VOCABULARY INPUT IN CLASSROOM MATERIALS: TWO EFL COURSEBOOKS USED IN SPANISH SCHOOLS

GEMA ALCARAZ MÁRMOL*
Universidad de Murcia

> *In Chinese, 'study' means 'read the textbooks'. From the first day I went to school, I had to bring my textbooks. Throughout my school years, I learned with textbooks […] Since becoming a teacher I have mixed feelings towards the textbook. Sometimes I hate it and sometimes I love my inevitable teaching partner. This seems unlikely to be a perfect.*
>
> *Yuen (1997)*

ABSTRACT. *Coursebooks have become an essential tool in Second/Foreign language classrooms. The importance currently enjoyed by vocabulary in language teaching has made materials designers concern about how many and which words to introduce in coursebooks. The present study offers an analysis of two EFL coursebooks for Primary Education children. It explores how these two books deal with vocabulary mainly, though not exclusively, in quantitative terms. The study also raises awareness of the coursebook and its role in vocabulary learning.*

KEY WORDS. *Coursebook, EFL, materials design, Primary Education.*

RESUMEN. *El libro de texto se ha convertido en una herramienta esencial en la asignatura de Lengua Extranjera. La enorme importancia del vocabulario en la enseñanza de lenguas ha despertado un gran interés en los diseñadores de materiales didácticos acerca de cuántas y qué palabras deben aparecer en los libros de texto. El presente estudio ofrece un análisis de dos libros de texto usados ampliamente en el ámbito de la Educación Primaria. Dicho análisis muestra el tratamiento del vocabulario por parte de ambos libros, tanto en términos cuantitativos como cualitativos. Además, se pretende llamar la atención sobre el papel del libro de texto en el aprendizaje léxico.*

PALABRAS CLAVE. *Diseño de materiales, Educación Primaria, Inglés como Lengua Extranjera, Libro de texto.*

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. *Vocabulary and didactic materials*

Stating the paramount importance of vocabulary in SL/FL instruction is becoming a *cliché*. Though always present, the relevance of vocabulary has waxed and waned in the history of language teaching. Those antecedents notwithstanding, vocabulary has been gaining positions since the mid-seventies, until turning up as a hallmark in learning a second or foreign language. Since authors such as Wilkins (1972), Meara (1980), Nation (1990; 2001) or Laufer (1998) highlighted the relevant role of vocabulary in L2 learning, much has been said about the amount of words which are necessary to understand a given language.

There seems to be an agreement that students must learn between 2000 or 3000 word families. Such a bulk of vocabulary is expected to cover speakers' minimal communication needs. Nonetheless, it is fair to say that most vocabulary studies belong to the Anglo-Saxon world, so that they take English as their language of study. We dare to reckon that figures for other languages should not differ dramatically from English. The main reason is that the number of words in a language is somehow related to the speakers' needs, and they are, regardless of some cultural variations, the same for all human beings.

The Spanish Ministry of Education states that Spanish students should be able to communicate in a coherent way in English - both at the written and oral level- by the end of their Secondary Education. This goal involves previous acquisition of at least the most frequent 2000 words in English.

The importance of lexicon is reflected in contemporary coursebooks, which lend considerable weight to vocabulary learning. Cognisant of the teachers' relevant role, and with no intention to play it down, we think that coursebooks exert a great influence on the learning process. They presumably represent the syllabus, as well as the curriculum aims. As they normally form the backbone of the classroom, attention to them is fair.

Given the current spate of EFL coursebooks, teachers and institutions face a heavy task when having to select appropriate text materials. They are often bombed with the last launches from dozens of publishing houses. After all, we must not ignore the fact that, apart from a *professional track* (Byrd 1995: 6), materials design is also a market. Consequently, we often find *"publishers representatives calling round and dazzling us with their new books. Many of these books are beautifully presented with jazzy covers and attractive artwork which distracts the eye and dulls the brain"* (Grant 1987: 119). In fact, over twenty years ago, Brumfit (1979: 30), warned about the *"masses of rubbish [being] skilfully marketed"*.

Recent coursebook debate is arising about the adequacy of topics (Reda 2003) or in-context/out-of-context word presentation (Erten and Tekin 2008). However, what about input distribution? What are the principles that rule the number of words introduced in coursebooks, both by unit and lesson? Is it enough for the goals marked by

the Ministry? Are students able to keep up with the rate of vocabulary introduction in coursebooks? Or else, is that amount far below their abilities?

