DOES COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE SPEAK ITSELF OUT IN ELT TEXTBOOKS AND EFL CLASSROOMS? A TRIANGULATED SURVEY

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to my students who gave me their love

to my mother who gave me her life

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June, 2015

ABSTRACT

Elif GÜRERGENE   **June, 2015**

**Does Communicative Competence Speak Itself Out in ELT
Textbooks and EFL Classrooms?
A Triangulated Survey**

The aim of this thesis research, which tried to merge psychometrically sound results with pedagogically insightful reflections, was threefold. First, the study addressed the degree of correspondence between what was presented to language learners in terms of speaking skills in textbooks and what should be according to the theoretical and practical background of English Language Teaching (ELT). Second, Turkish EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners' perceptions and attitudes about speaking skills, who were learning English through the target textbooks of this study, were sought for. Complementarily, the perceptions and attitudes of Turkish EFL teachers using the same textbooks were aimed to be found out.

One of the major tools was the spoken texts compiled from three types of textbooks: local, localized, and international at A2 level. Besides, audio tapes of each spoken task and text in each textbook were evaluated. To find out to what degree textbooks satisfied learners' linguistic and communicative needs, a Modular-Evaluative Framework, was developed as the third tool which encompassed four sections-Task analysis, Phonological Analysis, Textual Analysis, Lexical Analysis-and subsections under each. Evaluated data revealed that each textbook had its plus and minus features. However, with subtle discoursal variations between them, the localized and international textbooks displayed wider variety in language use both linguistically and communicatively than the local one, to the benefit of the learners.

The qualitative findings were triangulated by a questionnaire for EFL students, the fourth tool. This student questionnaire, conducted at 16 high schools both public and private in four provinces, and with 1046 students, consisted of five sections. The sections were designed to reveal the thought patterns of the students in terms of the textbook, classroom instructions and teacher attitudes, macro skills of speaking, learner autonomy, and washback effect in relation to speaking skills. In order to glean more comprehensive information about the perceptions of the participating students, statistical analyses were not restricted to those using different textbook users; data were also examined with reference to their classes, school types, and provinces. Further, as discourse competence and communicative performance were the two key concepts in this study, the fifth tool of the thesis research, the Discourse Competent Test (DCT) was written to find if the learners were aware of the underlying features of meaning beyond word or sentence boundary. The sixth tool of the study, a questionnaire for EFL teachers, was conducted in four cities, among 33 teachers working at public and private schools.

Findings revealed that students using the localized and international textbook were more satisfied with their textbooks' coverage and their teachers' performances in relation to speaking skills than those using the local textbook. Additionally, students using the localized textbook together with those using the international textbook were more autonomous regarding their preferences on speaking skills. These students were also more aware of the macro skills of speaking and more affected by the washback effect of their teachers' guidance on speaking skills than those using the local textbook. As well, they were more successful in the DCT.

As for the satisfaction level of the EFL teachers, it was higher among those using the localized and international textbook. Besides, most teachers were not content with the textbooks' coverage of macro skills. They were more autonomous in relation to their preferences about speaking skills but seemed to have been affected more by the washback of the textbooks and assessment of speaking skills than the students.

A contrastive thematic analysis based on the commentary part at the end of the student questionnaire, as the seventh tool of the research, was also performed to disclose if the users of different textbooks, bore similarities and differences in their ideas about speaking skills. It was seen that many students seemed to have a desire for the competence in language, and performance in speaking, though the existing situation was not regarded as satisfactory by them. Provincial differences were also reported.

Triangulated findings indicated that the spoken input in the textbooks, mostly not incompatible with the needs of NNSs (Nonnative speakers) in an EFL context, did not incorporate the requirements of such core elements as authenticity, register variation, and sociolinguistic appropriacy at the level modern research-based studies in ELT suggest. The study drew attention to the critical importance of language teachers in teaching micro and macro skills of speaking and repeatedly underpinned their role in mediating the deficiency of many other factors that could demotivate the learners. It was concluded that through the recent developments in Applied Linguistics, linguistic and communicative distinctions might be reconciled and perceptions towards learning and teaching speaking skills could be reoriented.

Key words: ELT textbooks, material evaluation, speaking skills, discourse analysis, communicative competence, authenticity, sociolinguistics, lexicogrammatical units, questionnaire

ÖZET

Elif GÜRERGENE   **Haziran, 2015**

İletişimsel Dil Becerisine İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Ders Kitaplarında Ve Yabancı Dil Sınıflarında Ne Kadar Yer Ayrılıyor?
Üç Kademeli Bir Araştırma

Psikometrik açıdan geçerli bulguları ve pedagojik açıdan faydalı yorumları birleştiren bu tez çalışmasının amacına üç kademeli bir araştırmayla ulaşılmaya çalışılmıştır. İlk olarak, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilere ders kitapları yoluyla konuşma becerilerine dair gerçekte verilen bilgi ile İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanının teorik ve pratik uygulamaları doğrultusunda verilmesi gereken bilgi arasındaki uyum derecesi ele alınmıştır. 2. olarak İngilizce'yi, incelenen ders kitaplarıyla öğrenen öğrencilerin konuşma becerilerine dair düşünceleri öğrenilmeye çalışılmıştır. Çalışmanın tamamlayıcısı olarak, aynı ders kitaplarıyla İngilizce öğreten öğretmenlerin düşünceleri de çalışmanın yoğunlaştığı bir diğer alan olmuştur.

Çalışmanın 1. aracı olarak, A2 seviyesinde, Türkiye'de yazılan, Türkiye için yazılan ve uluslararası bir ders kitabının içindeki tüm konuşma aktiviteleri ve konuşma söylemi derlenmiştir. Araştırmanın 2. aracı olan, bu metinlerin ses kayıtları da, ayrıntılı olarak analiz edilmiştir. 3. olarak ders kitaplarının öğrencilerin dilbilimsel ve iletişimsel ihtiyaçlarını karşılayıp karşılamadığını öğrenmek için, dört bölüm ve alt başlıklardan oluşan birimsel-değerlendirici bir çerçeve (MEF) geliştirilmiştir. Bulgular göstermiştir ki ikisi arasında söylem becerileri açısından az derecede bir farklılık olsa da, Türkiye için yazılan ders kitabı ve uluslararası ders kitabı, Türkiye'de yazılan ders kitabına göre, öğrencilerin faydasına olacak şekilde dilbilimsel ve iletişimsel açıdan daha fazla çeşitlilik göstermektedir.

Ders kitapları temel alınarak elde edilen veri, çalışmanın 4. aracını oluşturan, lise seviyesindeki öğrencilere yapılan bir anketle desteklenmiştir. 5 bölümden oluşan öğrenci anketi, 4 ilde, özel ve devlet olmak üzere 16 lisede, 1046 öğrenciye uygulanmıştır. Bu anketteki bölümler, öğrencilerin, ders kitapları, sınıf içi eğitim ve öğretmen tutumları, iletişimsel konuşma becerileri, özyönetim ve eğitimin geriye dönük etkisine dair düşüncelerini ortaya çıkarmayı hedeflemiştir. Katılımcı öğrencilere dair daha kapsamlı bilgi edinmek amacıyla, istatistiksel analizler sadece farklı kitap kullanıcılarıyla sınırlandırılmamış, veriler sınıf, okul türü ve şehirlere bağlı olarak da incelenmiştir. Çalışmanın 5. aracı olan Söylem Yeterliliği Testi, anketi dolduran öğrencilerin kelime ve cümle sınırlarının ötesindeki anlamın farkında olup olmadıklarını bulabilmek amacıyla geliştirilmiştir. Buna ek olarak aynı ders kitaplarını okutan öğretmenlerin düşünce ve tutumlarını görmek amaçlı çalışmanın 6. aracı olan bir öğretmen anketi hazırlanmış ve 4 ilde, devlet okullarında ve özel okullarda çalışan 33 İngilizce öğretmenine uygulanmıştır.

Bulgular Türkiye için yazılan ve uluslararası ders kitabını okuyan öğrencilerin ders kitaplarından ve öğretmenlerinden konuşma becerilerini öğretmeleri yönüyle Türkiye'de yazılan kitabı okuyan öğrencilere göre daha memnun olduklarını göstermiştir. Ayrıca, Türkiye için yazılan kitabı okuyan öğrencilerin, uluslararası ders kitabını okuyan öğrencilerle birlikte bu becerilere dair tercihlerinde daha fazla özyönetime sahip oldukları görülmüştür. Bu öğrencilerin, Türkiye'de yazılan ders kitabını okuyanlara göre dilin iletişimsel özelliklerinin daha fazla farkında oldukları ve öğretmenlerinin konuşma becerileriyle ilgili yönlendirmelerinden geriye dönük olarak daha fazla etkilendikleri de bulgular arasındadır. Aynı zamanda bu öğrenciler yine aynı gruba göre Söylem Yeterliliği Testinde daha başarılı olmuşlardır.

İngilizce öğretmenlerinin memnuniyet seviyesinin ise, Türkiye için yazılmış kitabı ve uluslararası ders kitabını okutan öğretmenler arasında Türkiye'de yazılan kitabı okutanlara göre daha fazla olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Öğretmenlerin çoğunluğunun, ders kitaplarının iletişimsel dil becerilerini öğretmede yetersiz olduğunu düşündüğü gözlenmiştir. Aynı zamanda öğretmenlerin, konuşma becerilerini kazanmaya dair öğrencilere göre daha fazla özyönetime sahip olduğu fakat ders kitabının ve konuşma becerilerinin ölçülmesinin geriye dönük etkilerine daha fazla maruz kalma eğiliminde oldukları görülmüştür.

Öğrenci anketinin yorum kısmı temel alınarak gerçekleştirilen karşılaştırmalı tematik analiz, ankete katılan öğrencilerin konuşma becerileriyle ilgili benzerlik ve farklılıklarını ortaya çıkarma hedefiyle uygulanmış ve birçok öğrencinin, dil yeterliliğine ve konuşma performansına dair ciddi bir isteğe sahip olduğu ancak var olan durumdan memnun olmadıkları belirlenmiştir.

Çalışma sonucunda, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin ihtiyaçlarıyla tam olarak uyum içinde olmayan ders kitaplarındaki konuşma metinlerinin, dilin aslına yakın ve farklı toplumsal ortamlara uygun kullanımı ve iletişimsel becerileri öğretme gibi temel özelliklerinin bilimsel araştırmaların önerdiği seviyede olmadığı görülmüştür. Son olarak, yabancı dilde konuşma becerilerinin öğrenilmesine ve öğretilmesine dair tutum ve algıların Uygulamalı Dilbilim'deki son dönem gelişmelerinin yardımıyla yeniden gözden geçirilmesi gerektiğine ve dil problemlerinin çözümünde öğretmenin sahip olduğu aracı role bir kez daha dikkat çekilmiştir.

Anahtar kelimeler: İngilizce eğitimi ders kitapları, materyal değerlendirme, söylem analizi, konuşma becerileri, iletişimsel yeterlilik, toplumsal dilbilim, sözcük-dilbilgisel birimler, anket

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CALL: Computer Assisted Language Learning

CEF: Common European Framework of References for Languages

COCA: Corpus of Contemporary American English

CUP: Cambridge University Press (For this study, it refers to the textbook itself, unless stated otherwise.)

DA: Discourse analysis

DCT: Discourse Competence Test

DDL: Data-Driven Learning

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

f: frequency

GSL: General Service List

IT: Internet Technology

L1: Native language

L2: Foreign or second language

LGUs: Lexicogrammatical units

MEF: Modular-Evaluative Framework

MONE: Ministry of National Education (For this study, it refers to the textbook itself, unless stated otherwise.)

NNS(s): Nonnative speaker(s)

NS(s): Native speaker(s)

OUP: Oxford University Press (For this study it refers to the textbook itself, unless stated otherwise.)

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

SQ: Student Questionnaire

TQ: Teacher Questionnaire

UEE: University Entrance Exam

VP: Vocabulary Profile

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Statement of the Problem

"*Does communicative competence speak itself out in ELT textbooks and EFL classrooms?*"

Before the formation of any competence and the evidence of any performance in language skills, those of listening and speaking start to show off after several months since birth, if there is no physical bar. Whereas we almost never invest in learning our mother tongue, we almost always have to *pay* for the second language(s) we would like to learn. Anecdotal evidence and personal experience as a language teacher for 15 years point out that in the context of this study, speaking is the skill that is generally seen as the vocal delivery of grammar rules which are strictly emphasized nearly all the years of formal education in Turkey. Needless to say, language does not develop either linguistically or communicatively all of a sudden and it needs investment and efforts on a regular and systematic basis. Having said this, however, the number of years spent without gaining a satisfying amount of competence in English seems disadvantageous in an era when educational and technological developments have peaked. Yet, the underrepresentation of the natural exchanges in EFL contexts may be the reason why a lot of language learners "feel that, however much grammar and vocabulary they know, they are insufficiently prepared for speaking in the world beyond the classroom" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 28).

It seems the solution lies where the deficiency is mostly felt: schools and materials. Thus, to be able to deal with the issue comprehensively in this thesis research, it was aimed to gather different variables all directly related to teaching and learning speaking skills: Textbooks covered at schools, students exposed to the spoken input

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in these textbooks, and teachers covering the same textbooks with their own pedagogical approaches and attitudes. The fundamental rationale was that "coursebooks represent for both students and teachers the visible heart of any ELT programme" (Sheldon, 1988). In educational environments, it is not uncommon that speaking instructions are evaluated as to whether a learner can speak a language like a native speaker or not in the end. This study tried to reveal, however, that between these polarities there is a potentially fruitful process in which communicative competence and thus performance in speaking could be gained.

1.2. Scope and Rationale of the Study

This study was in search for discoursal characteristics in texts compiled from ELT textbooks, and learners' and teachers' perceptions of speaking skills. Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, p. 3) mention two ways of dealing with a text; one "as an object in its own right" and second "as an instrument for finding out about something else." Hence both forms and functions, or use and usages were investigated through compiled spoken texts of the three different types of textbooks at A2 level: local, localized, and international. Through an in-depth content analysis, the response to the following question was sought for: "Are textbooks qualified enough for developing discourse competence, and communicative performance in the classroom?"

As Sheldon (1987, p. 6) rightly claims "materials evaluation needs to be taken back to the real consumer who are the teachers and the learners". Therefore, to be able to see whether communicative and the discoursal efficacy of the textbooks were salient for their users, a student and a teacher questionnaire were conducted and the results were cross-referenced.

1.3. Main Contributions of the Study

Thanks to the triangulated data with qualitative and quantitative research methods via seven research instruments, the study aimed to be as objective as possible in the

evaluation of the textbooks. It was also at the core of this study to see if speaking skills were sidelined and to suggest some guiding principles for improvement.

When thesis studies with similar topics, available through the online database of YÖK (Higher Education Council in Turkey), were examined, it was observed that textbooks evaluated were generally primary and secondary school textbooks. Also, in many of the thesis, one textbook was evaluated. At a high school level, only one thesis focused on a coursebook at A1.2 level, at the time of the inquiry. Upon inquiring with such key words as material evaluation, spoken discourse, and communicative competence through another database of dissertations and theses, called Proquest, it was evidenced that in many theses, specific checklists for material evaluation that are commonly accepted in ELT background were used, which is good. However, the use of the well-established checklists directly with minor adaptations, though confirming reliability and validity, seemed to lack creativity. Likewise, the use of the two questionnaires, one for students and one for teachers, was not quite common in that in many of the theses either was preferred.

Further, the administration of the survey in different schools, localities, and provinces with a high number of students ought to be underlined here as this made it possible to compare the assessments of the participants with different backgrounds against the criteria in the framework and the statements in the questionnaire.

The use of a discourse competence test, DCT henceforth, was another point worth mentioning because this kind of a tool was not common in studies the research questions of which were alike. Leary (2001) explains that "although they often locate existing measures for their research, researchers sometimes must design measures 'from scratch' either because appropriate measures do not exist or because they believe that the existing measures will not adequately serve their research purpose" (p. 92). Similarly for this survey the DCT was developed, the main purpose of which was to arouse awareness in the participants' cognitions towards mechanisms for

discourse competence, such as authenticity, politeness, style and register, substitution, turn taking, and cohesion (each feature corresponding to one item in the test).

All in all, qualitative instruments used in this study helped assess comprehensively the data collected and analyzed quantitatively.

CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

Sound and comprehensive framework of the arguments of the thesis drew on a survey of literature in the Applied Linguistics, which follows.

2.1. LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION

2.1.1. Key Points

At the time of the writing, how human language processing, be it first, second or foreign, takes place had not been explained exactly. Much interdisciplinary research has contributed to our existing knowledge, albeit rendering more questions than answers. As Willis and Willis (2007) argue "there is still no consensus on how we learn languages, but there is a growing consensus on how we do *not* learn" (p. 30).

Language is one of the most valuable heritage of the humankind, though in different streams, and presumably the most interactive. Being the basis of all the knowledge accumulated till and since the history was made known, languages have appeared in various forms and subsumed similar or even conflicting theories and grammars that came out of them. This being said, it is needed to mention that whatever the forms or theoretical base of languages, they have owed their very existence to the need of conveying information with the utmost aim of interacting ably.

With the perception that education should be sequenced and ranked for learners to utilize from the spirit of organization and order, increasing emphasis was started to be given in formal schooling. So, learning a foreign language gained itself a place among the well-known fields of inquiry such as logic, mathematics, or positive sciences. Globalization that was popular in the last decades of the previous century and the newer term *glocalization*, in its heydays now, have resulted in the need to expand the scope of communication in using another language. Hence the idea that "helping learners to participate in meaningful communication in which they are using

language to achieve intended outcomes is essential for the development of communicative competence" (Tomlinson, 2008, p. 5) became quite prevalent.

2.1.2. Communicative Competence

Being the underlying principle of several methods in ELT, communicative competence is still popular a phrase despite its first being publicized in the 1970s by Hymes. Hymes (1972, as cited in Brown, 2000 p. 246) defined communicative competence "as that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts." In Tomlinson's (2013) view communicative competence entails "acquiring both sociolinguistic and linguistic knowledge and skills or in other words developing the ability to use the language fluently, accurately, appropriately and effectively" (p. x).

Widdowson (2008) argues that "communicative abilities embrace linguistic skills but not the reverse" (p. 67). In a similar vein, Stern (1991) indicates "communicative competence suggests that language teaching recognizes a social, interpersonal, and cultural dimension and attributes to it just as much importance as to the grammatical or phonological aspect" (p. 229). The trend in the last decades may be stemming from the fact that there seems to be a satisfaction of the rules of the language and that there was a need for more flexible ways that are useful while interacting. Canale and Swain (1980) developed the concept of "communicative competence" and next is their categorization, though this study did not follow it strictly as a theoretical base.

2.2.1.1. Grammatical Competence

Grammatical competence pertains to the accuracy in forming sentences. Though for decades it was emphasized to the detriment of other competencies, in recent years it has been overlooked to the extent that many began to regard it as inferior to communicative skills. However, without the knowledge of the bonds between the constituents of the language, communication may not be sustained and internalized. Also this type of competence does not only subsume the knowledge of "sentence-

grammar semantics" but also "lexical items and of rules of morphology, syntax, and phonology" (Canale & Swain, 1980).

Accordingly, Nation and Macalister (2010) state that, "to gain a balanced coverage of the formal features of the language it is necessary to make use of language across a representative range of discourse types" (p. 57). It can be inferred from this idea that great range in the contexts of language use or usage is very important because different discourse types would need different forms of language. This makes the point that language is not bound to a certain form or function but displays variation. Therefore, "in order to meet the full range of language features, learners need to be exposed to a range of discourse types" (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 16).

2.2.1.2. Discourse Competence

One of the core concepts of this thesis study was discourse competence which is the "selection and sequencing of utterances or sentences to achieve a cohesive and coherent spoken or written text given a particular purpose and situational context" (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 17). Unlike the formal usage of the language, its functional or discoursal use is quite flexible. For instance, if someone says "I don't feel well", this declares that his health is not good then. But the same sentence can also be interpreted as a request for a painkiller in a different context.

Awareness towards such relations between structure and meaning requires having a command of both linguistic knowledge and pragmatic evaluation which yields comprehending the discourse. Celce-Murcia and Olshtain (2000, p. 16) assert that "it is in discourse and through discourse that all of the other competencies are realized." In a similar vein, Nunan (1999, p. 130) indicates that "it is not at the level of grammar or vocabulary that communication breaks down, but at a discoursal/functional level".

2.2.1.3. Sociolinguistic Competence

Though not appreciated for a very long time it is a real fortunate shift that "by basing themselves on speech act theory and the analysis of discourse and by introducing perspectives of sociolinguistics generally, theorists since the last decade have attempted to come closer to the reality of language use" (Stern, 1991, p. 259). In discussing the essential components of sociolinguistic competence, Savignon (1983, as cited in Brown, 2000) explains:

> Sociolinguistic competence requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used: the roles of the participants, the information they share, and the function of the interaction. Only in a full context of this kind can judgements be made on the appropriateness of a particular utterance. (p. 247)

Knowing what kind or style of a language to use in what situation, in other words style or register awareness, actually does not only pertain to SLA (Second Language Acquisition). Rather, it is a transferrable skill from L1. Almost every speaker learns consciously or unconsciously what leads to successful communication in his native language. Thus, sociolinguistic saliency could be provided by underlying the similarities in linguistic and cultural aspects of L1 and L2. For example, responding someone with whom we are acquainted is not the same as responding another person we have met just for once. As students already know such differences at least to some extent, some conscious-raising activities with an emphasis on appropriacy can bear good results in relation to the roles they should conform to in different settings. Thus, in SLA there may be a need with varying degrees for explicit instruction to implement such skills.

2.2.1.4. Strategic Competence

It is not a rare occasion that strategic competence is prioritized in language teaching or learning in the sense that it can compensate what is missing while building interpersonal relationships. Without it, grammatical or lexical incompetencies can be perceived as barriers to communication so that learners can be discouraged and conditioned negatively for later times. It is for this reason that strategic competence

"aims to build discourse competence while allowing communicative ability to develop parallel to the other components" (Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 13). McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013) claim that "through strategy instruction, teachers can help learners discover how to identify strategies that meet task demands and that relate to learners' styles. In doing so, teachers can become catalysts in the growth of culturally appropriate patterns of learner autonomy" (p. 263). That's why, in the questionnaire for EFL learners used in this study, statements in relation to strategic competence in speaking were incorporated into two sections: macro skills and learner autonomy.

Contrariwise, too much dependence on strategic competence may have a counter effect on learners. That is, learners can realize that without much vocabulary or incompetent grammar they can still be conveying their messages. However, this realization can turn into a belief that language at a survival level can suffice and so communicative competence can be concentrated upon redundantly at the expense of the linguistic competence. The result may be the repetition of some mistakes and lack of knowledge and confidence in tasks or situations that require higher skills other than strategic ones. Willis and Willis (2007) recommend that such students "be encouraged to think harder about the forms they are using, or their errors may simply fossilize" adding that "unless challenged, they will continue to get by on what they know, and avoid language they perceive as 'difficult' " (p. 167).

Taking into consideration all types of competence necessary for communication, Trappes-Lomax (2004) pays attention to the strategic one and concludes that:

> Hymes' concept of communicative competence has been appropriated for
> language teaching purposes in a series of evolutionary reformulations (Canale
> & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Bachman, 1990) so as to include grammatical,
> pragmatic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competences, all of which
> are in effect discourse competences, since they account for the ability of
> members of speech communities to put language to use. (p. 152)

2.2. LANGUAGE AND METHODOLOGY

Textbooks are often written within a framework of a certain approach or method and this results in the promotion of specific techniques in the classroom. Hence, a quick glance to methods in ELT was deemed necessary, if not critical for the overall study.

2.2.1. Methods in Teaching Language Skills

Language teaching and learning was dealt with from a structural or innatist point of view for decades but as communication through the use of materials came to the front, new ideas emerging from communicative needs became popular. Putting tasks at its core, Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), for example, gives priority to meaning-based language studies. In TBLT, a task refers to "classroom work which requires the learners to engage in the negotiation of meaning, and thereby make the language input that they receive comprehensible and thus suitable for acquisition" (Littlejohn, 2013, p. 188).

The terminology of this thesis research followed the school of thought that sees even a "simple and brief exercise as a task" (Breen, 1987, p. 26). The reason is that from a mechanical drill that is form-focused to a problem-solving challenge, any kind of pedagogic tool can be helpful if there is involvement, and motivation. As Thornbury (2006, p. 64) rightly claims, "drilling - that is imitating and repeating words, phrases, and even whole utterances - may in fact be a useful *noticing* technique, since it draws attention to material that learners might not otherwise have registered".

Research has shown that condensing all individual differences and multiple intelligences into one way of learning and presenting it as if it were a remedy for all language-bound problems is far from logical support. Based on one of her studies in New Zealand, Griffiths (2012) argues that:

> Good language learners use a wide variety of learning methods, rather than keeping rigidly to a single method, the implication would seem to be that teachers need to look for methods which best suit the needs of their particular learners in a given situation. (p. 263)

Supporting Griffiths, Willis and Willis (2007) contend that "the form will not become part of the learners' spontaneous repertoire until they have had to assimilate it" (p. 18). Actually, "it is not methods, but how they are used that is at issue" (Larsen-Freeman, 2003, p. xi). These ideas implicitly clarifies the reason why being autonomous is a critical asset for both teachers and learners.

2.2.2. Language Teachers' Role in Teaching Language Skills

It almost goes without saying that the practice of methods is realized by teachers and their crucial role in education can never be neglected. Widdowson (2008) seconds that "the language teacher is concerned with practical results, but his practice is based on theoretical notions, no matter how inexplicit they may be" adding that "language teaching is a theoretical as well as a practical occupation" (p. 163). To be able to find a balance may be a hard job but this is why most teachers are in the very lives of their students. Stating that "in many EFL contexts, English teachers may be the only ones who can provide input in the target language", McDonough et al. (2013) add that "teacher-fronted lessons may be a good way of providing the necessary meaningful exposure to language in use . . ." (pp. 234-235).

Between the two extremes, the classroom expectations and the demanding situations of authentic and correct use of language, students can easily be demotivated. In such a condition, a teacher can find ways to make them adjust to the novel concepts. As McDonough et al. (2013) state, "much of our work as language teachers involves encouraging and scaffolding learning which extends beyond the bounds of the physical classroom" (p. 101). Yet, it is equally important that language teachers should adapt themselves to the improvements having a pedagogical value. Işık (2011) discusses the role of coursebooks in teachers' development and claims that "providing teachers with well-prepared coursebooks, which determine the classroom applications and also serves teachers training indirectly, could be an efficient way of guiding teachers about implementing novelties in the field." In the same vein, as to the importance of the textbook, Williams (1983) concludes that "the teacher must know not only how to use it *(the textbook)*, but how useful it can be. Finding out will

involve distinguishing between method in the use of printed materials, and method in face-to-face teaching."

Impact of teachers on students are indeed universal, albeit differences in style. Among the core principles of teaching according to Bailey (1996, as cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 251), which can be useful for particularly teaching speaking skills, include "engaging all the learners in the lesson, being tolerant of learners' mistakes, using a maximum amount of student to student activities, promoting cooperation among learners, and practicing both accuracy and fluency". So, while teachers deal closely with learners' needs and presenting tasks and texts with authentic feel in them, the pedagogic burden on their shoulders is likely to increase. However, "to promote what would be slightly challenging to teachers yet would make a useful difference in teaching" (Arnold & Rixon, 2008, p. 51). In order for teachers' attempts to bear fruitful results on the part of their students, they need a kind of personalization of the teaching contexts, and materials, textbooks in particular.

2.3. MATERIAL EVALUATION

2.3.1. Key Points

Materials are the inherent part of the education besides students and teachers. They are the company of teachers in educational settings so that they bridge knowledge from teachers to students. As to the functions of materials, Tomlinson (2001) indicates that:

> Materials can be instructional in that they inform learners about the language, they can be experiential in that they provide exposure to the language in use, they can be elicitative in that they stimulate language use, or they can be exploratory in that they facilitate discoveries about language use. (p. 66)

Assessing the usefulness of a material is an integrative part of material development as without reflection on what is effective and what is not, better materials may not be created or former ones may not be redesigned to produce active learning. The

importance lies in the fact that "in many contexts, materials are often seen as being the core of a particular programme and are often the most visible representation of what happens in the classroom" (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 50).

Evaluations of coursebooks can be classified as "predictive" and "retrospective" (Ellis, 1997b) and unlike the former, the latter is conducted for those that have been used for some time. Having been evaluated, coursebooks may need some changes in relation to the relevance of the tasks and the texts in them. Four of the "mismatches", according to McDonough et al., (2013, p. 67), which can make the individualization of materials necessary follow:

> -Dialogues are too formal and not representative
> -Too much or too little variety in the activities
> -Listening passages are inauthentic, because they sound too much like written material being read out.
> -The communicative focus means that grammar is presented unsystematically.

As a methodology for material evaluation, it is quite common to pick specific texts in the coursebooks and compile them to be exposed to certain analyses for further evaluation and reflection, which was also the case in this thesis research. However, particularly coursebooks at a level prior to upper-intermediate may not seem to be appropriate for a detailed analysis. Yet, it is not an acceptable excuse in that in real life, communication takes place through speaking at every level regardless of the proficiency level of the speakers. Therefore, three different textbooks at A2 level according to the Framework by the Council of Europe (2001) were exposed to an in-depth evaluation in this study.

2.3.2. Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF): Learning, Teaching, Assessment

2.3.2.1. Major Goals of CEF

The Council of Europe (2001) produced and published a set of criteria for learning, teaching, and assessing language – Common European Framework of Reference for

Languages, or CEF. Since then, numerous researchers, practitioners, and policy makers framed or reframed their coursebook or classroom pedagogy according to it. "The taxonomic nature of the Framework inevitably means trying to handle the great complexity of human language by breaking language competence down into separate components" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 1). However the Council claim that they "have NOT set out to tell practitioners what to do, or how to do it" (from *notes for the user*).

According to "Common Reference Levels: global scale", learners at A2 level-that is the target group of this study-are included under the subgroup-Basic User/Waystage. These learners "can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters" (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 24). Such statements are called "can-do" statements and before the start of every unit or theme in the textbooks, there are "can do" statements that imply the learning outcomes.

2.3.2.2. Common Reference Levels: Qualitative Aspects of Spoken Language Use

This part in CEF incorporates five subsections: range, accuracy, fluency, interaction, and coherence. Based on these criteria a learner at A2 level can:

> -use basic sentence patterns with memorised phrases, groups of a few words and formulae in order to communicate limited information in simple everyday situations (range)
> -use some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes (accuracy)
> -make him/herself understood in very short utterances, even though pauses, false starts and reformulation are very evident (fluency)
> -answer questions and respond to simple statements; can indicate when he/she is following but is rarely able to understand enough to keep conversation going of his/her own accord (interaction)
> -link groups of words with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because' (coherence). (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 29)

Because an evaluation thoroughly based on CEF was not the central goal of this thesis research, not all criteria are included here, but some major ones:

2.3.2.3. Spoken Interaction

In relation to "informal discussion (with friends)", "transactions to obtain goods and services", and "formal discussion and meetings", all under the superordinate term *spoken interaction*, a learner at A2 level can (in the same order):

> -make and respond to suggestions; can agree and disagree with others
> -exchange relevant information and give his/her opinion on practical problems when asked directly, provided he/she receives some help with formulation and can ask for repetition of key points if necessary
> -ask about things and make simple transactions in shops, post offices or banks. (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 77-80)

2.3.2.4. Interaction Strategies

In relation to "taking the floor (turntaking)", "co-operating", and "asking for clarification", all under the superordinate term *interaction strategies,* a learner at A2 level can (in the same order):

> -ask for attention; can use simple techniques to start, maintain, or end a short conversation; can initiate, maintain and close simple, face to face conversation
> -indicate when he/she is following
> -say he/she didn't follow; can ask for clarification about key words or phrases not understood using stock phrases. (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 86-87)

2.3.2.5. Language Competences

According to CEF, the following three types of competences together make up communicative competence:

In relation to "linguistic competences", a learner at A2 level can:

> -have a sufficient vocabulary for coping with simple survival needs and for the expression of basic communicative needs
> -use some simple structures correctly, but still systematically makes basic mistakes – for example tends to mix up tenses and forget to mark agreement; nevertheless, it is usually clear what he/she is trying to say. (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 112-117)

Also at A2 level, "pronunciation is generally clear enough to be understood despite a noticeable foreign accent, but conversational partners will need to ask for repetition from time to time" (Council of Europe, 2001, p.117).

In relation to "sociolinguistic competences", a learner at A2 level can:

-socialize simply but effectively using the simplest common expressions and following basic routines (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 122).

In relation to "pragmatic competences", a learner at A2 level can:
-adapt well rehearsed memorised simple phrases to particular circumstances through limited lexical substitution
-ask for attention
-use the most frequently occurring connectors to link simple sentences in order to tell a story or describe something as a simple list of points. (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 124-125)

Though it is a very detailed and organized framework that can meet the initial need for consultancy for many teachers and material developers, CEF hasn't been excused from close scrutiny from linguists, which is good in terms of the development of ELT materials in general. Willis and Willis (2007) state that:

CEF is far from perfect: it is often very difficult to interpret; and we take issue with it on some basic questions, and find it over-elaborate in a number of ways. It does, however, provide a useful starting point to illustrate the principles of syllabus specification. (p. 181)

2.4. ELT TEXTBOOKS

Textbooks or coursebooks are written so that they contribute to the building up of knowledge by learners in settings with or without a teacher. They usually contain language skills, reading, writing, listening, speaking as well as grammar and vocabulary. Though it is not a rule for every textbook, some also include strategies for language learning or exam preparation and direct students when they need help both explicitly and implicitly. However, "many think that there is a mismatch between some of the pedagogic procedures of current textbooks and what second language acquisition researchers have discovered about the process of learning a second or foreign language" (Tomlinson, 2013, p. 357). As to the role of coursebooks, Cunningsworth (1995) explains and then cautions us about a pitfall of using a textbook as if it were a *holy* book:

Coursebooks are best seen as a resource in achieving aims and objectives that have already been set in terms of learner needs. They should not determine the aims themselves or become the aims. We are primarily teaching the language and not the textbook. (p. 7)

Though textbooks are usually attached much significance, the relation of learners and teachers with them is not the same everywhere. "In practice, given the widely differing circumstances prevailing in the world of English language teaching, the roles of coursebooks in the learning/teaching process can vary considerably, reflecting the nature of the partnership between the teacher and the coursebook" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 9). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) go one step further and claim that "good materials do not teach: they encourage learners to learn" (p. 107).

As learning a language is a laborious process, it is quite normal to expect from textbooks to cater to the minimum standards set by theoreticians and practitioners. However, this is not realistic because as there is no one type of learner, there probably cannot be one type of ideal textbook. According to Cunningsworth (1995) "what we can expect is a sound general coverage and a reasonable balance" (p. 20).

Adapting is an essential key in language teaching textbooks in the sense that language teachers may not author a whole book that is ideal in their minds but they can incorporate what is ideal according to themselves into the tasks and texts of the coursebook. Tomlinson and Masuhara (as cited in McDonough et al., 2013, p. 64) point out that "adapting materials can not only contribute to the learners' learning but also the teachers' enjoyment of teaching." For example a teacher may find that there is too much repetition in the coursebook which makes students detract their attention from the classes. At this point, making the input more challenging (i+1) (Krashen, 1985) could be a solution. Conversely, there may be too many new words in a decontextualized context which can bear the same result in students' views on textbooks. Similarly, the teacher can try to tailor the relevant parts to the very needs of the students and simplify them (i-1) (Day & Bamford, as cited in Maley, 2008, p. 144). As a compromise, Cunningsworth (1995) suggests that "concerning the usefulness and relevance to the learner of the language being taught, we need to look in more detail at the language items included, their balance and organization and whether aspects such as discourse structure and style are taken on board" (p. 20). It is

a need to add here that all these recommendations based on abstract theories can turn into concrete practices by teachers' adopting an autonomous style in language teaching, in and outside the class.

