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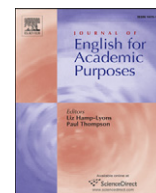
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Teachers' decision-making processes when designing EAP reading materials in a Lithuanian university setting

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ABSTRACT

Keywords:

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Lithuanian context

A shift from teaching English for general to teaching English for specific purposes has called for changes in English teachers' practices in a Lithuanian university; in line with research in the area of EAP, teachers are thus expected to design their own reading materials that could cater to the special needs of their students. However, while designing new materials can be extremely satisfying, both professionally and creatively, it can also be a complex undertaking posing a number of challenges to the teachers. This study aimed to explore eight Lithuanian EAP teachers' decision-making processes and the factors influencing their decisions when (1) conducting needs analysis, (2) formulating goals and objectives, (3) finding input materials, (4) creating activities, and (5) using materials in class. Results obtained from lesson observation, video-stimulated recall and document data analysis revealed that the selection of materials was intuition-led rather than research based. In addition, contextual factors, such as the principal's requirements and the availability of resources, appeared to greatly mediate the teachers' decision making. Implications of these findings for implementing appropriate reading materials in a Lithuanian context are discussed.

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1. Introduction

This article focuses on the design of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) reading materials by Lithuanian teachers of English in a tertiary education context. Changes in institutional policy at the Lithuanian University where this study is situated, where the focus has shifted from teaching English for general to specific purposes, have demanded changes in English teachers' practices. The goal of English Education is now to develop students' academic and professional competence, enabling them to effectively communicate in academic and professional contexts. Thus, to equip students with this ability, the English teachers are expected to develop tailored (EAP) in-house materials which can best cater to the special needs of their students.

While designing new materials can be extremely satisfying, both professionally and creatively, it can also be a complex undertaking posing a number of challenges to the teachers. Conducting needs analysis, formulating goals and objectives, finding input materials, or creating activities are some of the issues that materials writers face during the materials creation process. The purpose of this study is to explore the Lithuanian EAP teachers' decision-making processes and the factors influencing their decisions when developing reading materials to advanced level students. Attention to the impact on teaching of the constraints and opportunities which teachers face in their work is argued to be central to a fuller understanding of teachers' thoughts and actions (Clark & Peterson, 1986). Thus, taking a teacher thinking perspective (see Borg, 2003, 2006, 2009), this study is hoped to elaborate "a portrayal of the cognitive psychology of teaching" (Clark & Peterson,

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1986, p. 255) and so make a valuable contribution to the knowledge of teacher educators, programme administrators, curriculum designers, and teachers themselves.

I begin the paper by first outlining a framework of the materials design process for analysing the teachers' experiences and then describe the research questions and methods. I will continue with the discussion of the results obtained from classroom observations, interviews, and materials analysis, finally considering the implications of these findings for producing appropriate reading materials in a Lithuanian context.

2. The process of designing reading materials for university students

There have been a number of accounts in the literature by materials developers of the process they follow when developing materials. Rather surprisingly, as Tomlinson (2003, p. 107) states, many of them describe processes which are ad hoc and spontaneous and which rely on an intuitive feel for activities which are likely to “work”. However, they say very little about principles of language learning and teaching which guide their writing or about any framework which they use to facilitate coherence and consistency. Many of frameworks provide no theoretical justification for their staging or sequencing of the process. Thus, in response to this concern, the following discussion proposes a research-based framework for the development of reading materials in the Lithuanian context.

3. Conducting needs analysis

The process of the development of any EAP course, including materials, usually starts with the *analysis of needs*, defined by Hyland (2006, p. 73) as “the techniques for collecting and assessing information relevant to course design: it is the means of establishing the *how* and *what* of a course”. These techniques can involve surveying students about their goals and backgrounds; consulting faculty about course requirements and academic tasks; collecting and analysing students' assignments as well as authentic target texts; or observing students in their lectures and noting the linguistic and behavioural demands (Hyland, 2006, p. 78). The choice of these techniques can undoubtedly be influenced by the teaching context (e.g., the time and resources available); however, my argument in this study is that teachers' decisions should always be informed by research-based principles. Awareness of these principles is likely to lead to more informed instruction, more effective curriculum planning and materials development and thus more successful learning for foreign language (FL) students.

Thus, taking into account that the aim of EAP teaching is to equip students with the specific language and behaviour needed to succeed in their mainstream courses and future careers (Johns, 1991), it seems imperative that the EAP instruction should always be informed by *subject-matter content* and *subject teachers* (Bocanegra-Valle, 2010, p. 143). This involvement with the subject discipline, according to Hyland (2006, p. 186),

helps to contextualize instruction, make the EAP course as relevant and supportive as possible, create greater equality between subject and language courses, and facilitate two-way interaction to ensure that L2 learners' concerns are considered.

Moreover, given the findings of discourse analysis research that there is a variety of subject specific academic literacies, or, more specifically, that language forms used in different disciplines and the type of study skills expected by subject specialists vary enormously (Candlin & Plum, 1999; Prior, 1998; Swales, 1998), some engagement with the subject department seems crucial. By considering varying demands that subject courses make on students, EAP teachers will be better able to prepare students for their varied target communities.

On the other hand, I also argue that learning needs should also be considered when creating materials. In addition to investigating students' target practices and texts, the emphasis, to use Hutchinson and Waters's (1987, p. 54) words, should be on “what the learner needs to do in order to learn”. That is to say, it is essential that materials writers consider the findings of *learning* research, decide which of its findings are most relevant and applicable to particular contexts, and then develop a set of criteria and use them as a basis for developing context-specific materials. This, according to Tomlinson (2003, p. 27), can help materials designers clarify their own principles of language learning and teaching as well as create more effective and efficient materials.

Thus, with respect to the Lithuanian context, where students are expected to read and comprehend in English for their subject courses, the following areas might be relevant to address during the needs analysis process:

- The types of reading abilities students will have to apply in academic reading, as this information will help teachers formulate specific goals and objectives of reading materials.
- The types of target texts, genres and topics students will have to read, as this information will facilitate finding relevant input materials.
- The situations in which students need to read in English as well as the assessment of students' current reading abilities in English, as this information will allow teachers to create reading activities appropriate to students' disciplines.

These areas are explained in more detail in subsequent sections.