On the basis of teaching experiences and intuitions, Gairns and Redman (1986) *suggest* an introduction average of 8 to 12 productive items per sixty-minute lesson. On the other hand, Scholfield (1991) made one of the first important coursebook analyses. He used what he called a vocabulary rate plot to know the rate at which vocabulary was introduced in five popular textbooks. He found "*considerable differences between courses [...] and a great deal of variation between one unit and another within any course*" (*ibid*: 12). The range of vocabulary varied from 21 to 58 items. More recent analyses (Tang and Nesi 2003; Donzelli 2007) focus on teachers' input in classroom, so that attention paid to coursebooks moves to a secondary stage.

Despite the current burgeoning interest in vocabulary, hardly any comment is found on vocabulary choice, amount or distribution in coursebooks. Indeed, it used to be really hard to be accurate about those issues, but things have changed. At present, we have the means to make funded decisions about which and how much input should be included in didactic materials. Corpus studies and vocabulary research in general offer interesting and reliable quantitative and qualitative data on vocabulary acquisition. Nowadays there is no excuse to design but good-quality teaching materials. The question is whether designers really take research findings into account or just play lip-service to them.

1.2. *Token, type, word family and lemma: the problem of quantifying*

Any vocabulary study involving quantification has to be confronted by one of the most straightforward, but, at the same time, most controversial questions in Linguistics: What is a word? Despite new trends in vocabulary research that focus on higher units as collocations or idioms, there is no doubt that the word is the main unit in vocabulary quantification and language by and large. It is not a coincidence that most linguistic studies make spread use of this concept. What is more, both adults and children associate vocabulary learning with the acquisition of new words.

However, what do they mean when they talk about words? After several attempts to accurately define such a concept, researchers have come to the conclusion that the word is too complex a phenomenon to be understood in absolute and categorical terms.

Nation (2001) proposes four different ways in which words could be counted: tokens, types, word families and lemmas. We set to explain each category in more detail:

- Token: a token is defined as "*every word form in a spoken or written text*" (Nation 2001: 7), so that each occurrence of each word is counted. The number of tokens in a textbook gives us an idea of the amount of input the learners are exposed to in raw terms.

- Type: Words are counted as types when we find the same form more than once and do not count it again. If we adopt the type as the unit of quantification, plurals or –ing forms are enough to survey those forms as different words. For instance, *lamp/lamps* or *walk/walking* are treated as two different words, respectively. Yet, we would be almost 100% sure that if a student has learned *lamp*, s/he knows *lamps*, as well.

- Word Family: a commonly extended alternative is that of the word family. A word family consists of a headword, its inflected forms and its closely related derived forms. One problem of the word family, though, is "*to decide what should be included in a word family and what should not*" (Nation 2001: 8). In other words, it is not clear where to draw the line between those closely related and the not so related forms. Moreover, we cast doubt on the idea that a child acquiring *bed* has also acquired *bedroom*. There is the possibility that an adult could guess the meaning of the latter, but a young language learner in his first stages of acquisition may not be able to make those inferences.

- Lemma: a lemma consists of a headword and some of its inflected -plural, -ing, among others- and reduced (n't) forms. In our judgement, the lemma is the best option for lexical quantification, since it somehow overcomes many of the problems posed by the other options. Despite that fact, one problem in adopting lemma is what to do with irregular forms such as *geese* or *gone*. They are considered part of the lemmas *goose* and *go*, respectively. Nonetheless, we cannot assert that a beginner can associate irregular plural or verbal forms with their headwords. That is why, for the present study, we propose to refine the original definition of *lemma* with the following considerations:

  a) Irregular plurals or verbal forms are counted independently from their headwords.

  b) Lemma is understood as a representation of a concept, not as mere form. This involves terms such as *ice cream* or *milk shake* to be counted as just one, even if they consist of two different forms. The reason is that they represent a single concept, and that is the way children understand them: though aware of two forms, they learn them as just one concept.

2. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study pursues answering the following questions:

1) How many tokens, types and lemmas are introduced both in the second school term and in each unit of the coursebooks?
2) What is the lexical density of both coursebooks?
3) What are the frequency levels of the lemmas introduced by each coursebook?

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. *Materials*

Two coursebooks were chosen for the analysis: *English Adventure 3* (Longman 2009) and *Bugs 3* (MacMillan 2008). They are specifically intended for young learners of EFL in their third year of Primary Education. Those two books are quite popular among the community of English teachers, and their use is widely spread in Spanish schools.

English Adventure and *Bugs* share a similar structure: eight units (each one divided into several lessons) plus one introductory section. In the former case, the set is completed by three special components: Halloween, Christmas and Easter, whereas the latter only develops the last two. Units are delivered as follows: the first term comprehends the introductory section and units 1, 2, 3; the second part of the academic year develops units 4, 5, 6, whereas the last two units (7 and 8) are displayed in the last term.

