incremental vertical distribution in the competencies of each LSRW skills in correlation with the CEFR levels. Also, the results reveal the reflection of global standards in terms of the competencies of LSRW skills.

With respect to the reflection of national standards and the competencies of LSRW skills, the results revealed a lack of correlation between those specified in the SCERT Kerala English syllabus and the NCERT English syllabus. Though all the competencies of LSRW skills in the SCERT English syllabus could be validated, several competencies in the NCERT English syllabus were not reflected in the SCERT Kerala English syllabus. Accordingly, there was a lack of inclusion of national standards in the SCERT Kerala English syllabus.

8.2 General Conclusion

To summarise above briefly, in this study, the researcher has conducted a critical review of the SCERT Kerala English textbooks at the secondary level. The review of the

textbooks was done in different phases. It covered a theoretical evaluation with the help of checklists, systematic evaluation of vocabulary input in the textbooks, estimation of textbook readability, identification of CEFR level of the text, and examination of inclusion of global standards (CEFR) and national standards (NCERT English syllabus) in terms of the competencies of LSRW skills.

The need for CEFR is that it provides a comprehensive discussion on what language learners have to learn and what knowledge and skills they have to develop to use a language effectively for communication. As the framework helps define levels that allow learners' proficiency to be assessed, it is universally accepted as “the international standard for language teaching and learning” (North et al., 2010, p. 6).

Though it can be reasoned that English education in Kerala is effective in terms of LSRW skills, there is a lack of uniformity beyond the school level on account of the different syllabuses that exist, e.g. NCERT syllabuses (Central Board of Secondary Education (CBSE) and Indian Certificate of Secondary Examinations (ICSE)) and different SCERT syllabuses (Kerala, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, Telangana and so on). The lack of uniformity has a major impact when students leave for higher education and are in a situation where they are exposed to different proficiency levels. Thus, having a uniform assessment standard that can assess language proficiency with which all students can be graded on a uniform scale will allow educators, curriculum formulators and teachers to reach a consensus when preparing language syllabus.

In this process, the first step is to identify the present level of our textbook and the second step is to examine the CEFR levels of learners at different grades. This result can help

check whether there is a mismatch between learners' language needs and textbooks' expectations. In this light, the current study presents an estimation of the CEFR that will help to provide an objective reference. The next step is to identify whether it matches with the levels of proficiency of the learners. This estimation of the CEFR level of the textbooks also allows us to understand the position of our textbook at an international level.

Additionally, given the alignment of CEFR with many language proficiency tests like International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), Business English Certificate Preliminary/ Vantage (BEC), Linguaskill, and other Cambridge exams, the potential of CEFR in the Indian context needs to be explored. This study is thus a foray into systematizing the teaching/ learning context by critically evaluating against a common universal framework, CEFR.

8.3 Recommendations

From the study conducted, the researchers pose the following recommendations:

- Provide adequate exposure and activities/ exercises to help retain new vocabulary items by understanding the importance of vocabulary input in the textbooks
- Specify learning outcomes in the textbook alongside each unit, which will provide clear objective criteria for learners and parents.
- Include self-assessment checklists in the textbooks, which will enable learners to understand their progress.
- Develop textbooks with durable binding and appropriate paper quality.

- Expose students to text in a linear manner to enable learners gradual learning development by examining the role of readability measure in written text.
- Incorporate integrated LSRW skills in the textbook activities/ exercise to reflect the NCERT English syllabus and the CEFR level.
- To understand the vital role of CEFR in the present educational context in an international platform and develop/ modify textbooks to align with CEFR levels that match learners' proficiency and universal grading.

8.4 Further scope of the study

From this study, the researcher found that further research can be carried out in the following areas:

- Inclusion of students' and teachers' opinions concerning textbook evaluation with the use of evaluation checklists and questionnaires.
- Focus group discussions with curriculum formulators and textbook developers for a comprehensive clarification of the educational context.
- In the analysis of vocabulary input, it was seen that some of the words were marked as unlisted in the EVP analysis on account of its spelling and shortened constructions (Appendix F). This can be rectified in further analysis. Also, the introduction of the Indian English corpus into the analysis would help compute the Lexical Frequency Profile as there were some common words like 'tomb', 'wedding', etc that got classified under off-lists on account of it being beyond the frequency list of K2 words (1000-2000). However, intuitively, a word like

‘wedding’ should not be beyond the 2000 low-frequency words of English in India as the concept of ‘wedding’ is of great importance in the Indian context. So, it would be interesting to note whether the Indian English corpus would have the same frequency list as the BNC-COCA corpus used in the analysis.

- The present estimation of CEFR level does not consider grammatical complexity, which can be included in further research to identify CEFR level to the text.
- The present validation of competencies of LSRW skills was examined between the SCERT English syllabus and the NCERT English syllabus and CEFR. Further research can thus be carried out to check whether the competencies mentioned in the SCERT English syllabus are adequately integrated into the SCERT Kerala English textbooks. For this purpose, the different activities provided in the textbooks will have to be analysed.
- Additional research to match the obtained results against the students’ proficiency level to check whether the textbooks provided to the students are in line with their competency and needs.
- Developing CEFR levels in accordance with the social and educational context of Kerala and India.