4. Formulating goals and objectives of reading materials

A key aspect of developing EAP materials is formulating goals and objectives from the data gathered by needs analysis. By identifying students' target English situations, analysing texts assigned in students' mainstream classes, or considering students' learning processes and then focussing on them in EAP instruction, teachers are thought to better match their instruction with students' needs. With regard to the Lithuanian university context, where the goal is to help students read academic texts successfully, the following objectives are suggested to be taken into account when creating reading materials.

4.1. Develop reading comprehension abilities

Research supported practices pay much attention to the importance of interacting with and actively processing a text in order to improve reading comprehension and learning in academic contexts. This active interaction with academic texts usually implies the employment of a variety of metacognitive abilities which have been shown to greatly enhance students' academic literacy (Brown, 1985; Garner, 1992; Kirby & Pedwell, 1991; Schmitt & Baumann, 1990). As Abromitis (1994, p. 4) notes, metacognitive abilities could "help students be more consciously aware of what they learn, situations where that knowledge may be used and the procedures for using it". For more complex academic reading tasks, these abilities involve goal setting, comprehension monitoring, strategy use and strategic processing of a text, inferencing, background knowledge activation, and the recognition of discourse structure and discourse signalling in texts (Grabe, 2009, p. 81). It would therefore seem that materials writers need to create materials that support the mastery of these abilities.

4.2. Develop the awareness of academic genres

The literature on reading highlights the importance of exposing English language learners to multiple genres, particularly academic genres, and explicitly instructing them on the comprehension processes of those genres (Grabe, 2009; Hyland, 2006; Swales, 1990). As Callahan (2005, p. 323) describes,

Exposure to domain-specific language facilitates content-area understanding, bringing English learners to the academic forefront (as cited in Meltzer & Hamann, 2005, p. 2).

Indeed, in the contexts where the students have to negotiate a variety of discipline-specific text types, the materials should also serve as the models of academic genres the students have to master (Carrell, 1984; Fitzgerald, 1995). This is because, as the literature suggests, it is the reading purpose and genre that determine the type of the reading process. To use Grabe's (2009, p. 46) words,

different purposes for reading, and different types of texts (or text genres) being read will also lead to more emphasis either on a text model of comprehension or situation model of interpretation (Kintsch, 1998).

In addition, as Grabe (2009, p. 47) advises, texts that are typically intended for learning purposes should build and reinforce *text comprehension* as an initial goal; but "when the reader has extensive background knowledge on the topic and the author, and a more evaluative stance towards the text is expected", *reader interpretation* should be emphasised (Grabe, 2009, p. 47). Thus, for instance, manuals, technical documents, most textbooks, and many science texts will require *text comprehension*, while literary texts, historical narratives, and news editorials, will require, to varying degrees, a greater emphasis on *reader interpretation* (Grabe, 2009, p. 47). Thus, developing students' knowledge of how different genres are processed should help learners to become more successful readers of their disciplines (Grabe, 2009; Hudson, 2007).

4.3. Develop the awareness of discourse structure knowledge

Discourse structure (also called text structure, rhetorical pattern, knowledge structure, or top-level structure) represents "the ways that information is conveyed logically and coherently in texts" (Grabe, 2009, p. 251), and it has been demonstrated to have a strong impact on reading comprehension. Instruction in the structures of text is identified by reading experts as among those practices that may be particularly helpful for English language learners studying in academic contexts (Amer, 1992; Carrell, 1984; Fitzgerald, 1995) and where text structures in the learners' first language differ from those in English (Grabe, 2009). Knowledge of discourse structure helps readers organise the content and thus promotes reading comprehension and retention (Carrell, 1984, 1985, 1992).

Thus, by learning patterns of discourse structures (e.g., cause and effect, comparison and contrast, classification, problem and solution), students should be able to transfer the knowledge of textual patterns across texts and content areas (Carrell, 1992; Grabe, 2009).

5. Finding input materials

5.1. Authenticity

There is an ongoing debate in the FL profession on whether reading materials should be authentic or graded; however it seems there is no doubt that this largely depends on the context of learning. As Hyland (2006, p. 97) maintains, "the decision

will have much to do with the role that materials are required to play, with authentic texts being more central as genre models". The use of authentic materials is usually recommended at advanced levels and with students dealing with materials from their subject areas (Day & Bamford, 1998; Jordan, 1997; Singhal, 2006). This is because authentic materials relate more closely to students' specific needs, exposing them to "the target language as it is used by the community which speaks it" (Guariento & Morley, 2001, p. 347) and which students are expected to master.

However, if it appears to be necessary to simplify texts, either for weaker students or for practising some reading strategies, Nuttall (2005, p. 177), for instance, cautions not to oversimplify texts, because making everything explicit may deprive students of an opportunity to develop their capacity to infer. More specifically, Nuttall (2005, p. 177) advises to preserve "things that will challenge the students": "[r]etain new words if the meaning can be inferred from the context" and "[d]o not insert discourse markers (*because, although, etc*) if the reader can work out the relationship between sentences without them". Hence, students' background knowledge which plays a major role in their learning should always be considered when producing materials.

5.2. Topics

Topics relevant to students' current needs should be an important criterion for materials selection. The most effective means of teaching language learners with academic needs could be through content-based teaching (Freeman & Freeman, 2003; Grabe, 2009). Content-based teaching is thematic and involves "a set of related topics (usually three) that generate the coherence of the curricular content" (Grabe, 2009, p. 345). Benefits frequently cited for using it are related with increased vocabulary learning and greater mainstream academic success because learning is contextualised. In addition, repeated exposure to the same vocabulary in different contexts is likely to ensure that many words are assimilated with little conscious effort (Nuttall, 2005, p. 177). Moreover, content instruction can further lead to the acquisition of reading strategies and develop critical understanding of a variety of written genres (Grabe, 2009, p. 348).

6. Creating reading activities

Once it has been established that selected topics are interesting enough to arouse curiosity and stimulate the mind, teachers should create activities that take into account students' learning styles, encourage the use of appropriate reading strategies (see Kuzborska, 2010), and more importantly, make students take an active role in the process of reading by engaging them both cognitively and affectively with texts. "Real-life" tasks resembling the ways in which people read texts in normal life or, with reference to EAP classes, the tasks that students encounter in their mainstream classes could promote more meaningful and motivating interactions with texts.