Both courses are claimed to fall within the Communicative Method. Vocabulary is presented mostly, though not exclusively, in context by means of dialogues, stories or songs. Those are accompanied by different activities where vocabulary learning normally constitutes one of the aims.

We will focus specifically on the second term, i. e., units 4, 5, 6 of the materials. They contain topics such as actions, food and furniture in *English Adventure* and food, sports and daily routines in *Bugs*.

3.2. *Instruments and procedure*

The analysis was carried out with the help of RANGE, a computer program which, among other things, allows the researcher to obtain the number of words in a text, as well as a text frequency figure (how often a word appears in a text) and a general frequency figure (the frequency level a word belongs to). The program includes three different lists: list one and two (hereafter L1 and L2) represent the 2000 most frequent words in English, whereas L3 includes words that are not found in the first 2000 words but are frequent in secondary school and university texts. These lists are based on Michael West's General Service List (1953) and on Coxhead's Academic Word List (1998).

The program distinguishes between three different categories: tokens, types and families. Accordingly terms such as *lamp* and *lamps* are counted as two words by the type category, and in a parallel manner, *bed* and *bedroom* as the same word in families. We needed a halfway unit between type and family, so we added lemma as one category pertaining in the analysis, and in our judgement more germane to our purpose than families. That is why we are not dealing with the latter in the present study. We mainly focus on tokens, types and lemmas.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. *Number of tokens, types and lemmas*

During the second term of the course, *English Adventure* introduces 802 tokens, 168 types and 160 lemmas. Regarding each unit separately, unit 4 contains 291 tokens, among which we can find 75 types and 72 lemmas. The following unit (unit 5) increases its tokens up to 303, although there is a trend downwards in types (74) and lemmas (70). Finally, unit 6 stands for 208 tokens, going down to 61 types and just 57 lemmas.

As for *Bugs*, we find up to 1310 tokens, 227 types and 218 lemmas confining the second term. Thus, unit 4 presents 370, of which we can distinguish 89 types and 86 lemmas. Unit 5 offers a considerable increase in the three categories. Hence, tokens reach 442, while types and lemmas similarly grow in 30 items regarding unit 4, that is, 119 types and 117 lemmas. The last unit (unit 6) undergoes a new increase in tokens (498). Yet, we can appreciate that types and lemmas are shortened in unit six with respect to unit 5, albeit still higher than those in unit 4.

Both coursebooks belong to the same level, and are specially designed for young language learners in their third year of Primary Education. Nonetheless, important differences between them as regards amount of vocabulary can be highlighted. In general terms and per unit *Bugs* contains more tokens, types and lemmas than does *English Adventure*. In fact, the former exceeds the latter in more than 500 tokens. Differences in types and lemmas are not so marked, but still considerable. Overall, both coursebooks go beyond 150 types and lemmas. However, whereas *English Adventure* contains 168 types and 160 lemmas, *Bugs* introduces 227 types and up to 218 lemmas. This makes a difference of 59 types and 58 lemmas respectively.

In this case, the book with a greater variety of input is also the one with the greatest number of tokens. Yet, not always more tokens mean more variety. What it definitely involves is more input exposure and repetition. Researchers (Blachowicz *et al*. 2008; Ellis and Beaton 1993; Nation 1982; Rott 1999; Schmitt 2008) coincide that repetition, especially short-term, is one of the key factors in vocabulary learning. In fact, it is estimated that between seven and ten encounters are needed for a word to be acquired (Nation 1990; Nation 2001).

We turn next to each unit specifically. Given the general data above, it is not surprising that each separate unit in *Bugs* also presents a higher amount of tokens, types and lemmas. Thus, the unit with highest input in *English Adventure* (unit 5 with 300 tokens) does not reach the smallest unit in *Bugs* (unit 4 with 370 tokens). Regarding types and lemmas, the difference between units is even more interesting. In fact, whereas the record in *English Adventure* is 75 types and 72 lemmas in unit 4, *Bugs* almost reaches 120 of both types and lemmas in unit 5.

Therefore, we can hold that *Bugs* is lexically richer both in quantitative (number of tokens) as well as in qualitative (number of types and lemmas) terms. In our judgement, it does not mean this coursebook is better, since more input does not necessarily imply

more acquisition. That is, we cannot assume that the low-level learners to which the coursebook is addressed are able to acquire all input they are exposed to. Spanish children receive approximately 33 hours of instruction per academic term. Thus, in the case of *English Adventure* the amount of different lemmas introduced per lesson ranges from 4.7 to 6 per hour, depending on the unit. In the case of *Bugs*, the figures go up from 7 to almost 10 lemmas per hour of instruction.