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Appendix

Appendix A

Evaluation checklist of Cunningsworth (1995)

1. “Aims and approaches

- Do the aims of the coursebook correspond closely with the aims of the teaching programme and with the needs of the learners?
- Is the coursebook suited to the learning/teaching situation?
- How comprehensive is the coursebook? Does it cover most or all of what is needed? Is it a good resource for students and teachers?
- Is the coursebook flexible? Does it allow different teaching and learning styles?

2. Design and organization

- What components make up the total course package (e.g. Students’ books, teachers’ books, workbooks, cassettes, etc.)?
- How is the content organized (e.g. According to structures, functions, topics, skills etc.)?
- Is the grading and progression suitable for learners? Does it allow them to complete the work needed to meet any external syllabus requirements?
- Is there adequate recycling and revision?

- Are there reference sections for grammar, etc.? Is some of the material suitable for individual study?
- Is it easy to find your way around the coursebook? Is the layout clear?

3. Language content

- Does the coursebook cover the main grammar items appropriate to each level, taking learners' needs into account?
- Is material for vocabulary teaching adequate in terms of quantity and range of vocabulary, emphasis placed on vocabulary development, strategies for individual learning?
- Does the coursebook include material for pronunciation work? If so, what is covered: individual sounds, word stress, sentence stress, intonation?
- Does the coursebook deal with the structuring and conventions of language use above sentence level, e.g. How to take part in conversations, how to structure a piece of extended writing, how to identify the main points in a reading passage (more relevant at intermediate and advanced levels.)
- Are style and appropriacy dealt with? If so, language style matched to social situation?

4. Skills

- Are all four skills adequately covered, bearing in mind your course aims and syllabus requirements?

- Is there material for integrated skills work?
- Are reading passages and associated activities suitable for your students' levels, interests, etc.? Is there sufficient reading material?
- Is listening material well recorded, as authentic as possible, accompanied by background information, questions and activities to help comprehension?
- Is material for spoken English (dialogues, role-plays, etc.) well designed to equip learners for real-life interactions?
- Are writing activities suitable in terms of amount of guidance/control, degree of accuracy, organization of longer pieces of writing (e.g. Paragraphing) and use of appropriate styles?

5. Topic

- Is there sufficient material of genuine interest to learners?
- Is there enough variety and range of topics?
- Will the topics help extend students' awareness and enrich their experience?
- Will your students be able to relate to the social and cultural contexts presented in the coursebook?
- Are women portrayed and represented equally with men?
- Are other groups represented, with reference to ethnic origin, occupation, disability, etc?

6. Methodology

- What approach/approaches to language learning are taken by the coursebook?
Is this appropriate to the learning/teaching situation?
- What level of active learner involvement can be expected? Does this match your students' learning styles and expectations?
- What techniques are used for presenting/ practicing new language items? Are they suitable for your learners?
- How are the different skills taught?
- How are communicative abilities developed?
- Does the material include any advice/help to students on study skills and learning strategies?
- Are students expected to take a degree of responsibility for their own learning(e.g. By setting their own individual learning targets)?

7. Teachers' books

- Is there adequate guidance for the teachers who will be using the coursebook and its supporting materials?
- Are the teachers' books comprehensive and supportive?
- Do they adequately cover teaching techniques, language items such as grammar rules and culture-specific information?

- Do the writers set out and justify the basic premises and principles underlying the material?
- Are keys to exercises given?

8. Practical considerations

- What does the whole package cost? Does this represent good value for money?
- Are the books strong and long-lasting? Are they attractive in appearance?
- Are they easy to obtain? Can further supplies be obtained at short notice?
- Do any parts of the package require particular equipment, such as a language laboratory, listening centre or video player? If so, do you have the equipment available for use and is it reliable.” (Cunningsworth, 1995: 3-4).

Appendix B

Resolution (69)2, (n.d.)

- “That if full understanding is to be achieved among the countries of Europe, the language barriers between them must be removed;
- That linguistic diversity is part of the European cultural heritage and that it should be, through the study of modern languages, provide a source of intellectual enrichment rather than be an obstacle to unity;
- That only if the study of modern European languages becomes general will full mutual understanding and co-operation be possible in Europe;
- That a better knowledge of modern European languages will lead to the strengthening of links and the increase in international exchanges on which economic and social progress in Europe increasingly depends;
- That a knowledge of modern languages should no longer be regarded as a luxury reserved for an élite, but an instrument of information and culture which should be available to all” (Resolution (69)2, n.d.).

Appendix C

Section A of the Appendix of Recommendation No. R (82) 18 (1982)

1. “to ensure, as far as possible, that all sections of their populations have access to effective means of acquiring a knowledge of the languages of other member states (or of other communities within their own country) as well as the skills in the use of those languages that will enable them to satisfy their communicative needs and in particular
 - 1.1.to deal with the business of everyday life in another country, and to help foreigners staying in their own country to do so;
 - 1.2.to exchange information and ideas with young people and adults who speak a different language and to communicate their thoughts and feelings to them;
 - 1.3.to achieve a wider and deeper understanding of the way of life and forms of thought of other people and their heritage.
2. to promote, encourage and support the efforts of teachers and learners at all levels to apply in their own situation the principles of the construction of language-learning systems (as these are progressively developed within the Council of Europe “Modern languages” programme):
 - 2.1.by basing language teaching and learning on the needs, motivations, characteristics and resources of learners;
 - 2.2.by defining worthwhile and realistic objectives as explicitly as possible;
 - 2.3.by developing appropriate methods and materials;

2.4.by developing suitable forms and instruments for the evaluation of learning programmes.