Effective "real-life" tasks engaging students in reading comprehension can involve speaking and writing. A speaking task such as role play, for instance, assigned in the reading lesson is enjoyable for students, can provide illuminating feedback for the teacher and it also requires thorough work on the text. As Nuttall (2005, p. 200) suggests, students who have to prepare for a role play have to interpret the text first, then their comprehension deepens and becomes clear when they perform roles from texts. Moreover, role play is considered to be particularly effective when teaching students how to focus on points of view, master the argument presented in the text and prepare to defend it against others (Nuttall, 2005, p. 200). Thus, for instance, when teaching economics and business students an article on Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR)¹ could be prepared for by asking students to act out relevant situations in the roles of financial analysts, the government, environmentalists, shareholders of small and large companies, local communities, and the like, all of them with different attitudes about CSR.

A writing task that permits a meaningful exploration of texts is a *summary* (Grabe, 2009; Nuttall, 2005). It demands a full understanding of the text, including the ability to distinguish between main points and examples and to perceive the relationship between the various parts of the argument. A *functional summary* is considered to be of even more value and interest, for it is a summary for a specified and plausible "real-life" purpose, such as, for instance, writing a report for the university supervisor, police, or principal (Nuttall, 2005, pp. 204–206).

Thus, it is "real-life" tasks rather than comprehension questions that should be considered in order to create meaningful and effective activities.

7. Using materials

Despite the apparent appeal and theoretical justification of materials writers' choice of materials and activities, students' opinions and expectations of what to learn or how to learn should also be considered. This is because misguided student expectations or a mismatch between students' needs and expectations about language learning "can", according to Horwitz (1988, p. 290), "lead to a lack of student confidence in and satisfaction with the language class". Thus, in order to prevent frustration and student failure, learner involvement in programme or materials development is argued to be crucial. This involvement, according to Nunan (1988, p. 53), will empower learners with more responsibility and control of

¹ One definition of CSR is that it is about how companies manage business processes to produce an overall positive impact on society.

their learning and a greater awareness of the learning process itself. While it is sometimes impossible to discover students' needs and wants before the course starts, it is always possible to do so during the course. That is, students' opinions and preferences for certain texts or types of activities provided in their textbooks should always be sought as the classes progress. In other words, using the textbook and the materials flexibly in order to better cater to differing students' motivations is essential.

8. Research questions

This study is part of a larger investigation of teacher professional practice, seeking to deepen our understanding of teachers' thought processes in the Lithuanian context (see Kuzborska, 2011). Specifically, by relating the framework of the materials design process described above with an analysis of the teachers' decision-making processes, this study attempts to answer the following questions:

- What are the teachers' decision-making processes regarding:
 - needs analysis?
 - reading goals and purposes?
 - input materials?
 - reading activities?
 - materials use in the classroom?
- What are the factors affecting the teachers' decision-making processes?

9. Context of the study

9.1. Teachers

This qualitative study focused on the decision-making processes of eight EAP teachers, all from the same university in Lithuania. The profiles of the eight teachers are summarized in Table 1 (the teachers' names are pseudonyms). All the teachers were Lithuanian and had been teaching English for academic purposes to advanced level students for four years at the time of the data collection (February–June 2007). The teachers' English teaching experience in general ranged from eight to 24 years. Five university teachers had university diplomas (issued by universities up to 1994, the year when the system of awarding university degrees was re-established in Lithuania), one of whom also held a PhD in Sociology, and three teachers had an MA (in Education, English, and English Literature). None of the teachers possessed Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) qualifications. However, due to the fact that all the teachers at the University undergo English Language Teaching (ELT) assessments every three years, they attend ELT seminars (usually organized by the British Council or local schools and universities), conferences, or participate in language teacher exchange programmes (e.g., Comenius, Leonardo da Vinci, or Erasmus).

The teachers were based on the Faculties of Computer Science, Fundamental Science, Sociology, Mechanical Engineering and Mechatronics, Economic and Business Studies and Design, Technologies and Mass Media. While some of the teachers taught all their lessons (18 academic hours a week) in one faculty, other teachers had to work in different faculties, meaning that some teachers had to develop materials for students from more than one faculty. Moreover, the teachers had to create an in-house textbook appealing to students with different specialities studying in the same English class, for in the faculty of Mechanical Engineering and Mechatronics, for example, a class could consist of students specialising in Engineering Graphics, Engineering Mechanics, Machine Design, or Manufacturing Technologies.

It is important to note that in mainstream content courses at the University, lectures, seminar discussions and writing tasks are conducted in Lithuanian. Students are only expected to use English when reading academic literature. Thus, the major goal of in-house textbooks at this University is to develop students' academic reading abilities needed for reading in their mainstream classes.

Table 1

Teachers' qualifications and experience.

Teacher	EAP experience	EFL experience	Qualifications	No. of students
Laura	4	24	University Diploma ^a	22
Rima	4	20	University Diploma; PhD Sociology	20
Laima	4	20	University Diploma	24
Vyte	4	14	University Diploma	24
Lina	4	11	University Diploma	28
Vaiva	4	10	BA English Language & Literature; MA Education	26
Aiste	4	10	BA Economics; MA English	23
Ingrida	4	8	BA English Language; MA English Literature	21

^a University diploma (6 yrs) in the teaching of English & literature.

9.2. Students

The number of students in the teachers' classes ranged from 20 to 28. The students were first year undergraduates of the university, most of whom had entered the university directly from secondary school. All the students were of an advanced English level and were taking a compulsory two semester English as a Foreign Language (EFL) course based on their field of study. They studied English in class for one and a half hours three or four times a week. All the students were Lithuanian and their first language (L1) was Lithuanian.

10. Data collection

The data were collected utilising the following methods:

- lesson observation;
- video-stimulated recall; and
- document data analysis.

10.1. Lesson observation

Lesson observations in this study aimed to obtain direct information on the teachers' use of reading materials. Three successive 90 min lessons per teacher were observed. The lessons were audio and video recorded and later analysed for themes, such as, for example, purposes of reading materials, types of reading materials, or the flexibility of materials use, as they prompted questions through which I could gain insights into the rationale behind the teachers' behaviours.

10.2. Video-stimulated recall

Stimulated recall sessions were arranged soon after all the three successive lessons were recorded to ensure that they were carried out within as short a time interval as possible, seeking thus to generate more valid data (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 105), and all the stimulated recall interviews were duly conducted within a week of the observations. The teachers viewed the video and explained their rationale for their use of reading materials. In addition to the observed events, the teachers commented on the materials design process (an interview extract is presented in [Appendix](#)).

The stimulated recall sessions were conducted in Lithuanian, the teachers' L1, in order to encourage the teachers to comment freely and to reduce anxiety when communicating in a non-native language.