Coursebooks vary in content according to the target learners for which they have been written. Probably the type of coursebooks most commonly used is global or international ones. Tomlinson (2013) defines a global coursebook as one "which is not written for learners from a particular culture or country but which is intended for use by any class of learners in the specified level and age group anywhere in the world" (p. xii). On the other hand, Barrios and Debat (2006, as cited in Barrios, Debat, & Tavella, 2008) explain that "local coursebooks are those specifically produced for a country or region and draw on a national curriculum and on the learners' experiences by including references to local personalities, places, etc." (p. 300). Bacha, Ghosn, and McBeath (2008, p. 298) find a balanced way between the global or international coursebooks, and the local ones and point to the "materials that combine the best elements of global coursebooks with local needs and expectations, with a clear view on the function of the English language for learners in the real world outside the classroom". These are what are called localized textbooks which claim to adopt the principle of glocalization, combining global topics with local values.

2.4.1. Textbooks and Authenticity-Artificiality Paradigm

According to Rost (2006), "authenticity refers to the degree to which a text is a legitimate sample of the way the language is actually used" (p. 51). With an ever increasing need to contact and communicate by means of the spread of instant communication technology, the significance of natural spoken discourse increased and corpus studies have found a way into the classroom settings in time. O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter (2007) recommend the use of "naturally-occurring, corpus-based examples" in learning and teaching environments but still emphasize "the context of freedom of choice and careful mediation by teachers" (p. 27).

Cunningsworth (1995) points to a fact that "examples of spoken English, whether for dialogue work or listening, should be reasonably representative of natural spoken English, although again some simplification is expected" (p. 46). The issue of simplification is essential for most of the pedagogic environments because *very* authentic materials can have a demotivating effect especially on the beginners. Widdowson (2008) highlights a truth that is still true in many situations and says "sometimes reading passages are cast in the form of dialogue but the dialogue is so obviously a device for displaying usage that they bear little resemblance to actual talking" (p. 78). As for the features that this kind of materials have, Widdowson indicates by emphasizing the difference; "to the extent that they exhibit cohesion we might say that they are texts, but they are deficient as discourses to the extent that they lack the implication of actual use" (p. 78). Carter, Hughes and McCarthy (2013) point to the difference between a scripted text and an authentic one but caution that "the unscripted text is real English but more difficult to comprehend and to produce, and therefore likely to be considered less appropriate pedagogically" (p. 80).

Cunningsworth (1995) makes a distinction between *authentic material* and *authentic content* indicating that "for the use of authentic content which is using real facts and information instead of made-up content language may be itself authentic, semi-authentic (simplified) or specially written, depending on the level" (p.141). This view could be a way for softening the edges of the paradigm of absolute artificiality and authenticity. Yet authenticity is not always in harmony with pedagogic benefits on the part of both learners and teachers. It is a well-known fact that "many low-level learners are traumatised when first exposed to authentic samples of language" (Nunan, 1989, p. 138). Besides, not being aware of the meaning of the real-time expressions can cause failure or at least mismatches in conversations. Nunan (1999, p. 129) gives examples for such "pragmatic failures":

Context: At the end of a shift in a factory
Native speaker: See you later.   **Non-native speaker**: What time.   **Native speaker:** What do you mean?

The mismatch displayed above does not seem to result from a syntactic deficiency but lack of a contextual awareness that should be integrated in the instruction of authentic materials. Conversely, it cannot always be claimed that tasks or texts that are not authentic and regarded as artificial or scripted are not pedagogic. The solution may be in the suggestion by Coulthard (2002) who says "in working on the non-authentic we should gain more insight into how the authentic is structured" (p. 253).

"As a compromise, scripted conversations could attempt to take into account, and to incorporate, features of naturally-occurring spoken language without sacrificing their pedagogic utility" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 44). An authentic, scripted, and semi-authentic versions of a dialogue from Thornbury (2006) are given in Appendix 7. The first is "from J Coates' book *Men Tals* is unscripted and spontaneous" (Thornbury, p. 43). The second is "how it might appear in a coursebook". And the last example is the "reworked version" of the same conversion (Thornbury, p. 44). Examples ensure that reconciliation is possible with some extra effort.

Further, the sociocultural aspects of language embedded in the use of authentic materials are within the scope of language users whether consciously or not. According to Kramsch (1998), the term *authenticity* and appropriateness are open to dispute because of "the undesirability of imposing on learners a concept of authenticity that might devalue their own authentic selves *as learners*" (p. 81). Kramsch, therefore suggests adopting the term "appropriation" instead of "cultural appropriateness" in the sense that by means of the former "learners make a foreign language and culture their own by adopting and adapting it to their own needs and interests" (p. 81).

In discussing the concept of authenticity in the EFL textbooks, Alptekin (1993) claims that "even if textbook writers make serious efforts to eliminate stereotyping by striving for authenticity in the construction of teaching materials, it should not be forgotten that such efforts, in the final analysis, are normally based upon a selection process which is bound to be, at least, partially subjective." Related to the issue Sheldon (1988) contends that "publishers sometimes neglect matters of cultural appropriacy. This can be evident in the tasks in the coursebooks that are mostly claimed to prompt output by aiming to make students active participants." In this thesis, the study, through the modular-evaluative framework to evaluate the textbooks, MEF henceforth, concentrated upon how much attention was paid to the variety of the sociocultural relations, and to whether sensitive or face-threatening acts or manners were avoided by the materials writers. The conversational texts were examined whether there was explicit or implicit references to sociocultural bias, or sociolinguistic inappropriacy. The study confirmed what Alptekin (2002) claims: "a new notion of communicative competence is needed, one which recognizes English as a world language."

2.4.2. Tasks as Teaching and Learning Tools

It almost goes without saying that, tasks have been in vogue for several decades probably because they are practical tools for merging competence and performance. In other words if there is a deficiency in the knowledge of the learner, his or her performance in the task may reveal it. This may be a signal for the teacher to realize the fact that the input that has been sent has not been internalized yet. This may allow for constructive feedback or recast from the teacher and repair from the student. With conscious attention, "learners become aware of a gap between a particular feature of their interlanguage (i.e. how they currently understand or use it) and the equivalent feature in the target language" (Tomlinson, 2013, p. 15). If a learner becomes aware of the gap between what he is presented in terms of language use and what he can produce out of it, then his realization can serve as "acquisition facilitator" (Seliger, 1979, as cited in Tomlinson, 2013, p. 15).

According to Nunan (1989), tasks have a function "in terms of what the learner will do in the classroom rather than in the outside world" and he classifies them as "pedagogic tasks and real-world tasks" (p. 6). For example, a task that requires students to prepare a weekly schedule for themselves is a real-world task, however, answering the questions based on a given schedule of "Mr. Brown" or "Mrs. Brown" or "John" or "Jane" is a pedagogic task. In this study, speaking tasks were examined in the light of the ideas discussed above and more systematically under the following titles.

2.4.2.1. Task Type

Repetitive formats may give the feeling of security to the learners and it can be a necessity in the initial phase of language development. Yet, if the same formats are used continuously in task writing, then learners may not feel themselves forced to produce language. In real life, as well, speakers do not always "ask and answer" in a predetermined way. Variety in daily exchanges is important for the quality of the communication, deficiency of which can limit the learners' operational competence. Hence, "a balance needs to be found between security and challenge" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 73). After having conducted a survey on ELT materials, Bacha et al., (2008, p. 286) concluded that the "'listen and say' or 'ask and answer' activities are achievable but such activities do not challenge the learners to negotiate meaning or engage them affectively or cognitively." Whereas it is quite normal that as textbooks follow a theme or topic-based syllabus, a regular and safe format, it is also essential that there should be some unpredictability which is a feature of most interactional dialogues. To add more to the point, Tomlinson (2013) states that "materials can achieve impact through variety (e.g. breaking up the monotony of a unit routine with an unexpected activity) . . ." (p. 8).

2.4.2.2. Functional Category

Conversations can take place in formal or informal settings and so we accommodate our speech according to who we are speaking to and in what context. The reason is that "different types of talk produce different types of language" (Carter &

McCarthy, 1997, p. 8). Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams (2011) underline the difference between informal and formal styles but state even in the former case there is a need for structural knowledge to some extent. They explain:

> Informal styles, although permitting certain abbreviations and deletions not permitted in formal speech, are also rule-governed. . . . One can ask *Running the marathon?* or *You running the marathon?* instead of the more formal *Are you running the marathon?* but you cannot shorten the question to **Are running the marathon?* Informal talk is not anarchy." (p. 469)

With respect to different functions of language, where and for what purpose it is used, Nunan (1999) mentions two forms and says "transactional talk is reduced in order to get something done" and "interactional language is produced for social purposes" (p. 228). Highlighting a very important distinction between these two types of exchange, Brown (2004) indicates that "in interpersonal exchanges, oral production can become pragmatically complex with the need to speak in a casual register and use colloquial language, ellipsis, slang, humor, and other sociolinguistic conventions" (p. 142). Yet, the distinction is not clear cut; interpersonal relations in real life situations are not limited only to interactional or transactional ones. Oftentimes, such give-and-take type dialogues contain some warm-up statements or dialogue initiators, and a chat with a friend in the lunch break can turn into a discussion on workplace issues. Cunningsworth (1995) argues that:

> The structure of interactions of a transactional nature has been shown to be rather more complex than coursebooks would lead us to believe. For example, simple question-and-answer sequences, which are commonplace in coursebooks, rarely take place in reality. Even straightforward transactional interactions include openers, pre-closers, hesitations and insertion sequences which are rarely found in coursebook "dialogues". (p. 118)

By the same token, as regards interactional and transactional dialogues, McCarthy (1991) adds that "it is no doubt that some teaching materials are imbalanced between the two types of talk" (p. 137). Nunan (1999) gives two examples for both types (p. 228) for which the line between is "often blurred" (p. 137).

Transactional Language	Interactional Language
Store attendant: *Morning.* **Customer:** *Morning.* **Store attendant:** *Nice day.* **Customer:** *Uh-huh. Can you give me two of those?* **Store attendant:** *Sure.* **Customer:** *Thanks.*	**Father:** *Morning, Darling.* **Daughter:** *Morning.* **Father:** *Sleep well?* **Daughter:** *Uh-uh. The thunder woke me up.* **Father:** *Loud, wasn't it. And the lightening . . . . What are you doing?* **Daughter:** *I'm going to finish watching that . . .* **Father:** *Well, don't have it too loud. Jenny's still asleep.*

Further, context and function are closely interconnected. "It is only in context that speakers are able to recognize whether, for example, an utterance of 'I'm sorry' is to be taken as an expression of apology, regret, condolence, or sarcastic defiance" (Trappes-Lomax, 2004, p. 145).

2.4.2.3. Conversation Type

In relation to how spoken language is taught, whether through short turns or long, it is important that learners should be exposed to both. Brown and Yule (1983) caution that "the concern with teaching short turns arises fairly naturally from the traditional view in language teaching, which was that the only structure the student was required to master was the sentence" (p. 20). This, in turn, can cause an incompetence and a sense of dissatisfaction when a learner who may need to express his thoughts and feelings in a rather detailed way cannot express himself adequately. Apart from short exchanges between two speakers which is very common in textbooks, there is also a need for learners to be exposed to long turns with more interlocutors. Thornbury (2006) argues that "an important factor that determines the structure of a genre is whether it is interactive or noninteractive. For example, multiparty speech, as in a shopping exchange or casual conversation between friends, is jointly constructed and interactive" (p. 14).

To increase the pedagogical utility of such dialogues, Mol and Tin (2008) suggest that "instead of using a series of short unrelated tasks, a longer, more integrated task

would encourage learners to engage with the tasks and texts" (p. 83). Another suggestion could be that a whole dialogue with an interesting topic could be given in two, three or maybe more parts in different units so that a sense of wonder or suspension may occur. Before reading the original one, students can be required to come up with the ideas for topic continuity. This can make learning process more contextualized thus more engaging. Bacha et al., (2008, p. 286) indicate "captivating storylines can be realized even with relatively simple, yet not contrived language" adding that "language practice activities could then be derived from stories rather than presented in contrived interpersonal dialogues." Willis and Willis (2007) conclude that "good storytelling contributes to everyone's enjoyment and generally enhances our social experience. The same is true in the classroom" (p. 105).

In countries where the curricula are grammar-driven, and are heavily loaded with explicit instructions, more practice supported by pedagogic teaching is needed. This being the case, the more comprehensive a textbook the faster a learner can compensate the lack of varied exposure, which is a necessity to use the language ably.

2.4.2.4. Response Type

In classroom practices, speaking tasks can require students to work on their own, collaborate with a peer or promote group spirit with several peers or sometimes the whole class. McDonough et al. (2013) argue that "group/pair work enables learners of different levels and learning styles to share and pool their resources (e.g. linguistic knowledge, world or subject knowledge, strategies) in a similar and informal environment" (p. 231). However, in real life we may have to do or complete a task on our own without the direct support of anyone. Therefore, although leading learners to cooperate in learning and to share the responsibility of a task is important, it does not mean that no individual study should be required.

It is often the teachers that are the speech partners of the learners. In this respect, it should be recalled that "the teacher's primary responsibility is response-ability"

(Lewis, 1999, p. 188). To this end, conscious-raising tasks can be implemented in the syllabus so that learners could notice the flow of a conversation can mostly be achieved and maintained by the sense of "joint responsibility" (Lewis, p. 158).

2.4.2.5. Integrative Aspect

Integrated approach refers to "the teaching of the language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking in conjunction with each other" (Richards & Schmidt, 2010, p. 288). Nunan (1989) explains that "in real life as in the classroom, most tasks of any complexity involve more than one macroskill" (p. 22). Therefore, integrated tasks should be included in textbooks. The rationale is that "one cannot hope to appreciate the complexity of the learning situation by studying one limited part of it" (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 110).

From a psycholinguistic point of view, the more cognitive load of a task is the more engagement of the task doer is required. "Even though the classroom is clearly not the same as 'real' life, it could be argued that part of its function is to recreate it" (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 202). For this very reason, it can be beneficial for the learners if they are exposed to activities that require the use of multi-skills. Oxford (2001) explains that "the integrated-skills approach, as contrasted with the purely segregated approach, exposes English language learners to authentic language and challenges them to interact naturally in the language." Thornbury (2006) adds that "in fact, very few speech events in the real world exist independently of other language skills" (p. 118). This is why, relative importance given to skills should be balanced so that learners are not oriented towards mechanical use of language.

One more point is that apart from combined version of language skills, micro and macro skills should also be taken into account. That is, simultaneous use of both micro skills, related more to structure and vocabulary, and macro skills, related more to communicative competence, can render fluency if practiced regularly. For example, the instruction of vowels and consonants at segmental level should not be totally detached from their role in intonation as a suprasegmental feature.

2.5. SPOKEN LANGUAGE

It is not uncommon that though used more than written language, spoken language and its forms as part of grammar have been neglected for some time. According to Sinclair (1991), "there is no substitute of impromptu speech" and "many language scholars and teachers believe that the spoken form of the language is a better guide to the fundamental organization of the language than the written form . . ." (p. 17). However, " 'speaking' in traditional methodologies usually meant repeating after the teacher, memorizing a dialogue, or responding to drills, all of which reflect the sentence-based view of proficiency . . ." (Richards, 2008, p. 2). Therefore, for the language whose authentic aspect is denied, Widdowson (2008) says "it is not discourse: it is language put on display" (p. 53). Also, it is a general tendency to believe that learning grammar rules will yield speaking after some time." Thornbury (2006) reacts to this expectation: "You learn the grammar and you learn some vocabulary and you make sentences which you pronounce properly, and hey presto, you can speak! This is reflected in generations of books on how to vocalize grammar" (p. iv). Yet, "the emergence of communicative language teaching in the 1980s led to changed views of syllabuses and methodology" (Richards, 2008, p. 2).

In time, "the key role of the speaking skill in developing learners' communicative competence has also become evident, since this skill requires learners to be in possession of knowledge about how to produce not only linguistically correct but also pragmatically appropriate utterances", (Martínez-Flor, Usó-Juan, & Soler, 2006, p. 140). According to Thornbury (2006) "pragmatic knowledge is knowing how to do things with language, taking into account its contexts of use" (p. 16). An example can be given from Kramsch (1998):

> Americans have been socialized into responding 'Thank you' to any compliment, as if they were acknowledging a friendly gift: 'I like your sweater!'—'Oh, thank you!' The French, who tend to perceive such a compliment as an intrusion into their privacy, would rather downplay the compliment and minimize its value: 'Oh really? It's already quite old!' (p. 7)

The example points to a reality that the choice of appropriate words and the way they are uttered need the realization of the immediate context and therefore pragmatic competence.

In many EFL contexts, speaking is neglected to the point where students, despite many hours of English, cannot utter more than basic exchanges nor do they understand more complex speeches. Brown and Yule (1983) describe the situation:

> They are being asked to treat the spoken language as if it were written language; they are being asked to ignore the differences in form and function between interactional and transactional language, and not to treat all spoken language as if it were primarily intended for the transference of facts. (p. 60)

It is quite common that though students can have a certain degree of structural knowledge, they cannot always put them in use. What is more dramatic is that there is a tendency to see spoken and written language as two separate entities. However, an academic discussion, for example may have much in common with the written language due mainly to the terminology used. On the other hand, a correspondence through e-mails between two or more friends may contain daily expressions, or colloquial language. Therefore, students in EFL contexts can be instructed by means of more conscious-raising activities so that different contexts in which different styles of English are used accordingly become salient. For this aim, it is frequently suggested that discourse markers or "conversational intentions" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 9) such as *by the way*, *you know*, or *anyway* should be taught to language learners so that they can feel more relaxed in keeping the speech smooth. And this kind of a reorientation in language teaching can best be realized by means of the textbooks as they are one of the most commonly used materials worldwide.

2.5.1. Micro and Macro Skills of Speaking

For the perceptions of the learners in relation to language skills, speaking is perhaps one step beyond in that "people may often form judgements about our language competence from our speaking rather than from any of the other language skills" (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 156). Bygate (1987) handles the issue of speaking skills

by dividing them into two categories: "motor-receptive skills, and social and interactional skills." The former subsumes "linguistic elements such as pronunciation, vocabulary, and chunks", and the latter "speaking effectively in different communicative contexts" (Bygate, pp. 5-6). McDonough et al., (2013) assert that "although the motor-receptive elements of speaking skills are obviously important, the area of communicative interaction in particular has nourished an approach to the teaching skills in a communicative way" (p. 159).

According to Brown (2004), "micro skills refer to producing the smaller chunks of language such as phonemes, morphemes, words, collocations, and phrasal units", but macro skills "to the larger elements: fluency, discourse, function, style, cohesion, nonverbal communication, and strategic options" (p. 142). To go more in detail, some of the distinctive features of "successful oral communication", according to Nunan (1989, p. 32) follow:

> -the ability to articulate phonological features of the language comprehensibly
> -an acceptable degree of fluency
> -skills in taking short and long speaking turns
> -skills in the management of interaction
> -skills in negotiating meaning
> -conversational listening skills (successful conversations require good listeners as well as good speakers)
> -using appropriate conversational formulae and fillers

The framework above shows that a communicative spoken act needs investment and attention on what is above pure linguistic patterns. Therefore, the value of the range of different contexts should be born in mind for promoting speaking skills, which was also sought for in this study.

2.5.2. Assessment of Speaking Skills

When speaking skills are to be assessed, micro skills are given priority in many educational settings. However, an emphasis on macro skills should not be ignored. Instead of focusing on only one dimension of speaking skills, combining it with others can be to the benefit of the learners. The benefit is that "a test of speaking is

more reliable if the speaker is assessed on several speaking tasks and on several sub-skills of speaking rather than on one" (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 167).

Harmer (1998) gives samples of assessment items in different forms. The following (p. 152) is a good example of a question that requires attention on language functions, namely style and register. Also students are required to do writing, which is a practical way of assessing how much learners can be successful in integrated skills.

Record an informal conversation between (yourself and) friends in English. Transcribe some of what you hear on the tape and then complete these tasks.
a) Take any two lines of transcription and write them out in formal written English.
b) Study the transcription. What words are missed out in conversational English?

2.5.3. Washback Effect of the Instruction of Speaking Skills

It is not an exceptional situation that in teaching and learning environments, "what is assessed becomes what is valued, which becomes what is taught" (McEwen, 1995, p. 42). This impact of education on those involved in it can be beneficial and harmful and called washback or backwash effect.

Sheldon (1988) discusses the perceptions about "teacher-generated materials" and "published textbooks", implying to the fact that "public endorsement" is in favor of the latter one:

> Quite, simply, it would seem that coursebooks exert a kind of 'backwash' effect. This is particularly true where their form and content is restricted because programmes are linked to an English Language qualification, probably the most common ELT situation worldwide.

Furthermore, textbooks can bear harmful washback effect indirectly by not balancing teaching English for its own sake and for exams, particularly in exam-driven educational systems. Not surprisingly, students have a tendency to study what will be assessed through formal exams or performance projects in the classroom. This can reach to such a level that they may end up studying what is not asked in the exams.

Hughes (2003, p. 53) points to another tendency and says that "there is a tendency to test what is easiest to test rather than what is most important to test", which is why the weight of speaking skills in testing and assessment is not in accordance with their weight in communicative acts. Nation and Newton (2009, p. 169) describe a situation which is frequently experienced in EFL environments:

> Many schools do not test learners' oral proficiency in English. As a result much classroom time is spent on the skills like reading and listening that are tested and very little time is spent on practicing speaking because it is not in the test. (p. 169)

According to Thornbury (2006), "the kind of situations in which the textbook and lesson plan conspire against the development of an authentically communicative classroom culture, is often exacerbated by the nature of many tests and examinations" (p. 124). To counter this overreliance on exam content to the benefit of students, Brown and Yule (1983) recommend that "if spoken language production is considered a necessary part of the teaching syllabus, then its assessment should be taken seriously" (p. 106). To alleviate the density of washback effect resulting from the lack of the assessment of speaking skills, "the effect of an oral component in the final examination can be a powerful incentive to 'do more speaking' in class" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 125). Ur (1991) seconds that "oral testing is worth the investment: not so much for the sake of the overall validity of the proficiency test of which it is part, as for the sake of the backwash" (p. 135) and gives an example:

> Some years ago an oral component was introduced into the Israeli school-leaving exam, with a 20% weighting in the final grade; the immediate effect was a very noticeable rise in the emphasis on oral work in school classrooms and a corresponding improvement in learners' speaking skills. (p. 135)

Brown (2004) concludes that "with some creativity and effort, we can transform otherwise inauthentic and negative-washback-producing tests into more pedagogically fulfilling learning experiences" (pp. 253-254). As washback effect is not deniable in pedagogical settings, a special care was given to detect its traces, if any, through some self-report statements in the survey in this study.

2.6. TEXT, DISCOURSE AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

"Text refers to any passage, spoken or written, of whatever length, that does form a unified whole" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 2). McCarthy (1991, p. 7) explains that "discourse analysis has grown into a wide-ranging and heterogeneous discipline which finds its unity in the description of language above the sentence and an interest in the contexts and cultural influences which affect language in use."

On the other hand, Brown and Yule (1983) attach importance to "context" to be able to interpret the "speaker's intended meaning". Therefore, they identify discourse as the "text interpreted in context" (p. 57). To go more in detail, discourse analysis (DA) subsumes identification of the core aspects of communication without which sentences are just loose combination of words. These core aspects include "how pairs of utterances relate to one another (the study of adjacency pairs), how turn-taking is managed, how topics enter and disappear from conversation, and how speakers engage in strategic acts of politeness …" (McCarthy, 1991, p. 24). Besides, Halliday and Hasan (1976) explain the importance of seeing language as a whole, making the point that it is complete with its explicit and also implicit ties together:

> Language does not function in isolation; it functions as TEXT, in actual situations of use. There is always a great deal more evidence available to the hearer for interpreting a sentence than is contained in the sentence itself. (p. 142)

When meaning is absorbed by syntactic features, it is semantics but when it gains interpersonal and contextual feel, it is pragmatics which is fed by factors like cohesion and coherence. Lewis (1999) defines cohesion and coherence by comparing them:

> Cohesion is the grammatical linking of one part of a text to another and is one of the factors which makes a text something more than a sequence of sentences. However in a coherent text the conversation 'hangs together' without direct grammatical links. (p. 15)

Lewis (1999) gives the following two examples explaining that the former is cohesive in that "*I can't* is linked to *Can you . . .*" but the latter is coherent in that "the links are rhetorical and situational" (p. 15).

1. Can you play tennis tomorrow?   -No, I am afraid I can't. I've got to go to the hospital tomorrow.
2. Can you play tennis tomorrow?   -I've broken a string in my racket and I won't have time to get it fixed.

In identifying what discourse analysis is, Trappes-Lomax (2004) states that "it is the study of language viewed communicatively and/or of communication viewed linguistically" (p. 134). Further, when meaning is conveyed for various purposes in different settings, then we can search for the sociolinguistic dimension to determine its communicative weight, which is "the linguistic features of the text that reflect the social context in which it is produced" (McCarthy, 1991, p. 32). Widdowson (2008) notes that "learning sentences irrespective of their function can be a waste of time" (p. 164), which refers to the fact that decontextualized language may not contribute to learning as it lacks relevance and thus engagement.

Components of a sentence are not detached from each other. This attachment, on the other hand is realized by certain linguistic forms, according to Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 13) such as "reference, ellipsis, substitution, and conjunction" and are called as "text forming agencies" (p. 28).

2.7. COHESIVE UNITS

Cohesion or the "intersentence relation" refers to "relations of meaning that exist within the text, and that define it as a text" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, pp. 4-193). Integrative to patterns that make up a discourse are "cohesive items", which McCarthy (1991) says, "are clues or signals as to how the text should be read . . ." (p. 26).

To be able to feel the bonds among the constituents of a text makes it possible to handle it as discourse. In other words, meaning beyond what is seen can be understood with a certain level of awareness of cohesion. One example is from the Discourse Competence Test developed for this study. The word *well* is commonly used as the adverb form of *good* and used to indicate a good health. However, the word can convey a communicative meaning in that it can express hesitation or unwillingness to initiate a topic. In order for this to be noticed, a text should be exposed to a detailed analysis that may pave the way for realizing suprasentential references, which was the very case in this thesis research.

"Grammar and discourse are tied together in a fundamentally hierarchical relationship with lower-order grammatical choices being driven by higher-order discoursal units" (Nunan, 1999, p. 99). Therefore, though from a traditional point of view they are separate concepts, grammar and discourse are actually closely tied. "If learners are not taught grammar in context, that is, from a functional perspective, it will be difficult for them to see how and why alternative forms exist to express different communicative meanings" (Nunan, p. 110). Therefore, through MEF, the framework for textbook evaluation developed for this study, lexis with the function of grammar, and grammar in the form of lexis were subjected to careful scrutiny.

Following a Hallidayan approach, major cohesive units that add discoursal dimension to a text follow:

2.7.1. Conjunction

Cohesion can be enabled by transitional elements, mainly conjunctions. They function as "grammatical contributions to textuality" (McCarthy, 1991, p. 46), which is "the feeling that something is a text, and not just a random collection of sentences." (McCarthy, p. 35). Teaching conjunctions which "express certain meanings which presuppose the presence of other components in the discourse" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 226) is very common in EFL contexts. In classroom instructions, besides their role in syntax, their function in *healthy* interactions should

also be emphasized so that their saliency is enhanced to the benefit of learners. McCarthy (1991) indicates that:

> When we look at a lot of natural spoken data, we find the basic conjunctions *and*, *but*, *so* and *then* much in evidence, and used not just to link individual utterances within turns, but often at the beginning of turns, linking one speaker's turn with another speaker's, or linking back to an earlier turn of the current speaker, or else marking a shift in topic or sub-topic (often with *but*). In this sense, the conjunctions are better thought of as discourse markers, in that they organise and 'manage' quite extended stretches of discourse. (p. 49)

"The words *and, yet, so* and *then* can be taken as typifying these four very general conjunctive relations, which they express in their simplest form" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 239). These prototype conjunctions compose the following subgroups.

2.7.1.1. Causative Conjunctions

"The simple form of CAUSAL relation is expressed by *so, thus, hence, therefore, consequently, accordingly*, and a number of expressions like *as a result (of that), in consequence (of that), because of that*" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 256). Frequent use of these words make them important on the part of language learners in the sense that in spoken language their weight is not negligible.

2.7.1.2. Adversative Conjunctions

"The basic meaning of adversative relation is 'contrary to expectation' " (Holliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 250). Among the commonest of this type are *yet, though, on the other hand,* and *rather*. However, a conjunction labeled under 'additive' can have an 'adversative' function as in the example: "Dear, dear! How queer everything is today! And yesterday things went on just as usual." (Halliday & Hasan, p. 252).

2.7.1.3. Additive Conjunctions

This type of conjunctions expands the units in a sentence by combining them with *and, in addition,* or *besides.* However, the process of adding is not always in the positive direction; it can also be in the negative. Therefore, *or,* and *nor* are also under the same category as *and.* As to the language's being additive, Kramsch (1998) explains that:

Speech is additive or 'rhapsodic.' Because of the dialogic nature of oral interaction, speakers 'rhapsodize', i.e. stitch together elements from previous turns-at-talk, they add language as they go along (and . . . and, then . . . and then . . .), thus showing conversational co-operation in the building of their own turn. (p. 38)

2.7.1.4. Temporal Conjunctions

Some of the commonest conjunctions that indicate time in a text are *(and) then*, *next*, *at the same time*, *meanwhile*, *finally*, *up to now*, and *from now on.* It is important not to miss a point that a word can indicate time in its commonest usage, however it can gain a discoursal role in a text. For example, *now* can be used to refer to "the opening of a new stage in the communication, or a new point in the argument" as in the example "Now what would you like, dear?" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 268). However, its use in the sentence, "We are leaving now." indicates the exact time of leaving.

2.7.2. Substitution

Another building block of cohesion, the aspect of co-textual and contextual interconnections among the constituents of a text, is substitution which is commonly used in spoken English. The words that are recoverable thanks to shared background knowledge are replaced with words such as *one, ones*, *do*, or *so*. "Substitution is a relation on the lexicogrammatical level, the level of grammar and vocabulary, or linguistic 'form' " whereas "ellipsis in this respect simply a kind of substitution; it can be defined as substitution by zero" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 89).

2.7.3. Ellipsis

Because of the shared experiences in the past, a speaker, if the person or people he is talking to is familiar with the topic, does not have to utter everything the grammatical structure of the sentences normally requires. Saying "No need to ask." instead of "Yes, you can also go out." is probably more economical and a more personalized way of giving a permission. However, we cannot know exactly the real motive behind. The respondent may be implying an indifference about the other speaker's

going out instead of wishing to give a warm answer, which probably first came to our minds. Nunan (1999) explains and gives an example:

> The illocutionary force of an utterance can only be understood if we know the context in which the utterance occurs. The statement "There's a dog out the back." could, depending on the context, be a description, a warning, an explanation, or an invitation. (p. 308)

2.7.4. Reference

"Reference is the relation between an element of the text and something else by reference to which it is interpreted in the given instance" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 308). To be economical in using language, maybe because of the time constraint or other sociolinguistic needs, words are replaced in language with others. Nunan (1999) notes that "if a single sentence is taken out of context and presented in isolation, it is likely to contain elements that are difficult, if not impossible, to interpret" (p. 118). McRae and Clark (2004) conclude that "meaning is not stable and absolute, but depends as much upon the processes of interpretation undertaken by a reader or listener as upon the actual linguistic structures that are used" (p. 329). Two of the devices for reference needed for such an interpretation follow:

2.7.4.1. Anaphora and Cataphora

Anaphora is a "form of presupposition, pointing back to some previous item" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 14). To illustrate, normally, we do not say "I saw Maria and Maria said Maria felt better". If we did, there could occur some looks around that make us feel how weird what we said was as generally we do not have the linguistic tolerance to hear the same word repeatedly. So we replace it with *she*, which is anaphoric. By contrast, suppose the words *Maria* and *she* were replaced. Then the direction of the referencing would be reversed, which is then called cataphora, "pointing forward" (Nunan, 1999, p. 120) to an item, though not as common as anaphora. This use of language may be needed when speakers would like to create a somewhat mysterious tone and increase curiosity to make others listen to them more eagerly.

2.8. COMMUNICATIVE UNITS

In order for a spoken text to be meaningful for the interlocutors, there must be some elements that form unity and thus coherence among the constituents of the language use. Syntactic correctness or grammatical accuracy can be a prerequisite for a language's survival despite its being used by a lot of people in different ways. However, without understanding a speech in its own context, that is, without paying attention to the functions of the utterances, it may not turn into a discourse. Thus, cohesive elements of a text should be contributed by those that cohere or make the discourse more meaningful for the speakers. McCarthy (1991) states that "cohesion is only a guide to coherence" and that "coherence is the feeling that a text hangs together, that it makes sense, and is not a jumble of sentences" (p. 26). As Sinclair (1991) asserts, "one does not study all of botany by making artificial flowers" (p. 6) therefore, essential criteria for a linguistically and communicatively unified and authentic discourse were sought for in terms of the following guidelines in this study.

2.8.1. Authenticity and Sociocultural Perspective

Authenticity is the use of natural or genuine language unlike the artificially created ones such as those used in most textbooks. "A rule-of-thumb definition for 'authentic' is any material which has not been specifically produced for the purposes of language teaching" (Nunan, 1989, p. 54). As cited in O'Keeffe, McCarthy, and Carter, (2007), Burns (2001) notes that "scripted dialogues rarely reflect the unpredictability and dynamism of conversation, or the features and structures of natural spoken discourse" adding that "students who encounter only scripted spoken language have less opportunity to extend their linguistic repertoires in ways that prepare them for unseeable interactions outside the classroom" (p. 21).

The term *unpredictability* deserves elaborating upon in that speakers normally challenge it in their exchanges. The goal is to reduce it and expand interpersonal relationship. Nunan (1999) states that "if language were totally predictable, then communication would be unnecessary. If it were totally unpredictable, effective

communication would probably be impossible" (p. 229). Conversely, McCarthy (1991) cautions that "natural conversational data can often seem chaotic because of backchannel, utterance-completions and overlaps . . ." (p. 127). However this does not mean that the language in classroom should be used in a contrived, idealized, or "modelled" (Barrios et al., 2008, p. 309) way. A balance between an authentic and a scripted text is indeed possible.

Authenticity is directly related to the real use of language which is then, in a way, the reflection of the sociocultural dimension of the language users. This relation together with its relevance with material evaluation will be discussed in 2.13. Sociocultural Awareness and Language Pedagogy.

2.8.2. Style and Register

Language changes according to the social setting, role of the participants, time, in short context, and requires the use of diverse styles. This is why, formality or informality level of a spoken context, register, is pedagogically important and intrinsically related to sociolinguistics. "When we use different registers appropriately for delivering a classroom lecture and conversing with our children, sociolinguistic knowledge is involved" (Bachman &Palmer, 2006, p. 70), which is the appropriate way of communicating meaning.

While learning their L1 as a tool of conveying information, almost all speakers simultaneously learn what language to use in what context and how by observation. The process by and large ends with a competence of accommodating the language according to the setting and the participants and in a variety of use. This is why, when language users start learning another one, they can transfer their communicative abilities to L2 from L1. However, the transfer of register-based linguistic choices may pose problems without proper guidance from the teacher. Willis and Willis (2007) caution that:

> At first, of course, they cannot distinguish between informality and studied politeness in English. They have to learn the difference between 'Hi Jen, how's it

going?' And 'Good morning Mrs Carter, how are you today?' or between 'Can I use the dictionary when you've finished with it?' and 'Excuse me, I wonder if I could use the dictionary after you please.' (p. 147)

According to Nunan (1989, p. 199), "using a range of conversational styles from formal to informal is a macro skill of speaking and oral communication". Thus, Willis and Willis (2007) suggest "making sociolinguistic variation the subject of class discussion by analysing the language behaviour as it is revealed in texts." Taking their role into account in language teaching, the inclusion of multi-contextual uses of language into the textbooks, each requiring a different style, should not be neglected.