3. to promote research and development programmes leading to the introduction, at all educational levels, of methods and materials best suited to enabling different classes and types of students to acquire a communicative proficiency appropriate to their needs” (R (82)18, p. 2).

Appendix D

Chronology of CEFR 1991- 2001 (Saville, 2005)

- 1991- Rüşchlikon Conference in Switzerland where the proposal of CEFR was proposed.
- 1955- Draft 1 of Framework proposal published in December.
- 1996- Consultation. 1000 copies were distributed, 200 evaluative questionnaires researched and analysed.
- 1997- Draft 2 of Framework proposal published in March.
- 1998- Draft 2 of Framework proposal printed and distributed together with User Guides.
- 1999- Revisions and final edition of Framework proposal.
- 2000- Preparation for simultaneous publication in English and French.
- 2001- CEFR published in English and French.

Appendix E

Appendix to the Recommendation No. R(98)6, 1998

- “by encouraging all Europeans to achieve a degree of communicative ability in a number of languages;
- by diversifying the languages on offer and setting objectives appropriate to each language;
- by encouraging teaching programmes at all levels that use a flexible approach - including modular courses and those which aim to develop partial competences - and giving them appropriate recognition in national qualification systems, in particular public examinations;
- by encouraging the use of foreign languages in the teaching of non-linguistic subjects (for example history, geography, mathematics) and create favourable conditions for such teaching;
- by supporting the application of communication and information technologies to disseminate teaching and learning materials for all European national or regional languages;
- by supporting the development of links and exchanges with institutions and persons at all levels of education in other countries so as to offer to all the possibility of authentic experience of the language and culture of others;
- by facilitating lifelong language learning through the provision of appropriate resources” (R.(98)6, 1998).

Appendix F

Outline of CEFR chapters and appendix list (CEFR 2001, CoE (2001))

CEFR chapters (pp. 1-196)

- Chapter 1 (pp. 1-8): The Common European Framework and its political and educational context
- Chapter 2 (pp. 9-20): Approach adopted
- Chapter 3 (pp. 21-42): Common Reference Levels
- Chapter 4 (pp. 43-100): Language use and the language user/learner
- Chapter 5 (pp. 101-130): The user/learner's competences
- Chapter 6 (pp. 131-156): Language learning and teaching
- Chapter 7 (pp. 157-167): Tasks and their role in language teaching
- Chapter 8 (pp. 168-176): Linguistic diversification and the curriculum
- Chapter 9 (pp. 177-196): Assessment

CEFR Appendixes (pp. 205-257)

- Appendix A (pp. 205-216): Developing proficiency descriptors
- Appendix B (pp. 217-225): The illustrative scales of descriptors
- Appendix C (pp. 226-243): The DIALANG scales
- Appendix D (pp. 244-257): The ALTE 'Can Do' statements

Appendix G

Evaluation checklist for comparison between standard VIII, IX, and X textbooks

No.	Evaluation criteria	VIII	IX	X
1	Is the cover page informative?			
2	Is the cover page attractive and well-designed?			
3	Is the colour composition on the cover page appealing?			
4	Is the cover page durable?			
5	Are the textbooks easy to carry?			
6	Is the binding of the textbook good?			
7	Are the pages in the textbook durable?			
8	Is the quality of the pages good?			
9	Is the colour of the pages good?			
10	Is the colour composition of the pages attractive, appealing and harmonic?			
11	Is the colour ink of good quality?			
12	Is the colour adjusted to maximize naturalness?			
13	Are the text colour and background colour in appropriate contrast?			
14	Is the content page informative?			
15	Are all the prose and poem texts mentioned in the contents?			
16	Are page numbers given to the prose and poem texts mentioned in the contents?			
17	Are decorative fonts used in the textbooks?			
18	Is there uniformity in text font type?			
19	Are the size of titles and headings considerably larger than the text?			
20	Is there appropriate line spacing?			
21	Is there appropriate word spacing?			
22	Is the text justified?			
23	Is text split into columns?			
24	Are there visual illustrations?			
25	Are real photographs used as part of illustrations?			
26	Is the presentation of visual illustrations appealing, attractive and harmonic with text?			
27	Is the colour composition of visual illustrations appropriate?			
28	Do the illustrations help in conveying extended comprehensive information?			
29	Are the textbooks available in stores (easy access)?			
30	Are textbooks affordable?			

31	Do the textbooks have supplementary materials?			
32	Does the textbook include additional readings?			
33	Are objectives/ learning outcomes present in each unit?			
34	Are students able to self-evaluate their learning outcomes?			
35	Are different sections clearly organized?			
36	Is there clarity in the structure of the textbook?			
37	Does the language type match present-day English usage?			
38	Is there an integration of different languages in the textbook?			
39	Is the content of the textbook theme-based?			
40	Is a glossary provided at the end of each unit?			
41	Is a glossary provided at the end of the textbook?			
42	Is there an integration of ICT in the textbooks?			
43	Is e-glossary available?			
44	Are pronunciation norms present in the textbook?			
45	Is there a representation of listening skills with QR code?			
46	Is there a representation of LSRW skills?			
47	Is there a proportional representation of LSRW skills?			
48	Are language elements taught in the textbooks?			
49	Are activities and exercises provided for the representation of LSRW skills?			
50	Are separate vocabulary exercises present in the units?			