10.3. Document data

In addition to the textbook texts, syllabuses, tests and teacher handouts were collected in order to obtain further information regarding the teachers' rationale in designing reading materials for advanced level students.

11. Data analysis

Data analysis combined both *deductive* and *inductive* approaches (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Miles & Huberman, 1994). The deductive element involved applying the following categories to the data:

- needs analysis;
- purposes of reading materials;
- input material (authenticity and topics);
- reading activities;
- materials use.

The inductive element comprised incorporating the contexts in which the teachers worked and their reflections on their experiences. This led to the identification and assignment of further categories relating to additional issues raised by the participants, thus allowing a deeper understanding of the teachers' professional practice. For example, having asked the teachers only to provide their views on the cooperation with subject specialists, they volunteered the factors preventing such cooperation.

The analysis enabled me to build a full profile of each teacher, providing a picture of my informants' experiences designing and using reading materials and allowed for a comparison of similarities and differences in their individual practices.

12. Results

12.1. Conducting needs analysis

12.1.1. Rationale of in-house materials

The requirement for teachers to develop reading materials was closely linked with the objective of the Department to support students in their mainstream classes. To this end, the teachers had to design their own textbooks and use them as the main teaching resource. Not all the teachers complied with the requirement to create their own textbooks however. Laura and Ingrida, for example, taught from commercial textbooks² instead. They did so because the commercial textbooks were produced by native English speakers and were therefore believed to be of better quality. As Ingrida commented, “we non-native speakers, we definitely won’t offer anything better than native speakers will”. Moreover, for Ingrida, a commercial textbook seemed to be associated with authority, or to use Harwood’s (2004, p. 3) words, with “officially sanctioned knowledge because it is a commercial product, meaning that learners (and some teachers) accept its claims unconditionally”. As Ingrida maintained, she respected her students and could not “come to the class with the pile of paper sheets, which is scattered and somewhat untidy. They [students] like to have some information, to have something [as a textbook]”.³

The teachers who used in-house textbooks justified their choices on the grounds that their designed textbooks could better meet their students’ needs. As Vyte, for instance, claimed, it would be difficult to choose a commercial textbook which could cater for all the students’ needs, because in their Faculty of Design

there are a lot of specialties, from Media to Polymer, Leather, Sewing. People themselves vary a lot here. And those commercial [textbooks], it would be really necessary to see what they are suitable for.

However, two teachers, Lina and Aiste, seemed to have created in-house textbooks against their beliefs, arguing that their textbooks were prepared and published in a short amount of time, “with all nonsense” (Lina) and “designed so so” (Aiste), being therefore not as good as commercial textbooks which “have been prepared for many years” (Lina). Thus, a major point that seems to emerge from the teachers’ comments on reading materials was the perceived lack of quality of in-house textbooks.

12.1.2. Techniques for collecting information

The teachers’ intuitions seemed to play a decisive role in their choice of reading materials. As Aiste put it, “we selected texts based on our background knowledge, what we thought students might come across, what terms, what might be useful for them”. On the other hand, students’ interests were also considered when selecting texts. As Vyte and Vaiva reported, they reviewed topics that their previous students had chosen for their homework reading.

With regard to the idea of cooperating with subject specialists the teachers felt that this would be possible and “useful” in terms of (a) knowledge exchange, (b) topics, and (c) vocabulary. In other words, the teachers believed that cooperation with subject specialists could be mutually beneficial with content teachers providing the language teachers with discipline knowledge and the language teachers in turn teaching (or at least developing) their content colleagues’ English. Moreover, the cooperation could acquaint the teachers with topics and vocabulary the students studied in their mainstream classes.

Interestingly, two teachers, Laima and Vaiva, appeared to have attempted to cooperate with subject specialists. Laima, for instance, explained that she consulted the faculty and asked them for some articles for her students to read. Some of these articles were then adapted and included in the textbook. Vaiva, on the other hand, described her encounter with a specialist teacher as an unsuccessful experience. Accidentally meeting a teacher of mathematics in a corridor Vaiva was asked by the teacher to translate some mathematical texts with her students in class. However, shortly after some attempts at translation work, Vaiva felt that she “didn’t understand anything... even in Lithuanian” and concluded that an English teacher has “to be strong in that field in order to cooperate with specialists”. What became obvious from Vaiva’s narrative is her preoccupation with translation when working with the mathematical texts. Other practices, such as, for instance, the analysis of discourse properties of texts, were not considered. Moreover, Vaiva believed that her lack of subject knowledge was the key factor hindering her cooperation with the content teacher. Or, to put it differently, EAP teachers’ communication with subject specialists seemed only possible when understanding the subject.

Issues impeding a dialogue between the English teachers and the subject specialists were also raised by other teachers. One of the serious obstacles to communicating with mainstream specialists was the English teachers’ migration to different faculties. As Aiste asserted, each semester the teachers were sent to teach in different faculties and this relocation made it “completely impossible to be aware of what’s going on in every faculty”.

² MacKenzie, I. (1997). *English for Business studies. A course for Business studies and Economics students. Student’s Book*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Yates, C. St. J. (1991). *Economics*. London: Cassell Publishers.

³ In this article, textbooks mentioned by Laura and Ingrida will always refer to commercial textbooks, and textbooks mentioned by other teachers will mean in-house textbooks.

Heterogeneous speciality student groups made cooperation extremely challenging too. Having a variety of students in their classes, the teachers believed that instead of attending to individual students' needs, they should focus on topics common to all the students; hence no cooperation with subject specialists was needed.

The willingness (or rather, the lack of it) on the part of all the university English teachers to cooperate with specialist teachers was also an issue. Aiste commented as follows:

She [the director of the Department] once said that maybe sometimes we should organise some seminars for English teachers by inviting faculty specialists to acquaint us with their work and with all that specialist material. But, as I noticed, nobody showed much enthusiasm. They said they were humanities specialists here.

In short, being humanities specialists some teachers believed they did not need to cooperate with content teachers; others, on the other hand, felt such cooperation was impossible because of their lack of subject specific knowledge.

As the teachers' accounts reveal, vocabulary, topics and the subject knowledge (or the lack of it) were the major factors influencing the materials selection process. Guided by these considerations, the teachers searched for texts in the faculty libraries or on the Internet. Textbooks and books were the most consulted sources. Texts from previous in-house textbooks were also chosen for the classroom study. The types of reading abilities students would have to develop, the situations in which students would need to read in English, or the types of target genres students would have to read, were not explored however.