2.8.3. Backchanneling

McCarten and McCarthy (2010) note that "speakers use strategies such as showing good listenership by vocalizing acknowledgement (e.g. huh, uh-huh) or by giving affective responses such as 'exactly', 'wonderful' and 'that would be nice' " (p. 19). These are the communicative units that are in conflict with the common teaching and learning practices that mostly focus on syntax more than it does on semantics and pragmatics. The neglect of the instruction of backchanneling devices can be an indicator of how far the current practices are from authentic data.

Backchanneling items such *well*, *yeah*, *say* or *gee* do have a communicative role in that they prevent detachment of the interlocutors from each other by giving the signal that the speaker is not talking to the walls! In O'Keeffe et al.'s (2007) terms, they are the 'features of onlineness' (p. 174). However, when it comes to their place in teaching and so in how much value is given to them in textbooks, the situation does not yield optimism. O'Keeffe et al. (2007) rightly claim that:

> The high-frequency discourse markers also have little lexical content in the conventional sense of the word, and present a problem to language pedagogy, which has traditionally divided teaching into grammar teaching and vocabulary teaching, with items such as discourse markers not fitting happily into either. (p. 39)

As there is a general tendency in foreign language education which is teaching or learning it with grammar rules and vocabulary lists, it is not common to teach seemingly *meaningless* vocabulary. In a study, Eldridge (1996, as cited in Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 221) reported that:

> One teacher in Turkey recorded pair-work in his class of 13-year olds and found his students consistently used Turkish for interactive phrases that mark agenda points in interactions like "Ok, then, shall I start?", "So, lets ...", "Fine, right, that's it then".

In discussing the cultural differences of the language users in relation to backchannel signals, Kramsch (1998) counterargues:

> Interlocutors from another culture with a more literate conversational style, marked by brevity, conciseness, and a concern for exactitude, might interpret the overlaps, the frequent backchannel signals and the interjections not as co-operation, but on the contrary as so many violations of their conversational space. (p. 48)

Therefore, the level of authentic materials EFL learners are exposed to should be paid attention by the material writers and particularly by teachers in that an imbalance between a genuine and a pedagogic spoken input may not yield the realization of the learning outcomes. The reason is that not every learner can be ready for a fully natural language. And how much they need it indeed is still under discussion.

2.8.4. Hedging

Hedging, as a device for speaking skills, is to make one's statements more polite, and sometimes persuasive. "Within the pragmatics of paradigm, hedging is viewed interactionally in terms of how the use of certain words or phrases can mitigate the directness of what we say and so operate as face-saving devices" (O'Keeffe et al., 2007, p. 174). Hence, hedges are necessary devices for communicating effectively and for avoiding negativity in speeches. To illustrate, a person may be asked how he found the speech his friend gave at a conference. If he does not find it successful, he can respond by saying "No!" to his friend who is most probably expecting a complimentary remark about the paper he presented. If the same person starts by

saying "Actually, there were some points . . ." this would hide the intended meaning at least to some degree. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) explain:

> In general conversation, assertions are usually blunted somewhat so that there remains room for maneuver and for saving face. . . . Personal point of view prefaces, for example, (*personally, I think X, in my opinion*) allow one to assert information without making one responsible for the complete accuracy of it. (p. 87)

Most frequent chunks used for hedging or softening "modify utterances to make them less assertive and less open to challenge or rebuttal" (O'Keeffe et al., 2007, pp. 73-74). For example, upon asking "Can you open the window?" being responded with "I'm afraid no." is much more digestible than "No."

2.8.5. Politeness

Embedded in conversational discourse, existence of politeness is probably what makes other discoursal units more meaningful and valuable for the speakers. That is, the use of language with a tone of polite and in a more humane mode could add much to the interpersonal communication.

2.8.6. Vague Language

Language is vague when speakers do not say directly what they mean. That is to say, because of a common background, they do not always feel the need to say every word to convey the intended meaning. Rather, they replace them with such words as *kind of*, *sort of*, or *anyone*. As Cassiddu (2010) defines, "vague language, as used by native speakers, is a mark of shared knowledge and in-group membership." Also, vague language is part of strategic competence as it necessitates tolerance towards ambiguity. In other words, the speaker shortens what he will going to say to gain time and the listener tries to make the vague points in the speech clear by referring to his preexisting knowledge. Hence for both sides, to produce and interpret the condensed version of the actual meanings serves a strategy to be able to promote interpersonal relationship.

2.9. SOCIOLINGUISTIC ROLES

Relying on their research in different parts of the world for over twenty years, Scollon and Scollon (2001, p. xiii) claim that "most miscommunication does not arise through mispronunciations or through poor uses of grammar, important as those aspects of language learning are." And they state the actual reason: "The major sources of miscommunication in intercultural contexts lie in differences in patterns of discourse" (p. xiii). So, it is crucial for prospective communicators to know what linguistic patterns and non-linguistic aspects matter in what context and how.

According to McDonough et al., (2013), certain strategies of speaking include:

> Trying to 'hold the floor' for a while in the interaction, which will also involve knowledge of how 'long' or 'short' the turn can be; interrupting the other speaker(s); anticipating and inferring what is about to happen next; changing the 'topic' if necessary; and providing appropriate pauses and 'fillers' while processing the language. (p. 166)

Roles of speakers with their inherent strategies from the perspective of sociolinguistics follow:

2.9.1. Turn Taking/Topic Initiation

"Turn taking is deciding when to speak, how long to speak for, and how to indicate that you are willing for someone else to speak" (Burgess & Head, 2005, p. 106). The ability to hold the floor is probably something we do not pay very much attention to in L1, however, in L2 it is of vital importance that it should be taught by the use of (semi)authentic spoken data unlike the artificial ones in most textbooks. According to Burgess and Head (2005), "successful turn-taking involves knowing how to hesitate, how to indicate that you want to speak or to invite someone else to speak, how to express an opinion, and agree or disagree" (p. 112). Hesitation is, on the other hand, expressed by some backchanneling items such as *hmm, well,* or *I see* which give an impression to the interlocutor that "I want to give an answer or comment on what you have said."

2.9.2. Negotiation

"Spoken discourse is usually instantaneous. The listener must process it "online" and there is often no chance to listen to it again" (Richards, 2008, p. 3). But, negotiation is feasible in speech production which, according to Long (1996, as cited in Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 98) "breaks the input into smaller digestible pieces and provides a 'scaffold' within which learners can produce increasingly complex utterances."

Just like the way EFL learners do in their native language, trying to negotiate is important in L2 as well, probably more. A lack of a collaborative relationship may result in unwillingness in speaking and even loss of self-confidence in the end. In order to challenge this common psychology of the learners who may be for the first time socializing in the education setting and instead to facilitate their learning process, Brown and Yule (1983) recommend that "in practice sessions (as opposed to an assessment session), the listener should be permitted, indeed encouraged, to ask questions of clarification, just as native speakers do in normal life" (p. 53).

As a strategy for negotiation in spoken exchanges, Lewis (1999) points to the "sympathetic strategy" (p. 86), an implication that more able interlocutor adjusts his speaking style according to the language level of the person he is speaking to, which contributes to the "joint production" (Lewis, p. 86). Similarly, in case of a misunderstanding in a conversational setting, "one strategy is to ask for clarification" (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 107). On the contrary, Nation and Newton claim that "most learning will occur through guessing from context which is not overtly signalled, and by the non-negotiated noticing of language features" (p. 110). Thinking that guessing is also a kind of strategic competence, the speaker in a way negotiates but this time with the speech itself not with the speaker.

2.9.3. Topic Shift

To transit from one topic to another in most daily conversational exchanges occur with the use of certain vocabulary. For example, the word "and" that we mostly use

to coordinate sentences is also a way to change the direction of the dialogue. This communicative act indeed does not require much grammatical effort or knowledge of complex structures. Raising awareness about the function of the words that are mostly not at an advanced level would contribute to the efficacy of the spoken output of the learners. Cunningsworth (1995) argues that "in materials for developing communicative abilities in spoken English, we should above all be looking for an awareness that interactions are collaborative activities involving two or more people competing for the floor and negotiating meaning" (p. 129).

It is of note that topic shift is also an effective discourse strategy in making up for the breakdowns in communication, hence a marker of strategic competence. That is to say, a speaker may not be willing to answer a question or elaborate on the issues being talked, then he can avoid going on speaking and divert the topic of the dialogue to something more positive or less interfering. The example is from Richards (1980, as cited in Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, p. 86):

"A-How old are you?

  B-I'm a very wise person."

2.9.4. Leave Taking

Wrapping up what has been told and leaving the conversation in an appropriate way are so important that if they are skipped, communication may not be complete in itself. Unlike those in real life, in dialogues in textbooks, there is a tendency to use the same phrases or chunks for indicating leave-taking procedures. The use of scripted dialogues may account for this but there seems no obstacle to include a range of expressions that hold the function of closing and leaving processes in exchanges with more authentic feel in textbooks.

2.10. LEXICON

In recent decades there has been a shift from the overemphasis on grammar in language learning to that on vocabulary. Due to several reasons, the ever increasing

use of technology, awareness towards the use of phrases for fluency, and the need for communicating globally to name a few, vocabulary learning and teaching has gained an important place in classroom settings. Important concepts in relation to lexicon, "the backbone of language" (Stern, 1991) follow:

2.10.1. Core Vocabulary

Vocabulary that are needed most for daily exchanges occurs on a predictable basis, that is, some words are repeated so much that they are salient in users' schemata. Sinclair (1991) clarifies the issue by stating "word-occurrence in texts means that for any reasonably long text, there are some words that occur too often, and some that do not occur often enough for their behaviour to be comfortably studied" (p. 43). Stubbs (2007) argues that:

> If a pattern occurs over and over again, in the language use of many different speakers, then it cannot be dismissed as mere performance. The frequent occurrence of lexical or grammatical patterns in a large text collection is good evidence of what is typical and routine in language use. (p. 130)

For a sense of achievement for language learners at initial stages to become real, some vocabulary should be taught urgently. That is to say, vocabulary of high frequency can be introduced to learners both by teachers and textbooks, which is why "frequency list is very helpful for establishing priorities" (O'Keeffe et al., 2007, p. 41). O'Keeffe et al. write:

> If we examine the frequency of words in a large corpus of English, a picture emerges where the first 2,000 or so word-forms do most of the work, accounting for more than 80% of all of the words in spoken and written words. (p. 32)

To go more into detail, research on vocabulary of high frequency shows that "the first 1000 words account for 75 per cent of the successive words in a text; the second 1000 words account for 5 per cent of the successive words in a text; 570 academic words account for 10 per cent of the successive words in an academic text" (Nation & Macalister, 2010, p. 73). Therefore, Sinclair (1991) recommends that "materials writers need to begin with attested language data as their starting point" (p. 39).

However, Willis and Willis (2007) offers insight on the issue of core vocabulary by saying:

> The problem with words like 'the' and 'of', however, is that by themselves they have no value. They are often called structure words because they don't mean anything until they begin to combine with other words. This means that we are not looking simply for the most frequent words but for the most frequent combinations in which they occur. Consider 'the' and 'of', for example. They are frequently found in phrases like 'the beginning of', 'the end of', 'the middle of', 'the front of', 'and the back of'. (p. 193)

Thornburg (2006, p. 36) explains that "the advantage of learning the formulaic chunks associated with high-frequency words is that many of these form common syntactic strings, such as be+going+to+verb – and the grammar – is 'for free.'

2.10.2. Content Words and Function Words

Unlike content or lexical words, function, functional or structure words "have little or no vocabulary content" (O'Keeffe et al., 2007, p. 33). More content words mean that even without syntactic gaps in the cognition, use of even isolated words can do something to compensate a possible mismatch.

In order to measure how much complex a text is, lexical density is calculated, which is "the number of content words as a percentage of the total number of words" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 53-54). It is quite normal that lexical density of a spoken text is lower than that of written one in that in the latter less words mean more as opposed to the former in which the same meaning can be provided with longer stretches of language.

2.10.3. Generative Use and Recycling

Knowing a word requires both the number of the words (breadth) and the "creative or generative use" (Nation, 2000, p. 105) of it (depth). Nation explains that "a word is used generatively if it is used in speaking in a way which is different from its use in the textual input" (p. 106). Additionally, the generative use of lexicon has a psycholinguistic value for language learners in that "generative use can lead to a

form of mental elaboration that deepens and enriches the level of processing of a word" (Baddeley, 2000, as cited in Nation, 2000, p. 105).

In order to have a multi-dimensional command of vocabulary, there should be multiple exposure because "it is rarely sufficient for students to meet new items only once" (Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 28). Thus, it is quite essential that coursebooks for EFL learners should have "clear policy on recycling" (Cunningsworth, p. 28). Hoey (2007) indicates that "each time we encounter a word (or syllable or combination of words), . . . we build up a record of its collocation" (p. 8). And "subsequent encounters provide learners with opportunities to determine relevant semantic and syntactic information" (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 466). This may end up with awareness of different contexts in which the words are used.

2.11. LEXICOGRAMMATICAL UNITS

Embedding the content load of vocabulary within a framework of fixed grammatical choices bears the use of lexicogrammar, a relatively new term that is being attached more importance recently. "Over the past decade, lexical theory, corpus statistics, and psycholinguistic research have pointed to the pedagogical value of lexical phrases" (Koprowski, 2005). In the same vein, Richards and Rodgers (2001) argue that:

> In recent years, vocabulary has been considered to play a core central role in second language learning than was traditionally assumed. Vocabulary is here used to indicate the consideration of lexical phrases, sentence stems, prefabricated routines, and collocations, and not only words as significant units of linguistic analysis and language pedagogy. (p. 227)

To evaluate a text from a discourse point of view can be possible with a command of grammar to a significant degree, which may be an evidence that no component of a language can be detached from the other, grammar from lexis, semantics from syntax. Furthermore, "it is folly to decouple lexis and syntax" (Sinclair, 1991, p. 108). Halliday and Hasan (1976) add that "there is no hard-and-fast division between

vocabulary and grammar" and "the more general meanings are expressed through the grammar, and the more specific meanings through the vocabulary" (p. 5).

The term *language in use* seems to be in contradiction with the language that is, by and large, taught in schools. What is problematic for many EFL contexts is that form can be concentrated upon to the expense of functional or contextualized language. However, as McCarthy (1991) states, "language forms and discourse functions complement and enrich each other" (p. 9).

It is at this point that the role of lexicogrammatical units (LGUs, henceforth) should be pinpointed as mediators in reconciling the conventional distinction between vocabulary and grammar, which makes language learning seem more of a burden for many learners. LGUs are mostly used in forming adjacency pairs that are "paired utterances such as greetings, requests, invitations and offers, compliments, reprimands, and apologies" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 17), which are frequently used in daily conversations. This is why, LGUs "enable the learner to 'behave' naturally" (McCarthy, 1991, p. 122).

2.11.1. Corpus Studies and Phraseology

Hunston (2011) describes a corpus as "a collection of independent texts, each produced in its unique social situation" (p. 169). From a pedagogical point of view, "one way of checking the usefulness of a phrase or word is to use a computer concordancer to see how many examples of the item can be found in a collection of spoken texts" (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 20). Specifically, one feature of corpus beneficial for language learners is called KWIC (Key Word in Context), which introduces learners with the use of the same word(s) in different genres with an emphasis on parts of speech thus contributing to syntactic knowledge.

"'Phraseology' is a very general term used to describe the tendency of words, and groups of words, to occur more frequently in some environments than in others" (Hunston, 2011, p. 5). The underlying idea of phraseology is that language is highly

patterned. For example, "many of the words which are used to talk about money can also be used to talk about time. This is not fully generalisable, but it still constitutes a powerfully generative pattern system" (Lewis, 1999, p. 113). This is surely linked to the type of language that should be given priority in the very context of the classroom. Actually, phraseological studies owe their existence to Sinclair's (1991) corpus-based studies and the "idiom principle" in particular which refers to a fact that "words do not occur at random in a text" (Sinclair, p. 110), and that "most everyday words do not have an independent meaning, or meanings, but are components of a rich repertoire of multi-word patterns that make up text" (Sinclair, p. 108). The use of phrases in speech is critical especially for new learners in that by means of them they can form utterances though formulaic and hence fixed. This may render fluency without having to concentrate on the structural aspect of language thus motivating learners who have a shallow pool of language items.

2.11.2. Formulaic Speech

Multi-word items or chunks help form a speech that is based on the use of predetermined or formulaic expressions with varying length. They have a sociolinguistic dimension in that they are given different roles in interactional dialogues for topic initiation, leave taking, or hedging. For example, "*you know* is the most frequent chunk of all, and is an important signal of (projected or assumed) shared knowledge between speaker and listener, as well as being a topic-launcher" (Östman, 1981; Erman 1987, as cited in O'Keeffe et al., 2007, p. 72).

On the other hand, many words themselves, even if they are among the most frequent words, such as 'an' or 'at', do not mean anything at least without a very specific context. Since they are function words, in order for them to gain a certain meaning, they should combine with other words. Therefore, "we need to highlight not simply the words, but the phrases in which they occur" (Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 193). O'Keeffe et al. (2007) further suggest that "the vocabulary syllabus for the basic level is incomplete without due attention being paid to the most frequent chunks, since many of them are as frequent as or more frequent than single items which

everyone would agree must be taught" (p. 46). This is direct reference to the implication that teaching useful phrases "which should ease frustration and, at the same time, promote situations" (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, p. 114) ought to be within the scope of language pedagogy and so particularly textbook writing.

2.11.2.1. Chunks: *Collocations-Fixed Expressions and Idioms*

As to the use of collocations, the "associations of lexical items that regularly co-occur", Halliday and Hasan (1976, p. 285) indicate that "their proximity in a discourse very definitely contributes to the texture". In Halliday and Hasan's terminology "texture" is used as "the property of being a text" which "functions as a unity with respect to its environment" (p. 2). As chunks are records of natural grammar and easily retrievable, they depend on genuine use of the language. A kind of memorization of these phrases is needed for learning, which is commonly practiced in EFL environments by means of word lists. This is why, Wray (2000) explains that language learning by chunks is "pursuing native-like linguistic usage by promoting entirely *un*native-like processing behavior" (p. 463).

According to Willis (2013) "beginners need to build up a deployable repertoire of useful words and phrases and some of these can initially be memorised as fixed chunks—phrases they simply learn by heart without breaking them down grammatically" (p. 64). From a sociolinguistic point of view, "these phrases also ought to prove highly memorable, since they are embedded in socially appropriate situations" (Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992, p. 114).

With respect to idioms, "the most 'frozen' chunks", Spöttl and McCarthy (2000, as cited in O'Keeffe et al., 2007) explain that "they retain something of the meaning of their individual items which is potentially available to users" (p. 79). Used frequently in daily conversational speech, figurative language by means of idioms is an important factor in authentic language. Thus, an emphasis on the instruction of idioms in textbooks is not peripheral but central in material writing.

2.11.2.2. Institutionalized Chunks

Extended chunks that subsume useful vocabulary in a certain set of structure are called institutionalized chunks or extended phrases. Though the form is fixed to some extent, vocabulary used can change. An example is given by Sinclair (1991) together with an explanation: "Many phrases allow internal lexical variation. For example, there seems to be little to choose between *in some cases* and *in some instances*; or between *set x on fire* and *set fire to x*" (p. 111). As such phrases form a great part of spontaneous talks, learners should be guided in terms of the acquisition of such phrases.

2.11.2.3. Modality

Another important point related to the use of lexicogrammatical units was that of modality which is "the speaker's assessment of the probabilities inherent in the situation" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 135). Apart from the well-known modal verbs that are almost always taught in grammar classes such as *must*, *should*, or *may*, there are some vocabulary that have the similar function as modal verbs. Therefore words such as *actually*, *certainly*, or *seem* are very important for learners. As cited in McCarthy (1991, p. 85), Holmes (1983) and Hermerèn (1978) indicate that "other word classes express modality more frequently than modal verbs". Echoing Hunston (2011), "modal-like expressions are a feature of discourse, and indeed of intertextuality, as much as of lexis and grammar" (p. 86). This is why they must be incorporated into language studies and materials.

2.12. PHONOLOGICAL COMPETENCE

Though neglected through the years, especially in many EFL settings, phonology is as important as other linguistic constituents. For a reduced phrase or sentence, very common in spoken language such as "Agree." instead of "I agree with you." to mean something for the interlocutors, there should be an awareness about stress and intonation. For instance, avoiding a long sentence such as "Would you like a glass of water?" because of a need for economical use of language, a speaker can only say

"Water?" with a rising intonation. The latter use can also have a motivating effect on learners who have a constraint in vocabulary and grammar.

As the scope of this study was limited to learners who are in the initial stages of language learning, teaching suprasegmental features gains more significance because of their need to be able to communicate much with limited language usage. McCarthy (1991) stresses the importance of pitch in English and says:

> There seems to be direct correlation in English between the beginning of a new *topic* in speech and a shift to a higher pitch and correspondingly there is a tendency for the speaker to drop low in his or her pitch range at the end of a topic or sub-topic. (p. 101)

He therefore suggests that "the basic function of raised pitch be directly taught if it is seen to be lacking in the learner's spoken production" (p. 102). Additionally, Hedge (2000) contends that "traditionally, the language of audio recordings for ELT has been fairly slow, restricted in various ways, and often repetitive, in order to facilitate comprehension, (p. 239). Hedge worked on the comparison between a recording of natural conversation among native speakers and a recording made for English language with a group of teachers. Some of the differences according to those teachers follow (p. 240):

Spontaneous informal talk	Recordings for English language learners
variations in speed of delivery, often fast	slow pace with little variation
natural intonation	exaggerated intonation patterns
the natural features of connected speech, e.g. elision	carefully articulated pronunciation
variety of accents	Received Pronunciation
background noise present	background noise absent

Similarly, in this thesis research, too, audio tapes of the spoken texts were evaluated drawing on literature regarding the natural versus scripted spoken data.

2.12.1. Pronunciation

Gass and Selinker (2008) explain why "phonology is both similar to and different from other linguistic domains":

> It is different in that not all of the concepts relevant to syntax are applicable to phonology. For example, avoidance is a common L2 strategy used when a syntactic construction is recognizably beyond one's reach. Thus, if a learner wants to avoid passives, it is relatively easy to find an alternative structure to express the same concept. However, if a learner wants to avoid the sound [ð], as in *the* in English, it would be virtually impossible. (p. 178)

In showing the gap between importance attached to language skills such as vocabulary or grammar, and to pronunciation, Pennington and Richards (1986) assert that "it is artificial to divorce pronunciation from communication and from other aspects of language use, for sounds are a fundamental part of the process by which we communicate and comprehend lexical, grammatical, and sociolinguistic meaning" (p. 208). Hence, teaching pronunciation includes "not only the individual sounds of the words but the appropriate placement of prominence (stress) and the meaningful use of intonation (pitch direction)" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 4).

Overemphasis on native-like pronunciation or requirement of knowing even small details about prosodic features, on the other hand, may have a demotivating effect on learners. The reason may be that the transfer of sound knowledge may not be in the positive direction for learners. However, a sense of intelligibility can be instilled in them. Cunningsworth (1995) notes that:

> In the case of both individual sounds and connected speech, there should not be excessive emphasis on absolute correctness, or virtual native-speaker accuracy. Rather, there should be an awareness of areas where misunderstandings can most easily occur and a focus on avoiding such unfortunate occurrences. (p. 41)

Research by Jenkins (1996, 2000, 2004, 2005, as cited in O'Keeffe et al., 2007) suggests:

> A number of items common to most native-speaker varieties of English were not necessary in successful EFL interactions; for example, the absence of weak forms in words like *from* and *for;* and the substitution of voiceless and

voiced of *th* with /t/ or /s/ and /d/ or /z/ (e.g. *think* became sink or tink, and this became dis or zis). (p. 29)

She also adds that "such features occur regularly in EFL interactions and do not cause intelligibility problems" (p. 29). Therefore it wouldn't be logical to force people to speak the way NSs do and not humane to make them feel unsuccessful when they can't. Jenkins (2000, as cited in Arnold & Rixon, 2008, p. 53) notes that "more people speak English as a second or foreign language than as a first language, and intelligible communication between non-native speakers is, for many people, the priority, rather than adherence to a particular native speaker model."

2.12.2. Linking

Brown and Yule (1983) recommend that "there are some features to which students' attention must be directed while listening to authentic spoken English by the teacher" (p. 97). They point to the "frequency of the reduced forms – it's, I'd, didn't, shouldn't, wasn't" and state that "such forms are often so reduced in the stream of speech that non-native listeners do not even hear them. They should be pointed out so that the student gets some practice at recognising them in their reduced forms" (p. 97).

Burgess and Head (2005) indicate that "discrimination of individual phonemes, of sounds in connected speech and in terms of prosody and meaning, makes a vital contribution to all aspects of listening" (p. 91). This is why, textbooks should raise awareness as to the characteristics of natural language, one of which is linking.

2.12.3. Stress and Intonation

"When a word has more than one syllable, one of them will be pronounced with more prominence than the others" (Widdowson, 1996, p. 43). This is called stress. "When producing utterances, our voice goes up and down, and plays a rhythmic tune" (Widdowson, p. 44). This is called pitch. "This patterning of stress and pitch gives a particular **intonation** to what we say" (Widddowson, p. 44). Thus, the same sentence can be interpreted as an affirmative statement in one context and as a

question in another thanks to the variation in the intonation. It is the right time to note that "faulty stress, rhythm, and intonation patterns cause greater difficulty for hearers than the inaccurate pronunciation of individual sounds" (Nunan, 1999, p. 107).

As to the relation between prosodic features in discourse, it is important to emphasize that the use of language at word, phrase, or even sentence level may not be sufficient for a communication without a mismatch. Above and beyond, Harmer (1998) states that "experience of informal spoken English together with an appreciation of other spoken factors – the tone of the voice, the intonation the speakers use, rhythm, and background voice – will help students to tease meaning out of such speech phenomena" that are "incomplete utterances, repetitions, and hesitations" (p. 99). As to the relation between intonation and discourse, McCarthy (1991) posits:

> The intonational cues interact with other factors such as syntax, lexis, non-verbal communication and the context itself, and are typical of how the different levels of encoding have to be seen as operating in harmony in a discourse-oriented view of language. (p. 104)

Relying on his studies, Hewings (2002) points to "the importance of prominence or tone in a teacher's giving feedback to show his/her approval or disapproval of a particular response, withhold an assessment of it, or to draw the student's attention to particular aspects of the response" (p. 196). Therefore, it is important that teachers concentrate on the "changes in intonation that may mark a functional shift in a conversation, perhaps from an explanation to an enquiry" (McDonough et al., 2013, p 144). In order for teachers, especially if they are NNSs, to be able to instill an awareness on the role of suprasegmental features in discourse competence, well-prepared textbooks could be the shortest way to succeed at it.

2.13. SOCIOCULTURAL AWARENESS AND LANGUAGE PEDAGOGY

Intrinsic to authentic feel of a piece of language, sociocultural perspective is what should be paid attention in that language pedagogy cannot be separated from social and cultural foreground of the learners.

2.13.1. Society, Culture, and Language

The seminal studies by Austin (1962) who introduced "Speech Act Theory" and offered gradation in meaning (locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary meaning), with more realization of the significance of "language in its social context" (Labov, 1970) and with the introduction of "the rules of Cooperative Behavior in Conversation" in linguistics (Grice, 1975) paved the ground for the rise of the role of sociolinguistics in understanding the intertwined relations between society and language use. Within the scope of sociocultural knowledge, inherent in sociolinguistics, is "knowledge about social values and the norms of behaviour in a given society, including the way these values and norms are realized through language" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 12).

While learning a foreign language it is very usual and even normal to be exposed to the culture embedded in the language (or the vice versa). But, it is most of the time the case that we do not show the sensitive manners or reaction to the traces of stereotyping, gender or racial discrimination or the imposition on our perceptions regarding sociocultural issues as we do in real life when they happen before our very eyes. Therefore, the degree of textbook content and coverage is so important that exposure to the L2 culture should not turn into a kind of enforcement. Kramsch (1998) claims that "language is a cultural act because its users co-construct the very social roles that define them as members of a discourse community" (p. 35). However, Kachru (1994) argues that "approaches to the teachings of English developed in the Western contexts cannot be accepted without question for the non-Western context" (p. 241). Similarly, from a sociolinguistic perspective, Fairclough

(1995) warns against impositions of "ideologies" that can be presented in the form of "appropriateness" or "sociolinguistic variations":

> . . . they (*language learners*) should be encouraged to develop the ability to use standard English in conventional ways when they judge it to be necessary to do so, because they will be disadvantaged if they do not develop that ability. At the same time, they should be encouraged to see their own relationships and struggles as members of various communities as continuous with the relationships and struggles out of which the sociolinguistic practices, doctrines and attitudes of their speech community have been generated. (pp. 251-252)

2.13.2. Native Speaker (NS)-Nonnative Speaker (NNS) Paradigm and World Englishes

When speaking skill is at the core of a discussion, it is not possible not to mention who are the interlocutors and what their common or different tendencies or practices are. In ELT classes worldwide, there are both native and nonnative teachers and it has been long argued whether one group is superior to the other in effective teaching. Lewis (1999, p. 169) asks a question implying NS-NNS paradigm: "Which users of English have the right to use it creatively? Native speakers? Native speakers of British English? American English? Indian English?" He then comments that "it is cultural and intellectual imperialism to impose a particular norm on anyone's use of English." (pp. 169-170)

Common sense dictates that "in today's world, they (*students*) need to be exposed not only to one variety of English (British English, for example) but also to varieties such as American English, Australian English, Carribean English, Indian English or West African English" (Harmer, 1998, p. 97). Alptekin (1993) adopts a critical approach on the issue, claiming that "some non-native speakers of the language may be more entitled to arbitrating well-formedness and appropriacy than some putative native speakers". Hence, there is a need for both NS and NNS teachers, materials writers, and language users, in short, who are aware of the learners' pedagogic orientations but who are not imposing upon them.

As Lewis (1999, p. 189) puts forward, "being a native speaker can be a help in teaching the language, but much more is required". This "much more" can be determined according to the needs of the learners by their teachers who are willing to help them. Dörnyei (2005, p. 118) concludes:

> 'World English learning' is becoming a prominent and distinct subarea in human education, and due to the all-encompassing relevance of World English in a globalized world, the success of this process will partly be a function of the language aspect of the individual's global identity. (p. 118)

In relation to the parts of the world where English is used, the lines are blurring between the native and nonnative communities. It is also commonly claimed that as communication cannot be restricted to any privileged community, so does the use of English to a certain group of people (Kachru, 1994, Alptekin, 2002). This does not mean that English language itself can be open to any changes by its global users because every language has the right to remain as it is. However, it is not without doubt that almost any language is open to transformations thanks to those in the globe. Even the *real* owners of one language opts to speak the language this way but not that way. Therefore, the use of language with common sense, sensitivity on sociocultural issues and a certain neutrality towards different backgrounds of its users seems to hold a logical and practical alternative to limiting it to abstract notions and neglecting social acts emanating from intercultural needs.

All in all, materials ought to include different sociocultural layers in an objective way which will make them more meaningful to their users.

2.14. SELF-REGULATED LEARNING

Language learning is a continuous act during which both learners and teachers may have to depend on their own resources and individualize the process. It is probable that sometimes learners have to be their own teachers and teachers have to teach themselves. Autonomy for self-regulated learning, therefore, on the part of both learners and teachers together with some specific ways to be promoted are discussed below.

2.14.1. Learner Autonomy

"In sociocultural terms, autonomy is the capacity to self-regulate performance as a consequence of gaining control over skills that were formerly other-regulated" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 90). In order for autonomous manners to be adopted in learning, willingness and self-reflection are needed. As Sharle and Szabo (2000) claim, "in language teaching teachers can provide all the necessary circumstances and input, but learning can only happen if learners are willing to contribute" (p. 4). Additionally, Davies (1987, as cited in Willis, 2002, p. 182) posits that "it is when students are free to develop the discourse for themselves that they are obliged to explore the resources of the language". It is because of this fact that, as to the level of support provided by a teacher, Vandergrift (2007) states that "while the teacher will initially play a greater role, scaffolding should be gradually removed so that students do the work themselves and the process becomes automatic".

As regards the role of the textbooks role in promoting learner autonomy, Nation and Macalister (2010) state that "if course books are truly to help learners they need to show the learner how to use the book to its best advantage and how to continue to learn beyond the book" (p. 207). Therefore, motivation, an important factor in autonomy, is needed to feel the need to go beyond. Ushioda (2012) explains that "two key principles seem crucial to the maintenance of motivation: first it must emanate from the learner, rather than be externally regulated by the teacher; second, learners must see themselves as agents of the processes that shape their motivation" (p. 30).

2.14.2. Teacher Autonomy

Crippled between the demand from students, authorities, and the parents, teachers also need to deal with the new trends in ELT. With the fast changing nature of ELT, it is almost always the teachers who are expected to adapt to the changes in the curriculum or syllabus the moment there is a change in them. The responsibility that they hold can be interpreted as a burden but also a chance to improve themselves and

so their students' proficiency level. Therefore, an incentive for continuous development is the key factor in a teacher's life that determines if he is an only transmitter of the information or a facilitator leading students to more information with less trouble. In discussing the role of the teachers, Nunan (1989) states that:

> An important trend in language teacher development in recent years has been a move away from the teacher as passive recipient and implementer of other people's syllabuses and methods, towards the idea of the teacher as an active creator of his or her own materials, classroom activities . . . (p. 133)

Sinclair and Coulthard (2002) point to a situation which is not uncommon for many teachers and state that "the structure of the lesson is affected by such performance features as the teacher's own memory capacity for ordering speech, and more importantly the need to respond to unpredicted reactions, misunderstandings or contributions on the part of the pupils" (p. 33) and they imply the importance of having "a much larger sample of discourse" to deal with such problems in the classroom (p. 33). That said, "the ultimate goal is to enable the learner to communicate with others in the world beyond the classroom where they will not have a teacher on hand" (Nunan, 1999, p. 75).

Emphasizing the complementariness of learner and teacher autonomy, Little (1995) asserts that "since learning arises from interaction and interaction is characterized by interdependence, the development of autonomy in learners presupposes the development of autonomy in teachers."

2.14.3. Data-Driven Learning and Pedagogic Corpus

2.14.3.1. Data-Driven Learning

"Data-Driven learning (DDL) is a consequence of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)", which is "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning" (Levy, 1997, p. 1). "DDL has been found to be a useful language learning methodology, and there is evidence that learners can indeed benefit from being both language learners and language researchers" (Cheng, 2010). As to the function of CALL, Gruba (2004) expresses

that "the use of computers influences the nature of student activities which in turn affects how teacher may set goals and construct the learning environment" (p. 630).

O'Keeffe et al., (2007) highlight the importance of "the use of corpus in pedagogic contexts" and mention "the advantage of looking up a lexicogrammatical query in a corpus" and says that "it provides us with many examples of the search item in its contexts of use" (p. 3). In addition, "e-mails, blogs, film reviews, SMS as well as soap storylines, magazine, news and book extracts provide an up-to-date flavour of authentic language in real life use" (Masuhara & Tomlinson, 2008, p. 30). Additionally, Thornbury (2006) writes:

> Chatting on the Internet by exchanging short typed lines of text is an effective way of 'talking in slow motion'. The talk unfolds in real time, but it is sufficiently slowed down by the need to type so that some attention space is (theoretically) available to focus on improving the quality of the output – by, for example, incorporating some pre-selected discourse features. (p. 68)

Resources based on Internet technology (IT) can "offer enormous potential for the freeing of learners and teachers alike from the constraints of the coursebook" (Maley, 2013, p. 388) thus promoting autonomy. Tomlinson (2008) pinpoints the importance of engagement with English outside the formal environments and "finding the opportunities to gain authentic input and to achieve authentic output too" (p. 320). In this respect, as one of the most useful educational advantages of electronic materials that could be easily reached and personalized through CALL, instant feedback, should not be overlooked. The feeling that any question regarding language can be answered outside a formal setting can increment the tendency towards self-study thus autonomy.