Appendix H

Words unlisted across the VIII, IX, and X corpora under EVP

aback	amputate	barred	blouse	bulbul	charitable
abates	ancestry	bathing	bludgeoning	bullocks	chiefly
abouts	annas	batsmen	bluebells	bundled	childhoods
abruptly	apprenticed	batted	bluntly	bunk	chilled
abundance	apprentices	batter	boarders	bunked	chink
abyss	arduous	battered	bobbing	burnt	chivalry
acolyte	aroma	batting	bohemian	burroughs	choicest
acquitted	ashes	bauble	bole	bushed	choke
acute	attentively	bazaar	boon	butchers'	choking
adept	attic	beanpole	boral	cactus	choppy
adjourned	auditorium	bearer	bosom	cadavers	christ
admirer	authentically	bearings	bottomed	cafe	christmas
adorn	authenticity	beatings	boughs	camara	chubby
adrenalin	authoritative	bedclothes	bowed	cameraman	chuckle
adulthood	avail	bedside	bowing	cane	cider
affectionately	avenge	beedi	bowled	canes	circumstanced
afloat	awaited	beeps	bowler	canvas	citizenship
afresh	awakened	beings	bowling	cape	clang
afterward	awkwardnesses	betel	boxed	caressingly	clangs
agile	babe	bitterly	boycott	carpentry	clasped
agitated	bachelor	blazing	braided	carrier	clay
ago2	backyard	bleary	brat	cart	cleanliness
agricultural	baffles	bless	breathless	casket	clerk
ah	bamboo	blessed	breathlessly	catapult	cleverly
airplane	bandaged	blessing	brocade	cauliflowers	clod
aisle	banished	blessings	brook	cautiously	clouted
alliteration	banyan	blinded	brow	cavern	clump
aloft	barefoot	blissfully	buddy	chalk	coachman
aloof	barefooted	blooded	budge	chamberlain	coated
ambled	barest	bloodshot	buds	charcoal	cobbler
		blossom	bugle	chariot	

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weakly	
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Dear Princy,

As per the communication made on 10.03.21, this is to confirm that your paper **Analyzing Readability and CEFR Level of English School Textbooks in India** has already been accepted for publication in the special volume of the **Jadavpur Journal of Languages and Linguistics (UGC-CARE Listed)**. We have also received your camera-ready paper for the same.

The entire volume has already been sent to the editorial team of JJLL. But due to the pandemic, the publication process has got delayed. We are hoping to publish it as soon as possible.

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Analysing Readability and CEFR Level of English School Textbooks in India

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ABSTRACT

The paper presents the results of a corpus study based on lexical and textual linguistic features. The study is aimed at computing readability with the Flesch Reading Ease formula and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula. The corpus compiled of the Kerala State Council of Educational Research and Training (SCERT) 9th grade English part 1 and part 2 textbooks were analysed using two tools; Coh-Metrix and Text Inspector. The computed readability measure and vocabulary profile helped assign the Common European Framework Reference (CEFR) level to the text (A1- beginner to C2- proficient). Significant research has been carried out to map textbooks and international tests onto the CEFR level. The CEFR thus helps to provide a common basis for language textbooks, curriculum, and examinations. From the corpus analysis, the CEFR level of the Kerala SCERT 9th grade English textbooks was estimated to be between A2 and B2. Thus, this paper aims to provide a clear picture of the English textbook complexity and a depiction of its position in the educational system using the readability formulas and CEFR level.

1. Introduction, Background and Scope of the Study

In schools and other academic contexts, textbooks are a primary source of knowledge and content. They are important vehicles written for the purpose of teaching and learning to promote the vision of the curriculum. According to Stray (1993), textbooks are “designed to offer a pedagogical and didactic presentation of a certain field of knowledge” (Lebrun, Lenoir, Laforest, Larose, Roy, Spallanzani, Pearson, 2002). The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) 1970 document defines textbook as a systematic, prepared, summarized material that keeps in mind learners' needs and interests (Yekkar, 1993). From prior research, it is evident that several features of textbooks significantly impact teaching and learning; content, design, structuring, and sequencing of text and exercises (Byram,

2000, Lebrun et al., 2002). This has led to textbook research becoming an indispensable part of the teaching-learning process. One approach in textbook research is to examine the readability of the textbook (Chavkin, 1997; Wissing, Blignaut and van den Berg, 2016; Wray and Janan, 2013) on account of the correlation of readability and comprehension.

In reading science, lexical and textual linguistic features play a significant role in comprehension in addition to the reader, his reading ability, interest, and motivation. Mc Laughlin focuses on this interaction between the text and its readers, their reading skill, prior knowledge, and motivation (Dubay, 2004). Comprehension of text is thus bound by the degree of these features. The more difficult and complex these features are, the more difficult it is to process the text. Though the reader, his reading ability, interest, and motivation play a significant role in reading, the book is a primary component. Readability refers to the level of difficulty that affects a person's comprehension or the ease with which a person can understand a written text. According to Dale and Chall (1949), readability is the "sum total (including all the interactions) of all those elements within a given piece of printed material that affect the success a group of readers has with it. The success is the extent to which they understand it, read it at an optimal speed, and find it interesting" (Dale and Chall, 1949; DuBay, 2004).