12.1.3. Compilation of an in-house textbook

An in-house textbook was prepared and produced by two or three teachers working in the same faculty. Although the textbooks were created with specific classes in mind, they nevertheless were for all the students studying in the same faculty, thus targeting a broader range of students' needs. The textbooks were divided into units or parts (e.g., Part I, Part II), each based on a major theme around which the texts were compiled and activities for vocabulary, grammar, translation, reading, listening, and sometimes speaking and writing were designed. Thus, for instance, the textbook entitled *English for Mechanical Engineering* consisted of three parts (I. Energy, II. Transport Means and III. Metals/Alloys), each part comprising a number of texts. Part I Energy, for example, contained texts such as *Various Types of Energy*, *Nuclear Power Plants*, *Blowing in the Wind*, *Renewable Energy*, and others, each followed by a number of activities (types of activities will be illustrated later). It is also important to note here that while some of the activities were created on the basis of the texts provided in the textbook, others (e.g., grammar exercises) were taken from grammar books or other texts (e.g., TOEFL tests) not related to the textbook texts.

12.2. Formulating goals and objectives of reading materials

According to the Department, English language courses are oriented towards developing students' academic and professional communicative competence. However, considering the fact that students will mainly need English to successfully read texts for their mainstream classes, the primary role of reading materials is most obviously to develop students' academic reading competence.

However, the teachers' perceptions of the objectives of reading materials seemed to be more ambitious. According to the teachers, reading materials were to develop students' technical vocabulary, grammar, content knowledge, as well as academic reading, writing, and speaking. The acquisition of subject specific vocabulary was the overriding belief of all the teachers. Vocabulary knowledge was believed to be crucial for the students' achieving overall academic success as well as for their understanding of individual texts. As Vaiva explained, their role as teachers was to increase students' vocabulary, "because vocabulary is the core of this [in-house] textbook". Indeed, on the evidence of the classroom observations, the teachers focused only on the growth of students' vocabulary knowledge. Their stated aspirations to develop academic reading, writing, or speaking skills were little reflected in their practices, as the following discussion will reveal.

12.3. Finding input materials

12.3.1. Authenticity

The teachers believed that in order to facilitate the students' comprehension process, reading materials for advanced learners should be simplified and adapted. This belief was also reflected in their practices. The teachers shortened long texts, sentences, took pictures out from texts, "discarded years, various numbers", or "surnames". With regard to "surnames", Vyte made the following comment,

[t]hose surnames, whether they are of some journalist or of some scientist, they don't tell us anything, why do we need them?

The following example illustrates how a text paragraph entitled *Changes in Societal Behavior*, appearing in the in-house textbook *English for Computer Science*, was modified. The text was taken from the internet, shortened and some words were changed. The sentences in grey show eliminated text and the underlined words indicate the replaced original ones. The words that the teachers considered to be important for the students to learn were written in boldface.

Changes in societal behaviour⁴

People are people. New environments will produce [original word is engender] new behaviours that reflect the adaptation of long-established personality traits to a new vocabulary, work environment, or opportunities[.]/temptations. Viewed from this perspective, the computer-related sociological acts that are reported daily in the papers are little more than new wrinkles on old behaviour patterns. However, the capacity for more widespread and serious change (much of it potentially negative) is considerable, and [W]e will undoubtedly discover new and horrific [original word is horrendous] ways in which behaviour is **modified** by the availability of new tools for use and misuse.

Computer-related societal misbehaviour is becoming a serious problem, owing in part to the **pervasiveness** of computers and computer-based information. The problems extend to computer-based theft or fraud, invasion of privacy, **malicious** or **inadvertent** destruction of large volumes of crucial information[.], over-dependence on computer-based information or computer availability, lack of ethical approaches to the use of computers, and a very large list of other problem areas that are only partially understood at present. The purpose of this brief discussion is to heighten your awareness of the ethical situations that computer uses open for study. From these examples, you may develop a perspective that will enable you to apply general principles to new situations that will undoubtedly arise in the years ahead.

Consider a few cases. Suppose you are given access to a powerful computer with no charges to you for its use, and you are warned [original word is admonished] not to give your account information to others. What are the ethics of your failing to heed this warning [original word is admonition]? What is the duty of the individual who detects misuse of this privilege? What are your responsibilities when you know that this type of misuse is being done by people whom you know? Suppose you learn of a way to “break in” to a computer account. What are your responsibilities in that event? What if you have a difference of opinion about the way in which that account is being used (e.g., a data bank that you consider harmful to others in some way or other)? What if you learn that someone unknown to you is deliberately altering your experimental data for reasons ranging from malice to envy to competition for perceived rewards?

What is the role of society when it catches an individual who created a computer virus that shut down thousands of computers around the country, causing millions of dollars of damage in lost time and possible lost information? What are appropriate balances between “adequate safeguards” and excessive permissiveness or overly strict access rules that defeat the purpose of the entire system? What is a reasonable and just penalty for someone who creates a virus that destroys other people’s computer-stored information? What are your responsibilities in sharing or not sharing programs obtained from other sources?

No rationale was provided for such modification, except that the shortened text was more suitable for the inclusion in the textbook. The vocabulary was selected based on the teachers’ intuitions of what was believed to be important. There was no mentioning of, for example, the use of the *Compleat Lexical Tutor* or the *Academic Word List* to analyse the texts and to determine their lexical density and the frequency with which content and function words appear (Cobb, 1997; Coxhead, 2000).

Moreover, students’ prior knowledge of the topic seemed to have been little considered when adapting texts. Throughout the interviews the teachers maintained that texts were either too difficult to read (Laima, Vyte) or too easy and of little use to their students (e.g., Vaiva, Lina), or even boring and irrelevant (Lina, Vaiva, Aiste). Laima, for example, admitting that the “texts are really quite difficult for the students”, pointed out a page in the textbook which featured words such as *grinding*, *casting*, *moulding*, *rolling*, and *gauging*. Interestingly, perceiving that the lack of topic knowledge was an issue for her students, Laima tried to overcome this problem by focussing on language accuracy instead. This is what she reported:

[t]here are terribly many words and all of them are technical. So then they read them aloud, we look at pronunciation, language fluency and that’s all, and we only try to translate them. Then we only work on vocabulary.