2.14.3.2. Pedagogic Corpus

In Widdowson's (2003) terms, the use of a "pedagogic mediation of corpora" can be an alternative for more effective and more personalized classroom practices. This is why language teachers consult corpora not for the linguistic development of themselves but also to enhance the communicational quality of the language they are using to the benefit of their students. According to Willlis and Willis (2007)

pedagogic corpus refers to "the texts learners have studied which provide them with material which will help them to build up their insights into the language and the way it works." (p. 131)

Teachers could alleviate the burden of translating the communicative skills to their students by giving more useful and relevant activities through corpora. "With increasing exposure to more examples, learners may also feel encouraged to play with words and re-form patterns, becoming more creative in their language production and developing in the process a fuller interactional competence" (O'Keeffe et al., 2007, p. 192). By the same token, Reppen (2013) argues that "corpora provide a rich source of material that reflects the real language use that students will encounter outside the classroom" (p. 44).

All the above headings intended to highlight the discoursal quality of the spoken texts. Littlejohn (2013) argues that "in evaluating materials apart from a framework-that is, deciding their pedagogic worth relative to the proposed context of use", there is also a need for an "analysis of what teachers/students/institutions expect from materials, to see how far the two (that is materials and expectations) relate to or match each other" (p. 201). To be able to realize what Littlejohn suggests for material evaluation, this study adopted a triangulated methodology, to mirror the relations surrounding a triangulated context: textbooks, students, and teachers.

CHAPTER III
THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was threefold. The first was to investigate the features of communicative language in textbooks, mainly in the dialogues. This process was realized by a framework that was modular or multi-layered thus enabling an in-depth analysis of three textbooks at A2 level, according to Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF). Based on the relevant literature and corpus-based databases, the tool was named as Modular-Evaluative Framework (MEF).

The second and third aims were to be able to track what students and teachers thought about five issues in relation to speaking skills. These were spoken discourse in textbooks, classroom instructions and teacher attitudes towards speaking skills, macro skills of speaking, learner/teacher autonomy regarding preferences on speaking skills, and washback effect of the instruction of speaking skills. The instruments for these aims were two questionnaires designed for this study. Statistical analyses of the questionnaires were detailed and yielded significant results.

3.1. Research Questions

Answers to the following questions were sought for throughout the study. The instruments through which the answers were investigated were also given below.

1. Do the speaking tasks in the local, localized, and international textbooks differ in terms of their promoting communicative competence? (MEF-Module I and II)

2. Do the spoken texts in the local, localized, and international textbooks differ in terms of their promoting communicative competence? (MEF-Module III and IV)

3. Do the ELT textbooks authored by NSs and NNSs differ in their claim to provide students with communicative competence in relation to speaking skills? (MEF-All Modules)

4. Do EFL learners and teachers who use local, localized, and international textbooks differ in their perceptions of the instruction of speaking skills through the textbooks

in the classroom settings? (Student and Teacher Questionnaire: 1st, 2nd, and 5th Sections/Thematic analysis)

5. Do EFL learners and teachers who use local, localized, and international textbooks differ in adopting an autonomous approach towards gaining the communicative skills of speaking? (Student and Teacher Questionnaire: 3rd and 4th Sections/Thematic analysis)

3.2. Sampling, Setting, and Participants

3.2.1. Sampling

The population of this research was EFL learners who were using three different textbooks at A2 level at high schools in Turkey. The sample was the groups of students and teachers at specific schools, districts, and provinces, who were using the three textbooks at A2 level at the time of the data collection. A non-probability sampling method, convenience sampling, was relied upon in this study because of time constraint. "In most L2 survey research it is unrealistic or simply not feasible to aim for perfect representativeness in the psychometric sense" (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 71). Still, in order not to be biased towards any one of the variables, great effort was required for providing variety. That is, the data was not collected from readily available schools. Instead, it was aimed to reach to different types of schools, different districts of İstanbul and different cities in Turkey thus contributing positively to the range. The same cautious position was maintained in deciding the districts in İstanbul where the survey would take place. The rationale behind this was to provide multiplicity and therefore increase the scope of the sampling although it was not a random sampling and so far from typicality.

3.2.2. Setting

The questionnaire for EFL students, SQ, was conducted at high schools in four provinces, İstanbul, Kocaeli, Trabzon, and Kars, corresponding to three different regions in Turkey; Marmara, Black Sea, and Eastern Anatolia. The number of schools where the survey was circulated was 16, with both types of schools; those

privately owned and those funded by only the government. In İstanbul, the questionnaire was conducted in seven localities; Kağıthane, Üsküdar, Sultanbeyli, Maltepe, Beylikdüzü, Bahçelievler, and Bayrampaşa. The questionnaire for EFL teachers, TQ henceforth, was conducted in four provinces-İstanbul, Kocaeli, Trabzon, and Kars-as well, in 14 schools and in 10 localities in İstanbul: Kağıthane, Sarıyer, Üsküdar, Sultanbeyli, Maltepe, Yenibosna, Beylikdüzü, Bahçelievler, Bayrampaşa, and Başakşehir. Some essential information about the four provinces follow:

İstanbul: Located in the northwest of Turkey, in the Marmara Region, İstanbul is the most populated and cosmopolitan province of Turkey. It is the leading city in terms of sociocultural diversity and historical heritage. According to Turkish Statistical Institute's (TUIK) educational statistics (2013), 19.65% of its population was a graduate of high school. **Trabzon**: Located in the northeast of Turkey, in the Black Sea Region, Trabzon is one of the populous provinces of Turkey. It has been a home to a diversity of cultures and nations throughout its long history. According to TUIK educational statistics (2013), 20.80% of its population was a graduate of high school. **Kocaeli**: Located in the northeastern of Turkey, in the Marmara Region, Kocaeli is one of the most crowded provinces of Turkey and developed as an industrial city. According to TUIK educational statistics (2013), 20.84% of its population was a graduate of high school. **Kars**: Located in the east of Turkey, in the East Anatolian Region, Kars is a developing city in terms of education and trade in recent years. It is a city known for its sociocultural richness and long background in history. According to TUIK educational statistics (2013), 12.97% of its population was a graduate of high school.

3.2.3. Participants
The questionnaire for EFL learners, SQ henceforth, was conducted among 1236 students however the data of 1046 students with a mixture of both males (N= 369) and females (N= 677) were used in the analysis. The exclusion of 186 questionnaires

was due to several reasons one of them being arrival after the deadline for the data collection. Ages of the student participants who were at 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th grades at public and private schools ranged from 14 to 20 (M=15.78, SD=1.31). As to the TQ, it was conducted among 37 teachers. However, 33 of them with a mixture of both males (N=9) and females (N=24) were subsumed in the study. As the scope of this study was limited to textbooks at A2 level, data from four teachers were discarded. Ages of the participating teachers working either at public or private schools ranged from 23 to 54 (M=31.30, SD=6.62).

3.3. Data Instruments

"One way of dealing with subjectivity is through multiplicity of approach, usually referred as triangulation" (Trappes-Lomax, 2004, p. 140). Hence, seven instruments were used in this thesis research, which follow:

1. Three different textbooks and the spoken texts and tasks in each of the textbooks compiled for discourse analysis

2. Audio tapes of the spoken texts in each of the textbooks

3. A modular-evaluative framework to demonstrate the usefulness of the textbooks

4. A questionnaire for students administered to learn about their views on speaking skills

5. A discourse competence test for students to demonstrate how much students were aware of the discoursal features related to macro skills of speaking

6. A questionnaire for teachers administered to learn about their views on speaking skills

7. The commentary part in the student questionnaire

3.3.1. Textbooks and the Compiled Spoken Texts

Having consulted my supervisor and co-advisor, I also talked to three English teachers to decide upon which textbooks to analyze and why. Teachers were also

consulted about the level of the textbooks. According to CEF, there are six categories of language users. Figure 1 below shows this classification.
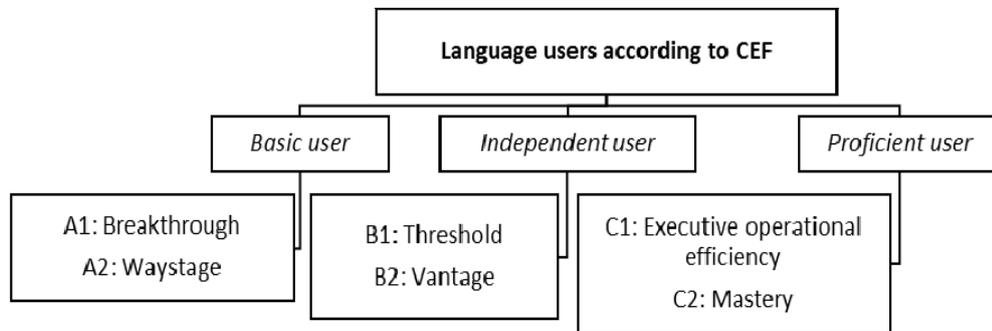
Figure 1 Six Reference Levels According to CEF

The teachers told that the number of students whose textbooks were at A2 level was very high unlike others at schools and textbooks higher than A2 level were not being used very often. Those below A2 level, on the other hand, such as A1 were not appropriate for a very detailed analysis. The reason was that the linguistic input was found very limited and so the variety of tasks and texts. Therefore the textbooks, in CEF's terms, at "waystage" level were decided to be appropriate for this research design. Furthermore, it was thought that A2 level was of critical importance in that before that level there was not very intensive input and the responsibility for language acquisition was mostly seen on the shoulders of the teachers. Yet, at B1 or higher levels students are expected to be more autonomous and are probably already familiar with other sources of language use and usage. Seen as a transitive level from gaining familiarity to basic grammar rules and specific chunks to trying to use them for conveying meaning and interacting with peers, it was decided that A2 level would be most appropriate in the study.

Textbooks are generally mentioned with their titles or the name of the publishing companies in Turkey. Similarly, in the study, the three textbooks were addressed with the abbreviations of the publishing houses, MONE (Ministry of National Education), OUP (Oxford University Press), and CUP (Cambridge University Press)

for the sake of practicality. However, where it was necessary to emphasize the similarities or differences, the phrases – local textbook (MONE), localized textbook (OUP), and international textbook (CUP) – were preferred.

It is of note that the term *local* refers to the fact that the textbook was written by nonnative speakers of English (NNS) whereas the term *localized* refers to the textbook written or redesigned by native speakers of English (NSs) for a local context, here for Turkey. For example, at the back of OUP writes that OUP Türkiye is designed with Turkish students in mind and includes references to Turkish culture and tourist areas. The third term *international* refers to what it is meant by global textbooks, which are written by NSs for EFL/ESL situations. Figure 2 below shows ELT textbooks that were analyzed under the framework, MEF, in this thesis research.
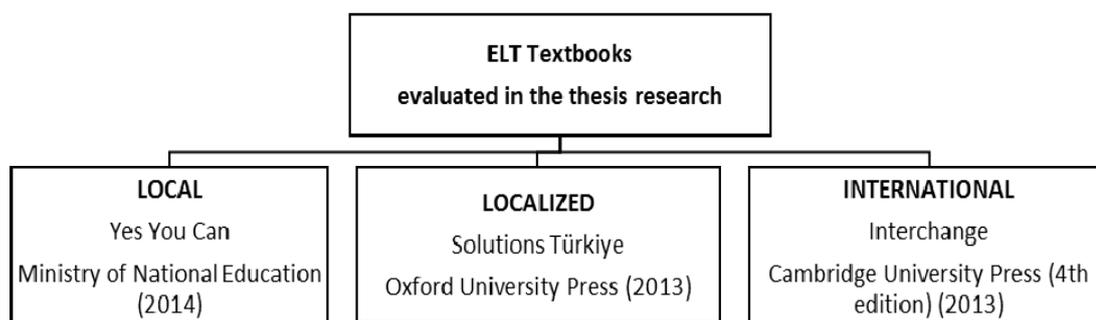
Figure 2 ELT Textbooks Evaluated in the Thesis Research

In its introduction part, MONE expresses that Yes You Can is an outcome-based textbook and that adopts Communicative Approach. It writes that "Yes You Can encourages students to use the language orally and to focus on fluency rather than accuracy." At the back cover of OUP, it was written that Solutions Türkiye covers CEF descriptors at A1 and A2 level. Also, a phrase – supported approach to speaking – was used while describing the book. In the introduction part of CUP, too, there was an explanation about what CEF is and CEF levels of language proficiency. CUP claims that "it provides communicative tasks that help develop oral accuracy,

recycles grammar and vocabulary in the cycle, and included pair work, group work, and class activities."

Before the implementation of MEF, all parts including conversational speeches were gathered so that one full text of the spoken data in the overall textbook could be gleaned for analysis. The spoken data (speech bubbles, dialogues, and multiparty talks) in revision parts (recurring after each two units in each of the textbooks) was also added to the overall texts. Details follow:

1. Spoken text compiled from the textbook by Ministry of National Education (MONE) at A2.2 Level

The rationale behind the selection of A2.2, not A2.1 or A2.3, was similar to that of the selection of A2 level for the overall study: its representation of the midway in the relevant level of proficiency. In order to pick, collect, and combine conversational components of each text, they had to be transformed into the electronic format. The textbook by MONE was readily available through the Ministry's official website. The file allowed processing of the data such as cutting and pasting, so no extra technical effort was needed for filtering all the textbook to obtain a pure conversational text. The overall spoken text consisted of 2298 words.

2. Spoken text compiled from the textbook by Oxford University Press (OUP) at A2 Level

In order to get the PDF format of the textbook, a scanner was used and the pages were transformed into Jpeg format. Then all the pages were transformed into PDF type and merged to form one text of spoken text of OUP. The overall spoken text consisted of 3028 words.

3. Spoken text compiled from the textbook by Cambridge University Press (CUP) at A2 Level

The same process involved in OUP was repeated for CUP. The overall spoken text was consisted of 3630 words.

All three texts incorporated every piece of conversational speeches whether they were speech bubbles between two interlocutors with only two turns, or a long

dialogue in the form of multiparty talk. However the decision of what to include or what not was a hard work. As these texts were mostly the prompts of the relevant tasks, there were some slots to be filled in some of them, especially if those tasks were integrated with grammar or vocabulary studies. It was at this point that a decision should have been taken as to whether dialogues with slots should be accepted as part of the compiled text or not. Drawing on the real instances of dialogues in everyday life, it was decided that even if there were spaces in the structure of the dialogues, they would be added to the spoken data providing they constituted meaning. In real-time conversations, too, speakers do not always use complete sentences with full grammatical accuracy. To come to the point, intelligibility of the words, phrases and incomplete sentences was taken into account. After the compiling process, MEF was implemented for the in-depth analysis of each text.

3.3.2. Audio Tapes of the Compiled Spoken Texts in the Textbooks

All the textbooks had accompanying materials – audio tapes. Those of MONE were allowed to be downloaded officially from the Ministry's website and so accessible to everyone. Audio tapes of OUP and CUP were on CDs that were sold together with the hard copies of the textbooks. It is of note that only those scripts of the spoken texts were within the domain of this study. That is, if the tapes did not have their transcriptions in the textbooks, they were not included. For example, the number of the audio tracks of MONE was very low. The reason is that, in general, the audio tracks of MONE belonged to the activities in the listening parts which included no transcription of any speech bubble, dialogue, or multiparty talk.

3.3.3. The Modular-Evaluative Framework for Textbook Evaluation -MEF

The foundations of the framework, MEF, (for full schema, see Appendix 1) were constructed and specified with a study of comprehensive literature review related to:
-language as a source of input and output
-the paradigm of linguistic and communicative competence
-corpus-based approaches on language use and usage

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-how teaching and learning speaking skills can be enhanced

-theoretical principles and practical applications for material evaluation

-the development and evaluation of classroom materials

-using CEF in teaching speaking.

After MEF was designed, it was applied for one unit of one of the textbooks as a pilot study. I consulted my advisors on both the internal structure and consistency of the sections and subsections that made up MEF. Also the pilot study was discussed and reflected upon with my advisors who told me to exclude some parts due to the heavy load of the framework with too many criteria. Therefore, the psycholinguistic analysis of the tasks in the textbooks relying on the revised version of Bloom's taxonomy was not contained in the final version of the framework.

It should be mentioned that the evaluation based on the framework of the three textbooks was extended over a certain period of time with intervals. After the initial analysis of the textbooks was completed, it was checked whether the comments corresponded to the content of the sections and subsections in MEF for increasing reliability. The full implementation of the instrument and the final version of the analysis were realized after some small changes were made in the framework. These changes included merging of some titles such as backchanneling, hesitation markers, and pausing or the exclusion of some concepts as they were not appropriate for textbooks at A2 level, such as aside.

Having served as a yardstick against which textbooks were evaluated individually and compared afterwards, MEF was formed in a modular design. Details follow:

3.3.2.1. MODULE I-TASK ANALYSIS

For task analysis, each task related to speaking skills was selected. Subcategories of Module I are shown below in Figure 3 and details follow afterwards.

```
                    ┌───────────────┐
                    │   MODULE I     │
                    │     TASK       │
                    │   ANALYSIS     │
                    └───────┬───────┘
        ┌──────────┬────────┼────────┬──────────┐
┌───────────┐┌───────────┐┌─────────────┐┌──────────┐┌─────────────┐
│  TASK     ││ FUNCTIONAL││CONVERSATION ││ RESPONSE ││ INTEGRATIVE │
│  TYPE     ││ CATEGORY  ││   TYPE      ││  TYPE    ││  ASPECT     │
└───────────┘└───────────┘└─────────────┘└──────────┘└─────────────┘
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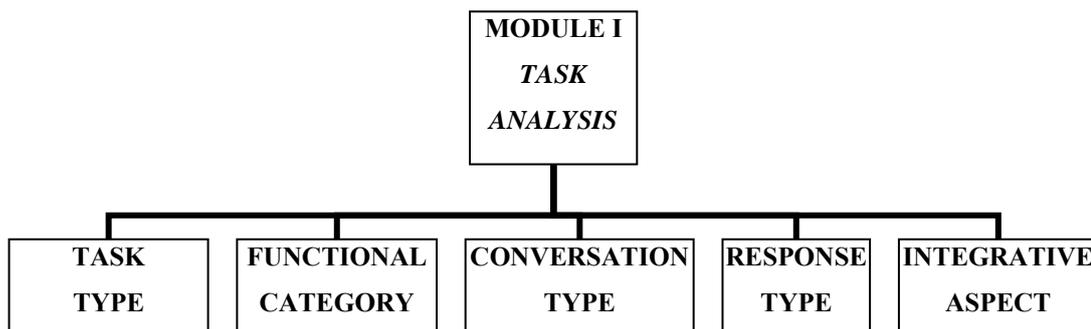
Figure 3 Subcategories of Module I in MEF

3.3.2.1.1.Task Type

Whether students were exposed to the same kinds of instruction in the prompts of the tasks and whether they were being led by multiple instructions (e.g. ask and answer, discuss, compare, or justify) were two points tried to be highlighted in this part. It was important to see where these tasks were placed on the continuum, with the concept of familiarity on one polar, and confusion on the other. It is quite sure that task prompts could lead to the use of higher level cognitive skills. This analysis was to find out if it was the case in our situation.

3.3.2.1.2. Functional Category

For functional category section, after analyzing the content of each spoken text in the tasks in detail, it was decided whether they were transactional or interactional in nature. Though mentioned elsewhere, normally dialogues are not totally transactional or interactional. However, the reduction of the verbal explanations into two linguistic concepts, transactional versus interactional, facilitated the operationalization process of the framework.

3.3.2.1.3. Conversation Type

Operationalization process for this part was also challenging because of the fact that three textbooks had different choices in the writing of the dialogues. Therefore three main criteria were decided to be used in the analysis:

a. speech bubbles; taking place between two interlocutors with not more than three turns

b. dialogue; taking place between two interlocutors with minimum four turns

c. multiparty talk; taking place among at least three interlocutors

3.3.2.1.4. Response Type

Generally, tasks require students to study either individually, with a peer, or with a group of peers. The relative weight given to each type of response by the textbook writers was under scrutiny in this part. Because there was seen no clear-cut distinction between, group work and class activity were accepted under one heading: group work.

3.3.2.1.5. Integrative Aspect

For this analysis all tasks were studied to find out whether speaking skills were combined with other skills such as listening, reading, or grammar. Therefore, the weight of the integrated versus isolated tasks was sought for in this part.

3.3.2.2. MODULE II-PHONOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

When textbooks were analyzed, it was aimed to disclose whether there was explicit teaching of phonological features in the textbooks and if or how much they were integrated with other skills. Also audio tapes of the conversational data in the textbooks were evaluated to find out how much authentic they were. Figure 4 below shows the main features sought through MEF in the Phonological Analysis Module.
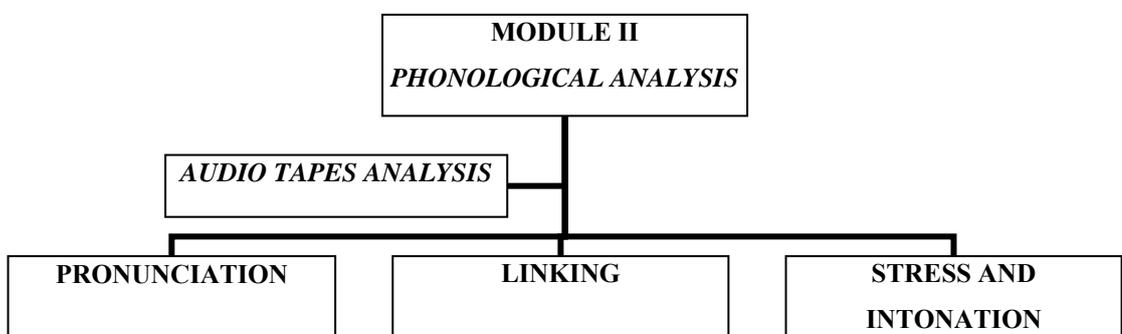
Figure 4 Subcategories of Module II in MEF

3.3.2.3. MODULE III-TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

The primary focus of this module was to determine how much spoken texts of each textbook incorporated words, phrases, or sentences that directly or indirectly helped develop interaction between the speakers. The aim was to reveal to what extent linguistic competence together with lexical competence contributed to the formation of discourse competence. To this end, four subsections being critically essential for communicative situations were determined as the evaluative criteria. Figure 5 shows the constructs and details follow afterwards.
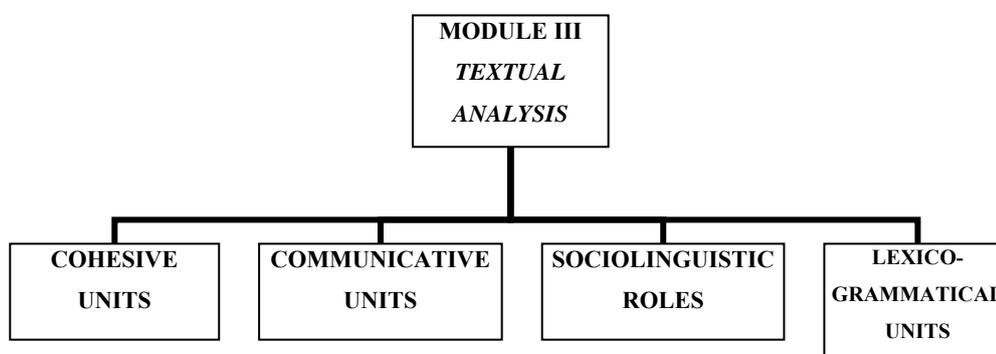
Figure 5 Subcategories of Module III in MEF

3.3.2.3.1. Cohesive Units

For the first subcategory, following cohesive units were searched for in each of the three textbooks. (Examples are from the spoken texts of MONE, OUP, or CUP.)

a. Conjunctions [1. Causative (e.g. because, so), 2. Adversative (e.g. but, yet), 3. Additive (e.g. and, in addition), 4. Temporal (e.g. when, then)]

b. Substitution (e.g. No, I don't think so.)

c. Ellipsis (e.g. Why not; Nothing excited.)

d. Reference (1. Anaphora 2. Cataphora) (e.g. I haven't talked about that yet.)

3.3.2.3.2. Communicative Units

In this subcategory, the following communicative units were searched for in each of the three textbooks. (Examples are from the spoken texts of MONE, OUP, or CUP.)

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a. Authenticity and Sociocultural Perspective (the degree of genuineness in speaking tasks and spoken texts, and sociocultural perspectives in the texts)

b. Style and Register (the use of language in contexts with different levels of formality)

c. Backchanneling (e.g. Yeah; Oh no)

d. Hedging (e.g. I quite like ...; I'm afraid not ...)

e. Politeness (e.g. Thanks a lot.; Enjoy it.)

f. Vague Language (e.g. kind of silly; like this)

3.3.2.3.3. Sociolinguistic Roles

In this subcategory, the roles of the interlocutors in spoken exchanges were analyzed and evaluated under the following titles. (Examples are from the spoken texts of MONE, OUP, or CUP.)

a. Turn Taking/Topic Initiation (e.g. Oh; Hi; Well)

b. Negotiation (e.g. Do you mean it?)

c. Topic Shift (e.g. By the way; And)

d. Leave Taking (e.g. See you then; Bye)

3.3.2.3.4. Lexicogrammatical Units-LGUs

For LGUs, the following headings were taken into account:

a. Chunks: *Collocations-Fixed Expressions-Idioms* (e.g. at the weekend; of course; I'm broke)

b. Institutionalized Chunks (e.g. Are you interested in ...?; Don't forget to ...)

c. Modality (e.g. It could mean ...; What should I have ...?; I'll probably …)

3.3.2.4. MODULE IV-LEXICAL ANALYSIS

Learning a language is, in general, seen as learning vocabulary. In this study, to find how much spoken data used as a tool of instruction at schools through textbooks were laden with more useful vocabulary, a corpus-based online database was utilized. Figure 6 below shows the subcategories of Module IV and details follow.

```
                           ┌─────────────────────┐
                           │     MODULE IV       │
                           │  *LEXICAL ANALYSIS* │
                           └─────────────────────┘
                                      │
          ┌───────────────────────────┼───────────────────────────┐
┌─────────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────────┐   ┌─────────────────────┐
│ LEXICAL FREQUENCY   │   │  LEXICAL DENSITY    │   │  RECYCLING INDEX    │
│ (CORE VOCABULARY)   │   │  (CONTENT/TOTAL     │   │  (TYPE/TOKEN RATIO) │
└─────────────────────┘   └─────────────────────┘   └─────────────────────┘
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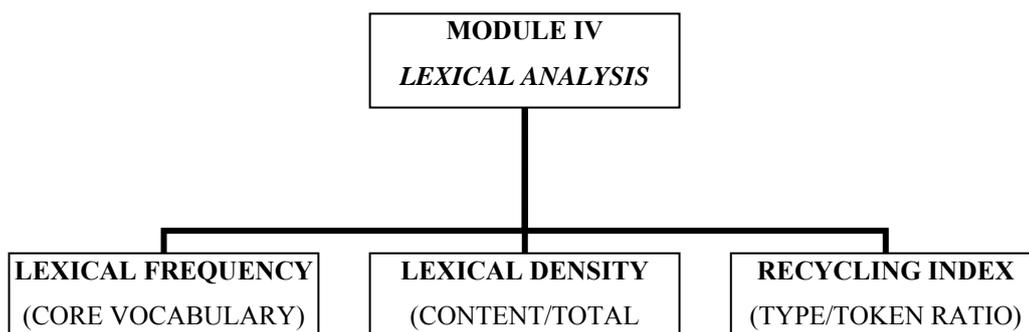
Figure 6 Subcategories of Module IV in MEF

3.3.2.4.1. Lexical Frequency

The percentage of the useful vocabulary was calculated to determine to what extent students were exposed to vocabulary of high frequency. The lists against which the compiled spoken texts were analyzed were 1st 1000, 2nd 1000 most frequent words in English (West, 1953), and Academic Word List (AWL) (Coxhead, 2000).

3.3.2.4.2. Lexical Density

Otherwise called as content word-total word ratio or complexity factor, lexical density was important in that it would reveal to what extent students were exposed to vocabulary that can stand alone and that have a meaning complete in themselves.

3.3.2.4.3. Recycling Index

Otherwise known as type-token ratio, recycling index was calculated so that how much repetition took place which could contribute to acquisition could be found out.

3.3.4. The Questionnaire for EFL Students-SQ

Dörnyei (2003) notes that "because the essence of *scientific research* is trying to find answers to questions in a systematic manner, it is no wonder that the *questionnaire* has become one of the most popular research instrument applied in the social sciences" (p. 3). The questionnaire was developed for this thesis research mainly to explore if or how much EFL students were satisfied with their education on speaking skills. Drawing on the theoretical background of important concepts such as speaking skills, communicative competence, and discourse and conversational analysis, I developed the questionnaire to specify the different parameters underlying how to

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teach and learn speaking skills. After having received constructive feedback from my supervisor and co-advisor, some points were rethought and rewritten, which follow:

-Statements were reduced in length for ease of reading and to avoid confusion at first glance by the respondents.

-For practical use and avoiding time loss, the number of pages was reduced to three which was initially six.

-For the washback section of the questionnaire two statements were included regarding formative assessment and summative assessment of speaking skills.

-Some phrases were clarified and several typos were corrected.

There were five questions in the first part of the SQ that were asked to learn about the language background of the participants. In the second part, there were SQ statements (N=27), written and administered in Turkish in case of a possible reaction by the students. That is, the topic of the questionnaire (speaking skills) was already problematic for most of the students and so to administer the SQ in English would probably have affected their views negatively. To avoid this bias which would also affect the reliability of the tool, it was conducted in L1 of the participants, Turkish.

As Oppenheim (1992) states "every aspect of a survey has to be tried out beforehand to make sure that it works as intended" (p. 65). Therefore, a pilot study was conducted so that any unforeseen problems could be detected. "The typical sample size at this stage is around 50 (+/- 20)" (Dörnyei (2003, p. 68). In this respect, 39 students using MONE took the questionnaire. Because of time constraint, the pilot study could not be conducted with students using OUP and CUP. And there was no obvious drawback before and after the administration. The reliability score for the initial version was $\alpha=.81$. The data from the pilot study was not included in the original data analysis.

In the descriptive part, in addition to being asked about demographic information such as age and gender, respondents were asked questions to find out about their language background. "In order to follow a more systematic approach" (Dörnyei,

2003, p. 32), after a comprehensive review of theoretical background relevant to the thesis statement, five aspects of speaking skills were included in five sections in the student questionnaire, which follow:

1. Statements 1-6: Tasks and texts regarding speaking skills in the textbooks

2. Statements 7-13: Instruction of speaking skills in the classroom by the teachers

3. Statements 14-17: Self-report on awareness towards macro skills of speaking

4. Statements 18-21: Learner autonomy for developing speaking skills

5. Statements 22-27: Washback effect of the instruction of speaking skills

Cronbach's alpha coefficient, "an index of interitem reliability" (Leary, 2001, p. 400) was calculated as the reliability statistic and it was seen that the internal consistency of the SQ was quite high (Cronbach's α = .87). One type of fixed-format self-report measuring, five-point Likert scale, was used in this study. From more positive to less, five items in the scale follow:

5- Strongly Agree   4- Agree   3- Neutral   2- Disagree   1- Strongly Disagree

3.3.5. The Discourse Competence Test for EFL Students-DCT

The third part of the questionnaire was the Discourse Competence Test, DCT, aimed to gauge the awareness level of the students about the core units of discoursal coherence. Each of the six items (see Appendix 2 and 4, for originally applied and translated version respectively) corresponded a feature essential for discourse competence.

ITEM 1- Realization of the difference between authentic and scripted or contrived dialogue written for classroom use: *Authenticity versus Artificiality.*

ITEM 2- Realization of the difference between the statements each appropriate for different social contexts: *Style and Register*

ITEM 3- Realization of the meaning beyond sentence level: *Illocutionary act.*

ITEM 4- Realization of the difference between the use of *well* as a backchannel or an adverb: *Topic initiation-Backchanneling.*

ITEM 5-Realization of the use of *so* to replace a word to avoid redundancy: *Substitution.*

ITEM 6- Realization of the use of *so* as a transitional element: *Conjunction.*

It is a well-known fact that discourse competence or textual awareness is not something immediately and easily testable. However, different objectives for each of the items provided an idea about how students approached a test that was not the format and the content they were used to. For reliability analysis, since the test required polarized answers, correct or not, Kuder Richardson 20 Analysis (α =.67) was conducted.

3.3.6. The Questionnaire for EFL Teachers-TQ

In the first part there were eight questions that were asked to learn about the language background of the participants. In the second part there were questionnaire statements (N=27). This questionnaire was developed to find out the teachers' perceptions of five different but related topics concerning speaking skills. The sections in the TQ follow:

1. Statements 1-6: Tasks and texts regarding speaking skills in the textbooks

2. Statements 7-13: Self-report on the instruction of speaking skills in the classroom

3. Statements 14-17: The weight of macro skills of speaking in the textbooks

4. Statements 18-22: Teacher autonomy for developing speaking skills

5. Statements 23-27: Washback effect of the instruction of speaking skills

Because of the constraint of contacting English teachers who were using the textbooks at A2 level, pilot study of the teacher questionnaire could not be conducted. However, one English teacher filled both the student and teacher questionnaire upon request. She was then consulted on the layout of the questionnaires and the content, and asked about how much time either questionnaire required. Her only comment regarding the SQ was that the use of Turkish in it was very reasonable in that the participants might have trouble understanding the content

and this would decrease the reliability of the tool. As for the TQ, she did not make any specific comment that necessitated a change in the format or the content.

The TQ was developed and applied in English and required nearly 10 minutes to fill just like the SQ. Cronbach's alpha coefficient (α=.81) showed that there was high consistency between the statements of the TQ.

3.3.7. The Commentary Part in The Questionnaire for EFL Students

In the commentary part of the SQ, respondents were required to add more of their thoughts or comments regarding the main topic, speaking skills. There was not any more question or part that could be regarded as open-ended apart from the space allocated for the participants' comments. However, the number of the students who commented about speaking skills was rather high (N=245) and many of the comments they gave were detailed account of their background about language learning, particularly speaking skills. This keen participation made it possible to reflect upon the common themes having emerged from the writings of the students.

3.4. Data Collection Procedures

After the questionnaires were xeroxed in a booklet format, they were sent to the teachers, one teacher for each school, by cargo due to long distances between the schools and so time constraint. In relation to the training of the teachers who would be responsible for the administration process, either in person, through phone call, or mailing, they were informed about the aim and content of the questionnaires, and how they should be administered. They were given detailed information on the pre-, during, and post-administration process. Dörnyei (2003) writes that "a possible remedy is to give the administrator a *cue card* with the main points to be covered briefly when handing out each questionnaire" (p. 81). So, a list of statements regarding the administration of the questionnaire was given to the teachers so that there was consistency and uniformity at every school in the explanations for students and teachers.

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Student questionnaires were conducted at the beginning of the classes. Confidentiality was particularly emphasized and the participants were told they did not have to write their names and mail addresses on the forms although there was space for them on the first page. Anonymity was stressed because there were statements in the questionnaire that pertained to English teachers' attitudes in and outside the classroom, which could result in hesitant answers. It took nearly 10 minutes to fill the form from beginning to the end (together with the DCT). After the questionnaires were recollected, teachers in charge gave feedback to me and sent them back by cargo. In four of the schools, teachers needed to ask some questions regarding the questionnaire, so an instant contact through mobile calls was made and they were answered immediately. The same responsible teachers also filled the TQ themselves and made their colleagues do the same and sent them with the student questionnaires all at a time. Additionally, because of the negative connotation of the term *test* among students, it was given as the sixth and the last section in the SQ. Also, it wouldn't be practical to make the students sit the test another time.

3.5. Data Analyses Procedures

3.5.1. The Analysis of the Compiled Texts and the Audio Tapes Under the Framework-MEF

"Discourse research is mainly qualitative because it is inherently interpretive" (Trappes-Lomax, 2004, p. 140), hence the relevant parts in the textbooks were analyzed through MEF and then the results were reported. Tasks and spoken texts were highlighted and annotated in their PDF and MS Word, 2013 format. Then all the annotations were inserted into MS Excel, 2013 file. In discussing how to analyze the data in a research, Ellis (1997b) refers to the "quantification of the information" and the qualitative one which includes a "narrative description". For the evaluation of the materials in the domain of this study, a qualitative approach was taken, however, in relevant parts the total number of evaluated concepts and average scores were compared and reported such as the number of conjunctions in each textbook or the percentages of the recycling index.