Gairns and Redman (1986) recommend around nine new lexical items per lesson in elementary levels. There is a shortcoming in their statement: it is based just on intuition and experience. More recent studies underpin their assertions in empirical outcomes. This is the case of Milton and Meara (1998) who found that British Secondary school students of French as FL tend to learn between almost four to six word families per hour. Donzelli (2007) found that the average exposure to young learners was placed in almost six new words per hour of instruction. Nevertheless, she makes a caveat: some of those words would have been learned during a previous exposure. As we can see, figures do not differ dramatically. Gairns and Redman's guesses were not very far from reality. It seems that an average of 6 or 7 new vocabulary items per hour of instruction constitute a reasonable input for elementary learners.

4.2. *Patterns of Distribution*

It is also interesting to pay attention to the distribution patterns of input. In this case, we will focus exclusively on lemmas and tokens. As observed in the previous section, the difference between types and lemmas is really small. Then for the present purpose, it would be redundant to include types in our distribution analysis.
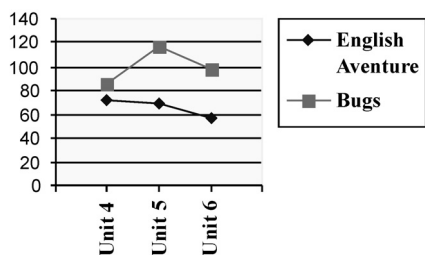
Figure 1. *Pattern Distribution of Lemmas*.
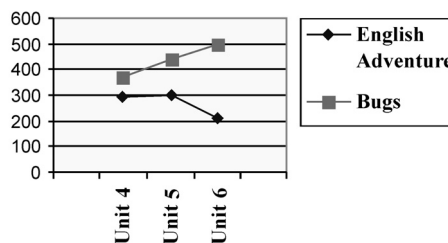
Figure 2. *Pattern Distribution of Tokens*.

We will start with *English Adventure* patterns. Regarding lemmas, we can appreciate a downward trend, which is almost imperceptible between units 4 and 5 and becomes more pronounced in unit 6. Similarly, the pattern of tokens barely changes between units 4 and 5, and turns down dramatically in unit 6. Overall, we can say that *English Adventure* presents similar distribution both for lemmas and tokens. That is,

whereas units 4 and 5 hardly differ, unit 6 markedly decreases in the number of both categories.

Different patterns are adopted by *Bugs*. Unit 5 presents considerable increase with respect to 4, but it turns down in unit 6. As for tokens, we can see a constant trend upwards from unit 4 to 6. Contrary to *English Adventure*, lemma and token distribution differ from each other. Thus, tokens keep on growing until the end of the term, whereas lemmas experiment a notable decrease eventually.

Furthermore, we must remark the fact that, despite their multiple differences, both textbooks coincide in decreasing the number of lemmas at the end. This makes sense, since children are more tired and not so much concentrated towards the last part of the term. *English Adventure* keeps the same level of effort from the beginning to the middle of the term. *Bugs*, on its part, shows what I call a *roller-coaster effect*: a warming-up at the beginning upwards to the highest level of effort towards mid-term to more relax eventually. However, they follow distinct policies regarding tokens: *English Adventure* maintains its downward philosophy, while *Bugs* keeps on adding tokens until the end of the term. *Bugs's* pattern does not imply more effort, but definitely more repetition and recycling.

4.3. *Lexical density*

In order to calculate the lexical density index, hereafter LDI, of a given text we divide the number of different words by the total number of words in the text (Nation 1990). As we identify *word* with lemma, the LDI will correspond to the number of lemmas (different words) divided by the number of tokens (total number of words).

The surveyed LDI for *English Adventure* is almost 20%. Regarding each particular unit, the LDI is slightly higher, between 23% and 24% for the first two units and 27% in the third one. These figures result into a LDI mean of 24%. On its part, *Bugs* presents a general LDI of 16%. Similar to *English Adventure*, the index in each unit goes over the general figure. Thus, unit 4 presents 23% LDI, increasing up to 26% in unit 5 and decreasing to 19% in unit six – which gives us a mean of 22% LDI. See table 1.

	English Adventure	**Bugs**
Unit IV	24%	23%
Unit V	23%	26%
Unit VI	27%	19%
Mean	25%	22%
General	19%	16%

Table 1. *Lexical Density Index*.