It appears thus that being simplified, short, and devoid of authentic text structure, texts were hardly appropriate samples of language use that the students could learn from; they were hardly models for the development of academic reading abilities. Also, being deprived of authentic communication with texts (i.e., not being able to apply their prior knowledge and experiences), it is no wonder that the students found the texts boring or difficult to read, according to their teachers.

12.3.2. Topics

The teachers’ choice of topics was determined by the policy of the Department, which required teachers to teach students content area topics. The majority of the teachers approved of such a policy and believed that they should teach students subject related topics. However, it is important to note in this connection that although topics selected for classroom study were related to students’ specialities, they were of a more general nature. One of the reasons for such a practice was attributed to the diversity of students studying in one class. Laima explained this in the following way:

⁴ The text was retrieved from the following address: <http://wwwcsif.cs.ucdavis.edu/~reed/ecs15/f97/lectures/27-ethics.html>

There are students from twelve different specialities, so some students complain that ‘we are Energy students and why should we study metals’. So we have more general things here, although they are still related to their specialities.

The lack of students’ subject knowledge was also claimed to be an obstacle in reading content specific topics. As Aiste declared, “it would be difficult to teach from very specific texts” because first year students did not possess enough topic knowledge to read specific texts. Specific English, suggested Aiste, would have to be taught in “the third or the fourth year” when students had first developed their subject knowledge in Lithuanian. Then, according to Aiste, “students would also be more interested in reading because they would have known about things in Lithuanian”.

Furthermore, two teachers, Aiste and Lina, argued that in addition to content area topics, the students should read general area texts, and feelings ran very high when discussing the ESP texts. Aiste’s comments capture these frustrations:

they [the texts for specific purposes] piss us all off, me and students, and all. And then you try to give them at least a bit of something from the general area. Also, if you start to speak to them, you can’t speak with them about everything, because they forget the general English vocabulary. And even when you ask them to say something in simple sentences, you notice that they don’t remember words, only those terms. Therefore I, for example, say that there should be general [topics] too. Because there are events, so you can discuss them. Otherwise, it becomes boring, really, the same all the time, all those specific terms.

As the above reveals, the teachers’ beliefs sometimes competed with the University innovations and resulted in tensions in their work. Also, the issue of *specificity* (Hyland, 2002) appeared to be a constraining factor for both the teachers and the students.

12.4. Creating reading activities

Texts that the teachers chose for classroom study mainly served as the source of technical vocabulary that the students could learn from. The following extract from the textbook *English for Students of Design, Technologies and Mass Media*, which was discussed in one of the teachers’ lessons, exemplifies such an approach:

An example of a reading text.

3.3. Colour wheel

Monochromatic colour

The obvious definition of the term *monochromatic* is *one* colour. Monochromatic colour schemes are inherently safe in that there can be no clashing of poorly chosen hues. The one hue that gives such a colour scheme its name may be used at various levels of intensity, in tints and shades all based on a single theme colour. Monochromatic schemes tend towards monotony and so are often relieved by the addition of an accent colour that contrasts with the theme colour. If such contrasting accents are of significant importance, the scheme will no longer be truly monochromatic but will fall into one of the other colour relationships.

A monochromatic scheme in which a single hue is used with a single, consistent intensity is sometimes designated as a *monotone* scheme. An all-white scheme, for example, or an all-pale blue, will be a monotone version of monochromatic. Such monotone schemes are, as a practical matter, difficult to achieve because some elements of a real space will almost inevitably vary to some degree from any one precise colour tone.

The text contained a number of underlined words and they were the focus of the class work. The students were invited to translate sentences featuring these words into L1 or to provide word explanations in English.

The exercises accompanying the text were likewise tailored to increase students’ vocabulary. The following exercises were studied after the text had been read and analysed.

Exercises

II. In the text, find the words corresponding to the following definitions.

1. be in disagreement
2. existing as a natural or permanent quality
3. regular, constant
4. unavoidable, that is sure to happen
5. describe as
6. belong to (a class)
7. be part of (a limited area)
8. division or section
9. connected
10. next to, lying near
11. limited, small
12. make or become not bright or vivid

III. Which is the odd one out?

1. relate, restrict, inherent, inherit

2. clash, harsh, rough, sharp
3. designated, referred to, described, related
4. strident, deliberate, violate, harsh
5. basic, precise, theme, key
6. adjacent, consistent, inherent, inevitable
7. dull, vivid, monotonous, uninteresting

IV. Use the words in brackets in the proper form.

Developing a scheme.

Painted surfaces and textiles are available in a colour range that is virtually unlimited and many other materials ____ (produce) in an extensive range of colour but availability may ____ (limit) colour choice to some degree. Similarly, some practical issues may need to ____ (take) into account in a way that somewhat ____ (restrict) colour choice. Various situations should ____ (note) before beginning actual colour selection.

The process of assembling a scheme ____ (involve) choosing a first colour, then adding additional colours in sequence, constantly ____ (try) for satisfying relationships. For each colour selection, it is appropriate to consider a number of possibilities and, as each additional colour ____ (put) in place, colours selected earlier may need to ____ (modify) or totally ____ (change).

Similar vocabulary exercises prevailed in all the teachers' lessons. Particularly, there were many vocabulary exercises such as the matching of words with their definitions, finding the odd word out among other words, or word formation tasks.

Other objectives that the reading materials had been claimed to serve, such as to develop students' academic reading, writing or speaking skills, were not supported by the textbook content as well as by the teachers' practices, as witnessed in the classroom observations. Comprehension questions were mainly assigned for homework and later quickly checked in class. There were a few exercises on writing in both commercial and in-house textbooks, but the teachers tended to skip these tasks, as they required a considerable amount of time. It is perhaps also worth noting here that there was a separate in-house textbook *Research Methods, Academic Writing and Presentation Techniques*; however, this textbook seemed to be for the students' independent study only: teachers claimed the students had to learn how to write for themselves, if they had not already mastered this skill at school. Ingrida, for instance, remarked that there were common requirements for writing for any discipline, that there had to be an introduction, the development of the text and conclusions. Only perhaps the language, added Ingrida, varied according to each discipline. She added that the passive voice was common in economics and therefore the students had to use the passive voice in their writing. Similarly, a research paper, according to Vaiva, was expected to be "with introduction, with methodology, with literature review, with findings, results, with conclusions, and references". Vaiva did not teach her students how to write a research paper because "there [in the guidelines sheet] was written how to write a summary" and "they themselves read how to write".