For the corpus-based analysis of the lexicogrammatical units (LGUs), or phrasal frequency and range, the compiled spoken texts of the three types of the textbooks were analyzed first through intuition and then the process was repeated in a corpus-based manner, through the 1st 1000, and 2nd 1000 words lists (West, 1953) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) (Davies, 2008). Because the overall analysis was already very detailed itself, and for practicality, the phrases only in the first units of each textbook were entered as queries into COCA. Then frequency information of the LGUs regarding different genres—spoken, fiction, magazine, newspaper, or academic—were received.

For lexical frequency of the compiled spoken texts, this time for individual words, a computer program Vocabulary Profile (VP) (original VP: Heatley, Nation & Coxhead, 2002) (webVP: Cobb, 2012) was used. After the texts were submitted, the program calculated the percentage of the most useful vocabulary, the ratio of lexical density, and recycling.

As for the audio tracks, they were listened and checked for the criteria in the relevant part in MEF, Module II. Findings and reflections upon them were reported.

3.5.2. The Analysis of the Student Questionnaire and the Discourse Competence Test

As for the SQ and TQ, the data from the questionnaires were first inserted into MS Excel and then into SPSS. No missing data was imputed. SPSS was used to compute descriptive and frequency analyses together with the following regarding the SQ.

> 1. To reveal if there was a significant relation among the responses of the students with different textbooks (MONE, OUP, and CUP) to the SQ statements, Kruskal Wallis H test was run.

2. To reveal if there was a significant difference among the mean scores of the DCT results of the students using different textbooks (MONE, OUP, and CUP), one-way ANOVA analysis was run.

3. To reveal if there was a significant relation among the responses of the students in four different classes (9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th classes) to the SQ statements, Kruskal Wallis H test was run.

4. To reveal if there was a significant difference among the mean scores of the DCT results of the students in different classes (9th, 10th, 11th, and 12th), one-way ANOVA analysis was run.

5. To reveal if there was a significant relation among the responses of the students at public and private schools to the SQ statements, Mann Whitney U test was run.

6. To reveal if there was a significant difference among the mean scores of the DCT results of the students at public and private schools, Independent T test was run.

7. To reveal if there was a significant relation among the responses of the students in four provinces of Turkey (İstanbul, Kocaeli, Trabzon, and Kars) to the SQ statements, Kruskal Wallis H test was run.

8. To reveal if there was a significant relation among the mean scores of the DCT results of the students in different provinces of Turkey (İstanbul, Kocaeli, Trabzon, and Kars), one-way ANOVA analysis was run.

3.5.3. The Analysis of the Teacher Questionnaire

With respect to the TQ, apart from the descriptive and frequency analyses, the following analyses were run.

1. To see if there was a significant relation among the responses of the teachers using MONE, teachers using OUP, and teachers using CUP in English classes to the TQ statements, Kruskal Wallis H test was run.

2. To see if there was a significant difference among the responses of the teachers working at public schools and private schools to the TQ statements, Mann Whitney U test was run.

3. To see if there was a significant correlation between the responses of the teachers to the TQ statements in terms of age, Spearman correlation analysis was run.

4. To see if there was a significant correlation between the responses of the teachers to the TQ statements in terms of the year of experience in ELT, Spearman correlation analysis was run.

3.5.4. Contrastive Analysis of the Student and Teacher Questionnaire

To see if there was a significant difference between the responses of the students and the teachers to the common questionnaire statements, Mann Whitney U test was run.

3.5.5. Contrastive Thematic Analysis of the Commentary Part in the Student Questionnaire

To have a better understanding of the overall responses to the SQ statements, a content analysis was performed. With respect to the commentary part in the closing section of the SQ, the number of respondents who commented was 245 (23.42%) out of the total 1046 participants. Common themes were extracted, reflected upon afterwards, and "the pool of diverse responses is reduced to a handful of key issues in a reliable manner" (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 117). Both intertextual and intratextual analysis were performed so that similarities as well as differences could be elucidated.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. Analysis of the Spoken Texts Under the Framework-MEF

4.1.1. Descriptive Analysis of the Textbooks

Table 1 below shows some main facts about the textbooks evaluated in the study.

Table 1 *The Number of Units, Tasks and Words in the Compiled Spoken Texts*

Textbook-Publisher	units (n)	speaking tasks (n)	words in the compiled spoken text (n)
1.Yes You Can-MONE	8	46	2298
2.Solutions Türkiye-OUP	10	51	3028
3.Interchange-CUP	16	71	3630
Total	34	168	8956

As is seen above, the highest number of tasks was in CUP followed by OUP and MONE. The situation was the same for the overall length of the spoken texts.

4.1.2. Descriptive Analysis of MEF categories

As the texts were not of the same length, percentages for the criteria were calculated, results of which follow:

4.1.2.1. MODULE I-TASK ANALYSIS

The first module incorporated the following subsections.

4.1.2.1.1. Task Type

There was some variety in the tasks of the three textbooks, which revealed the expectation of the textbook authors from the textbook users. However, it was obvious that the prompts displayed a rather repetitive pattern. The most common type of task was "ask and answer" which mostly required students to refer to their lower mental skills. Another task type to promote language use included instructions such as "discuss", "compare" or "justify" which mostly required students to refer to

their higher mental skills. There were some other types of task instructions but as presenting two types of tasks, one for lower mental skills and one for higher, would be enough to show the overall mentality of the textbook writers in relation to variety in spoken tasks. Figure 7 below shows the percentages of both task categories.
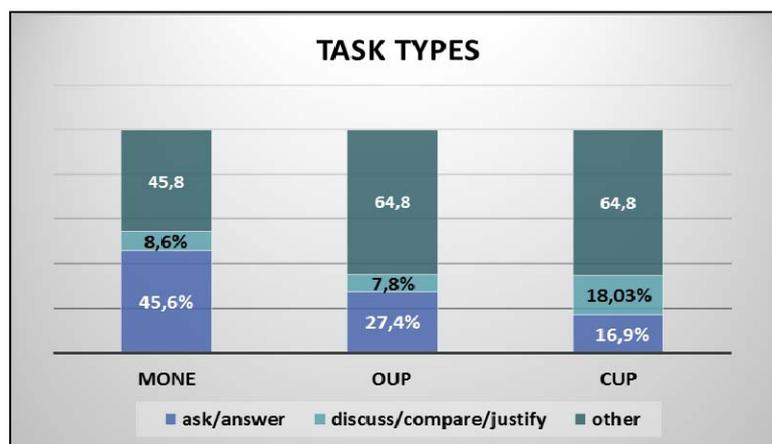
Figure 7 Percentages of the Task Types in the Textbooks

The number of the tasks of the first category (ask and answer) was 21 (out of 46) (45.6%), 14 (out of 51) (27.4%) and 12 (out of 71) (16.9%) for MONE, OUP, and CUP respectively. Also, there were 4 (8.6%), 4 (7.8%), and 13 (18.03%) tasks in the second category (discuss/compare/justify) in MONE, OUP, and CUP respectively.

4.1.2.1.2. Functional Category

In the textbooks, the contexts in which spoken data was presented were not remarkably varied. The type of spoken texts or their functional category – either interactional (informal) or transactional (formal) – in each textbook is shown in Figure 8 below:
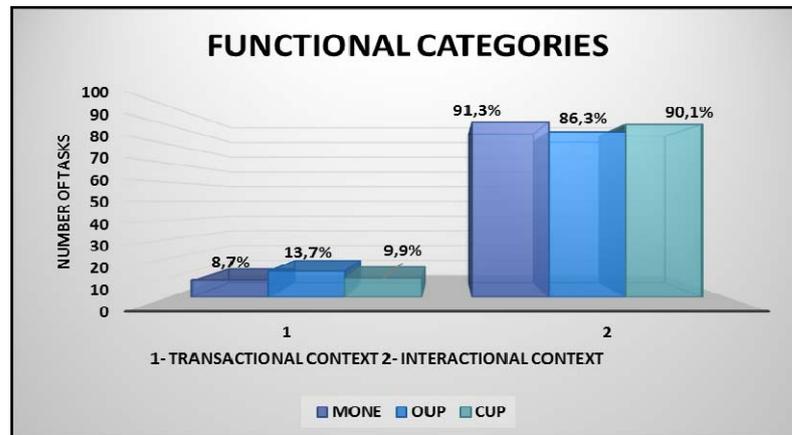
Figure 8 Percentages of the Functional Categories of the Speaking Texts in the Textbooks

As is seen above the number of formal conversations was low in all of the textbooks with percentages of 8.7%, 13.7%, and 9.9% for MONE, OUP, and CUP respectively.

4.1.2.1.3. Conversation Type

The dialogues in each textbook varied in length. The number of the conversation types – speech bubbles, dialogues, multiparty talks – are shown in Figure 9 below.
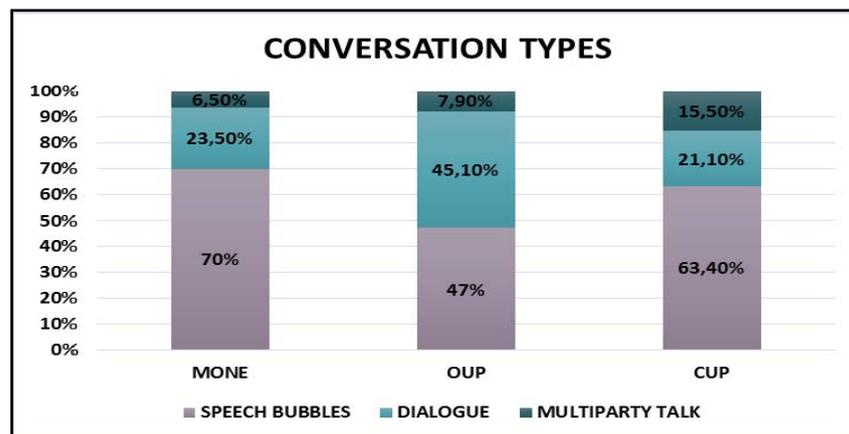
Figure 9 Percentages of the Conversation Types of the Speaking Texts in the Textbooks

According to the analysis, the most common type of speech in the textbooks was speech bubbles and the least common type was multiparty talk.

4.1.2.1.4. Response Type

The weight of response types in each task that required individual study, or pair and group work was searched for in this study. Figure 10 below shows the results.
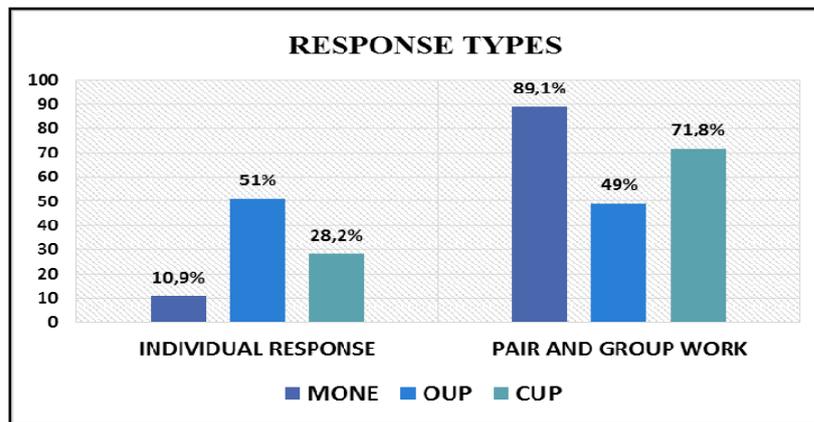
Figure 10 Percentages of the Response Types of the Speaking Tasks in the Textbooks

The analysis showed that individual study as regards speaking skills was required much less than pair and group work.

4.1.2.1.5. Integrative Aspect

The number of the tasks in relation to speaking skills that were not given in their own right but in a format requiring the use of multi-skills at a time was searched for in this analysis. Figure 11 below shows the results.
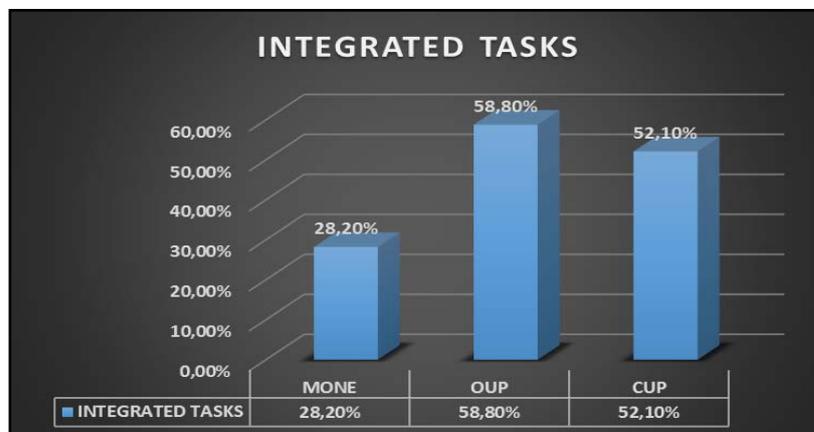
Figure 11 Percentages of the Integrated Speaking Tasks in the Textbooks

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The percentages of speaking tasks that were combined with those of listening, pronunciation, grammar, or vocabulary was 13 (out of 46) (28.20%), 30 (out of 51) (58.80%), and 37 (out of 71) (52.10%) for MONE, OUP, and CUP respectively.

4.1.2.2. MODULE II-PHONOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

To what extent content knowledge and tasks in the textbooks could raise awareness towards phonology and its function in communication was searched for through Module II. First, in MONE, in 1 (12.5%) unit out of 8, there were two parts to explain some phonological information. Second, in OUP in 9 (90%) units out of 10 there were 14 tasks in total in relation to the phonological aspect of language. And, in CUP in all the units (n=16), there was a particular task together with some information regarding phonological competence.

As for the assessment of the audio tapes of the textbooks, the number of the tapes that belonged to the speaking tasks and spoken texts was 5 (3 for pronunciation practice) (8.4%) out of 59 tapes, 29 (14 for pronunciation practice) (24.7%) out of 117 tapes, and 45 (22 for pronunciation practice) (29.03%) out of 155 tapes, for MONE, OUP, and CUP respectively.

4.1.2.3. MODULE III-TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

In this part, the results that stemmed from an in-depth analysis were not presented quantitatively. That is, no percentage or total numbers were given. The rationale was that there is no clear-cut distinction in linguistics as to what a hedge is or what a vague expression is. They are so much interconnected that they do not allow totally objective assessments. However, after specifying what each title refers to, examples from the textbooks were given and whether the frequent expressions were used and whether there was variety in use were searched for. The third module incorporated the following subsections.

4.1.2.3.1. Cohesive Units

a) Conjunctions: Instead of counting the total number of conjunctions in the whole text, it was regarded more important to see if the conjunctions were spread equally over the themes. The analysis revealed that in MONE in 36 (78.2%) tasks out of 46 there was at least one transitional element; in OUP in 28 (54.9%) tasks out of 51 there was at least one transitional element; and in CUP in 42 (59.1) tasks out of 71 there was at least one transitional element.

b) Substitution: Replacement of string of phrases with *so*, *do* or *one* is how the cohesive device, substitution, is processed. In MONE evidences of substitution by *so*, in OUP by *do*, and in CUP by both *so* and *do* were spotted.

c) Ellipsis: Omission of some words or phrases from a sentence, that is, ellipsis, was one of the most common units that added lifelike texture to the dialogues. In MONE, OUP, and CUP, there was a wide variety of examples for ellipsis.

d) Reference: Referencing to an earlier (anaphora) or a later (cataphora) concept is in general realized by the use of pronouns. The use of subject, object, and possessive pronouns were typically common in MONE, OUP, and CUP. However, within the scope of this analysis were particularly anaphoric and cataphoric expressions in the sense that they help speakers interpret spoken data and shorten the speeches allowing for further communication. It was seen that anaphoric expressions were more common in all textbooks than cataphoric ones in that referring backward is a more direct way of pointing something and thus more easily understandable than referring forward. In MONE anaphoric expressions were becoming frequent as units progressed but in OUP and CUP they were observed from the beginning.

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4.1.2.3.2. Communicative Units

a) Authenticity and Sociocultural Perspective: The use of real-life expressions was not uncommon in the spoken texts of the three types of textbooks. The variety of conversational expressions, however, was not broad. The reason maybe that the textbooks were written for elementary or pre-intermediate students. Therefore, the level of genuineness might have been kept at a certain level. As for sociocultural perspective, an important dimension of authenticity, there were dialogues in all three textbooks that incorporated elements of cultural imposition and examples of insensitivity regarding local values.

b) Style and Register: In three types of the textbooks evaluated, the variety of contexts and thus the language appropriated for that context was not satisfactory. Put another way, apart from several contexts that required attention on formality and informality cline most of the dialogues took place between friends and sometimes between family members. There was not even one dialogue between a teacher and a student in a classroom environment in any of the textbooks, which normally constitutes the largest part of a language learner's initial discourse.

c) Backchanneling: In MONE, backchanneling items were frequently used in the dialogues some of which were: *Oh; hmm; OK; Aha; Sure; Oh, of course; Wow; Hey; Great.* Most of these expressions were recycled on a regular basis in the dialogues. In OUP, apart from the overlapping ones following backchannels were used: *Uh; Er; Yeah; Well; Ah; Oh dear.* In OUP too many of these were repeated frequently thus helping students reinforce such concepts. In CUP, apart from the frequent use of some common ones such as *well, oh,* or *Ok*; the following items were also spotted: *huh; oh right; gee.*

d) Hedging: In MONE, the use of *just* as a hedging device (Just ten minutes) was recycled several times and the use of *I'm afraid* also served to soften the effect of the

negative answer (I'm afraid I don't agree). In OUP, the expressions that functioned as hedging devices follow: *I quite like; Not really; I quite enjoy; I'm afraid (not); You can just (get on); May I just ask you?* In CUP, the following expressions were used as hedges: *This is only (my third time); just (follow me); I'm not really sure; I'm afraid so* (here, together with substitution)*; Not really; Maybe/probably; I'm almost (out of money).*

e) Politeness: In MONE, expressions used to be polite and less assertive while speaking were *Thanks a lot; Please; Enjoy it; Enjoy (your meal).* In OUP, in addition to the ones in MONE, there were the expressions of *Here you are; Thanks very much; Here is a . . .* In CUP, these expressions were used, as well.

f) Vague Language: The use of such words as *kind of* or *sort of* refers to vague language. Also, indefinite pronouns such as *anything*, or *somebody* are categorized under this title in that a sense of open-endedness is inherent in these pronouns. In MONE, OUP, and CUP, indefinite pronouns were used as a form of vague language. As to MONE, the use of *anything else* can be mentioned. In OUP, vague language was very evident in its spoken texts. Examples include *what else*, (I'm not) *that keen* (on watching TV); *Nothing much.* In CUP, there were examples of vague language including *like that/this; kind of silly; it sounds like fun.*

4.1.2.3.3. Sociolinguistic Roles

a) Turn Taking/Topic Initiation: In MONE, following expressions were recognized that helped launch a topic: *By the way; Well; Hello; And; Hi; Hey; Good morning; Oh.* In OUP, additional expressions for initiating a conversation were *So; In my opinion; In your opinion; Now; Look; Good morning/afternoon/evening; Can I help you?* In CUP additional ones were *Excuse me; Oh hello;* and the repetition of the name of the interlocutor (Jason). The use of *and* and *so* was quite common both in OUP and CUP.

b) Negotiation: As a form of negotiation, in MONE, there were several clear evidences of asking for clarification by repeating the unknown part; by saying "I couldn't get it. Can you repeat it?" It is certainly of note that there is one instance of self-correction or self-negotiation – maybe a reference to aside or self-talk in MONE. The speaker says to himself: "I made the same mistake again." This kind of a speech is not unfamiliar to speakers of L1. Expressing it in L2, though insufficient, is important particularly in terms of variety in speech. In OUP, there were many clear instances of negotiation, one of them being in the form of correcting what the interlocutor said. Other forms were repeating one part of the prior sentence; asking for clarification by saying "Pardon? / Sorry, did you say?" In CUP, also, there were many clear instances of negotiation by repeating the unknown part in the prior sentence or by using the interrogative statements "Do you mean it?" or "What?"

c) Topic Shift: In MONE, the words or phrases used to indicate that one of the speakers would like not to continue the former topic but start a new one or add a new dimension to the existing one included *And; And you; By the way*. In OUP, *Hey you two; Actually;* and *Look* were used to indicate a topic shift. In CUP, *Hey; By the way; And; So; And you; In fact; Actually; Say; But; And anyway; Or; And then* were used for a change in speech. Particularly in CUP these markers recycled remarkably.

d) Leave Taking: Expressions in MONE to end a conversation included *See you bye; Here is (your meal), Enjoy it; Here you are, Thanks; That is a good idea, Thanks;* and *Let's go (this afternoon) then.* Those in OUP included *Here you are; See you tomorrow; See you then;* and *See you later.* Those in CUP were *Oh, thanks a lot; That's great; That's fine with me;* and *Oh, so that's what it means.*

4.1.2.3.4. Lexicogrammatical Units (LGUs)
As for LGUs, the textual analysis revealed that they were used to a reasonable degree in the three textbooks. However, it was observed that they were limited in scope. That is, the variety of LGUs was not satisfactory from the view point that as the

target learners were at A2 level they needed to learn the different aspects of the language for which LGUs were one of the main constituent.

Phrasal frequency analysis revealed that out of the 9 phrases in the first unit (theme) of MONE, 1 was more frequent in academic English, but the rest were frequently used either in spoken English or fiction. On the other hand, in the first unit of OUP, 11 out of 23 LGUs were more frequent in spoken English than in any other genre. The rest were more frequent either in fiction or magazine. As for the first unit of CUP, 8 out of 15 LGUs were more frequent in spoken English than in any other genre. The rest were more frequent in fiction.

a) Chunks: *Collocations - Fixed Expressions - Idioms:* In MONE following phraseological units were examples of collocation, fixed expression, and idiom respectively: *a long and healthy life; by the way; poor you.* It should be noted that in MONE, despite the frequent use of chunks, there was a serious neglect of idioms and phrasal verbs in the conversational data. Following examples are from OUP corresponding to the same units in the sequence above: *really good; here you are; hang on.* Conversational text of OUP just like MONE included many chunks however OUP was better than MONE in terms of the intensity of the chunks in use and particularly idioms and phrasal verbs. Following examples are from CUP: *a little difficult; at first; hang up.* As for CUP, it was the most successful in that there were many instances of figurative language, idioms. It is notable to say that students' being exposed to the two meanings of the same phrasal verb – one literal other figurative – as in the case of *hang on,* was a good example of effective teaching of vocabulary in CUP. The reason is that variety in meaning is what learners should be made familiar.

b) Institutionalized Chunks: The longer stretches of chunks with a more flexible structure, this group of words was evidenced remarkably in all types of spoken texts. Following examples are from MONE: *I'm interested in ...; I agree with ...; Would*

you like ... ? Examples from OUP are *Let's watch ...; I'd like to ...; Are you going to ... ?* The text of CUP included the following: *Why don't you ... ?; Would you please ... ?; Don't forget to ...* Most chunks more or less represent grammatical structures and so are a tool for making students familiar with the syntax behind semantics without explicitly giving the rules. Therefore, most phrases were similar and were repeated in all of the textbooks. Nevertheless it was OUP and CUP that incorporated diversity regarding these units.

c) Modality: Under the title of LGUs come modalities consisting of verbs, expressions, or certain adverbs that carry such meanings as probability, obligation, or advice. In MONE, the following modal verbs were spotted: *can, may, should, would* (used for requesting something from somebody), *used to/did you use to, must, why don't you, let's go.* Apart from the ones in MONE, the spoken text of OUP included *need/needn't/don't need to, shall, ought to, may, could, would rather, do you fancy, fancy seeing it?, I'm not sure*. In CUP different forms included *be allowed to, have to, should have/shouldn't have, be sure to do, probably, I guess.*

4.1.2.4. MODULE IV-LEXICAL ANALYSIS

Texts of each textbook, after being compiled from the whole text, were inserted into a corpus-based webpage. Based on the outputs, three categories were included under lexical analysis, which follow:

4.1.2.4.1. Lexical Frequency

The percentage of words of high frequency including 1st 1000, 2nd 1000, and AWL for MONE, OUP, CUP is 88%, 87%, and 90% respectively, which were quite high.

4.1.2.4.2. Lexical Density

The content and total word ratio for MONE, OUP, and CUP was 0.48, 0.48, and 0.47 respectively, which were at a moderate level.

4.1.2.4.3. Recycling Index

The ratio of type and token words for MONE, OUP, and CUP was 0.44, 0.45, and 0.49 respectively, which were also at a moderate level.

4.2. Frequency Analysis of the Respondents of SQ and TQ

Frequency analysis was run for respondents in relation to their gender, textbook they were using in English classes, class, school type, and province. They follow:

4.2.1. Frequency Distribution of the Respondents to Gender

Table 2 below shows frequency distribution of the respondents of the SQ to gender.

Table 2 *Frequency Distribution of the Respondents to Gender*

Gender	student		teacher	
	f	%	f	%
1. Female	677	64.7	24	72.7
2. Male	369	35.3	9	27.3
Total	1046	100	33	100

As is seen above, in the study the number of the female students was 677 (64.7%) and the number of the male students was 369 (35.3%). The number of the female teachers was 24 (72.7%) and the number of the male teachers was 9 (27.3%).

4.2.2. Frequency Distribution of the Respondents to Textbook

Table 3 below shows the frequency table of the respondents of the SQ to the textbook they were using in their English classes.

Table 3 *Frequency Distribution of the Respondents to Textbook*

textbook	student		teacher	
	f	%	f	%
1. MONE	405	38.7	8	24.2
2. OUP	471	45	17	51.5
3. CUP	170	16.3	8	24.2
Total	1046	100	33	100

As is seen above, in the study the number of the student respondents for MONE, OUP, and CUP is 405 (38.7%), 471 (45%), and 170 (16.3%) respectively. In

addition, the number of the teacher respondents for MONE, OUP, and CUP is 8 (24.2%), 17 (51.5%), and 8 (24.2%) respectively.

4.2.3. Frequency Distribution of the Respondents to School Type

Table 4 below shows the frequency table of the respondents of the SQ to the school type; public and private.

Table 4 *Frequency Distribution of the Respondents to School Type*

school type	student		teacher	
	f	%	f	%
1. Public	405	38.7	8	24.2
2. Private	641	61.3	25	75.8
Total	1046	100	33	100

The figures above shows that the number of the student respondents at a public school was 405 (38.7%) and the number of those at a private school was 641 (61.3%). In addition, the number of the teacher respondents working at a public school was 8 (24.2%) and the number of those at a private school was 25 (75.8%).

4.2.4. Frequency Distribution of the Respondents to Province

Table 5 below shows frequency distribution of the respondents of the SQ to the provinces where they were attending their schools.

Table 5 *Frequency Distribution of the Respondents to Province*

province	student		teacher	
	f	%	f	%
1. İstanbul	849	81.2	28	84.8
2. Kocaeli	24	2.3	2	6.1
3. Trabzon	41	3.9	1	3
4. Kars	132	12.6	2	6.1
Total	1046	100	33	100

As is seen above, the number of the student respondents was 849 (81.2%), 24 (2.3%), 41 (3.9%), and 132 (12.6%) for students living in İstanbul, Kocaeli, Trabzon, and Kars respectively. In addition, the number of the teacher respondents was 28 (84.8%), 2 (6.1%), 1 (3%), and 2 (6.1%) for teachers living and working in İstanbul, Kocaeli, Trabzon, and Kars respectively.

4.2.5. Frequency Distribution of the Student Respondents to Class

Table 6 below shows frequency distribution of the respondents of the SQ to their classes: 9th, 10th, 11th, or 12th.

Table 6 *Frequency Distribution of the Respondents to Class*

Class	Students	
	f	%
1. Class 9	402	38.4
2. Class 10	188	18
3. Class 11	202	19.3
4. Class 12	254	24.3
Total	1046	100

As is seen above, in the study the number of student respondents in class 9, 10, 11, and 12 was 402 (38.4%), 188 (18%), 202 (19.3%), and 254 (24.3%) respectively.

4.3. Descriptive and Frequency Analysis of the Questions in SQ and TQ

4.3.1. Descriptive and Frequency Analysis of the Questions in the Questionnaire for EFL Students

There were five questions in the first part of the questionnaire designed to learn more about the students and their language background.

Question 1: The number of the years participating students had English classes in their education varied from 1 to 13 (M=8.02, SD=1.75). **Question 2:** The number of the English class hours at schools per week varied from 1 to 12 (M=5.04). **Question 3:** 176 (16.8%) of the students said that they had a separate class of speaking skills.

453 (43.3%) of them said that they had speaking skills' instruction included in reading or listening comprehension classes. 141 (13.5%) of them said that they had sometimes speaking classes separate from others and sometimes together with other English classes. 244 (23.3%) of them said they had no speaking classes either separately or with other English classes. 32 (3.1%) students did not comment. **Question 4:** 144 (13.8%) of the students said they attended a language course in order to improve their general English level. 774 (74%) of them said they had never gone to a language course in order to improve their general English level. 124 (11.9%) of them said they were thinking of going to one in the future. 4 (0.4%) students did not comment. **Question 5:** 83 (7.9%) of the students said they attended a language course particularly for developing their speaking skills. 862 (82.4%) of them said that they had never gone to a language course in order to improve their speaking skills. 99 (9.5%) of them said they had never gone before but they were thinking of going to one in the future. 2 (0.2%) students did not comment.

4.3.2. Descriptive and Frequency Analysis of the Questions in the Teacher Questionnaire

There were eight questions in the first part of the questionnaire designed to learn more about the teachers and their language background.

Question 1: The year of experience for the group ranged from 1 to 25 (M=8.27, SD=6.17). **Question 2:** 31 (93.9%) of the teachers held bachelor's degree and 2 (6.1%) of them Master of Arts. There was no teacher with a PhD degree or beyond. **Question 3:** 20 (60.6%) of the teachers were a graduate of English Language Teaching department; 6 (18.2%) of English Language and Literature; 4 (13.1%) of American Culture and Literature; and 2 (6.1%) of Linguistics department. 1 (3%) teacher was not a graduate of any of the English departments. **Question 4:** 29 (87.9%) of the teachers graduated from state universities and 4 (12.1%) of them from private universities. **Question 5:** For this question teachers were asked to choose the skill(s) that they thought they were better at. They were free to choose more than one skill, out of 6 in total. According to the percentages of each skill, out of 33 teachers 24 (72.72%) teachers said they were better at reading; 21 (63.63%) better at

grammar; 19 (57.57%) better at speaking; 17 (51.51%) better at vocabulary; 11 (33.33%) better at listening; and 10 (30.30%) better at writing. **Question 6:** Of the 33 participating teachers, 28 (84.9%) of them rated their degree of speaking skills as very good or good; 4 (12.1%) of them as not satisfactory. 1 (3%) teacher did not rate. It is of note that these ratings depended on the teachers' self-assessments not on a standard English exam scores, which means the comments were subjective. **Question 7:** 14 (42.4%) of the teachers said that they went to a supplementary course in order to improve their speaking skills; 17 (51.5%) of them said they had never gone to any; and 2 (6.1%) of them said they had never gone before but they were thinking of going to one in the future. **Question 8:** 1 (3%) of the teachers said that he was teaching speaking skills in separate classes; 16 (48.5%) of them said they were not teaching speaking skills in different classes but included it in classes such as listening or reading comprehension; and 16 (48.5%) said that they sometimes taught speaking skills in separate classes and sometimes included it in classes such as listening or reading comprehension.

4.4. Frequency Analysis of the Responses to the Statements in SQ

4.4.1. Frequency Distribution of the Responses to the Statements Regarding the Textbook in Terms of Speaking Skills

As there were many and very detailed analyses throughout the study and so it would take too much space, the questionnaire statements were not included either in the tables or within the reporting statements under them but were appended (see Appendix 3 and 5 for SQ and TQ). Also, in this part, for practicality in interpreting the data, the percentages of "strongly agree" and "agree" responses were summed and so were the percentages of "strongly disagree" and "disagree" responses. Together with "neutral responses", they were reported. Table 7 below shows frequency distribution of the student responses to the statements in the 1st section of the student questionnaire.

Table 7 *Frequency Distribution of the Responses to SQ Statements: Section 1*

SECTION 1			Responses to SQ								
		Strongly disagree		Disagree		Neutral		Agree		Strongly agree	
	N	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Statement 1	1044	151	14.5	233	22.3	273	26.1	273	26.1	114	10.9
Statement 2	1042	148	14.2	206	19.8	262	25.1	310	29.8	116	11.1
Statement 3	1040	169	16.3	276	26.5	262	25.2	232	22.3	101	9.7
Statement 4	1035	137	13.2	223	21.5	236	22.8	314	30.3	125	12.1
Statement 5	1041	78	7.5	116	11.1	157	15.1	477	45.8	213	20.5
Statement 6	1041	107	10.3	149	14.3	250	24	371	35.6	164	15.8

Statement 1: Of 1046 respondents, 384 (36.7%) disagreed with statement 1; 273 (26.1%) were neutral; and 387 (37%) agreed with it. 2 (0.2%) did not answer. **Statement 2:** Of 1046 respondents, 354 (33.8%) disagreed with statement 2; 262 (25%) were neutral; and 426 (40.7%) agreed with it. 4 (0.4%) students did not answer. **Statement 3:** Of 1046 respondents, 445 (42.6%) disagreed with statement 3; 262 (25%) were neutral; and 333 (31.9%) agreed with it. 6 students (0.6%) did not give any answer. **Statement 4:** Of 1046 respondents, 360 (34.4%) disagreed with statement 4; 236 (22.6%) were neutral; and 439 (42%) agreed with it. 11 students (1.1%) did not answer. **Statement 5:** Of 1046 respondents, 194 (18.6%) disagreed with statement 5; 157 (15%) were neutral; and 690 (66%) agreed with it. 5 students (0.5%) did not answer. **Statement 6:** Of 1046 respondents, 256 (24.4%) disagreed with statement 6; 250 (23.9%) were neutral; and 535 (51.2%) agreed with it. 5 students (0.5%) did not answer.

4.4.2. Frequency Distribution of the Responses to the Statements Regarding the Classroom Instructions of Speaking Skills

Table 8 below shows frequency distribution of the student responses to the statements in the 2nd section of the student questionnaire.

Table 8 *Frequency Distribution of the Responses to SQ Statements: Section 2*

SECTION 2	Responses to SQ									
		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree
	N	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Statement 7	1034	196	19	202	19.5	196	19	237	22.9	203	19.6
Statement 8	1040	127	12.2	155	14.9	223	21.4	362	34.8	173	16.6
Statement 9	1032	114	11	121	11.7	190	18.4	399	38.7	208	20.2
Statement 10	1039	144	13.9	160	15.4	224	21.6	331	31.9	180	17.3
Statement 11	1037	58	5.6	93	9	126	12.2	310	29.9	450	43.4
Statement 12	1040	57	5.5	57	5.5	100	9.6	269	25.9	557	53.6
Statement 13	1034	106	10.3	117	11.3	209	20.2	279	27	323	31.2

Statement 7: Of 1046 respondents, 398 (38%) disagreed with statement 7; 196 (18.7%) were neutral; and 440 (42.1%) agreed with it. 12 students (1.1%) did not answer. **Statement 8:** Of 1046 respondents, 282 (26.9%) disagreed with statement 8; 223 (21.3%) were neutral; and 535 (51.5%) agreed with it. 6 students (0.6%) did not answer. **Statement 9:** Of 1046 respondents, 235 (22.5%) disagreed with statement 9; 190 (18.2%) were neutral; and 607 (58%) agreed with it. 14 students (1.3%) did not answer. **Statement 10:** Of 1046 respondents, 304 (29.1%) disagreed with statement 10; 224 (21.4%) were neutral; and 511 (48.8%) agreed with it. 7 students (0.7%) did not answer. **Statement 11**: Of 1046 respondents, 151 (14.4%) disagreed with statement 11; 126 (12%) were neutral; and 760 (72.6%) agreed with it. 9 students (0.9%) did not answer. **Statement 12:** Of 1046 respondents, 114 (10.8%) disagreed with statement 12; 100 (9.6%) were neutral; and 826 (79%) agreed with it. 6 students (0.6%) did not answer. **Statement 13:** Of 1046 respondents, 123 (21.3%) disagreed with statement 13; 209 (20%) were neutral; and 602 (57.6%) agreed with it. 12 students (1.1%) did not answer.