Though the concept of readability has been of interest for centuries, researchers like Klare, 1963; Chall, 1988; Chall, 1947; Lively and Pressey, 1923; Fry, 2002; Dubay, 2004; Dalecki, Lasora and Lewis, 2009 (Bailin and Grafstein, 2016) have acknowledged L.A. Sherman, 1893 and Thorndike, 1921 as the earliest researchers to use statistical analyses of text in measuring reading difficulty. The 1920s thus marked the beginning of incorporating readability as a factor in the field of education. Edgar Dale and Jeanne Chall point out that early researches carried out in readability were by educators who had to find some means of selecting books for different grades; "putting the right book into the hands of the right reader" (Dale and Chall, 1949). Though readability was considered a vital topic in the education literature between 1980 and 1995, the subsequent years (1995-2010) saw a decline in the interest in readability research. However, with the decline in students' ability to read complex text (Wray and Janan, 2013), textbook complexity has re-emerged as a significant issue in education literature.

The applicability of research in readability is not just limited to grading of school textbooks (educational sector) (Perekeme and Aghor, 2012; Rohmatillah, 2015; Rahmawati, 2014; Luong, Nguyen and Dinh, 2017; Xia, Kochmar and Briscoe, 2019) but is applicable in medical text/ prescriptions (Wallace, Keenum, Roskos, Blake, Colwell, and Weiss, 2007; Pires, Vigário, and Cavaco, 2016; Pires, Cavco, and Vigário, 2017), law (Waltl and Matthes, 2014; Bourcier and Mazzega, 2007; Katz and Bommarito, 2013) and software readability (Buse and Weimer, 2010; Kanter, Muscarello, and Ralston, 2008; Posnett, Hindle, and Devanbu, 2011). Yet, despite the wide application of readability, research on readability aspects from India is mainly limited to the field of medicine (information pamphlets and consent forms) and editorials (Kumar, Konidena, and Varadarajulu, 2013; Raj, Sharma, Singh, and Goel, 2016). Presently, considerable research is also being carried out in Bengali language and Hindi since the work of Das and Roychoudhury in 2000, and Agnihotri and Khanna in 1991 (Phani, Lahiri, and Biswas, 2018; Sinha, Sharma, Dasgupta, and Basu, 2012). However, Indian readability research is till date, partial to literary text and general documents. As evidenced, readability research on English textbooks in India has not been given much significance. This article emphasizes the necessity of such readability research for English education in India as language teaching and learning evolve around the textbooks. The article thus examines the 9th grade English textbooks in Kerala (a state in India) to compute readability measures to provide a clear picture of the textbook complexity and subsequently depict the position of the textbook in the educational system. In doing so, the researcher hopes to fill the research gap that will provide administrators and educators additional measures in selecting and grading textbooks for language teaching and learning. The textbook is also calibrated against the Common European Framework Reference (CEFR) for languages providing an additional CEFR level benchmark



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The Importance of Dialectal Variation in Kerala Curriculum Framework

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Abstract

Purpose: From prior research, language variation is observed to beneficially influence the field of education. Following this hypothesis, the study verifies the importance of dialectal variations in a language, specifically in Malayalam. The study strives to answer the need for linguistic equality and how this can be achieved through the curriculum.

Approach/Methodology/Design: A mixed method approach was adopted using questionnaire and personal interviews. Data was collected from University students between the age group 20-30. The material of the study involved different lexical items. The data was analyzed by accounting the number of occurrences and its percentage. Pivot chart was tabulated of the percentage of dialectal variations lexical items against each participant in different category.

Findings: The study revealed the lack of awareness of dialectal variations that existed in the selected lexical items. This neglect provides an evidence of the progressing decline in language lexicon that is detrimental to language growth and preservation of vocabulary. The study illustrates how this can be rectified through the curriculum by incorporating dialectal variations in the textbooks.

Practical Implications: The study will contribute positively to understanding the importance of incorporating dialectal variations to preserve the existing language lexicon by accommodating the non-standard variation. This step ensuring the equality of regional elements would help in an effective and successful learning of language.

Originality/value: This study takes into consideration the regional variations that exist in Malayalam language spoken in Kerala. The study provides a base for further research into mapping dialectology.

1. Introduction

Over the years, significant importance has been given to documenting variations in language use. The variations within a language whether phonological, morphological, lexical or syntactical are addressed in sociolinguistics. In cases where the internal variations within a language allow the language to be mutually intelligible, the languages are said to be dialects of the particular language (Chambers & Trudgill, 1980). In this scenario, one particular dialect assumes the status of standard language. Often times, the emergence of the Standard Language (SL) or the Language of Instruction (LOI) depends on factors that are historical, political, cultural, ideological or pedagogical. Either way, the dialects provide us with linguistic diversity. Dialectal variation should not be confused with slang that are used by particular group of people. Though slang is vocabulary driven and well-defined in terms of

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CHALLENGING THE ONE-SIZE-FITS-ALL APPROACH IN LANGUAGE LEARNING MATERIALS

Princy Pappachan

Research Scholar, Centre for Applied Linguistics and Translation Studies, University of Hyderabad, Telangana, India.