Moreover, textbook texts were the only genre introduced to the students in class; other types of texts, such as, for instance, research articles, students' written work, or other relevant materials were not explored.

12.5. Using materials

The department preferred teachers to teach from a textbook rather than from their own photocopied materials, but, according to Rima, the teachers were free to use it flexibly and select any text or activities they deemed to be important or interesting for their students. However, as the classroom observations demonstrated, all the teachers tended to follow their preferred textbook, whether commercial or in-house, closely. Such practice turned out to be a backwash effect of the teachers preparing students for the final test, as the students were assessed on the textbook material. Laura, for example, noted that she required the students to learn all the words given in the exercises because the students were tested on these words. Only sometimes, added Laura, did she skip exercises which had pictures and which, according to her, were "for visual means in the [commercial] textbook". In a similar vein, Ingrida argued that she covered almost all the material and exercises given in the [commercial] textbook, because there was the program, the course plan which they had to follow and to account for. It was only Aiste who addressed students' language level, and thus seemed not to have followed the [in-house] textbook so closely, "not 100%". If the students were strong, she would skip some of the tasks, or if the class finished all the exercises in the unit, she would bring in additional materials for them to study. However, other student related factors, such as, for instance, students' interest in the topic, were not considered.

Interestingly, the teachers seemed to have purposefully avoided the involvement of the students in their learning process, because they believed that the students lacked the subject knowledge and were not able to decide which topics they wanted to study. This perception was clearly expressed by Aiste in the following words:

[the teachers] can't decide much according to students' needs because...in the first year, he [a student] doesn't have any pure knowledge of the subject matter...they really won't tell you, 'now I need this for my speciality, for example'....he doesn't even know about it a lot.

The lack of the teachers' knowledge of how to teach students from their own selected texts was another reason that the students were excluded from the content selection process. As Laura admitted, she would not know how to teach texts suggested by the students; it could be "a somewhat complete chaos".

The analysis of the teachers' explanations to closely follow the textbook also revealed a number of burning issues. The teachers' busy lives appeared to be a critical factor in their teaching practices. As Laura pointed out, "[w]hen you don't have time, so you do what is in the [commercial] textbook". Closely related with the lack of time was the teachers' low university income. Vaiva frankly admitted that due to the low salary, the teachers had to take other jobs, and, for this reason, the quality of teaching suffered. Moreover, a lack of familiarity with a textbook and a lack of subject knowledge were among other factors which led to teachers slavishly following the textbook. Commenting on the commercial textbook, Laura, for instance, asserted that if a text was familiar to her, she skipped some exercises; if topics were comprehensible to her, she also deviated from the textbook; but if she lacked the subject knowledge, she would only follow the textbook and would be happy she had some support. As Laura put it, "then it's only 'thanks God' that you have something to do, that you have something to give them. Because then there is an ongoing process, whether it's interesting or not, but then they are working".

Thus, with regard to the use of the materials it seems that the emphasis was almost solely on getting through the book and the students' needs were seldom taken into account.

To summarize, commercial and in-house textbooks were used to support students for work in their mainstream classes. However, the teachers who used in-house materials complained that the textbooks were of poor quality, largely because they felt they had been designed in a short amount of time and they were either too difficult or too easy for the students. The selection of materials was mostly intuition-led, with little consideration of students' target needs and interests, and the possibilities to cooperate with specialist teachers were little explored in the materials selection process. In addition, teachers believed that the students should read modified materials and guided by this belief shortened long texts, sentences, discarded pictures, years, numbers, or surnames. The majority of teachers approved of the idea of content teaching and used topic units in their classrooms. The topics, although related to students' specialities, were of a more general nature. However, two teachers, Lina and Aiste, forcefully pointed out some drawbacks of taking an exclusively content-oriented approach to teaching. Moreover, texts that teachers used for classroom study mainly served as the source of technical vocabulary that students could learn from, because the acquisition of technical vocabulary was believed to reinforce students' understanding of texts. There was little evidence of teachers' other stated purposes, such as to develop students' academic reading, writing, or speaking skills, being focused on in class. Furthermore, despite the flexibility permitted by the Department, all the teachers closely followed texts and exercises in the textbooks.

The following section examines the implications of this research for enhancing current understandings of the process of materials design in a Lithuanian context.

13. Discussion and implications

This study has uncovered important information about the reading materials design process at a Lithuanian university. The fact that the teachers expressed concerns about the quality of in-house textbooks makes us wonder whether at least some of the in-house materials production has done no more than needlessly reinvent the wheel and only increased their workload. And yet attempting to create in-house materials which could best correspond to students' needs and interests is laudable: as Hyland (2006, p. 96) states, "[t]he highly targeted and context-specific nature of EAP means that no textbook can ever be ideal for a particular class". Often written for global markets, textbooks may not incorporate a full range of literacy skills, tasks, and strategy practice that are important for different students' needs. Moreover, textbooks, says Harwood (2004, p. 2), may not reflect "the enormous disciplinary variation in style and language which corpora reveal". Even worse, textbooks can mislead both students and teachers about writing norms of various discourses, creating the impression that "academic discourse is far more homogenous than is actually the case" (Harwood, 2004, p. 3).

However, as Harwood (2010, p. 4) rightly points out, "materials design should be studied and theorized" to produce effective and appropriate materials. That is, teachers' decisions for designing teaching materials should be guided by research supported principles, and not by their subjective intuitions. Disappointingly, the majority of the teachers' statements in this study did not express an understanding of theories of the design of reading materials for academic purposes. Instead, the teachers' practices were largely guided by their intuitions and an array of contextual factors, such as (a) time, (b) finance, (c) the principal's requirements, (d) the lack of teachers' as well as students' content knowledge, (e) teachers' constant migration to different faculties, (f) classes comprised of students from heterogeneous disciplines, and (g) the belief that teachers were humanities teachers who had nothing in common with content specialists.

Thus, taking into account the teachers' lack of training, time and expertise in the materials design process, a good textbook providing clear instructional frameworks, teacher guidance and support could be a reasonable compromise in this context and so save teachers time, enabling them to devote time to quality teaching rather than materials design. However, EAP instruction at the University should be more than a curriculum that is driven by a textbook. As Grabe (2009, p. 341) contends,

content-based reading instruction...can certainly build upon a reading-textbook series, but that would most likely mean not using all the textbook material and expanding parts of the series with a range of additional materials, tasks, and instructional alternatives.