4.4.3. Frequency Distribution of the Responses to the Statements Regarding the Macro Skills of Speaking

Table 9 below shows frequency distribution of the student responses to the statements in the 3rd section of the student questionnaire.

Table 9 *Frequency Distribution of the Responses to SQ Statements: Section 3*

SECTION 3		Responses to SQ									
		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	N	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Statement 14	1042	82	7.9	100	9.6	160	15.4	389	37.3	311	29.8
Statement 15	1043	104	10	108	10.4	200	19.2	346	33.2	285	27.3
Statement 16	1045	65	6.2	96	9.2	165	15.8	372	35.6	347	33.2
Statement 17	1037	44	4.2	68	6.6	181	17.5	377	36.4	367	35.4

Statement 14: Of 1046 respondents, 182 (17.4%) disagreed with statement 14; 160 (15.3%) were neutral; and 700 (66.9%) agreed with it. 4 students (0.4%) did not answer. **Statement 15:** Of 1046 respondents, 212 (20.2%) disagreed with statement 15; 200 (19.1%) were neutral; and 631 (60.3%) agreed with it. 3 students (0.3%) did not answer. **Statement 16:** Of 1046 respondents, 161 (15.4%) disagreed with statement 16; 165 (15.8%) were neutral; and 719 (68.8%) agreed with it. 1 student (0.1%) did not answer. **Statement 17:** Of 1046 respondents, 152 (8.7%) disagreed with statement 17; 181 (17.3%) were neutral; and 744 (71.1%) agreed with it. 9 students (0.9%) did not answer.

4.4.4. Frequency Distribution of the Responses to the Statements Regarding Learner Autonomy in Terms of Speaking Skills

Table 10 below shows the frequency distribution of the student responses to the statements in the 4th section of the student questionnaire.

Table 10 *Frequency Distribution of the Responses to SQ Statements: Section 4*

SECTION 4		Responses to SQ									
		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	N	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Statement 18	1041	173	16.6	218	20.9	217	20.8	268	25.7	165	15.9
Statement 19	1019	155	15.2	189	18.5	137	13.4	271	26.6	267	26.2
Statement 20	1039	69	6.6	79	7.6	176	16.9	395	38	320	30.8
Statement 21	1039	127	12.2	93	9	189	18.2	355	34.2	275	26.5

Statement 18: Of 1046 respondents, 391 (37.3%) disagreed with statement 18; 217 (20.7%) were neutral; and 433 (41.4%) agreed with it. 5 students (0.5%) did not answer. **Statement 19:** Of 1046 respondents, 344 (32.9%) disagreed with statement 19; 137 (13.1%) were neutral; and 538 (51.4%) agreed with it. 27 students (2.6%) did not answer. **Statement 20:** Of 1046 respondents, 148 (13.2%) disagreed with statement 20; 176 (16.8%) were neutral; and 715 (68.4%) agreed with it. 7 students (0.7%) did not answer. **Statement 21:** Of 1046 respondents, 220 (21%) disagreed with statement 21; 189 (18.1%) were neutral; and 630 (60.2%) agreed with it. 7 students (0.7%) did not answer.

4.4.5. Frequency Distribution of the Responses to the Statements Regarding the Washback Effect of Speaking Skills' Instructions

Table 11 below shows frequency distribution of the student responses to the statements in the 5th section of the student questionnaire.

Table 11 *Frequency Distribution of the Responses to SQ Statements: Section 5*

SECTION 5	Responses to SQ										
		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	N	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Statement 22	1037	76	7.3	103	9.9	272	26.2	309	29.8	277	26.7
Statement 23	1040	57	5.5	77	7.4	217	20.9	366	35.2	323	31.1
Statement 24	1037	81	7.8	109	10.5	299	28.8	297	28.6	251	24.2
Statement 25	1037	84	8.1	115	11.1	299	28.8	298	28.7	241	23.2
Statement 26	1042	164	15.7	138	13.2	205	19.7	270	25.9	265	25.4
Statement 27	1039	166	15.9	109	10.4	236	22.6	277	26.5	251	24

Statement 22: Of 1046 respondents, 179 (17.1%) disagreed with statement 22; 272 (26%) were neutral; and 586 (56%) agreed with it. 9 students (0.9%) did not answer. **Statement 23:** Of 1046 respondents, 134 (12.8%) disagreed with statement 23; 217 (20.7%) were neutral; and 689 (65.9%) agreed with it. 6 students (0.6%) did not answer. **Statement 24:** Of 1046 respondents, 190 (18.1%) disagreed with statement

24; 299 (28.6%) were neutral; and 548 (52.4%) agreed with it. 9 students (0.9%) did not answer. **Statement 25:** Of 1046 respondents, 199 (19%) disagreed with statement 25; 299 (28.6%) were neutral; and 539 (51.5%) agreed with it. 9 students (0.9%) did not answer. **Statement 26:** Of 1046 respondents, 302 (28.9%) disagreed with statement 26; 205 (19.6%) were neutral; and 535 (51.1%) agreed with it. 4 students (0.4%) did not answer. **Statement 27:** Of 1046 respondents, 275 (26.3%) disagreed with statement 27; 236 (22.6%) were neutral; and 528 (50.5%) agreed with it. 7 students (0.7%) did not answer.

4.5. Frequency Analysis of the Responses to the Statements in TQ

4.5.1. Frequency Distribution of the Responses to the Statements Regarding the Textbook in Terms of Speaking Skills

The statements of the TQ were appended (see Appendix 5).

Table 12 below shows the frequency distribution of the teacher responses to the statements in the 1st section of the teacher questionnaire.

Table 12 *Frequency Distribution of the Responses to TQ Statements: Section 1*

SECTION 1		Responses to TQ								
		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree
	N	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Statement 1	33	1	3	10	30.3	4	12.1	12	36.4	6	18.2
Statement 2	33	3	9.1	7	21.2	5	15.2	16	48.5	2	6.1
Statement 3	33	1	3	9	27.3	8	24.2	14	42.4	1	3
Statement 4	33	2	6.1	6	18.2	13	39.4	10	30.3	2	6.1
Statement 5	33	-	-	7	21.2	13	39.4	10	30.3	3	9.1
Statement 6	33	-	-	6	18..2	15	45.5	9	27.3	3	9.1

Statement 1: Of 33 respondents, 11 (33.3%) disagreed with statement 1; 4(12.1%) were neutral; and 18 (54.6%) agreed with it. **Statement 2:** Of 33 respondents, 10 (30.3%) disagreed with statement 2; 5 (15.2%) were neutral; and 18 (54.6%) agreed

with it. **Statement 3:** Of 33 respondents, 10 (30.3%) disagreed with statement 3; 8 (24.2%) were neutral; and 15 (45.4%) agreed with it. **Statement 4:** Of 33 respondents, 8 (24.3%) disagreed with statement 4; 13 (39.4%) were neutral; and 12 (36.4%) agreed with it. **Statement 5:** Of 33 respondents, 7 (21.2%) disagreed with statement 5; 13 (39.4%) were neutral; and 13 (39.4%) agreed with it. **Statement 6:** Of 33 respondents, 6 (18.2%) disagreed with statement 6; 15 (45.5%) were neutral; and 12 (36.4%) agreed with it.

4.5.2. Frequency Distribution of the Responses to the Statements Regarding the Classroom Instructions of Speaking Skills

Table 13 below shows frequency distribution of the teacher responses to the statements in the 2nd section of the teacher questionnaire.

Table 13 *Frequency Distribution of the Responses to TQ Statements: Section 2*

SECTION 2		Responses to TQ								
		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	N	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Statement 7	33	1	3	3	9.1	9	27.3	14	42.4	6	18.2
Statement 8	32	2	6.3	2	6.3	8	25	15	46.9	5	15.6
Statement 9	33	1	3	4	12.1	1	3	19	57.6	8	24.2
Statement 10	33	1	3	10	30.3	8	24.2	12	36.4	2	6.1
Statement 11	33	-	-	3	9.1	7	21.2	15	45.5	8	24.2
Statement 12	32	-	-	-	-	-	-	10	31.3	22	68.8
Statement 13	33	-	-	5	15.2	4	12.1	13	39.4	11	33.3

Statement 7: Of 33 respondents, 4 (12.1%) disagreed with statement 7; 9 (27.3%) were neutral; and 20 (60.6%) agreed with it. **Statement 8:** Of 33 respondents, 4 (12.2%) disagreed with statement 8; 8 (24.2%) were neutral; and 20 (60.7%) agreed with it. **Statement 9:** Of 33 respondents, 5 (15.1%) disagreed with statement 9; 1 (3%) were neutral; and 27 (81.8%) agreed with it. **Statement 10:** Of 33 respondents, 11 (33.3%) disagreed with statement 10; 8 (24.2%) were neutral; and 14 (42.5%)

agreed with it. **Statement 11:** Of 33 respondents, 3 (9.1%) disagreed with statement 11; 7 (21.2%) were neutral; and 23 (69.7%) agreed with it. **Statement 12:** Of 33 respondents, 32 (97%) agreed with statement 12. 1 teacher (3%) did not answer. **Statement 13:** Of 33 respondents, 5 (15.2%) disagreed with statement 13; 4 (12.1%) were neutral; and 24 (72.7%) agreed with it.

4.5.3. Frequency Distribution of the Responses to the Statements Regarding the Instruction of Macro Skills of Speaking in Textbooks

Table 14 below shows frequency distribution of the teacher responses to the statements in the 3rd section of the teacher questionnaire.

Table 14 *Frequency Distribution of the Responses to TQ Statements: Section 3*

SECTION 3		Responses to TQ								
		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	N	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Statement 14	33	2	6.1	11	33.3	7	21.2	9	27.3	4	12.1
Statement 15	33	5	15.2	10	30.3	7	21.2	10	30.3	1	3
Statement 16	33	8	24.2	10	30.3	11	33.3	4	12.1	-	-
Statement 17	32	2	6.3	4	12.5	10	31.3	15	46.9	1	3.1

Statement 14: Of 33 respondents, 13 (39.4%) disagreed with statement 14; 7 (21.2%) were neutral; and 13 (39.4%) agreed with it. **Statement 15:** Of 33 respondents, 15 (45.5%) disagreed with statement 15; 7 (21.2%) were neutral; and 11 (33.3%) agreed with it. **Statement 16:** Of 33 respondents, 18 (54.5%) disagreed with statement 16; 11 (33.3%) were neutral; and 4 (12.1%) agreed with it. **Statement 17:** Of 33 respondents, 6 (18.2%) disagreed with statement 17; 10 (30.3%) were neutral; and 16 (48.5%) agreed with it. 1 teacher (3%) did not answer.

4.5.4. Frequency Distribution of the Responses to the Statements Regarding Teacher Autonomy in Terms of Speaking Skills

Table 15 below shows frequency distribution of the teacher responses to the statements in the 4th section of the teacher questionnaire.

Table 15 *Frequency Distribution of the Responses to TQ Statements: Section 4*

SECTION 4			Responses to TQ								
		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	N	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Statement 18	33	1	3	4	12.1	3	9.1	19	57.6	6	18.2
Statement 19	33	2	6.1	5	15.2	7	21.2	10	30.3	9	27.3
Statement 20	33	2	6.1	3	9.1	8	24.2	10	30.3	10	30.3
Statement 21	32	1	3.1	2	6.3	2	6.3	10	31.3	17	53.1
Statement 22	33	2	6.1	2	6.1	8	24.2	15	45.5	6	18.2

Statement 18: Of 33 respondents, 5 (15.1%) disagreed with statement 18; 3 (9.1%) were neutral; and 25 (75.8%) agreed with it. **Statement 19:** Of 33 respondents, 7 (21.3%) disagreed with statement 19; 7 (21.2%) were neutral; and 19 (57.6%) agreed with it. **Statement 20:** Of 33 respondents, 5 (15.2%) disagreed with statement 20; 8 (24.2%) were neutral; and 20 (60.6%) agreed with it. **Statement 21:** Of 33 respondents, 3 (9.1%) disagreed with statement 21; 2 (6.1%) were neutral; and 27 (81.8%) agreed with it. 1 teacher (3%) did not answer. **Statement 22:** Of 33 respondents, 4 (12.2%) disagreed with statement 22; 8 (24.2%) were neutral; and 21 (63.7%) agreed with it.

4.5.5. Frequency Distribution of the Responses to the Statements Regarding the Washback Effect of the Instruction of Speaking Skills

Table 16 below shows frequency distribution of the teacher responses to the statements in the 5th section of the teacher questionnaire.

Table 16 *Frequency Distribution of the Responses to TQ Statements: Section 5*

SECTION 5		Responses to TQ									
		Strongly agree		Agree		Neutral		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
	<u>N</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>f</u>	<u>%</u>
Statement 23	33	2	6.1	1	3	7	21.2	13	39.4	10	30.3
Statement 24	33	1	3	1	3	3	9.1	13	39.4	15	45.5
Statement 25	33	-	-	1	3	3	9.1	12	36.4	17	51.5
Statement 26	33	-	-	2	6.1	8	24.2	12	36.4	11	33.3
Statement 27	33	-	-	3	9.1	8	24.2	6	18.2	16	48.5

Statement 23: Of 33 respondents, 3 (9.1%) disagreed with statement 23; 7 (21.2%) were neutral; and 23 (69.7%) agreed with it. **Statement 24:** Of 33 respondents, 2 (6%) disagreed with statement 24; 3 (9.1%) were neutral; and 28 (84.9%) agreed with it. **Statement 25:** Of 33 respondents, 1 (3%) disagreed with statement 25; 3 (9.1%) were neutral; and 29 (87.9%) agreed with it. **Statement 26:** Of 33 respondents, 2 (6.1%) disagreed with statement 26; 8 (24.2%) were neutral; and 23 (69.7%) agreed with it. **Statement 27:** Of 33 respondents, 3 (9.1%) disagreed with statement 27; 8 (24.2%) were neutral; and 22 (66.7%) agreed with it.

4.6. Statistical Analyses of the Questionnaire for EFL Learners

4.6.1. Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Different Textbook Users and SQ Statements

In order to detect the differences in how different groups of participating students evaluated their textbooks, Kruskal Wallis H test was run. Results follow:

SECTION 1 aimed to gauge the quality of the textbooks in terms of speaking skills. Table 17 below shows the significant results.

Table 17 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Different Textbook Users and SQ Statements: Section 1*

SECTION 1			Textbook-Responses			
	Textbook	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 1	1.MONE	405	432.99	67.389	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	470	596.20			1-3
	3.CUP	169	532.03			2-3
	Total	1044				
Statement 2	1.MONE	404	431.74	78.612	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	469	606.64			1-3
	3.CUP	169	499.80			2-3
	Total	1042				
Statement 3	1.MONE	405	436.68	57.061	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	466	585.29			1-3
	3.CUP	169	542.72			
	Total	1040				
Statement 4	1.MONE	398	453.61	37.046	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	468	574.21			
	3.CUP	169	513.98			
	Total	1035				
Statement 5	1.MONE	403	452.51	46.284	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	468	583.34			2-3
	3.CUP	170	511.74			
	Total	1041				
Statement 6	1.MONE	404	421.29	94.809	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	467	612.84			1-3
	3.CUP	170	505.69			2-3
	Total	1041				

p < 0.01

Statement 1: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 1st statement (χ^2=67.389, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001); MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between CUP and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.045). **Statement 2:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 2nd statement (χ^2=78.612, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.033); MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between CUP and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001). **Statement 3:**

There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 3rd statement (χ^2=57.061, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001); and between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001). **Statement 4:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 4th statement (χ^2=37.046, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001). **Statement 5:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 5th statement (χ^2=46.284, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between CUP and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.014). **Statement 6:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 6th statement (χ^2=94.809, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.004); MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between CUP and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001).

SECTION 2 aimed to gauge the quality of the instruction of speaking skills in the classroom. Table 18 below shows the significant results.

Table 18 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Different Textbook Users and SQ Statements: Section 2*

SECTION 2	Textbook-Responses					
	Textbook	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 7	1.MONE	399	461.62	39.840	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	466	580.68			2-3
	3.CUP	169	475.20			
	Total	1034				
Statement 8	1.MONE	400	415.85	84.107	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	470	585.53			1-3
	3.CUP	170	586.96			
	Total	1040				

Table 18 (continued)			Textbook-Responses			
	Textbook	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 9	1.MONE	401	434.61	57.214	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	462	581.79			1-3
	3.CUP	169	532.31			
	Total	1032				
Statement 10	1.MONE	401	467.53	30.309	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	469	574.03			2-3
	3.CUP	169	494.56			
	Total	1039				
Statement 11	1.MONE	4025	390.81	137.182	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	466	590.87			1-3
	3.CUP	169	625.74			
	Total	1037				
Statement 12	1.MONE	403	432.98	67.609	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	470	573.49			1-3
	3.CUP	167	582.55			
	Total	1040				
Statement 13	1.MONE	401	402.34	114.011	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	465	612.63			1-3
	3.CUP	168	529.08			2-3
	Total	1034				

p < 0.01

Statement 7: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 7th statement (χ^2=39.840, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between CUP and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001). **Statement 8:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 8th statement (χ^2=84.107, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001). **Statement 9:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 9th statement (χ^2=57, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001); and between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001). **Statement 10:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 10th statement (χ^2=30.309, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a

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significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between CUP and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.007). **Statement 11:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 11th statement (χ^2=137.182, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001). **Statement 12:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 12th statement (χ^2=67.609, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001); and between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001). **Statement 13:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 13th statement (χ^2=114.011, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001); MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between CUP and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.004).

SECTION 3 aimed to gauge to what extent the students were aware of the macro skills or communicative features of speaking. Table 19 below shows the significant results.

Table 19 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Different Textbook Users and SQ Statements: Section 3*

SECTION 3	Textbook-Responses					
	Textbook	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 14	1.MONE	405	484.40	11.208	.004	1-2
	2.OUP	468	541.84			1-3
	3.CUP	169	554.07			
	Total	1042				
Statement 15	1.MONE	404	473.10	19.229	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	469	547.44			1-3
	3.CUP	170	568.03			
	Total	1043				

Table 19 (continued)			Textbook-Responses			
	Textbook	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 16	1.MONE	404	487.19	10.224	.006	1-2
	2.OUP	471	547.38			
	3.CUP	170	540.56			
	Total	1045				
Statement 17	1.MONE	402	464.12	24.517	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	467	555.64			1-3
	3.CUP	168	548.46			
	Total	1037				

$p < 0.01$

Statement 14: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 14th statement (χ^2=11.208, p=.004). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.010); and between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.025). **Statement 15:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 15th statement (χ^2=19.229, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001). **Statement 16:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 16th statement (χ^2=10.224, p=.006). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.006). **Statement 17:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 17th statement (χ^2=24.517, p=.000). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.004); and between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.004).

SECTION 4 aimed to gauge to what extent the students were autonomous in their preferences for developing speaking skills. Table 20 shows the significant results.

Table 20 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Different Textbook Users and SQ Statements: Section 4*

SECTION 4			Textbook-Responses			
	Textbook	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 18	1.MONE	403	421.38	85.070	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	470	605.44			1-3
	3.CUP	168	523.74			2-3
	Total	1041				
Statement 19	1.MONE	390	400.60	91.870	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	464	579.45			1-3
	3.CUP	165	573.29			
	Total	1019				
Statement 20	1.MONE	402	481.50	15.836	.000	1-2
	2.OUP	469	557.84			
	3.CUP	168	506.51			
	Total	1039				

$p < 0.01$

Statement 18: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 18th statement (χ^2=85.070, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001); MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001); and between CUP and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.006). **Statement 19:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 19th statement (χ^2=91.870, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001); and between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001). **Statement 20:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 20th statement (χ^2=15.836, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.001).

SECTION 5 aimed to gauge to what extent the instruction of speaking skills produced washback effect on the preferences of the students. Table 21 below shows the significant results.

Table 21 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Different Textbook Users and SQ Statements: Section 5*

SECTION 5	Textbook-Responses					
	Textbook	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 25	1.MONE	401	492.05	7.087	.029	1-2
	2.OUP	466	544.34			
	3.CUP	170	513.11			
	Total	1037				

$p < 0.05$

Statement 25: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 25th statement (χ^2=7.087, p=.029). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.024).

4.6.2. One-way ANOVA Analysis-Different Textbook Users and DCT Scores

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed significant differences between the users of different textbooks in relation to their test scores. The independent variable, textbook, had three groups; MONE (M=2.78 N=1.4), OUP (M=4.87, SD=1.3), CUP (M=4.5, SD=1.4). The analysis yielded a significant result (*F* (252,300), p=.001). Table 22 below shows one-way ANOVA analysis results.

Table 22 *One-way ANOVA Analysis-Different Textbook Users and DCT Scores*

Source of variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square (s^2)	F	p
Between Groups	1002.588	2	501.294	252.300	.000
Within Groups	2072.334	1043	1.987		
Total	3074.923	1045			

$p<0.01$

Post hoc test (Games Howell) indicated that there was a statistical difference between OUP and MONE, in favor of OUP (p=.001); CUP and MONE, in favor of CUP (p=.001); and between OUP and CUP, in favor of OUP (p=.010).

4.6.3. Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Textbook Users in Different Classes and SQ Statements

In order to detect the differences in the thought patterns of participating students in different classes about their textbooks, Kruskal Wallis H test was run. Results follow:

SECTION 1 aimed to gauge the quality of the textbooks in terms of speaking skills. Table 23 below shows the significant results.

Table 23 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Textbook Users in Different Classes and SQ Statements: Section 1*

SECTION 1	Class-Responses					
	Class	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 1	1.Class 9	401	616.84			1-2
	2.Class 10	188	507.92			1-3
	3.Class 11	201	468.45	75.434	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	254	427.12			2-4
	Total	1044				
Statement 2	1.Class 9	400	629.07			1-2
	2.Class 10	188	501.54			1-3
	3.Class 11	200	456.60	96.518	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	254	417.98			2-4
	Total	1042				
Statement 3	1.Class 9	399	603.86	62.780	.000	1-2
	2.Class 10	186	499.20			1-3
	3.Class 11	201	497.98			1-4
	4.Class 12	254	422.97			2-4
	Total	1040				3-4
Statement 4	1.Class 9	399	598.61			
	2.Class 10	188	500.65			1-2
	3.Class 11	200	488.91	58.755	.000	1-3
	4.Class 12	248	424.92			1-4
	Total	1035				2-4
Statement 5	1.Class 9	400	591.22			
	2.Class 10	187	525.90			1-3
	3.Class 11	201	520.59	65.663	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	253	406.69			2-4
	Total	1041				3-4
Statement 6	1.Class 9	399	616.60			1-2
	2.Class 10	187	528.81			1-3
	3.Class 11	201	495.86	100.610	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	254	384.97			2-4
	Total	1041				3-4

$p < 0.01$

Statement 1: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 1st statement (χ^2=75.434, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 11, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and class 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); and between class 10 and class 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.025). **Statement 2:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 2nd statement (χ^2=96.518, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 11, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); and between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.018). **Statement 3:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 3rd statement (χ^2=62.780, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 11, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001), between class 10 and class 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.042); and between class 11 and class 12, in favor of class 11 (p=.040). **Statement 4:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 4th statement (χ^2 =58.755, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 11, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); and between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.042). **Statement 5:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 5th statement (χ^2 =65.663, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 11, in favor of class 9 (p=.024); between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.001); and between class 11 and 12, in favor of class 11 (p=.001). **Statement 6:** There was a significant difference among

the groups in their responses to the 6th statement (χ^2=100.610, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.004); between class 9 and 11, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.001); and between class 11 and 12, in favor of class 11, (p=.001).

SECTION 2 aimed to gauge the quality of the instruction of speaking skills in the classroom. Table 24 below shows the significant results.

Table 24 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Textbook Users in Different Classes and SQ Statements: Section 2*

SECTION 2			Class-Responses			
	Class	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 7	1.Class 9	398	600.34			1-2
	2.Class 10	186	525.79			1-3
	3.Class 11	200	464.07	65.341	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	250	422.14			2-4
	Total	1034				
Statement 8	1.Class 9	401	589.92			1-2
	2.Class 10	188	483.65			1-4
	3.Class 11	201	578.37	84.253	.000	2-3
	4.Class 12	249	389.58			2-4
	Total	1040				3-4
Statement 9	1.Class 9	393	594.30			
	2.Class 10	187	543.41			1-3
	3.Class 11	201	470.54	69.491	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	251	411.44			2-4
	Total	1032				
Statement 10	1.Class 9	400	581.41			
	2.Class 10	188	524.72			1-3
	3.Class 11	200	492.05	38.036	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	251	440.87			2-4
	Total	1039				
Statement 11	1.Class 9	397	605.66			1-2
	2.Class 10	186	521.87			1-3
	3.Class 11	202	475.28	76.181	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	252	415.40			2-4
	Total	1037				
Statement 12	1.Class 9	401	597.24			1-2
	2.Class 10	187	488.22			1-4
	3.Class 11	199	539.21	78.021	.000	2-4
	4.Class 12	253	408.01			3-4
	Total	1040				

Table 24 (continued)			Class-Responses			
	Class	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 13	1.Class 9	396	636.17			1-2
	2.Class 10	187	534.81			1-3
	3.Class 11	198	444.44	140.231	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	253	376.15			2-3
	Total	1034				2-4

p < 0.01

Statement 7: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 7th statement (χ^2=65.341, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.025); between class 9 and 11, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); and between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.002). **Statement 8:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 8th statement (χ^2=84.253, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 10 and 11, in favor of class 11 (p=.008); between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.005); and between class 11 and 12, in favor of class 11 (p=.001). **Statement 9:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 9th statement (χ^2=69.491, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 11, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.001); and between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.001). **Statement 10:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 10th statement (χ^2=38.036, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 11, in favor of class 9 (p=.002); between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.001); and between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.017). **Statement 11:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 11th statement (χ^2=76.181, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference

between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.005); between class 9 and 11, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.001); and between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.001). **Statement 12:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 12th statement (χ^2 =78.021, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.014); and between class 11 and 12, in favor of class 11 (p=.001). **Statement 13:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 13th statement (χ^2=140.231, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 11, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 10 and 11, in favor of class 10 (p=.013); and between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.001).

SECTION 3 aimed to gauge to what extent the students were aware of the macro skills of speaking. Table 25 below shows the significant results.

Table 25 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Textbook Users in Different Classes and SQ Statements: Section 3*

SECTION 3	Class-Responses					
	Class	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 14	1.Class 9	399	547.82			
	2.Class 10	188	549.20			1-4
	3.Class 11	201	538.69			2-4
	4.Class 12	254	446.05	23.209	.000	3-4
	Total	1042				
Statement 15	1.Class 9	401	561.30			
	2.Class 10	187	527.53			
	3.Class 11	202	523.12			1-4
	4.Class 12	253	454.74	20.884	.000	
	Total	1043				

Table 25 (continued)			Class-Responses			
	Class	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 16	1.Class 9	402	558.09			
	2.Class 10	188	529.88			1-4
	3.Class 11	202	535.05	21.525	.000	2-4
	4.Class 12	253	452.50			3-4
	Total	1045				
Statement 17	1.Class 9	399	570.61			
	2.Class 10	187	536.75			1-4
	3.Class 11	200	536.57	51.670	.000	2-4
	4.Class 12	251	409.73			3-4
	Total	1037				

$p < 0.01$

Statement 14: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 14th statement (χ^2=23.209, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.001); and between class 11 and 12, in favor of class 11 (p=.004). **Statement 15:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 15th statement (χ^2=20.884, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.001). **Statement 16:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 16th statement (χ^2=21.525, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.032); and between class 11 and 12, in favor of class 11 (p=.015). **Statement 17:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 17th statement (χ^2=51.670, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.001); and between class 11 and 12, in favor of class 11 (p=.001).

SECTION 4 aimed to gauge to what extent the students were autonomous in their preferences for developing speaking skills. Table 26 below shows the significant results.

Table 26 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Textbook Users in Different Classes and SQ Statements: Section 4*

SECTION 4			Class-Responses			
	Class	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 18	1.Class 9	401	608.65			
	2.Class 10	187	571.14			1-3
	3.Class 11	201	452.83	95.522	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	252	398.68			2-3
	Total	1041				2-4
Statement 19	1.Class 9	395	593.64			
	2.Class 10	182	536.29			1-3
	3.Class 11	199	458.81	79.579	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	243	396.26			2-4
	Total	1019				
Statement 20	1.Class 9	400	574.92			
	2.Class 10	186	534.13			1-3
	3.Class 11	201	494.89	35.216	.000	1-4
	4.Class 12	252	442.43			2-4
	Total	1039				

p < 0.01

Statement 18: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 18th statement (χ^2=95.522, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 11, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 10 and 11, in favor of class 10 (p=.001); and between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.001). **Statement 19:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 19th statement (χ^2=79.579, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 11, in favor of 9 (p=.001); between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); and between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.001). **Statement 20:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their

responses to the 20th statement (χ^2=35.216, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 11, in favor of 9 (p=.007); between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); and between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.006).

SECTION 5 aimed to gauge to what extent the instruction of speaking skills produced washback effect on the preferences of the students. Table 27 below shows the significant results.

Table 27 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Textbook Users in Different Classes and SQ Statements: Section 5*

SECTION 5			Class-Responses				
	Class	N	Mean rank	X^2	sd	p	p
Statement 22	1.Class 9	397	536.89				
	2.Class 10	187	530.84	12.126	1.19	007*	1-4
	3.Class 11	201	541.57				3-4
	4.Class 12	252	464.03			.	
	Total	1037					
Statement 23	1.Class 9	400	548.70	18.310	1.12	.000*	1-4
	2.Class 10	187	537.70				2-4
	3.Class 11	200	531.99				3-4
	4.Class 12	253	454.12				
	Total	1040					
Statement 25	1.Class 9	397	552.79	10.448	1.19	.015**	1-4
	2.Class 10	188	520.93				
	3.Class 11	201	492.32				
	4.Class 12	251	485.48				
	Total	1037					

*p < 0.01, **p < 0.05

Statement 22: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 22nd statement (χ^2=12.126, p=.007). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.011); and between class 11 and 12, in favor of class 11 (p=.028). **Statement 23:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 23rd statement

(χ^2=18.310, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.016); and between class 11 and 12, in favor of class 11 (p=.025). **Statement 25:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 25th statement ($\chi2$=10.448, p=.015). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between class 9 and 12, in favor of 9 (p=.024).

4.6.4. One-way ANOVA Analysis-Textbook Users in Different Classes and DCT Scores

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed significant differences between the means of the classes in relation to their test scores. The independent variable, class, had four groups; class 9 (M=4.9, SD=1.2), class 10 (M=4.04, SD=1.6), class 11 (M=3.83, SD=1.5), and class 12 (M=2.6, SD=1.5). The analysis yielded a significant result, (F (133,326), p=.001). Table 28 below shows the results.

Table 28 *One-way ANOVA Analysis-Textbook Users in Different Classes and DCT Scores*

Source of variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square (s^2)	F	p
Between Groups	852.926	3	284.309	133.326	.000
Within Groups	2221.997	1042	2.132		
Total	3074.923	1045			

p<0.01

Post hoc test (Games Howell) indicated that there was a statistical difference between class 9 and 10, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); class 9 and 11, in favor of class 9 (p=.001); and class 9 and 12, in favor of class 9 (p=.001). There was also a statistically significant difference between class 10 and 12, in favor of class 10 (p=.001), and between class 11 and 12, in favor of class 11 (p=.001).

4.6.5. Mann Whitney U Test Analysis Textbook Users at Different Schools and SQ Statements

In order to see the differences, if any, between the two groups of students-those attending a public school and those attending a private school in terms of how they evaluated the questionnaire statements, Mann Whitney U test was run. Results follow:

SECTION 1 aimed to gauge the quality of the textbooks in terms of speaking skills. Table 29 below shows the significant results.

Table 29 *Mann Whitney U Test Analysis-Textbook Users at Different Schools and SQ Statements: Section 1*

SECTION 1	School type-Responses						
	N		Mean rank		U	Z	p
	Public	Private	Public	Private			
Statement 1	405	639	432.99	579.23	93147.5	-7.839	.000
Statement 2	404	6388	431.74	578.34	92614	-7.878	.000
Statement 3	405	635	436.68	578.34	92614	-7.378	.000
Statement 4	398	637	453.61	558.23	101134.5	-5.632	.000
Statement 5	403	638	452.51	564.26	100956.5	-6.192	.000
Statement 6	404	637	421.29	584.24	88389.5	-8.823	.000

$p < 0.01$

Statement 1: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 1st statement (U=93147.5, p=.001, z=-7.839), in favor of private school students.
Statement 2: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 2nd statement (U=92614, p=.001, z=-7.878), in favor of private school students.
Statement 3: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 3rd statement (U=94638.5, p=.001, z=-7.378), in favor of private school students.

Statement 4: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 4th statement (*U*=101134.5, p=.001, z=-5.632), in favor of private school students. **Statement 5:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 5th statement (*U*=100956.5, p=.001, z=-6.192), in favor of private school students. **Statement 6:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 6th statement (*U*=88389.5, p=.001, z=-8.823), in favor of private school students.

SECTION 2 aimed to gauge the quality of the instruction of speaking skills in the classroom. Table 30 below shows the significant results.

Table 30 *Mann Whitney U Test Analysis-Textbook Users at Different Schools and SQ Statements: Section 2*

SECTION 2			School type-Responses				
	N		Mean rank		*U*	Z	p
	Public	Private	Public	Private			
Statement 7	399	635	461.62	552.61	1004387	-4.869	.000
Statement 8	400	640	415.85	585.91	86138	-9.171	.000
Statement 9	401	631	434.61	568.54	93679	-7.316	.000
Statement 10	401	638	467.53	552.98	106879.5	-4.594	.000
Statement 11	402	635	390.81	600.15	76104.5	-11.631	.000
Statement 12	403	637	432.98	575.87	93086	-8.214	.000
Statement 13	401	633	402.34	590.45	80737	-10.185	.000

p < 0.01

Statement 7: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 7th statement (*U*=104387, p=.001, z=-4.869), in favor of private school students. **Statement 8:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 8th statement (*U*=86138, p=.001, z=-9.171), in favor of private school students.

Statement 9: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 9th statement (U=93679, p=.001, z=-7.316), in favor of private school students. **Statement 10:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 10th statement (U=106879.5, p=.001, z=-4.594), in favor of private school students. **Statement 11:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 11th statement (U=76104.5, p=.001, z=-11.631), in favor of private school students. **Statement 12:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 12th statement (U=93086, p=.001, z=-8.214), in favor of private school students. **Statement 13:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 13th statement (U=80737, p=.001, z=-10.185), in favor of private school students.

SECTION 3 aimed to gauge to what extent the students were aware of the macro skills or some communicative features of speaking. Table 31 below shows the significant results.

Table 31 *Mann Whitney U Test Analysis-Textbook Users at Different Schools and SQ Statements: Section 3*

SECITON 3	School type-Responses						
	N		Mean rank		U	Z	p
	Public	Private	Public	Private			
Statement 14	405	637	484.40	545.08	113969	-3.314	.001
Statement 15	404	639	473.10	552.91	109323.5	-4.313	.000
Statement 16	404	641	487.19	545.57	115013	-3.187	.001
Statement 17	42	635	464.12	553.74	105573.5	-4.944	.000

p < 0.01

Statement 14: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 14th

statement (U=113969, p=.001, z=-3.314), in favor of private school students.