ABSTRACT

The paper attempts to challenge the 'one-size-fits-all' approach in curriculum-textbook formulation and to identify language learning materials for students in India. The paper focuses on the different languages scenario that exist in the teaching-learning environment with special reference to education in rural India. Though English has become a global language at the academic, social and political front, there is a wide disparity in the use of English language in India. As a multi-lingual country, India is also host to many languages (scheduled languages, regional languages and minority languages). Often in the quest for education in English, mother tongue gets neglected which in turn hampers the student's language proficiency in L1 and L2. The researcher points out the need to address these concerns to aid education development through document analysis and empirical data. Presently, the priority should be to modify the curriculum to a multilingual curriculum by including learning materials in mother tongue including minority languages and to provide instruction in the same. The question of how far the standardized curriculum that was implemented with the aim to increase parity across the educational system has worked is also addressed.

KEYWORDS: one-size-fits-all approach, educational system in India, national curriculum framework, rural education.

INTRODUCTION:

A country's economic and social progress depends on a lot on the education development of the country. Education growth is one of the fundamental factors of development in this fast-paced world. Post-independence, India has strived to develop the literacy rate of the country. The positive link that literacy has on a country's economic growth and individual's earnings have pushed Indian government to invest more revenue into the educational sector over the years. With initiatives like providing free and basic education for children aged 6 to 14, India has been taking steps in the right direction. However, there still exists a lot of disparity in how education is being imparted across India. One very important aspect is the scope of English in the Indian curriculum. Post the British Raj regime in India, English language has donned a very important role in India. Though there are several aspects that play a role in how education is imparted, this paper attempts to discuss one elementary aspect in the education field, that is the different languages that exist in the teaching-learning environment of the student. The Indian Constitution recognizes 22 scheduled languages which comprises the major languages with more than a million speakers. There are also several other regional and minority languages (1652 mother tongues- 1961 Census of India). It is therefore interesting to note the role these languages have alongside English in the curriculum and how such a curriculum fares in the Indian educational system.

Presently, in India, the one-size-fits-all curriculum is the approach in the educational system. The 'one-size-fits-all' approach refers to a single approach taken to meet all ends. In the field of education system, individual educational growth is the most important goal. However, assuming every learner together as an individual does not aid in individual educational development and later success. Though education is compulsory and free (Right to Education act, RTE 2009), in a scenario with disparity in teaching-learning context it becomes a moot point as individual education growth gets suppressed in the goal of a greater literacy rate. True, everyone gains basic literacy skill but how many are equipped enough for individual growth. The difference in the % population enrolled in higher secondary contrasted against % enrolled in the upper primary points this out. Prior research has pointed out the need for teachers to adapt curriculum according to the student's levels and needs. However, this is a burden that must not be solely carried out by the teachers rather it must primarily be factored in at the curriculum design level.

BACKGROUND:

In India, after independence from the British rule, English received constitutional recognition as the language for all official purposes of the Union. Article 343 of the then Indian Constitution designated Hindi as the official language and provided the continued use of English for official purposes for a period of 15 years. But after nine years, the report of the Official Language Commission of India recommended the extended use of English. English, thus became the associate official language. However, in a multilingual country like India, even though English-speaking population is huge, it is not an accurate reflection of English in the educational system of India.

The need to include English in the educational system as a medium of instruction and a compulsory subject across India follows the practice of English instruction being provided at college level during the British regime. During the British Raj

regime, Thomas Macaulay (1835) argued the need to refine the vernacular dialects of the country by introducing words from the Western Hemisphere. He urged the use of borrowed terms to form a class of people that were, "Indians in blood and color but English in taste, in opinions, in morals and intellect" (Macaulay, Minute on Education (1835)). Following this, William Bentinck, the then Governor General of The Company ordered English to be the medium of instruction in the oriental colleges. Later, his successor, Auckland initiated steps to establish a comprehensive educational system in India with English at the forefront. However, with the socioeconomic disparity and political instability that followed after India's independence, it took several years to formulate an educational policy that would seriously regulate education in the independent India.

The National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) established in 1961 and the National Policy on Education in 1986 paved the way for serious curriculum studies and reforms. By 1986 National Policy on Education reiterated the 1968 Three- Language Formula i.e. In the Hindi speaking states, the languages taught must be Hindi, English and any other Indian language. In the non-Hindi speaking states, the languages taught are the regional language, English and Hindi. This regional language is one among the 22 scheduled languages that has a relatively high speaking population in the state and is recognized by the Indian constitution. The National Curriculum Framework (NCF) 2005 highlighted the need to uphold the multi-lingual character of Indian society. It is the NCF 2005 that has been instrumental in providing the guidelines for different states to set their own independent framework. Accordingly, every state government has formulated their own framework and published textbooks. However, there is a wide gap between the curriculum and the actual textbooks on account of several points. Though the framework tries to provide accountability to everyone regardless of the language environment, a hypothetical scenario is presumed on account of practicality. The disparity in economic growth, physical settlement location, exposure to language are some of the points. This is specifically relevant with respect to the educational system in rural India. Another point of disparity is in the English teaching-learning environment that exist in the country. With English increasing becoming the medium of instruction and the percentage of rise in the number of English schools by both government and the private sector, this disparity must be addressed as to its effect caused by the curriculum and textbook. The question of why this needs to be addressed is also provided. Also discussed is the role that English medium instruction has on the individual state medium of instruction.