The lexical density of a text may indicate its difficulty. Hence, texts with low density (less than 40-50%) are considered not dense and relatively easy to understand. By contrast, texts over 60-70% LDI are *lexically dense* and more complex to read. Interestingly enough, though both courses considerably differ in the number of tokens, types and lemmas, they coincide in their lexical density indexes. Neither *English Adventure* nor *Bugs* reach 30% LDI. What is more, *English Adventure* –which shows lower figures with respect to the three categories of the study (token, type, lemma) - presents slightly higher LDI. Accordingly, we can state, first of all, that the low indexes were expected given the elementary level of the courses. Second, the LDI does not necessarily mean more input. Another different question is whether the reported LDI is challenging enough to promote learning or, by contrast, it constitutes too difficult a scope for acquisition. In fact, *Bugs*'s lower LDI can lead to easier reading than *English Adventure*, which it may lead to easier guessing from context.

4.4. *Frequency levels*

All units in both textbooks present words from the three RANGE lists, albeit not all of them have a similar weight. Marked differences are appreciated according to their representation.

Regarding *English Adventure*, there are no significant oscillations between units. In other words, the proportion of lemmas contained in L1 hardly varies from 66.8% to 75%; those in L2 fluctuate between 13.8% and 19.2%, and finally L3 representation is below 3% in any case. *Bugs* offers a similar picture. Thus, L1 representation is over 68% in any of the three units, reaching the top in unit 5 with almost 80% words. As it happens in *English Adventure*, L2 figures in *Bugs* fall far below L1, and they get their highest mark of 15% in unit 4. L3 percentages are also alike, swinging between 7% and 2.5%.

	Unit 4	Unit 5	Unit 6	Mean	Total
L1	54 (75%)	49 (70%)	39 (68.4%)	47.3 (71.1%)	107 (66.8%)
L2	10 (13.8%)	10 (14.2%)	11 (19.2%)	10.3 (15.7%)	27 (16.8%)
L3	2 (2.7%)	2 (2.8%)	1 (1.7%)	1.6 (2.4%)	5 (3.1%)
NF	6 (8.5%)	9 (12.8%)	6 (10.5%)	7 (10.5%)	21 (13.1%)

Table 2. *Frequency Levels in English Adventure*.

As we can see, there is a significant predominance of L1 over the other two lists in RANGE. This is not surprising, since the target learners are elementary students. Both courses seem to follow research claims that learning the 2000 most frequent words is a prime for students. Nonetheless it is fair to say that these textbooks mainly focus on the

first 1000. The question may arise whether higher representation of L2 is desirable. In other words, despite their short age and still elementary level, those children have been in contact with English since they were four (according to the current Spanish curriculum of Modern Languages, which promotes introduction of a foreign language in kindergarten). Those children may have already learned many of the items introduced. So, more presence of L2 in detriment of L1 would be justified in any case.

	Unit 4	Unit 5	Unit 6	Mean	Total
L1	59 (68.6%)	93 (79.4%)	76 (77.5%)	76 (75.1%)	107 (66.8%)
L2	13 (15.1%)	14 (12%)	13 (13.2%)	13.3 (13.4%)	27 (16.8%)
L3	6 (7%)	3 (2.5%)	3 (3%)	4 (4.1%)	5 (3.1%)
NF	8 (9.3%)	7 (7.7%)	6 (6.1%)	7 (7.7%)	21 (13.1%)

Table 3. *Frequency levels in Bugs Table*.

Nonetheless, not all words fall within one of those three lists. Some words are classified as *Not Found* (NF) in any list, but their presence is pertaining for our analysis. First of all, they are superior in number to L3 list in both textbooks. Numbers of NF words are even higher in Vassiliu (2001). He reported that more than 30% of the total lemmas that students encountered in their courses of EFL are infrequent words. Second, most of those NF words appear as target vocabulary in the coursebooks.

On one hand, we could reckon NF words inappropriate as target. After all they do not belong to any of the three lists. In fact, we would expect L3 figures to be higher in number, since they are frequent in academic texts. However, on the other hand, the presence of these NF words is justified and they do make sense as target vocabulary. In other words, one of the current principles in materials design relies on the learner's motivation. Motivation is considered important at all ages and at all stages of learning, but it is especially significant in childhood and at the beginning of the learning process. That is why writers look for semantic fields and topics specifically appealing for children. Some names of animals, food or sport such as *elephant*, *macaroni* or *basketball* are not part of the most 2000 frequent words, but they are really popular among children. Therefore, including them in the syllabus promotes children's interest for the language and, why not, acquisition.