In other words, the teachers would have to use their textbooks flexibly, treating them "as a resource that can be built upon" (Grabe, 2009, p. 340). In addition, the engagement in dialogue with subject specialists should also inform the reading curriculum. While the lack of EAP teachers' subject knowledge was pointed out as one of the main obstacles in cooperation

with content teachers, this lack of knowledge however could be a motivating factor to learn more about the subject. More specifically, learning, as mentioned previously, could be about:

- the types of reading abilities students will have to apply in academic reading;
- the types of target texts, genres and topics students will have to read;
- the situations in which students need to read in English; and
- the assessment of students' current reading abilities in English.

Teachers focused their efforts on vocabulary work, and there is no denying that materials should help develop students' vocabulary knowledge, which is so important for reading comprehension. Recent studies suggest that focused vocabulary instruction can have a positive effect on vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension of language students in academic settings (Grabe, 2009; Grabe & Stoller, 2002; Meltzer & Hamann, 2005). However, as necessary as vocabulary knowledge undoubtedly is, it is not, on its own, sufficient condition for successful interaction with texts, as shown by Hu and Nation (2000), who demonstrated that even 100% vocabulary knowledge of a text did not produce 100% comprehension. Thus, other purposes of reading materials, such as, for instance, developing reading comprehension abilities, increasing the awareness of academic genres and of discourse structure, should also be considered.

Furthermore, some of the teachers' concerns about studying only content area topics seem to echo Nuttall's (2005, p. 177) remark that studying only content area topics may sometimes result in monotony in class. As Nuttall (2005, p.177) noted, "[s]tudents often complain of boredom with an unrelieved diet of texts in a single field (e.g., physics) even when that is their professional interest". Thus, introducing a variety of texts into the curriculum might be worthwhile, because varied texts, according to Nuttall (2005, p. 177), could be more entertaining or engaging, hence motivating. Perhaps the advantage of the recycling of vocabulary when used in texts all dealing with similar topics may be lost, but it is worth trying; otherwise, warns Nuttall (2005, p. 177), "the loss of stimulation may be too great a price to pay".

Finally, given the diverse disciplinary profile of students attending English classes, an English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) approach, with its focus on *specificity*, could be particularly appropriate in this teaching context. By drawing students' attention to how meanings are presented in texts and exploring similarities and differences, teachers can raise students' awareness of "the multi-literate nature of the academy", of the fact "that communication involves making choices based on the ways texts work in specific contexts and that the discourses of the academy are not based on a single set of rules" (Hyland, 2006, p. 14).

14. Conclusion

For successful change to occur in this Lithuanian context, the following suggestions are proposed. First, the University must create a supportive climate, which values the continuous professional development of teachers. The involvement of University leaders in professional development programmes, for example, could provide the opportunity to negotiate and reconcile any differences between differing beliefs and expectations and build consensus in working towards a shared vision of learning and teaching.

Moreover, the need for teacher improvement programmes to focus on the identification of constraints and opportunities that influence teacher decision-making is vital. Language teacher education programmes must recognise the realities of classroom life and help teachers understand how to cope with them as well as how to apply theory within the constraints imposed by those realities. In addition, preparatory programmes in Lithuania should provide teachers with a firmer background in the role and design of reading materials. Hopefully, the results of this study will provide a springboard for discussion of how improvements can be made, and an impetus for teachers' critical self-inquiry. In particular, issues such as student motivation and engagement with literacy should be addressed in training courses for EAP teachers in Lithuania. The teachers should also explore their goals of instruction, unpacking the meaning of such phrases as *success in mainstream classes*. Teachers may then move beyond a narrow focus on vocabulary or content to focus on student mastery of the linguistic demands of academic genres and the cognitive behaviours exhibited by proficient readers.

While many of the implications are practical suggestions that relate to the provision of professional development in a Lithuanian context, many of these recommendations may also be relevant to other educational contexts and to professional development in general. It is therefore hoped that the findings of this study will be useful to practitioners in other contexts who will be able to identify with the issues and concerns raised.

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Appendix

An interview extract

I: your students read these texts, so what is the purpose of reading these texts?

D: hm uh, well, to familiarize them with certain topics and, let's say, to get them to know something in more detail, for example, certain facts, or names, or events. Well, mainly to acquaint them with something. Of course, from that, from these texts comes the English language too. Because, in fact, mostly everything centres around these texts. Well, grammar, maybe there is a drawback here. We can't integrate grammar with texts. We can't do it in such a way as, for example, there is a text and there are modal verbs and you can teach grammar from that text. So we can't do such a thing.

I: hm

D: you need more time for that, to find such texts with such structures, but otherwise

I: with what structures?

D: well, let's say, with modals or past perfect, when you have them in a text. But in these texts there are more terms. The purpose is to teach them certain terms in order that they could learn these terms; because vocabulary is the core of this textbook.

I: hm

D: of course, plus grammar. But this grammar isn't suited to those structures

I: so the core is vocabulary, [to increase their vocabulary]

D: [hm hm hm hm]

I: and these texts, where are they taken from? I saw some references

D: there are references

I: hm

D: and they are taken from this book [showing the title of the book] uh 'Oxford English of Information Technology', a lot of them

I: hm

D: or from the Internet

I: how did you select these texts?

D: well, some texts are also from, where? For example, when students brought me their home reading, well, the beginning was from, where? They, let's say, would bring me their home reading and would leave it with me. I asked them to leave those texts. And, for example, I would look at what was interesting for the students. I would think, 'uh they read about operational systems, so it means it could be interesting for them'.

I: sorry, you mean your previous students?

D: yes, yes, before designing this textbook

I: hm hm

D: so, I would keep those texts. But otherwise, you mainly take common things. Well, how? You yourself have to enquire about these things in order that you could know something about operational systems. Anyway, you have to know something

I: hm

D: well, we started to think what they would need. They would need history, operational systems; they would need something about hackers. Well, that book, it helped us, the one about informational systems in English.

I: hm

D: there is that content, so it helped us. Let's say, it helped us choose topics because the textbook is divided into topics [showing the content of the textbook].

I: hm hm

D: so topics such as, for example, "Electronic Commerce", "Computer Virus", "Security", "Developments" and these "Peripherals", "Multimedia", "Internet".

I: hm

D: so this book helped us select topics, it's not as if we ourselves invented something. Well, maybe we added something, changed something. Of course, there is a different sequence and everything. Some topics are completely different but the basis is from this book [referring to book 'Oxford English of Information Technology'].

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