LEARNING CONTEXT OF ENGLISH AND OTHER INDIAN LANGUAGES IN INDIA:

As depicted earlier, the status of the language is decided by the political importance given to the language. A language can thus become a first language, second language or foreign language. So, there are universally three different contexts of English teaching and learning: English as a first language, English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL). Braj B. Kachru's (1986) concept of three concentric circles provides a better understanding of English language context in different countries. In this framework, there are the three different circles; inner circle, outer circle and expanding circle. The inner circle comprises native speakers of English and English-speaking countries (United Kingdoms, United States of America, Australia and etc.). The outer circle comprises speakers and countries where English has acquired a role of national

importance in spite of English not being a native language (India, Pakistan, Singapore, Malaysia and etc.). The expanding circle comprises countries where English has not acquired a role of national importance nor has it been of historical importance but has slowly started recognizing English as lingua franca (China, Japan, Saudi Arabia, Korea, Taiwan and etc.). Accordingly, in India, English has gained importance as a compulsory subject in the curriculum and is taught as a second language in the educational system. However, the English language teaching-learning situations are heterogeneous on account of the variation in English proficiency across teachers and the learner's exposure to English outside the classroom. In rural India, there arises the question of uniformity in defining English solely as a second language in India. Presently, with the implementation of Three-language Formula there is a disparity in teaching English across different states and schools. English has thus differed in its treatment by being a first language, second language and third language.

According to Hakan Ringbom (1980), the distinction between English as second language and English as foreign language must depend on the 'particular environment where the learner has to live'. He argues that a failure to regard this distinction 'shows a neglect of the individual learner'. There is thus a distinction between two learning environments of a learner- the second language learning versus the foreign language learning that is dependent on the scope of immediate environment of the learner. In the former, the language is spoken in the immediate environment and the learner has ample opportunities to use the language while in the latter the language is not spoken in the immediate environment and there are virtually very less opportunities for the speaker to use the language. This factor contrasts Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) and Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). In India, the demarcation between the two contexts is vividly evident in teaching and learning contexts of schools in rural areas and in urban areas. Most importantly, the urban schools can have an outside classroom exposure to English language when compared against schools in rural areas. Also, in many scenarios, the existing Indian languages are often neglected. The differences in demographic features gives rise to several different scenarios that can be accommodated only by depreciating the importance given to the one-size-fits-all approach in curriculum formulation.

EDUCATION IN RURAL INDIA:

In rural India, education system continues to be a victim of lack of focus on language, lack of proper resources dedicated to tribal education. The Annual Status Education Report (ASER) 2018 points to the reality of the educational system in rural districts of India. The ASER focusses on basic reading and arithmetic levels of children aged 5 to 16 age groups across rural India. The latest study has been conducted in 596 districts in rural India by NGO Pratham. From the study it was observed that 27.2% of children in Std III could read a Std II level text, 50% of children in Std V could read a Std II level text. (50.3%) and only about 73% of enrolled students in Std VIII (last compulsory year of education according to Article 21-A, in the constitution Act, 2002) could read a Std II level text (number unchanged from 2016). The gap is evident in the previous ASER reports of 2007, 2009, 2011 and 2013, 2014 and 2016 (figure 1). This reading assessment evaluated students' level of reading with respect to the State prescribed curriculum (L1).

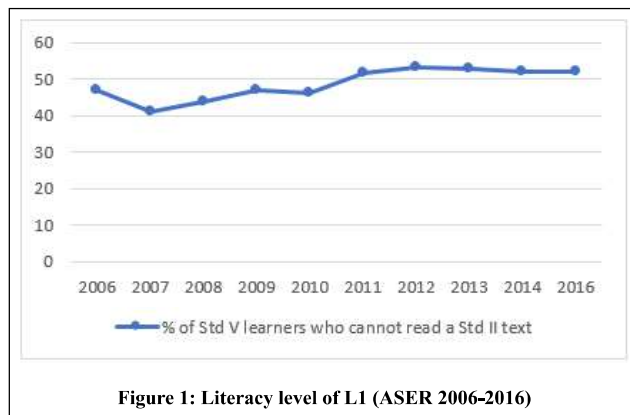


Figure 1: Literacy level of L1 (ASER 2006-2016)

The ASER 2019 'Early Years' shows that in Std III, only 46.1% of children aged 7 and 53.4% children aged 8 were able to read a Std I text. The reading text in these data is the language of the respective medium of instruction (L1). That data thus shows that the students are not fluent in their own language or the State language. In 2012, ASER provided simple English reading and comprehension tasks to students in Std V across rural India. The result showed that only 48.9% students could read English words or more and only 22.5% students could read simple English sentences. This significantly shows that English ends up being a foreign language to these students. ASER Trends Over Time report 2006-2014 presents information on the students' ability to read English for the years 2007, 2009, 2012 and 2014. The data depicts a decline in the % of students that can read English (refer figure 2). This is troubling as the number of schools and students enrolled have only increased over the years.