Statement 15: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 15th statement (U=109323.5, p=.001, z=-4.313), in favor of private school students.

Statement 16: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 16th statement (U=115013, p=.001, z=-3.187), in favor of private school students.

Statement 17: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 17th statement (U=105573.5, p=.001, z=-4.944), in favor of private school students.

SECTION 4 aimed to gauge to what extent the students were autonomous in their preferences for developing speaking skills. Table 32 below shows the significant results.

Table 32 *Mann Whitney U Test Analysis-Textbook Users at Different Schools and SQ Statements: Section 4*

SECTION 4	School type-Responses						
	N		Mean rank		*U*	Z	p
	Public	Private	Public	Private			
Statement 18	403	638	421.38	583.93	88408.5	-8.690	.000
Statement 19	390	629	400.60	577.83	79989	-9.582	.000
Statement 20	402	637	481.50	544.30	112558.5	-3.444	.001

p < 0.01

Statement 18: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 18th statement (U=88408.5, p=.001, z=-8.690), in favor of private school students.

Statement 19: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 19th statement (U=79989, p=.001, z=-9.582), in favor of private school students.

Statement 20: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant

difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 20th statement (*U*=112558.5, p=.001, z=-3.444), in favor of private school students.

SECTION 5 aimed to gauge to what extent the instruction of speaking skills produced washback effect on the preferences of the students. Table 33 below shows the significant results.

Table 33 *Mann Whitney U Test Analysis-Textbook Users at Different Schools and SQ Statements: Section 5*

SECTION 5			School type-Responses				
	N		Mean rank		*U*	Z	p
	Public	Private	Public	Private			
Statement 23	403	637	493.78	537.40	117588.5	-2.383	.017
Statement 25	401	636	492.05	535.99	116713	-2.375	.018
Statement 27	400	639	494.77	535.79	117707	-2.200	.028

p < 0.05

Statement 23: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 23rd statement (*U*=117588.5, p=.017, z=-2.383), in favor of private school students.

Statement 25: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 25th statement (*U*=116713, p=.018, z=-2.375), in favor of private school students.

Statement 27: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school students in their responses to the 27th statement (*U*=117707, p=.028, z=-2.200), in favor of private school students.

4.6.6. Independent T Test Analysis-Textbook Users at Different Schools and DCT Scores

Independent T test was run to reveal whether test scores were significantly different in two groups: students attending public schools and those attending private schools. Findings are shown in Table 34 below.

Table 34 *Independent T Test Analysis-Textbook Users at Different Schools and DCT*
Scores

	public school (N=405)	private school (N=641)			
	M	M	t	df	p
Test score	2.78 (1.47)	4.78 (1.37)	-21.816	811.670	.000

p<0.01

As is seen above, two groups differed significantly in relation to their DCT scores, with *t* (811.670) =21.816, p=.001. Descriptive statistics show that in DCT with six test items, the scores of students attending private schools (M= 4.7, SD=1.3) were higher than those of students attending public schools (M=2.7, SD=1.4).

4.6.7. Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Users of the Local Textbook (MONE) in Different Provinces and SQ Statements

At the time of the writing, MONE was the book that was used in public schools throughout Turkey and therefore was probably the most common textbook. Therefore, in order to see the differences, if any, between the students using MONE in four different provinces, Kruskal Wallis test was run. Results follow:

SECTION 1 aimed to gauge the quality of the textbooks in terms of speaking skills. Table 35 below shows the significant results.

Table 35 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Users of the Local Textbook (MONE) in Different Provinces And SQ Statements: Section 1*

SECTION 1	Province -Responses					
	Province	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 2	1.İSTANBUL	208	180.37			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	261.31			
	3.TRABZON	41	230.78	19.271	.000*	1-4
	4.KARS	131	218.02			1-2
	Total	404				

Table 35 (continued)			Province-Responses			
	Province	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 3	1.İSTANBUL	208	186.04			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	213.44			
	3.TRABZON	41	226.05	9.707	.021**	1-4
	4.KARS	132	220.66			
	Total	405				
Statement 4	1.İSTANBUL	203	172.15			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	259.15			
	3.TRABZON	41	208.16	27.786	.000*	1-4
	4.KARS	130	228.47			1-2
	Total	398				
Statement 5	1.İSTANBUL	207	169.00			
	2.KOCAELİ	23	271.72			
	3.TRABZON	41	217.35	40.617	.000*	1-4
	4.KARS	132	236.84			1-2
	Total	403				
Statement 6	1.İSTANBUL	208	171.68			
	2.KOCAELİ	23	276.70			1-4
	3.TRABZON	41	230.78	34.879	.000*	1-3
	4.KARS	132	229.35			1-2
	Total	404				

*p < 0.01, **p < 0.05

Statement 2: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 2nd statement (χ^2=19.271, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kocaeli, in favor of Kocaeli (p=.006), and between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.018). **Statement 3:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 3rd statement (χ^2=9.707, p=.021). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.037). **Statement 4:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 4th statement (χ^2=27.786, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kocaeli, in favor of Kocaeli (p=.002), and between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.001). **Statement 5:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 5th statement (χ^2=40.617, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference

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between İstanbul and Kocaeli, in favor of Kocaeli (p=.001), and between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.001). **Statement 6:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 6th statement (χ^2=34.879, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kocaeli, in favor of Kocaeli (p=.001); İstanbul and Trabzon, in favor of Trabzon (p=.014) and between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.001).

SECTION 2 aimed to gauge the quality of the instruction of speaking skills in the classroom. Table 36 below shows the significant results.

Table 36 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Users of the Local Textbook (MONE) in Different Provinces And SQ Statements: Section 2*

SECTION 2	Province-Responses					
	Province	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement	1.İSTANBUL	205	174.93			
	2.KOCAELİ	23	178.63			
	3.TRABZON	41	210.02	27.806	.000*	1-4
	4.KARS	130	240.15			
	Total	399				
Statement 8	1.İSTANBUL	204	175.28			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	255.48			1-4
	3.TRABZON	41	233.01	23.022	.000*	1-3
	4.KARS	131	219.53			1-2
	Total	400				
Statement 9	1.İSTANBUL	205	180.49			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	237.73			
	3.TRABZON	41	219.10	14.356	.002*	1-4
	4.KARS	131	220.71			
	Total	401				
Statement 10	1.İSTANBUL	205	178.56			
	2.KOCAELİ	23	210.87			
	3.TRABZON	41	215.87	17.393	.001*	1-4
	4.KARS	132	229.52			
	Total	401				
Statement 11	1.İSTANBUL	207	193.23			
	2.KOCAELİ	23	274.17			1-2
	3.TRABZON	41	208.80			1-4
	4.KARS	131	199.52	10.836	.013**	
	Total	402				

Table 36 (continued)			Province-Responses			
	Province	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 12	1.İSTANBUL	207	179.59			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	224.44			1-4
	3.TRABZON	41	236.93	17.829	.000*	1-3
	4.KARS	131	222.37			
	Total	403				
Statement 13	1.İSTANBUL	207	178.29			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	244.88			1-4
	3.TRABZON	39	242.46	19.557	.000*	1-3
	4.KARS	131	216.51			1-2
	Total	401				

*p < 0.01, **p < 0.05

Statement 7: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 7th statement (χ^2=27.806, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.001). **Statement 8:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 8th statement (χ^2=23.022, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kocaeli, in favor of Kocaeli (p=.006); İstanbul and Trabzon, in favor of Trabzon (p=.017) and between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.003). **Statement 9:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 9th statement (χ^2=14.356, p=.002). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.009). **Statement 10:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 10th statement (χ^2=17.393, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.001). **Statement 11:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 11th statement (χ^2=10.836, p=.013). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kocaeli, in favor of Kocaeli (p=.007), and between Kocaeli and Kars, in favor of Kocaeli (p=.021). **Statement 12:** There was a significant difference among the

groups in their responses to the 12th statement (χ^2=17.829, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Trabzon, in favor of Trabzon (p=.015), and between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.003). **Statement 13:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 13th statement (χ^2=19.557, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kocaeli, in favor of Kocaeli (p=.039); İstanbul and Trabzon, in favor of Trabzon (p=.007) and between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.015)

SECTION 3 aimed to gauge to what extent the students were aware of the macro skills or some communicative features of speaking. Table 37 below shows the significant results.

Table 37 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Users of the Local Textbook (MONE) in Different Provinces And SQ Statements: Section 3*

SECTION 3	Province-Responses					
	Province	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 14	1.İSTANBUL	208	179.17			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	233.44			
	3.TRABZON	41	211.66	20.089	.000*	1-4
	4.KARS	132	232.33			
	Total	405				
Statement 15	1.İSTANBUL	208	188.59			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	211.75			
	3.TRABZON	40	188.13			1-4
	4.KARS	132	227.09	10.138	.017**	
	Total	404				
Statement 16	1.İSTANBUL	207	180.16			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	189.15			
	3.TRABZON	41	219.20			1-4
	4.KARS	132	234.77	20.319	.000*	
	Total	404				

Table 37 (continued)			Province-Responses			
	Province	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 17	1.İSTANBUL	205	179.39			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	223.83			
	3.TRABZON	41	230.13	16.482	.001*	1-4
	4.KARS	132	222.89			1-3
	Total	402				

*p < 0.01, **p < 0.05

Statement 14: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 14th statement (χ^2=20.089, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.001).

Statement 15: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 15th statement (χ^2=10.138, p=.017). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.014).

Statement 16: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 16th statement (χ^2=20.319, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.001).

Statement 17: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 17th statement (χ^2=16.482, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.003), and between İstanbul and Trabzon, in favor of Trabzon (p=.048).

SECTION 4 aimed to gauge to what extent the students were autonomous in their preferences for developing speaking skills. Table 38 below shows the significant results.

Table 38 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Users of the Local Textbook (MONE) in Different Provinces and SQ Statements: Section 4*

SECTION 4			Province -Responses			
	Province	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 18	1.İSTANBUL	207	186.49			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	256.75			
	3.TRABZON	41	207.57	11.249	.010	1-2
	4.KARS	131	214.74			
	Total	403				
Statement 20	1.İSTANBUL	207	175.74			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	225.65			
	3.TRABZON	40	211.68	23.937	.000	1-4
	4.KARS	131	234.68			
	Total	402				

p < 0.01

Statement 18: There was a significant difference among the groups' responses to the 18th statement (χ^2=11.249, p=.010). Post hoc analysis, conducted to find the source of the difference, showed that there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kocaeli, in favor of Kocaeli (p=.024). **Statement 20:** There was a significant difference among the groups' responses to the 20th statement (χ^2=23.937, p=.001). Post hoc analysis, conducted to find the source of the difference, showed that there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.001).

SECTION 5 aimed to gauge to what extent the instruction of speaking skills produced washback effect on the preferences of the students. Table 39 below shows the significant results.

Table 39 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Users of the Local Textbook (MONE) in Different Provinces and SQ Statements: Section 5*

SECTION 5			Province -Responses			
	Province	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 22	1.İSTANBUL	206	181.86			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	244.81			
	3.TRABZON	41	221.38	14.386	.002*	1-4
	4.KARS	132	219.63			
	Total	403				

Table 39 (continued)			Province-Responses			
	Province	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 23	1.İSTANBUL	208	184.23			
	2.KOCAELİ	24	218.98			
	3.TRABZON	40	215.90	10.909	.012**	1-4
	4.KARS	131	222.85			
	Total	403				
Statement 26	1.İSTANBUL	208	183.50			
	2.KOCAELİ	23	240.48			
	3.TRABZON	41	215.15	12.155	.007*	1-4
	4.KARS	131	220.50			
	Total	403				

*p < 0.01 **p < 0.05

Statement 22: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 22nd statement (χ^2=14.386, p=.002). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.011), and between İstanbul and Kocaeli, in favor of Kocaeli (p=.016). **Statement 23:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 23rd statement (χ^2=10.909, p=.012). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.012). **Statement 26:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 26th statement (χ^2=12.155, p=.00). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between İstanbul and Kars, in favor of Kars (p=.021).

4.6.8. One-way ANOVA Analysis-Users of the Local Textbook (MONE) in Different Provinces and DCT Scores

There was no statistically significant result regarding DCT score in relation to different provinces according to one-way ANOVA analysis *F* (.544), p=.653.

4.7. Statistical Analyses of the Questionnaire for EFL Teachers

4.7.1. Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Different Textbook Users and TQ Statements

In order to see the differences, if any, between the responses participating teachers gave to the questionnaire statements in relation to the textbook they were using, Kruskal Wallis H test was run. Table 40 below shows the significant results:

Table 40 *Kruskal Wallis H Test Analysis-Different Textbook Users and TQ Statements*

			Textbook-Responses (TQ)			
	Textbook	N	Mean rank	X^2	p	p
Statement 1	1.MONE	8	7.38			
	2.OUP	17	18.71			1-2
	3.CUP	8	23.00	12.578	.002*	1-3
	Total	33				
Statement 2	1.MONE	8	7.25			
	2.OUP	17	20.47			1-2
	3.CUP	8	19.38	12.381	.002*	1-3
	Total	33				
Statement 3	1.MONE	8	7.50			
	2.OUP	17	18.12			1-2
	3.CUP	8	24.13	13.814	.001*	1-3
	Total	33				
Statement 6	1.MONE	8	11.56			
	2.OUP	17	21.50			1-2
	3.CUP	8	12.88	8.715	.013**	
	Total	33				
Statement 7	1.MONE	8	10.81			
	2.OUP	17	20.97			1-2
	3.CUP	8	14.75	7.327	.026**	
	Total	33				

*p < 0.01, **p < 0.05

Statement 1: There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 1st statement (χ^2=12.578, p=.002). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.013), and between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.002). **Statement 2:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 2nd statement (χ^2=12.381, p=.002). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results,

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there was a significant difference between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.022), and between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.002). **Statement 3:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 3rd statement (χ^2=13.814, p=.001). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.020), and between MONE and CUP, in favor of CUP (p=.001). **Statement 6:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 6th statement (χ^2=8.715, p=.013). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.032). **Statement 7:** There was a significant difference among the groups in their responses to the 7th statement (χ^2=7.327, p=.026). Post hoc analysis was conducted to find the source of the difference. According to the results, there was a significant difference between MONE and OUP, in favor of OUP (p=.029).

4.7.2. Mann Whitney U Test Analysis-Textbook Users at Different Schools and TQ Statements

In order to see the differences, if any, between the responses participating teachers gave to the questionnaire statements in relation to the school type where they were working-public school or private school, Mann Whitney U test was run. Table 41 below shows the significant results:

Table 41 *Mann Whitney U Test Analysis-Textbook Users at Different Schools and TQ Statements*

	School type-Responses (TQ)						
	N		Mean Rank		*U*	*Z*	p
	Public	Private	Public	Private			
Statement 1	8	25	7.38	20.08	23	-3.378	.001*
Statement 2	8	25	7.25	20.12	22	-3.507	.000*
Statement 3	8	25	7.50	20.14	24	-3.384	.001*
Statement 4	8	25	11.19	18.86	53.5	-2.053	.040**
Statement 7	8	25	10.81	18.98	50.5	-2.195	.028**
Statement 11	8	25	9.88	19.28	43	-2.549	.011**
Statement 14	8	25	10.25	19.16	46	-2.350	.019**

*p < 0.01, **p < 0.05

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Statement 1: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school teachers in their responses to the 1st statement (U=23, p=.001, z=-3.378), in favor of private school teachers.

Statement 2: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school teachers in their responses to the 2nd statement (U=22, p=.001, z=-3.507), in favor of private school teachers.

Statement 3: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school teachers in their responses to the 3rd statement (U=24, p=.001, z=-3.384), in favor of private school teachers.

Statement 4: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school teachers in their responses to the 4th statement (U=53.5, p=.040, z=-2.053), in favor of private school teachers.

Statement 7: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school teachers in their responses to the 7th statement (U=50.5, p=.028, z=-2.195), in favor of private school teachers.

Statement 11: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school teachers in their responses to the 11th statement (U=43, p=.011, z=-2.549), in favor of private school teachers.

Statement 14: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among public and private school teachers in their responses to the 14th statement (U=46, p=.019, z=-2.350), in favor of private school teachers.

4.7.3. Correlational Analysis-Teachers' Age, Year of Experience and TQ Statements

To see the relation between the participating teachers' age, year of experience and their responses to the questionnaire statements, Spearman correlation was conducted. Significant results are shown in Table 42 below.

Table 42 *Correlational Analysis-Teachers' Year Of Experience and TQ Statements*

	Year of Experience-TQ Statements		
	N	p	r
Statement 15	33	.036	-.367
Statement 16	33	.025	-.389
Statement 21	32	.044	.359

p<0.05

Findings show that age of the teachers did not correlate with any of the TQ statements. However, their year of experience correlated negatively with statement 15 with Spearman's r= -.367, p=.036; negatively with statement 16 with Spearman's r= -.389, p=.025; and positively with statement 21 with Spearman's r=.359, p=.044.

4.8. Contrastive Analysis of the Common Statements in the Student and Teacher Questionnaire

In order to see if students and teachers diverged or converged in their responses to the questionnaire statements, Mann Whitney U test was run. In this analysis only the statements that were comparable were used. That is the statements that were given both in the SQ and TQ were included. Table 43 shows the significant results.

Table 43 *Mann Whitney U Test-Common Statements in the Student and Teacher Questionnaire*

	Student/Teacher-Responses (SQ-TQ)						
	N		Mean rank		*U*	Z	p
	Student	Teacher	Student	Teacher			
Statement 5	1041	33	541.33	416.79	13193	-2.403	.016**
Statement 7	1034	33	530.17	654.06	13099	-2.322	.020**
Statement 12	1040	32	533.04	648.94	13042	-2.298	.022**
Statement 18	1041	33	532.33	700.70	11791	-3.141	.002*
Statement 20/21	1039	32	531.90	669.05	12366.5	-2.590	.010*
Statement 22/23	1040	33	533.06	661.32	13057.5	-2.447	.014**
Statement 26	1042	33	533.95	665.80	12975.5	-2.462	.014**
Statement 27	1039	33	531.52	693.32	11968.5	-3.033	.002*

*p < 0.01 **p < 0.05

Statement 5: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among teachers and students in their responses to the 5th statement (U=13193, p=.016, z=-2.403), in favor of students. **Statement 7:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among teachers and students in their responses to the 7th statement (U=13099, p=.020, z=-2.322), in favor of teachers. **Statement 12**: According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among teachers and students in their responses to the 12th statement (U=13042, p=.022, z=-2.298), in favor of teachers. **Statement 18:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among teachers and students in their responses to the 18th statement (U=11791, p=.002, z=-3.141), in favor of teachers. **Statement 20 in SQ / Statement 21 in TQ:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among teachers and students in their responses to the 20th and 21st statements (U=12366.5, p=.010, z=-2.590), in favor of teachers. **Statement 22 in SQ / Statement 23 in TQ:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among teachers and students in their responses to the 22nd and 23rd statements (U=13057.5, p=.014, z=-2.447), in favor of teachers. **Statement 26:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among teachers and students in their responses to the 26th statement (U=12975.5, p=.014, z=-2.462), in favor of teachers. **Statement 27:** According to Mann Whitney U test results, there was a significant difference among teachers and students in their responses to the 27th statement (U=11968.5, p=.002, z=-3.033), in favor of teachers.

4.9. Contrastive Thematic Analysis of the Commentary Part in the Student Questionnaire

Each of the commentary text of the three textbooks were at first evaluated in its own right but later comparisons were made based on the common themes that emerged, though they conflicted sometimes. Each of the below sections in the thematic analysis corresponds to that of those in the SQ. Some themes and quotations below included other language skills as vocabulary or listening. As they were related to

speaking skills, they were also included. Themes extracted from the commentary of the students attending public schools and using MONE, OUP, and CUP in English classes were presented below with relevant verbatim comments of the students, which were translated from Turkish. The comments of the students using MONE were also labelled according to the provinces where they were attending school.

4.9.1. Commentary by Students Using MONE-The Local Textbook

SECTION 1 Comments on the speaking tasks and texts in the textbook
-Lack of interactive materials or the use of multimedia
"We can watch films and comment on them so that we can reinforce what we have learnt." (Kars)
-Need for natural or authentic English and more practice
"Our textbooks and teaching style are not suitable for teaching English. We should learn more practical English that is related to real life. In that case we can learn the language in less than one year." (Kocaeli)
-Organization in textbooks and instruction by better language teachers
"Textbooks for English classes should be planned and prepared better and they should be covered by more qualified teachers." (İstanbul)

SECTION 2 Comments on the classroom instructions of speaking skills
-Lack of sufficient amount of dialogues and exercises
"If our classes were more interactive and related to real life, it would be better." (Trabzon)
-More emphasis on vocabulary less on grammar
"We should attach more importance to vocabulary and so to speaking. Grammar should be less." (Trabzon)
-The role of English teachers in engaging students to classes
"In my opinion, English should be taught with teachers who can make us love English." (Kars)

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"Actually, I do not find English classes sufficient. But with the change of our teacher's teaching method (We teach the class, not the teacher.), I realized that I understand better." (Kars)

SECTION 3 Comments on the macro skills of speaking

-Lack of knowledge despite exposure to English for long years

"We have been given English classes for eight years. Though we have been taught the same content, we haven't been able to learn anything." (İstanbul)

-Need for natural or authentic use of English with NSs

"It will be better if we learn English that can be used in real life. We want to speak English with 'real' people." (İstanbul)

SECTION 4 Comments on learner autonomy for developing speaking skills

-Self monitoring

"If we take more detailed notes in English classes with the Turkish translations, we can be more successful." (Kars)

-Student participation and engagement

"Students should be made more active and educated more." (Kars)

"English is not paid much attention by us."(İstanbul)

SECTION 5 Comments on the washback effect of the instructions of speaking skills

-Lack of relevance of learning English and engagement

"I find English classes unnecessary and I don't think English can be useful in real life. It never did until now." (Kars)

-Need to study for University Entrance Exam (UEE)

"Instead of English classes, we can have classes that will prepare us for university entrance exam." (İstanbul)

-Excessive repetition of grammar subjects

"Our English education years are nearly equal to the sum of the years of education but it does not bear novelty and so boring. It is illogical to always cover grammar." (Kars)

4.9.2. Commentary by Students Using OUP-The Localized Textbook

SECTION 1 Comments on the speaking tasks and texts in the textbook

-Emphasis on vocabulary instruction and learning strategies

"If there were words and phrases in speaking parts, it would be better for us."

-Relevance of learning English and engagement

"Some activities are boring which causes me to lose interest in the classes."

"Since English will be of use very much in life, we should study for it through our own and our teachers' efforts."

-No correspondence with the level of students

"All the subjects are familiar to us. We already know them. Textbooks can be developed."

SECTION 2 Comments on the classroom instructions of speaking skills

- Need for natural or authentic use of English with NSs

"There should be foreign teachers for our pronunciation to be good."

"There should be daily conversations and activities in English classes."

-Negative and positive feedback

"There should be punishment for those who don't speak English in class, which will be more effective."

"I love the guidance and help of my teacher."

"It will be better if there were encouragement to speak English in classes."

-Lack of interactive materials or the use of multimedia

"English movies and music contribute to our pronunciation. I think our classes are grammar-oriented and boring."

SECTION 3 Comments on the macro skills of speaking

-Inadequacy in communicating through English

"Even if there are also mistakes when I write, I can do it. But I cannot communicate with someone else."

 -Intimidating effect of group interaction

"There should be more class hours in which we can speak with the native speakers in pair. There can be people who may not want to talk in front of a group."

SECTION 4 Comments on learner autonomy for developing speaking skills

-Outside the class activities

"I believe speaking skills cannot be gained in the school only. There should be different opportunities for students."

-Increasing awareness towards language development

"If I could go abroad even for two weeks, this would contribute a lot to my pronunciation and the development of my English."

"I believe student-teacher dialogues will be more beneficial but I don't think this is possible because of the numbers of the students in class."

SECTION 5 Comments on the washback effect of the instructions of speaking skills

-*The weight of speaking skills in formative and summative assessment*

"Speaking skills should have an effect on our performance scores."

"There can be activities that do not require getting high marks, and that make English entertaining."

- The weight of speaking skills in the textbook

"I don't think the textbook contributes much to our speaking daily conversational English. If it concentrated on speaking skills, then it would be better."

4.9.3. Commentary by Students Using CUP-The International Textbook

SECTION 1 Comments on the speaking tasks and texts in the textbook

- No correspondence with the level of students

"The textbook is not very effective in teaching. The content should be more intensive."

"I don't believe the textbook adds something to my knowledge."

- Need for strategies for learning

"If important words had been underlined just like in our previous textbook, it would have been better."

-Emphasis on frequent vocabulary

"Words that are of no use should not be in the textbook and reading passages should be related to daily life."

-Lack of daily conversational language

"There is certainly no use of daily language in the textbook but too much grammar."

SECTION 2 Comments on the classroom instructions of speaking skills

-Lack of relevance of learning English and engagement

"If English is taught in a gamelike way, it will be easier and entertaining to learn it."

-Need for natural or authentic English and more practice with frequent vocabulary

"The teaching of questions or sentences which are used in daily life and of high frequency should be prioritized."

SECTION 3 Comments on the macro skills of speaking

- Need for group interaction

"There should be more parts related to speaking in our textbook and there should be more group-study."

"I have been taking English classes for 13 years but I cannot give directions to a foreigner. Because the classes do not focus on speaking and listening but grammar."

SECTION 4 Comments on learner autonomy for developing speaking skills

-Need for strategies for learning

"We should read English books in the first term and in the second term we should concentrate on speaking skills."

-Increasing awareness towards language learning

"We should first learn speaking so that we can understand grammar."

"Even if we study on our own, we should understand our textbook."

SECTION 5 Comments on the washback effect of the instructions of speaking skills

-The weight of speaking skills in formative and summative assessment

"It is unfortunate that I'm listening to the lessons because getting high marks is a cause for concern for me."

"If speaking skills were formally assessed, I would study for them but I would do it for the sake of getting high marks."

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSIONS

Next come the verbal interpretations of what evolved from the data mining process.

5.1. The Textbooks and the Compiled Spoken Texts

Many students are exposed to spoken data by means of the transcriptions of the dialogues in the textbooks. Hence, a text full of the conversational data in the textbooks was compiled. Then, with the intention of finding discoursal efficacy, the quality, scope, and usefulness of each text of spoken data was evaluated through a framework, MEF, which was one of the major tools of this thesis research.

The first thing to be mentioned about the coursebooks is that all three were written in a theme-based manner. Recalling us the notional-functional syllabus, this mode of presenting the language seems to focus on specific communicative events, and the vocabulary and grammar needed to perform them. However, as Arnold and Rixon (2008) discuss "a Topic-based course does not seem to imply any particular teaching approach and may actually be open to traditional rote-learning based vocabulary-centred approaches" (p. 50). As mentioned elsewhere, in the textbooks evaluated there were 8, 10, and 16 units for the local, localized, and international textbook. The numbers can be associated with the number of the topics and relevant vocabulary that students were exposed to. In other words, the limitation of each unit with one content also limits the variety of the lexis for both syntax and semantics. This idea may seem to be in conflict with the one that supports recycling in language education; however, too much emphasis on similar concepts can be less engaging, which was one of the commonest themes in thematic analysis of the commentary part.

On the other hand expanding the scope of the themes or units does not refer to a disorganization or confusion of elements all stuffed in one unit. To conclude briefly, narrowing down the content and the form of the textbooks considerably may prevent learners from benefitting by the enhancement of useful input. For three of the

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materials analyzed, with some gradations actually, I can echo Tomlinson and Masuhara (2008, p. 174) and say that "the emphasis seems to be on providing input rather than facilitating intake and that materials feature far more language practice exercises than language use activities."

As to the dialogues in three types of the textbooks, it was observed that the speakers were given mostly American or European names, which is normal. However, if there is the universality of English language, then a variety in the names of the speakers should have been preferred. This would certainly have added richness and a sociocultural feel to the data in the coursebooks. Another point is that in many tasks, the speakers were not given any name but A and B; Student A and Student B; or only dashes to indicate the turns. The number of the dialogues with names not with dashes or student A or student B was 8 (out of 46), 25 (out of 51), and 17 (out of 71) for the local, localized, and international textbook respectively. In real life it is true that we sometimes need or have to talk to people whose names we do not know or just not remember. In this respect, the use of dashes instead of real names can be justifiable. However, we at least identify them as the clerk in the bank, the old woman in the bus or a child in the street, etc. This point can be an evidence of artificiality in the dialogues. Additionally, even the names of the speakers or their jobs or positions in the speaking context can be a source of input. Last but not least, the number of the words in the compiled text of the international textbook was more than that of the other two. Though degree of quality can sometimes surpass the weight of the quantity, it is still deemed important for learners to be exposed to input optimally.

5.2. The Modular-Evaluative Framework

First of all, MEF was modular in that it had seemingly different branches in itself but they were all complementary. The rationale was that restriction in linguistic competence probably brings communicative incompetence with itself. The network among the constituents of MEF is a good indicator that language is like a patchwork,

not complete without the other. Componential analysis of MEF with multi-level constructs with respect to the three textbooks follows:

5.2.1. MODULE I-TASK ANALYSIS

5.2.1.1. Task Type

The level of the usefulness of the task types some of which were "ask and answer", "discuss", or "compare" in the relevant parts was at the core of this part. As an overall evaluation, I should mention what Tomlinson and Masuhara (2008) write:

The sameness of each unit as a result of using a standard format helps the publisher, the teacher and possibly the learner, but it does not provide the variety and novelty of stimuli which would be more likely to stimulate acquisition. (p. 174)

For example, the number of the different tasks related to speaking skills reduce from the international textbook to the localized with the lowest number in the local one. It is quite normal that there is varied preference in terms of task weight but given that these books were all at A2 level, there shouldn't have been such a big difference.

It is quite certain that the more mental skills are required in a task the more it will lead to cognitive engagement by the learners. This does not entail that every task should encourage learners to compare, discuss, or justify a response. In real life and in the classroom environments, it is very common that we ask questions or answer them. Nevertheless, the prompts should be designed so that they trigger thinking skills and problem solving abilities. In the study, tasks needing higher skills and so more attempt from the learners increased in number from the localized textbook to the local with the highest number in the international one. Research and logic suggest that, not counting the individual differences of the learners, hands-on activities in general promote learning. Here, "hands-on" also implies the activities that are "cognition-on" – studies that motivate learners to use different segments of their brains simultaneously and maybe spontaneously.

5.2.1.2. Functional Category

Whether tasks prompted interactional or transactional talk was aimed to be found out in this part. It is quite certain that the range and variety of the contexts and the type of interlocutors should increase so that more lifelike experiences through tasks yield style and register awareness. In terms of content, tasks are generally categorized as transactional and interactional, the former corresponding to formal thus predictable exchanges and the latter to informal thus unpredictable ones. Yet, it would be far from real to think that speaking events are purely interactional or the other; they overlap in most of the instances. This is why textbooks should include different contexts that can represent various shades of deference.

Probably because the textbooks in this study revolved around the concept of communication, in all the textbooks, interactional dialogues outnumbered the other type. This is to some extent acceptable given the level of the textbooks (A2). Besides, students at this level may not be required to be involved in dialogues other than those taking place within family or among friends. The only formal context may be the school for many. However, if communication in its full sense is meant by the textbook writers, then the range in the formal contexts should be enhanced. It is quite weird that in none of the textbooks was there a dialogue between a student and a teacher who for example tries to recast and repair an error during speech. The limited linguistic command of the students at A2 level can be given as an excuse for this deficiency but if a textbook for EFL learners won't reflect the way EFL learners learn the language, then how can they claim to teach language? Even the style teachers and students use in classroom teaching and learning, which is their very need, was not evidenced in the textbooks.

5.2.1.3. Conversation Type

In this part, the target was to find out what constituted the spoken text of each textbook: speech bubbles, dialogues, or multiparty talks. The homogeneity in the format of the exchanges, which is mostly provided through speech bubbles, may be

deemed good for A2 level, however, "what looks like a safe procedure entails a risk of overloading the coursebook with bland and uninspiring contents and denying learners from the opportunity to explore new realities" (Barrios et al., 2008, p. 303). In this part, the major finding was that 60.11% of all the tasks in three of the textbooks (N=168) was composed of speech bubbles. That is, the exchanges between the interlocutors was rather limited and they lacked a proper beginning and an end. What is meant by "proper" is that normally a dialogue starts with a greeting or a related string of words that assures the continuity and ends with a preparation for parting and finally leave taking. However, in these coursebooks, speech bubbles seemed to have been written to be a model to be copied by the students. And the inadequacy of the informative instructions in the prompts and the lack of guidance on how to personalize those sample dialogues were two evidences of why the spoken input in the textbooks did not seem as useful as they should be.

5.2.1.4. Response Type

In this type of analysis the compelling rationale was the idea of sociocultural learning. Hence, whether learners were required to do the tasks individually, in pair or group work was the focal point. In Vygotsky's theorization (1978, as cited in McDonough et al., 2013) "it is not only the teacher but also the peers who play a role in scaffolding learners to a point at which they become able to use language independently" (p. 100). To expand the limits of this supporting framework, tasks can certainly be utilized in the sense that they can highlight the cooperative dimension of speaking activities. Yet, given the fact that learning styles and preferences can vary considerably, the prominence of pair or group works does not entail that individual study is not effective in learning speaking skills. In other words, to be able to internalize the linguistic codes needed for a speaking, learners may need to concentrate on them first on their own, then interact with their conversational partners.

It is the right time to note that the majority of the tasks in the local and international textbook required pair and group work unlike those in the localized one in which nearly half of the tasks required the same. The latter case can be more pedagogical in that as well as collaborative type of learning, learners need to stop and think from time to time about how they use the language. This self-monitoring can yield effective results in the long run as awareness adds meaning to the acquisition of language. Also, in the thematic analysis, it was seen that learners were cautious about group studies which normally require the integration of both linguistic and communicative competence.

5.2.1.5. Integrative Aspect

Tasks can be written to improve only one skill at a time or more than one, thus being integrative. The need to use L2 may be counted as one of the most important incentives for spoken output. The reason can be that a kind of output may pave the ground for a kind of acceleration in the cognitive processes. A task that only requires the use of certain vocabulary may have less of an effect on language performance and so it should not be equated with another that requires the merging of lexis and grammar. On the other hand, this does not mean that every activity in a textbook should require the use of multi-skills. Sometimes doing speaking practice only for its own sake can yield better results than doing it with pronunciation practice, for example. In that, in the latter case there can be felt a kind of constraint on the articulation of the specific sounds that may not be appropriate for the students' existing level of competence.

In the textbooks evaluated, the number of the tasks that necessitated the use of multi-skills was the highest in the localized textbook and the lowest in the local one. Though the number of such tasks is quite important when evaluating a material, it should also be born in mind that integrated tasks often need more effort than discrete ones do. Therefore, it is the teachers who may get more out of a task that is segregated and get less out of an integrated one if they do not invest much in it.

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5.2.2. MODULE II-PHONOLOGICAL ANALYSIS

Oral and aural communication cannot be separated in authentic speaking events in that without one, the other does not constitute a whole. It is a general stance of coursebook writers that the value given to grammar and vocabulary in them is not commensurate with the one given to phonological skills. However, the paucity of emphasis on segmental and particularly suprasegmental features of English can result in problems in the manifestation of the speaking skills.