5. CONCLUSIONS

The present study has analysed the input of two EFL coursebooks which are widely used in the Spanish Primary Education scope. Based on the stated above, we can conclude the following:

First, *Bugs* offers more input both in quantitative and qualitative terms. It does not mean that this coursebook should be better than the other. We would need to assess the ability to acquire vocabulary of the students to check whether they are able to cope with all the input they are exposed to. That is, we cannot ensure that more input always leads to more intake. Thus, it depends on the learner's ability and the way and rate of vocabulary introduction.

Second, distribution patterns have shown the different philosophy behind each textbook. We can observe two different ways of dealing with vocabulary input. *English Adventure* adopts an akin model for lemmas and tokens. It is based on stability in the first two thirds of the term and a marked decrease at the end. On the contrary, *Bugs* presents different approaches for lemmas and tokens.

Third, the lexical density figures, in the region of 20%, are expected. Coursebook low index promotes guessing from context, and gives children a feeling of confidence, which, at the same time, leads to motivation and interest in the learning of a new language.

Finally, regarding frequency levels we highlight two facts. One is the predominance of the 1000 most frequent words in English with a noticeable distance from the second 1000 most frequent words. Moreover, a small but significant number of words not found in any of the three lists is present in texts, and most importantly, constitute target vocabulary. At first sight this might seem strange; not so, however, if we interpret this vocabulary as appealing to the children's world.

All in all, the present study intends to raise awareness of what in our view constitute one of the key elements in the EFL classroom: the coursebook. If, as it frequently happens, the teacher takes the coursebook as his/her guide, they have to make sure they choose the correct one. Analyses like the one shown here may help the teaching community if not to make the correct choice, at least, a funded one.

NOTES

* Correspondence to: Gema Alcaraz Mármol. C/Maestro Miguel Fernández 6 B IZQ. 30600 Archena. Murcia. E-mail: gemam@um.es.

1. One caveat is in order: the present analysis encompasses only units 4, 5 and 6 of the two course books. It means that when we talk about course books in general terms, we only refer to those three units that spread along the second part of the academic year, not the whole course book.
2. See discussion on *word* in section 1.2 of the present paper.
3. We multiply by 100 so that we obtain a percentage figure, making it easier to handle. Example: 0,2 LDI becomes 20% LDI. The LDI is also called Lexical Variation (Tang and Nesi 2003).

REFERENCES

Blachowicz, C., P. Fisher and D. Ogle. 2008. "Vocabulary: Questions from the classroom". *Reading Research Quarterly* 41 (4): 524-539.

Brumfit, C. 1979. "Seven last slogans". *Modern English Teacher* 7 (1): 30-31.

Byrd, P. 1995. "Writing and publishing textbooks". Eds. P. Byrd *Materials Writer's Guide, Boston*. MA: Heinle and Heinle. 3-9.

Coxhead, A. 1998. *An Academic Word List*. LALS. Victoria University of Wellington, New Zealand.

Donzelli, G. 2007. "Foreign language learners: words they hear and words they learn: A case study". *ELIA* 7 (1): 103-125.

Elllis, N. and Beaton, A. 1993. "Factors affecting the learning of foreign language vocabulary: Imagery keyword mediators and phonological short-term memory". *The Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology* 46 (3): 533-558.

Erten, I. H. and M. Tekin 2008. "Effects on vocabulary acquisition of presenting new words in semantic sets versus semantically unrelated sets". *System* 36 (3): 407-422.

Gairns, R. and S. Redman. 1986. *Working with Words*. Cambridge: CUP.

Grant, N. 1987. *Making the Most of Your Textbook*. Harlow, Essex: Longman.

Laufer, B. 1998. "The development of passive and active vocabulary in a second language: Same or different?" Applied Linguistics 2 (2): 255-271.

McGrath, I. 2002. *Materials Evaluation and Design for Language Teaching*. Edimburgh Textbooks in Applied Linguistics.

Meara, P. 1980. "Vocabulary acquisition: A neglected aspect of language learning". *Language Teaching and Linguistics: Abstracts* 13 (1): 221-246.

Milton, J. L. and P. Meara. 1998. "Are the British really bad at learning foreign languages?". *Language Learning Journal* 18 (1): 68-76.

Nation, P. 1982. "Beginning to learn foreign vocabulary: a review of the research". *RELC Journal* 13 (1): 14-36.

Nation, P. 1990. *Teaching and Learning Vocabulary*. Newbury House.

Nation, P. 2001. *Learning Vocabulary in Another Language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Papiol, E. and M. Toth, M. 2008. *Bugs 3 Pupil's Book*. MacMillan Publishers.