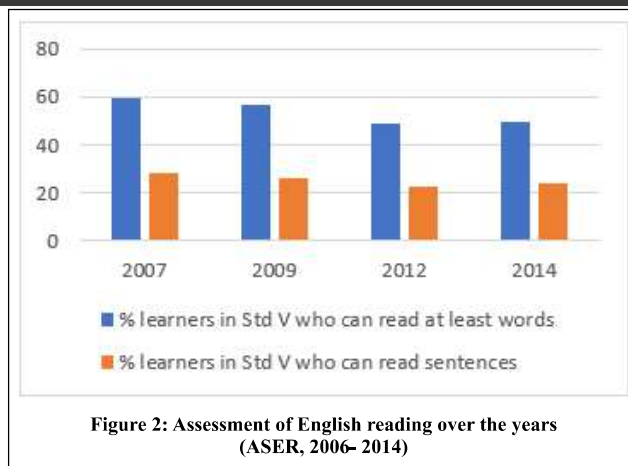


Figure 2: Assessment of English reading over the years (ASER, 2006- 2014)

The 7th All India Education Survey, 2002 (AISES) reports the number of schools in rural, urban area at different stages of education across different states in the country. The data also provides us with number of schools in the different medium of instruction. In comparison with the 8th AISES initiated in 2009 (2016), there has been a decline in the number of schools at the primary stage with the mother tongue as medium of instruction- 92.07% in the 7th survey to 86.62% in the 8th survey. The schools with mother tongue as medium of instruction in rural areas has also decreased with an increase in schools with a different medium of instruction (English)- 92.39% in the 7th survey to 87.56% in the 8th survey. This is in spite of the increase in the number of schools at the primary stage- 8,50,421 schools in the 7th survey to 10,31,361 schools in the 8th survey. There has also been an increase in the number of schools at the Upper primary level - 3,37,980 to 4,72,350, at the Secondary level- 1,30,675 to 1,74,240 and at the Higher Secondary level- 43,869 to 62,663. In the 8th survey, schools with English as a medium of instruction has also increased (table 1).

Table 1: % of schools with English as medium of instruction (6th-8th Survey)

	% of number of schools with English as medium of instruction			
Survey	Primary	Upper Primary	Secondary	Higher Secondary
6 th	4.99	15.91	18.37	28.09
7 th	12.98	18.25	25.84	33.59
8 th	15.49	21.08	28.73	33.06

Presently, rural education also suffers from the lack of attention given to tribal education. Though over the years there has been a substantial rise in the numbers, there is still a long way to go. According to Census of India 2011, scheduled tribes form 11.3% of the total population in rural India and 2.8% in urban India. Literacy rate in India has gone from 28.3% in 1961 to 74.04% in 2011 and literacy rate of scheduled tribe has climbed to 58.95% in 2011 from 8.54% in 1961 (table 2). There is also an increase in the enrolment ratio of boys and girls across the scheduled tribe population over the years (1961 to 2011). However, the literacy rate of scheduled tribe rural population is significantly way less compared to the literacy rate of its counterpart, scheduled tribe urban population.

Table 2 : Literacy rate % of population- Total Population (TP), Scheduled Caste (SC), Scheduled Tribe (ST) (Census of India 2011)

Year	Population	% Male	% Female	Total %	Literacy gap %
1961	TP	40.4	15.35	28.3	
	SC	16.96	3.29	10.27	18.03
	ST	13.83	3.16	8.54	19.76
1971	TP	45.96	21.97	34.45	
	SC	22.36	6.44	14.67	19.8
	ST	17.63	4.85	11.39	23.06
1981	TP	56.38	29.76	52.21	
	SC	31.12	10.93	21.38	22.19
	ST	24.52	8.05	16.35	27.22
1991	TP	64.13	39.29	52.21	
	SC	49.91	23.76	37.41	14.8
	ST	40.65	18.19	29.6	22.61
2001	TP	75.26	53.67	64.83	
	SC	66.64	41.9	57.49	7.34
	ST	59.17	34.76	47.1	17.73
2011	TP	82.14	65.46	74.04	
	SC	75.17	56.46	66.07	7.97
	ST	68.51	49.36	58.95	15.09



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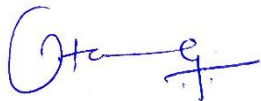
CERTIFICATE OF PAPER PRESENTATION

PRINCY PAPPACHAN

Of

University of Hyderabad

Has participated and presented a paper on “Analyzing Readability and CEFR level of English School Textbooks in India” in *International Conference on Communication, Computation & Cognition* (IC3C-2021) Organized by School of Advanced Sciences & Languages (SASL), School of Computing Science & Engineering (SCSE), of VIT Bhopal University in collaboration with School of Languages & Linguistics (SLL) of Jadavpur University.



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February 07 and 08, 2020

We are pleased to certify that

Ms. Princy Pappachan

from **University of Hyderabad, Hyderabad**

participated in the Conference. He / She presented a Paper /
conducted a Workshop of 40 minutes on

**"Investigating the inclusion of L1 in the English textbooks
at the state medium"**

Date: Feb. 08, 2020

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LINGUISTIC SOCIETY OF NEPAL

(Estd. 1979/Regd. 2008)

This is to certify that Princy Pappachan participated in the 39th Annual Conference of the Linguistic Society of Nepal jointly organized by the Linguistic Society of Nepal and the Central Department of Nepalbhasha held on 26-27 November 2018 at Tribhuvan University, Kathmandu.

S/he also presented a paper entitled Importance of dialectal variation for language existence and use



[Signature]
(Dr. Karnakhar Khatiwada)
General Secretary

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(Bhim Narayan Regmi)
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Certificate of Student Intern Status

Date: November 14, 2019

This is to certify that Ms. Princy Pappachan, who was nominated by University of Hyderabad, India, to work abroad as a Student Intern at Asia University, Taiwan, has completed her Internship for TEEP Program funded and sponsored by the Ministry of Education, Taiwan for a duration of four (4) months starting on July 15 until November 14, 2019.

Prof. Yinghuei Chen, PhD
Dean, International College
Asia University, Taiwan