Reda, G. 2003. "English coursebooks: Prototype texts and basic vocabulary norms". *ELT Journal* 57 (3): 260-268.

Rott, S. 1999. "The effect of exposure frequency on intermediate language learners' incidental vocabulary acquisition and retention through reading". *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 21 (4): 589-619.

Schmitt, N. 2008. "Review article: instructed second language vocabulary learning". *Language Teaching Research* 12 (3): 329-363.

Scholfield, P. 1991. "Vocabulary Rate in Coursebooks - living with an unstable lexical economy". *Proceedings of 5th Symposium on the Description and/or comparison of English and Greek*. Thessaloniki: Aristotle University. 11-32.

Tang, E. And H. Nesi. 2003. "Teaching vocabulary into two Chinese classrooms: schoolchildren's exposure to English words in Hong Kong and Guangzhou". *Language Teaching Research* 7 (1): 65- 97.

Vassiliu, P. 2001. *Lexical Input and Uptake in the Greek Low Level EFL Classroom*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. University of Wales, Swansea.

West, M. 1953. *A General Service List of English Words*. London: Longman, Green and Co.

Wilkins, D. 1972. *Linguistics in Language Teaching*. London: Edward Arnold.

Worrall, A. 2009. *English Adventure 3Pupil's Book*. Longman Publishers.

Yuen, K. 1997. Review of Allwright's (1981) paper "Why use textbooks?" BEd assignment. University of Nottingham.

APPENDIX 1

	ENGLISH ADVENTURE			BUGS		
	UNIT IV			*UNIT IV*		
TOKENS	291			370		
TYPES	75			89		
LEMMAS	72			86		
	UNIT V			*UNIT V*		
TOKENS	303			442		
TYPES	74			119		
LEMMAS	70			117		
	UNIT VI			*UNIT VI*		
TOKENS	208			498		
TYPES	61			103		
LEMMAS	57			98		
	Tokens	*Types*	*Lemmas*	*Tokens*	*Types*	*Lemmas*
TOTAL	802	168	160	1310	227	218
	Tokens	*Types*	*Lemmas*	*Tokens*	*Types*	*Lemmas*
Mean	267.3	70	53.3	436.6	103.6	72.6

Table 5. *Coursebook analysis*.

APPENDIX 2

ENGLISH ADVENTURE

Unit 4

Types Found In Base List One

A	IS	SEVENTEEN
AM	IT	SING
AND	KITCHEN	SIXTEEN
ARE	LET	SMALL
BED	LIVE	STOP
BEDROOM	LIVING	TABLE
BIG	LOOK	THE
BOAT	MORE	THERE
BOX	MY	THIRTEEN
BROTHERS	NINETEEN	THIS
CHAIR	NO	THREE
CUP	NOW	TWENTY
DONE	ON	TWO
EIGHTEEN	ONCE	UNDER
FLOOR	ONE	WANT
GREEN	OVER	WELL
I	RING	WHERE
IN	ROOM	

Types Found In Base List Two

BATH	CUPBOARD	SONG
BATHROOM	HAT	YELLOW
BROWN	PENS	
CARPET	PINK	

Types Found In Base List Three

LAMP	LAMPS	MAGIC

Types Not Found In Any List

DOLL	MAGICIAN	SPIDER
GENIE	SOFA	TEDDY

Unit 5

Types Found In Base List One

A	FROM	OR
AM	GOT	RED
AN	GREEN	RUN
AND	HAS	SING
ARMS	HE	SMALL
AT	HORSE	SO
BEAR	I	THAT
BIG	IN	TO
BUT	IS	TOO
CAN	IT	TREE
CAREFUL	JUMP	TREES
COME	LEGS	UP
FAST	LONG	VERY
FEET	LOOK	WALK
FISH	MY	WALLS
FLY	NO	YES
FLYING	ON	YOU

Types Found In Base List Two

BIRD	GREY	SWIM
BROWN	HIDE	YELLOW
CLIMB	ORANGE	
DANCE	RIDE	

Types Found In Base List Three

STICKY	TOES

Types Not Found In Any List

ELEPHANT	JUGGLE	SCOOTER
FROG	JUNGLE	SNAKE
GECKO	MONKEY	TIGER

Unit 6

Types Found In Base List One

A	FEEL	LUNCH
AM	FISH	MILK
AND	FOOD	MY
ARE	GOOD	NO
BACK	GREEN	OF
BIG	HE	ONE
CLOCK	HEALTHY	OR
COME	I	PLEASE
DINNER	IN	SEVEN
DO	IS	SICK
DOESN	IT	WE
DON	LIKE	WITH
EIGHT	LIKES	YES
FAVOURITE	LOTS	YOU

Types Found In Base List Two

BREAD	CHIPS	ORANGE
BREAKFAST	CHOCOLATE	SANDWICH
CHEESE	HUNGRY	YELLOW
CHICKEN	JUICE	

Types Found In Base List Three

BANANA

Types Not Found In Any List

ICE CREAM	PEAS	SALAD
MILK SHAKE	PIZZA	SPAGHETTI

APPENDIX 3

BUGS

Unit 4

Types Found In Base List One

AND	HE	SEE
ARE	HERE	SITS
BUT	I	SIX
CAN	IN	SOME
COME	IT	STILL
DO	LET	TABLE
DON	LIKE	THANK
DOWN	LOVE	THE
EATS	LUNCH	THESE
EGGS	M	THREE
FISH	MILK	TIME
FIVE	MORE	TODAY
FLY	NOT	TWO
FOODS	NOW	VE
FOR	ON	VERY
FROM	ONE	WANT
GLASS	OR	WELL
GOOD	PLEASE	WHAT
GOT	PUT	YES
HAVE	SCHOOL	YOU

Types Found In Base List Two

ANIMALS	FRUIT	PLANTS
BREAD	HUNGRY	PLATE
CHEESE	JUICE	VEGETABLES
CHICKEN	KNIFE	
CHIPS	ORANGE	

Types Found In Base List Three

ACHE	FORK	SAUSAGES
CANTEEN	GRAINS	SPOON

Types Not Found In Any List

CEREAL	MACARONI	SALAD
DELICIOUS	PEAS	TUMMY
ICE CREAM	RICE	

Unit 5

Types Found In Base List One

A	I	SIX
ABOUT	IN	SIXTY
ALL	IS	SO
AND	IT	SOME
ARE	JUMP	SURE
AT	LET	THE
BAD	LIKE	THIRTY
BAG	LISTEN	THIS
BALL	LUCK	THOUSAND
BE	ME	THREE
BLACK	MINUTES	THROW
CAN	MORE	TIME
COME	MY	TO
COURSE	NAME	TONIGHT
DONE	NINE	TOO
EIGHT	NO	TURN
END	NOW	TWENTY
FIFTEEN	OF	TWO
FIFTY	OLD	UP
FIRST	ON	WANTS
FIVE	ONE	WE
FOOTBALL	OR	WELCOME
FOR	OUR	WELL
FORTY	PASS	WHAT
FOUR	PLAY	WINNERS
FOURTEEN	POINTS	WINNING
GAME	PROBLEM	YEARS
HE	QUICK	YES
HERE	RUN	YOU
HI	SCORE	YOUR
HUNDRED	SHOOT	

Types Found In Base List Two

BIKE	GOALS	RIDE
COMPETITION	HAT	SECONDS
FAMOUS	INCREDIBLE	STAR
FINGER	METRES	SWIM
GOAL	PLATE	

Types Found In Base List Three

SPIN	TENNIS	WHISTLE

Types Not Found In Any List

BASKETBALL	ROLLERBLADE	SKATEBOARD
BUTTERFLY	SALAD	
FANTASTIC	SKATE	

Unit 6

Types Found In Base List One

A	GETS	PLAY
AN	GO	PLEASE
AND	GOT	RUN
AT	GREAT	SCHOOL
AWAY	HALF	SEVEN
BED	HAVE	SIX
BROTHER	HELP	TEN
CAN	HER	THANKS
CHILDREN	HERE	THAT
CLEAN	I	THE
CLOCK	IDEA	THEN
DAY	IN	THEY
DINNER	IS	THIS
DON	IT	THREE
DRESSED	JUMP	TIME
EARLY	LATER	TO
EAT	LIKE	TOO
EIGHT	LUNCH	TWELVE
ENGLAND	ME	TWO
EVERY	MORNING	UP
FIVE	MY	VE
FOR	NINE	VERY
FOUR	NOW	WHAT
FROM	ONE	YES
GARDEN	PARTY	YOU
GET	PAST	YOUR

Types Found In Base List Two

BREAKFAST	HUNGRY	SPAIN
BRUSH	JUICE	STRETCH
DIRTY	ORANGE	TEETH
GOAL	SHOWER	
HORRIBLE	SMELL	

Types Found In Base List Three

GIANT	JEANS	SPLASH

Types Not Found In Any List

BEDTIME	MUNCH	SOAP
GIRAFFE	SHAMPOO	ZIP