The textbooks evaluated varied in the prevalence of the knowledge regarding phonology though those written by NSs were quite similar in their concern for their users' phonologic competence. Details follow:

5.2.2.1. Phonologic Components of the Local Textbook-MONE
A) Texts and Tasks
Apart from only two explanation boxes in only one unit regarding contraction (contracted form of will as in *I'll*, and the colloquial form of going to as in *I'm gonna* …), there was no other instruction in MONE. For a textbook that claims to adopt a communicative approach, not including vital information on phonology, such as the role of intonation in comprehension and negotiation, does not seem to be justifiable.

b) Audio Tapes
It was an unfortunate situation for users of MONE to be exposed to too few audio tapes which include dialogues or pronunciation practice. It was only five. Yet, at the beginning of each tape, the name of the unit and the page number of the task was given, which could be evaluated as a positive feature because students while working themselves outside the classroom can save time. Also, information about the speakers, setting, and the conversation topic was given. Apart from NSs, there was also one NNS, which can be deemed as an advantage for learners. In discussing the exposure to only NSs in an interaction Thornbury (2006) explains:

It is arguable that exposure to only native speakers sets a standard of spoken interaction that is beyond either the means or the needs of most learners and that it

would be more useful, and more realistic, if they had access to recordings of communicatively successful exchanges between non-native speakers. (p. 45)

The use of background voice in one of the two dialogues was a marker of authenticity in the sense that listeners could feel themselves as if they were in that environment. However, non-existence of any overlapping in the turns of the speakers can be regarded as an evidence of the dialogues' being highly controlled and contrived. As to the tapes for pronunciation, words were given in a decontextualized manner, that is, there were no relevant dialogues but isolated sentences.

5.2.2.2. Phonologic Components of the Localized Textbook-OUP
A) Texts and Tasks
From the phonological respect, the localized textbook was far better than the local one in that units aimed to teach concepts related to phonology. Specifically, the weight of the intonation practices was in favor of the students. This part included the pronunciation of *-ed endings, the before a consonant and a vowel sound, to in going to,* and *will and won't.* From a suprasegmental point, in different parts under the title of pronunciation, students were asked to repeat and copy the intonation of such words as hesitation markers, which was a direct reference to the sociolinguistic competence. The reason is that the phrases or sentences the intonation of which students were required to copy had functional value as they were related to making a complaint to a shop assistant or inviting friends to a social gathering.

It is of note that apart from these parts, the authors also allocated extra space for developing speaking skills through explanation boxes titled as *speaking strategy.* These strategies included the use of discourse markers for hesitation or negotiation such as asking for clarification. And what was very useful for the learners that these strategies were supported by the audio tracks. It is also worth mentioning that students were required to repeat and copy the way phrases were uttered in them. The word *copy* may not seem in accordance with the practices of communicative teaching but indeed this kind of conventional instruction is a step for the realization of the

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modern demands of the communicative methodology. As Nation and Newton (2009) explain, teaching pronunciation in the initial stages of learning ought to include

> listening to the sounds, distinguishing the sounds, copying the teacher making the sound in easy syllables (consonant, plus vowel), looking at the teacher's mouth to see the position of the tongue, teeth and lips, and getting some simple explanation and feedback from the teacher. (p. 33)

b) Audio Tapes

At the beginning of each task the name of the relevant unit was given, but not the page number or any additional information that can serve as a pre-listening support. Most dialogues were in a very rigid order, with no interruption, overlap, or false start. Also, many of the dialogues used to end all of a sudden not including any phrase of closing. Listeners were, in general, not exposed to the extra voice or sound apart from the speakers' so almost all conversations seem to have taken place in a very sterile environment. Yet, in one dialogue, the setting was a beach, and the sounds of the seagulls and the sea waves made the dialogue sound authentic.

Few of the dialogues were taking place on line (phone talk), which added positively to the variety of the settings. Speakers were mostly NSs, in few of the cases NNSs. The emphatic stress in speeches was something that immediately drew attention in the tapes but in many of them that stress sounded quite artificial. Audio tracks for pronunciation practice were rather decontextualized because they generally concentrated on individual words or phrases.

5.2.2.3. Phonologic Components of the International Textbook-CUP
a) Texts and Tasks
Given the importance of phonological awareness in communicative use of language it can be said that the international textbook was the best. The topics given to provide students with phonological competence included the pronunciation of *used to* and *use to*, noticing *the main stress in the two-syllable words*, paying attention to *unpronounced vowels*, noticing *how the two consonants at the beginning of a word*

are pronounced together, linked sounds with w and y, stress in two-part verbs, syllable stress, stress and rhythm, and *intonation in statements with time phrases.*

It was a good opportunity for the users of CUP that they were exposed to dialogues whether artificial or near-authentic in many parts of the textbook such as grammar or listening. At a word level, writing was also integrated with pronunciation practices. Besides, in the pronunciation parts, there were illustrations with arrows to indicate the direction of intonation; a good indicator that visual aspects were integrated and utilized in teaching pronunciation. From a suprasegmental aspect, stress, linking, pitch, and intonation were emphasized at a word or sentence level in many of the tapes thus decontextualized. However, the emphasis on statements used to express strong opinions, certainty, or doubt helped build discoursal awareness through rhythm, pitch, contrastive stress and emphatic stress.

b) Audio Tapes

Before the dialogues started, instruction about what students were expected to do in that task, and where the task took place in the coursebook, the name of the unit and the page number were all given in the audio tracks. And apart from the explanations in the textbook, textbook users were also given information before the practice part of the tasks began in the tapes. Instead of the instruction of "listen and repeat" in most of the cases in listening or speaking activities, the authors favored "listen and practice" but there was no guidance on how. In terms of the background voice, many of the conversations started with sounds but after several seconds, the sounds became faint and then faded. This may have resulted from the aim to make listeners focus only on the dialogues. The sounds of objects that the speakers were using at the time of the conversation, such as a book or a keyboard were a good authentic point.

Speakers were generally NSs but there were also NNSs. However, apart from a few countries that were repeated as the hometown of the speakers more than once like Argentina, there were no direct references to other countries where this textbook was

used. Some talks took place on the phone and whether conversations took place in the street or at home, the voices of the speakers were always very clear. The dialogues also ended all of a sudden and even in many of them although the speakers were taking a leave they were not using any of the leave taking phrases.

All in all, the suprasegmental manifestations of such features as stress, intonation, and linking with varying degrees in the textbooks were useful on the part of the users. However, because there was almost no involvement of students apart from repeating, and copying the words or sentences, it cannot be said that the current position of the textbooks could improve phonological skills without additional support.

5.2.3. MODULE III-TEXTUAL ANALYSIS

Biber and Barbieri (2007) indicate that "DMs (*discourse markers)* have the function to signal relationships between prior and coming discourse" (p. 265). Within the categorization of this study, DMs were discussed under several headings. The rationale was that they have different functions in different settings.

The local textbook of this study, MONE, included a variety of backchannels and hedges, though limited. Its authors indicated in the inner pages that the book favored a communicative teaching and was prepared relying on the CEF principles. Therefore it is normal for the textbook not to include tasks and texts that are challenging and above the level of A2. However in a book that is the main textbook of most students in state schools, "i+1" approach could also be taken into account. That is, students could be exposed to input beyond their cognition that can help get more out of the textbooks and so English classes. Some tasks and texts could be more (and less) demanding than the others so that the needs of the students above (and below) the average could be taken into account.

In the localized and international textbook, there was evidence of more use of cohesive and communicative units, which is an advantage; however, the range could have been attached more importance. Also, students could be directed to the use of certain cohesive items such as conjunctions through an explicit mode of teaching and more practices. "At least, it would be helpful if a textbook showed students what to do or gave students advice when learners had difficulty in understanding a particular activity" (Smiley & Masui, 2008, p. 259). Thus, form-focused instruction could have been provided more as "explicit training may encourage a collaborative spirit between the teacher and the learner" (Scharle & Szabo, 2000, p. 10).

Recycling of certain vocabulary and grammar based on the themes certainly contribute to the overall usefulness of the textbooks. Nevertheless, without attracting the attention of the students on certain forms, repeating the similar concepts many times can cause students to feel that they don't progress. This is to some extent verified by the students' comments reflected upon in the thematic analysis part of the thesis. Also one of the teachers using the international textbook in her classes complained: "We are already bored with the abundance of repetitions. Students are not willing to do the same things over and over again". This may be an implication that in societies that adopted traditional views of language teaching, or form-focused teaching and where the role of the teachers in language learning is seen more important than that of the students themselves, focusing on only or mostly on communication at the expense of explicit teaching can have a counter effect.

Additionally, the dialogues in the textbooks are models for students against which they will build theirs. However, if they do not know how to bind the discrete words and abstract concepts, how can they produce original utterances without directly copying the prior ones? It is at this point that the role of chunks should be mentioned. Being introduced to the patterns of the language can certainly improve comprehension substantially and productively. Nonetheless, in order for this production to renew itself, students should be given enough information to embed

meaning in form. Prodromou and Mishan (2008) claim that "there is often not enough exemplification of what the students are supposed to say or write. The reluctance to help students too much for fear of provoking inauthentic language ends up leaving students tongue-tied" (p. 199). This is why form- and meaning-focused learning and teaching should be balanced for optimal pedagogic utility.

5.2.3.1. Cohesive Units

a) Conjunctions

Conjunctive vocabulary can be said to be the milestone of linguistic competence that can lead to a language with an operational efficiency. That is, without explicitly teaching or learning such connectors as *and, but,* or *although*, one cannot expect a learner to use them appropriately in every context he is in. Apart from conjunctions themselves, some adverbs such as *here*, *there*, *now* or *then* can also serve as a transition between the utterances. For example, "demonstrative *now* is to be distinguished from conjunction *now* as in *now what we are going to do is this*" (Halliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 74). In the example given, *now* is used to initiate a new topic or maybe to deviate from a previous one, for topic shift. Similarly, "demonstrative *then* is to be distinguished from conjunction *then* as in *then you've quite made up your mind?*" (Halliday & Hasan, p. 74). Here, too, the speaker in a way concludes by wrapping up things in his mind that were discussed earlier. He does not imply a specific sequence as in "*You will sing first. Then your partner will start his.*"

The analysis under MEF showed that the local textbook ranked first in the use of conjunctions in speaking tasks and texts. Also, it is worth noting that *then* was used as a temporal conjunction but also with a meaning of 'in that case'. Another example is the use of *and*. Besides its coordinating function in a sentence, its communicative function to shift a topic was also covered in the local textbook.

In the localized textbook, conjunctions used mostly overlapped those in the local one though there were additional ones. Here too then was used with two meanings: *after that* and *in that case*. The weight of conjunctions in OUP was less than it was in the local one but the variety was to the benefit of the learners. The weight of conjunctions in tasks and texts was the least in the international textbook. However, wider variety in the use of conjunctions was an indication that quantity and quality should be merged for useful input.

All in all, implicit teaching of how to combine units of meaning to form extended utterances by means of conjunctions in conversations can be conducive to language learning but it would be better if learners were supported by awareness raising tasks and texts.

b. Substitution

In real-time speaking instances, we may omit some parts in our speeches we think are redundant. Repetition can be good in learning but spoken language is not always very tolerant of redundancy in speech. In this light, in all types of the textbooks there were traces of substitution though it was not as common as ellipsis. Phrases like *I don't think so,* or *I'm afraid so* can be given as examples. However, no awareness raising attempt to draw attention on the function of *so* in these phrases was spotted. Rather, its use as conjunction was what students were exposed to more frequently.

c. Ellipsis

Among the most common cohesive units is ellipsis which is "the omission of elements normally required by the grammar which the speaker/writer assumes are obvious from the context and therefore not be raised" (McCarthy, 1991, p. 43). The reason for this recoverability is that "'missing' element is retrievable verbatim from the surrounding text . . ." (p. 43). From this perspective, in all types of the textbooks, it was quite evident that ellipsis as a cohesive device was used systematically and

variety was wide. Examples include: *Why not?, Sure., Didn't we?, Sounds good., Neither am I., No problem., It really is., Nothing excited., Good idea.*

As is seen from the examples above, some utterances are perfect examples of chunks such as "Good idea." What this means is that students were exposed to such phrases very often so they could gain familiarity to them, which is advantageous for them. However, there could have been some comparisons in the textbook. That is, the use of "Sure." and "I'm not sure." or "Not yet." and "I haven't done it yet." could have been given at the same time so that students could have the opportunity to see the differences between the two.

d. Reference: Anaphora-Cataphora

Requiring shared knowledge between the interlocutors, referencing is a way for communicating more practically. In the local textbook, though there were anaphoric expressions, no cataphoric expressions could be found. In the textbooks, it wasn't common to find anaphoric or cataphoric expressions that replaced a whole clause or sentence but proper names or words. In the localized one, however, there was a relevant example: "I can certainly help you with that." Here, "that" replaces a whole phrase (to help find places to see). In the international textbook, there was a similar example: "I haven't talked about that yet." in which that referred to the place that the speaker would go for vacation.

One point to discuss here is whether anaphoric or especially cataphoric expressions are necessary to be taught at A2 level. The question may not be directly answered positively. However, the way to link words and phrases or sentences can be underlined while teaching. Drawing the attention of the learners on these interrelations wouldn't be confusing if kept at a moderate level. Once again for the function of references to be realized in communicative acts, learners need clear and informative instructions.

5.2.3.2. Communicative Units

a. Authenticity and Sociocultural Perspective

"This notion is important because we can only acquire a target language by drawing inferences and making generalizations from valid samples" (Rost, 2006, p. 51). Therefore, it is of value that through textbooks learners are exposed to (nearly) real data. Made-up language only for pedagogical aims could also be useful but the balance between the real and pedagogic tasks is an important issue in material writing. In all types of the textbooks, there were certainly many useful tasks and texts related to speaking skills. However, it wouldn't be unfair if the insufficiency of the units of cohesion and coherence is mentioned. These were discussed under the relevant titles but here it is deemed important to critically approach the issue of authenticity from a sociocultural perspective now.

It goes without saying that many people learn English as ELF-English as a Lingua Franca and therefore not everyone is seeking for full integration into either a native country or society. On the other hand if learners, in a way, want to integrate with the world, they know that there is almost no language now as widespread and welcomed as English. This seemingly conflicting situations lead us to rethink the content of the materials. Taking into account the task and text contents of the localized book of this study, it is almost impossible not to ask this question: Do the English youth always go to parties or men to gym after work or women to shopping? Strikingly, one dialogue out of five was related to movies, director, and actors. What is more interesting is that the same movie could be used as the topic of three different dialogues!

One example can be given from the tasks evaluated in this study. The form-focused task was to complete the facts about customs with certain modal verbs. The completed version of one of the sentences in the task was: In Saudi Arabia, you needn't use a knife and fork to eat – you can use your fingers if you prefer. This information whether true or not reinforces a perception which is most probably

negative. Is it for only introducing different people to language learners or introducing a bias? Another question to exert was "Do millions of people around the world use knife and fork when they eat fast food?" It was very obvious that there was overemphasis on the culture of specific nations which impedes the universality of the textbook.

Similarly, in the local coursebook, there was bias towards American or European way of life. Going to parties, concerts, or movies was the most common activity the young performed. Over-indulgence in Western way of life was an indication that transmitting language cannot be separate from transmitting culture. Actually, the transfer of culture may not be isolated from language learning. However, it is the degree of exposure and issue of cultural relevance that matter. Given that this textbook was used all round Turkey, internalization of linguistic and communicative features with special references to Turkey wouldn't do any student harm or make him or her deprived of the required knowledge. Why does a material writer of a local textbook (or a localized) not use the life of Yunus Emre or Mevlana as an input? Or worldwide known figures and their achievements in literature, cinema, or music. To come to the point, with the use of shared knowledge among learners, they can be helped to transfer the communicative competence from L1 to L2, in the form of communicative performance – a point highly disregarded in our case.

In the international coursebook, on the other hand, it was observed that authors or designers attached importance to multi-culturalism in their illustrations, accompanying tasks and texts. In several illustrations for example there were both Caucasians with light skin and blonde hair and also African Americans with dark skin and short hair. It was, from a sociocultural point of view, important that there wasn't homogeneity in dialogues in terms of the speakers' nationalities.

However, one notable example is that in one of the dialogues between three Americans, the topic was the way one Indian student moved his head while speaking.

One of the speakers asked the others the reason why he moved his head from side to side. And through discussing, they came to a conclusion that he used to do that when he agreed with someone. If the aim of this spoken text was to familiarize the students with a cultural aspect from outside then wouldn't it be more logical if the dialogue had taken place between the Americans and the Indian so that they could be given the right information directly? On the other side of the coin, it could be thought that talking about one's culture when he was not there was to avoid a face-threatening act. However, a more realistic and interactive dialogue among speakers with different nationalities could be better in this context. Emphasis on politeness, avoiding touching on culture-sensitive issues and face-saving strategies could be taught explicitly or implicitly in other tasks apart from this one, as well.

One last example is from a dialogue between two teenagers one of whom wished to have his own apartment and complained about his parents' asking him to be home before midnight. Upon being asked why then he did not leave home, his answer was: "Hey, I wish I could, but where else can I get free room and board?" This is a perfect example of sociocultural inappropriacy imposed upon by a textbook in a setting where family is valued highly. What is weirder is that a dialogue with a similar mentality could find a place for itself in the local textbook. One of the speakers asked why the other looked so pale and was told that he had to help his sister with her homework the previous night. The response by the first speaker, "Poor you!", violates the maxim of sociocultural appropriacy as in the setting where this textbook is used, family members are expected to support each other whatever the hardship is.

Conversely, in the international textbook, some ethical issues were also highlighted. In one dialogue the speakers were discussing, for example, what they would do if they found a great amount of money or if a teacher gave an A by mistake. These are positive remarks as to the role of textbooks in leading students to sociocultural issues by means of conversations. However, the answers that the interlocutors gave to such questions or the comments that they made might provoke discussion given the

cultural ethic and norms in countries where this textbook was written and where it was covered.

b. Style and Register

One of the fundamentals of speaking codes is the use of language that is adopted to different interlocutors, setting, and time. As a result, teaching different forms having the same function such as the use of "Open the window, please." and "Could you please open the window?" is highly beneficial for learners.

The number of topics, or themes in the overall design of the local coursebook, was limited to eight which is a reference to the limited number of settings for conversations. The themes, *Jobs; Nature and environment; Health and diet; Tourism; Science; Youth; Art, Winners and losers* display a variety, albeit insufficient. If there were a multiplicity of topics and people from different ranks in society, students could have been exposed to more samples of speech. In the localized textbook, there was more variety, though. Apart from one overlapping type of content, the others were given the following titles: *All about you; House and home; Lights, camera, action; Shopping; How techie are you?; Around the world; What if … ?; Crime scene; The written word.* Among these, *Around the world*, should be emphasized in that it incorporated the role of gestures in communication and information related to customs in different cultures.

By the same token, inclusion of the two concepts – body language and cultural differences – into the textbook can have a major effect on raising awareness about different uses of language by different people in different registers, which was the case in the international textbook. Two of the units that promoted variation in language use follow:

-*Time for a change*: In this unit, life in the apartments and life in the houses were compared, thus addressing the different lifestyles and appropriate ways of manners.

-Let's celebrate: In this unit, different cultures around the world were spotted and conversations were to exchange information on cultures. Also there was a direct reference to Turkey in this part. A short dialogue was about the Republic Day in Turkey accompanied by a small photo.

c. Backchanneling

Backchannels or in O'Keeffe et al.'s (2007) terms "response tokens", *yeah*, *right*, or *Is that right?*, to name a few, make the conversation flow in ease. With this in mind, the evaluation revealed that the use of backchannels in the conversational texts was rather satisfactory in three of the textbooks. However, it was also found very useful that in the localized and international textbook, there were direct emphases on these items through the use of small information boxes titled as *speaking strategy* and *useful expressions*.

Another point related to backchannels is pauses in dialogues or overlaps, which is one of the major characteristics of natural spoken data. However, in the textbooks pauses were not frequently inserted into the dialogues and there were rare evidences of hesitation in the dialogues. Similarly, almost no overlap was spotted in the dialogues; everyone is listening to his partner till the end of the turn and takes his turn the moment the other yields his when the right time comes! Additionally, in the local textbook, one situational dialogue that takes place at a restaurant has been given in three parts – before, while, and after the ordering of meals. This can be seen as a good example for pausing because in real time dialogues, there can be intervals after which speakers continue speaking from where they have yielded their turns.

d. Hedging

Hedges have a pivotal role in interpersonal relations in the sense that without them utterances could be more direct and function as face-threatening factors, which can impede the quality of the spoken output. "The frequency of such hedges is a good indication of the extent to which speakers are aware of the rules underlying the joint

construction of meaningful talk" (Thornbury, 2006, p. 18). In connection to this, in three types of the coursebooks there were several expressions serving as a hedging device. The use of *I'm afraid, just* and some adverbs such as *probably* and *almost* were common. What is actually notable is that some expressions were given in information boxes in the localized and international textbook so that learners might feel the need to focus on them consciously. The concept of hedging was not used indeed, but given expressions can be used to mitigate the effect of the utterances such as *I'm not really sure.* or *But I think* or *why don't we … ?*

e. Politeness

Politeness is a sociocultural phenomenon, that is, what is polite somewhere can be impolite at another place. But, because of the level of the textbooks, it wasn't possible to make an in-depth analysis regarding politeness codes. Still, the use of phrases that indicated politeness cannot be said to be varied in the textbooks. They did not go beyond the use of *thanks* or *thanks a lot* together with *please*. In the localized textbook, there was an explanation on the use of *please* in a specific information box. In the international textbook, in one of the information boxes were there phrases needed for several speech acts which were *giving an excuse, admitting a mistake, making an offer,* and *making a promise.* This is quite beneficial to learners because these ready-made chunks could speed up their processing of the language. However, there seems no reason as to why the variety of the expressions was limited.

f. Vague Language

Inextricably linked to the strategic competence, vague language refers to the use of such words or phrases as *kind, sort, something like that.* In the spoken texts of all types of the textbooks, there were propositions including vague expressions such as indefinite pronouns, or words such as *kind of* or *sort of.* However, probably because these textbooks mostly prioritize communicative approach to the expense of form-focused instruction, there wasn't a direct emphasis on the uses of such words and relevant pronouns.

5.2.3.3. Sociolinguistic Roles

a. Turn Taking/Topic Initiation

"Turn-take relates to the role in classroom discourse that the learners are expected to take" (Littlejohn, 2013, p. 190). The basics of conveying meaning through speaking include knowing how to launch a dialogue. It is quite normal that starting a dialogue with someone we already know differs from the one with someone unfamiliar. Therefore knowing required expressions can be helpful for L2 learners to succeed in joining others to the dialogue. In the textbooks, apart from some basic chunks for greeting and the use of *and* or *so,* there was not much variety or clear instruction regarding the highly important role of turn taking and topic initiation.

b. Negotiation

"Negotiation in meaning can be accomplished by 'interactional modifications' " (Ellis, 1997a, p. 46). In unplanned speeches in real life, intention or meaning is not always communicated the way it was intended, and some communication breakdowns and misunderstandings can occur. To correct what went wrong and provide the continuity of the interpersonal relationships, speakers need conversational strategies so that they can gain interactional satisfaction. Therefore, it is critically important that textbooks subsume knowledge as to how to get out of an unexpected breakdown in a dialogue.

Dat (2008) explains that:

> Ideally course materials should allow the learners to see both the world they recognize and the world beyond their regular experiences. The former should not be too familiar but contain some new information to challenge their thinking ability; the latter should not be too deviating but contain activities to assist the learners in making their own sense. (p. 276)

In the textbooks evaluated, the samples of formulaic speech do not go beyond a few questions such as *Can you repeat it?* or *Do you mean it?* In fact the number of such institutionalized chunks could be enough but the problem seems to lie in the fact that the contexts which require negotiation did not vary much. Being accepted among the elements of communication, "the continuous evaluation and negotiation of meaning

on the part of the participants" and "clues as to correct interpretations of utterances" (Canale, 1983, pp. 3-4) should be in a central position in the organization of a coursebook, not peripheral. It is usual that learners who are at beginner or elementary level need strategic competence to deal with the conversational problems. And this competence can be gained in the short run through the use of some formulaic speech which is why textbook authors should deal with this communicative need more intensively.

c. Topic Shift

Carter et al. (2013, p. 80) describe the scripted conversational texts in the textbooks: "The conversation is neat, tidy and predictable" and "no one interrupts anyone else or speaks at the same time as anyone else." The description can be generalized for most of the conversational texts in the textbooks evaluated. The phrases used for a change in topic did not go beyond a limited number of words such as *and* or *so*.

On the one hand, these textbooks were written to address the elementary or pre-intermediate students' needs so that the limited number of phrases for topic shift can be regarded as normal. On the other hand, the spoken input can be enhanced so that they can express themselves better in more demanding settings. Particularly in recent decades learners who do not have the chance to meet with people around the world get it through the Internet. This being the case, the need for enhanced spoken input is assured.

d. Leave Taking

It is sometimes more difficult to end a conversation than to start it. That is, the interlocutor may not know where to interrupt the ongoing speech and close the topic. In most of the cases, it is the body language that gives a cue to the other person/s that it is time the speaker parted. If it is not that easy to acquire this conversational skill even in L1, then for L2 some extra attempts should be made so that learners gain awareness about this social act. In this study, though, apart from the use of some

conventional vocabulary such as *see you then* or *bye*, no clear emphasis on intonation or relevant gestures and signs that can cue departure from the context was spotted for all the three textbooks.

5.2.3.4. Lexicogrammatical Units

First of all, the rationalization of as to why LGUs were concentrated upon in this part but not in the lexical one (Module IV) should be incorporated here. Lexical analysis was particularly important in that it would reveal to what extent students were exposed to useful vocabulary, and how much they were recycled thus activating the schema. However, the role of LGUs or prefabricated structures goes beyond that. They facilitate the use of language by means of easy retrieval. In other words, for students at A2 level who are not yet linguistically prepared and so not expected to use the language the way it should be, LGUs could serve as catalyzers that provide form and function together. In Thornbury's (2004) terms, chunks are a "short-cut to the grammar of English". Therefore, since LGUs are multi-word items related to phraseology, they were dealt with separately.

Like in the localized textbook, in the international one, there were extra parts for teaching speaking strategies. These focused on discourse markers necessary to negotiate in a dialogue, to give an excuse, to admit a mistake, to make an offer and to make a promise. Besides, some useful expressions were given such as *don't forget to* or *make sure to* that might alleviate the grammatical load of the textbook. That is, students exposed to *to+inf* structure in the form of lexicogrammar would probably have ease in understanding the underlying structure afterwards.

a. Chunks: *Collocations - Fixed Expressions - Idioms*

In the local textbook, there were many uses of collocations and fixed expressions. From one aspect, it is an advantage for its users. However, the problem seems to be that there was no instruction regarding these chunks to make students aware that they are chunks so that they can acquire and use them freely whenever they want. Also,

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one serious problem with the spoken text of the local textbook was that the use of idioms and phrasal verbs was very limited, in other words idioms did not take precedence in this textbook. Particularly the deficiency in teaching phrasal verbs may deprive students of the natural texture of the language because phrasal verbs are "extremely common in conversation" as "most phrasal verbs are colloquial in tone" (Biber, Conrad, & Leech, 2003, p. 128). Yet, there were rare instances of slang language such as "don't be silly" or you are a real couch potato". On the other hand, the weight of chunks was obviously more and the use of idioms and phrasal verbs much more common in the localized and international textbook. This may result from the NS and NNS paradigm given the fact that these textbooks were written by NSs but the local one by NNSs. However, the use of natural data gleaned from computer-aided and corpora-based studies could be a way to make local textbooks more like global ones in terms of useful content.

b. Institutionalized Chunks

It was quite obvious that all the textbooks were rich regarding the use of predetermined phrases or institutionalized chunks. These phrases are important in language teaching in that they are a way of teaching both grammar and vocabulary. Given that the textbooks especially aimed to support communication, it wasn't surprising to notice that there wasn't very much emphasis on grammar. Therefore, the intensive use of the longer set of phrases might ease the burden of lack of structural knowledge.

Parenthetically, in the local textbook, there were small information boxes titled as *keep in mind!* in which there was either form-focused information about grammar or vocabulary, or sentences in which the parts including the target grammar structure were given in bold. In the localized one, similarly, there were *learn this!* boxes which had the same purpose but which were certainly more detailed. At this point what needs to be answered is the question "Does the stress on communicative approach have to be to the neglect of the other skills or subskills?" From the lens of logic and

experience, it is quite difficult to believe learners could read and understand syntax of their L2 through limited information condensed in small boxes. Actually, "Do they have to?" In the international textbook, however, there were specific parts named *grammar focus* in every unit, some of which included dialogues in the explanations.

c. Modality

Modal verbs and vocabulary that give the same meaning as modal verbs such as *probably* or *definitely* are very common in spoken grammar. In the evaluated textbooks, there were frequent evidences of use of *can, should*, and *will* and rare evidences of *ought to* and *needn't*. Since some modal verbs have more than one meaning, it can be useful for students to learn multiple meanings of modal verbs, though not all at once. However, as the textbooks were written for those under intermediate levels, it may be thought that it is early for them to know *must* both as a form of expressing obligation and possibility. Yet, vocabulary carrying the same meaning as modal verbs can be taught to the students. Even before the use of *may* or *might*, they can learn *probably* or *I guess* for filling the need to utter a sentence indicating possibility.

5.2.4. MODULE IV-LEXICAL ANALYSIS

Without the use of vocabulary, language in its simplest sense cannot exist, thus communication. As a consequence, it was critically important to find out how much vocabulary students were exposed to by the spoken data in the textbooks. The textbooks in this study were at A2 level implying that there is a transition from a level where they were learning about language to a level where they would be learning the language to communicate meaning. Hence, if there were more emphasis on vocabulary of high importance, this could add a lot to their awareness on the quality of the input. To this end, vocabulary profiles of the textbooks were revealed. Following points were taken into consideration so that the load of vocabulary in the speaking tasks and texts could be noticed.

5.2.4.1. Lexical Frequency

Much research shows that texts including words of high priority can enhance the usefulness of the spoken input in them. As Sinclair (1991) states "learners would do well to learn the common words of the language very thoroughly, because they carry the main patterns of the language" (p. 79). From this perspective, the textbooks evaluated displayed positive and similar results regarding lexical frequency. Including useful words to a considerable extent is certainly a very good remark for the students as, for all skills to develop, it is inevitable that there must be a certain level of lexical competence.

5.2.4.2. Lexical Density

Content/total word ratio would give how much the text consisted of function words such as *of, at*, or *the,* and content words such as *life, children*, or *family*. The aim was to see to what extent content and function words were proportioned in the texts so that lexical load of the text could be understood which can be an indicator of contextualized discourse. The related figures regarding lexical density showed that the textbooks did not differ in their complexity. Besides, the percentages refer to the fact that the compiled spoken texts were neither easy nor difficult and so a moderate amount of difficulty level was sustained.

5.2.4.3. Recycling Index

Type-token ratio was important in that it would give a hint about how much learners were exposed to the same vocabulary, which can promote implicit learning. Though variety is important for language learners who are in their first stages of learning a foreign language, consolidation is also essential. Without repeating and reinforcing what has already been learnt, the input may not turn into intake and retrieval may not be easy or it may not take place at all. Recycling indices of the textbooks showed that nearly half of the words were repeated throughout the textbooks. This may be interpreted as a positive remark for students who were exposed to those texts. That is to say, the textbooks automatically repeated the words for students to learn them. So

even without showing extra attempt, a learner may benefit by the recycling of the vocabulary in the textbooks.

5.3. The Questionnaire for EFL Students-SQ

First of all, the descriptive part in the questionnaires revealed that the mean of the years of exposure to English at schools was 8.02 for students and the mean of the year of experience in ELT was 8.27 for teachers. So, both sides can know through experience what a learner can take in eight years regarding English education and what a teacher can give. With respect to the statements with the highest percentage in each section in SQ, in the first section, statement 5 had the highest percentage which claimed that speaking tasks in the textbook helped improve vocabulary level of the students. In the second one, statement 12 ranked first which claimed that even if the students made mistakes while speaking English, their teacher encouraged them to improve their speaking. In the following section, statement 17 had the highest percentage which claimed that students paid attention to word and sentence choice depending on where and with whom the dialogue takes place. In the fourth one, statement 20 was the most preferred proposition which claimed that the students listened to their teachers while he was speaking English to improve their pronunciation. And for the last section in SQ, it was the 23rd statement that had the highest percentage according to which if dialogues and activities in the textbook reflected their daily life in the topics and content, students would try harder to learn them.

These most preferred statements implied that students were satisfied with their textbook and their teacher's providing motivation along with some degree of awareness about speaking skills.

Next come the verbal explanations based on the quantitative analysis of the SQ.

5.3.1. Statements 1-6: Evaluation of the Textbook in Terms of Speaking Skills

This part was to triangulate the data obtained from the MEF analysis in that just as modules in MEF did, the statements were to assess textbook usefulness in relation to speaking skills.

Evaluated data indicated that the users of the local textbook had the lowest level of satisfaction from the textbooks in relation to how they approached speaking skills but it peaked when the responses of the users of the localized textbook were taken into account. Also, satisfaction from the textbooks tended to reduce as the grades (from class 9th to 12th) increased. Further, satisfaction from the textbooks tended to be less in public schools than in private schools. With respect to the provincial findings, students using the local textbook in İstanbul and Trabzon unlike those in Kocaeli and Kars were less satisfied with the spoken input their textbook provided.

5.3.2. Statements 7-13: Evaluation of the Classroom Instructions of Speaking Skills

These statements showed how much cautious students were about what was going around classroom during speaking activities. Actually this part was like a warm-up session for the following part of macro skills. For example, statement 10 asked students whether they favored doing speaking activities in pair or group work and in statement 14 they were asked whether they favored peer correction. Thus, the links between the statements ensured consistency between the core concepts in the study without mere repetition of exactly the same words.

Evaluated data indicated that it was the users of the local textbook who were less satisfied with the classroom instructions and English teacher attitudes in relation to how they approached speaking skills than the users of the other two textbooks, localized and international ones. Also, satisfaction tended to reduce as the grades increased. Further, it tended to be less in public schools than in private schools. From

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a provincial respect, satisfaction level of the students using the local textbook in Kocaeli was far better than those in any of the other provinces.

5.3.3. Statements 14-17: Evaluation of the Macro Skills of Speaking

The reason why macro skills were so much emphasized is that without them almost no linguistic competence per se can render interpersonal relationships. The statements in the third section were written to display whether the ability to negotiate was available. Also students' awareness of paralinguistic features such as body language, facial expressions and mimics which are sometimes the main sometimes the supplementary elements of a communicative act was focused on in this part.

Evaluated data indicated that students using the localized textbook or international one tended to be more aware of the macro skills or communicative features of speaking than those using the local textbook. Also, awareness level tended to reduce as the grades increased. Further, it tended to be less in public schools than in private schools. Additionally, students' awareness towards macro skills of speaking who were attending school in Kars was higher than others in Kocaeli, Trabzon and İstanbul.

5.3.4. Statements 18-21: Evaluation of Learner Autonomy in Terms of Speaking Skills

Though initial dependency on teachers or the materials is quite normal for a student, gradual removal of psychological and instructional attachment is also important. That is to say, constant support from teachers may sound useful for learners but in the long term it may hinder the sense of self development. Also the development of inquiry skills and strategic competence may not be encouraged without one's internalizing what he has been taught.

Evaluated data indicated that students using the localized textbook were more autonomous in gaining speaking skills than those using the local and international

textbook. Also, it tended to reduce as the grades increased. Further, awareness tended to be less in public schools than in private schools. Additionally, those using the local textbook in Kars and Kocaeli were more autonomous in gaining speaking skills than those in İstanbul and Trabzon.

5.3.5. Statements 22-27: Evaluation Of the Washback Effect of the Instruction of Speaking Skills

These statements aimed to reveal the effect produced by the weight of speaking skills in textbooks and classroom practices together with assessment of students' speaking skills.

Evaluated data indicated that the degree of washback effect tended to be the least for students using the local textbook and most for those using the localized one. In other words, it was the users of the latter textbook who claimed that if the teacher encouraged them to practice English more outside the classroom, they would try harder to develop their speaking skills. Also, the washback effect of the textbook and teacher performance tended to decrease as the grades increased. Further, the degree of washback effect of the textbook, teacher performance, and summative assessment tended to be less in public schools than in private schools. From a provincial respect, students using the local textbook in Kars and Kocaeli tended to be more affected by the washback of the textbook and formative assessment than those in İstanbul and Trabzon.

In relation to the last section, one comment by one of the teachers should be mentioned. The teacher with more than 10 years of experience said that when students reach 12th grade, they begin covering the local textbook in the sense that it is time for the students to prepare for the nationwide, high stakes University Entrance Exam (UEE), and so they cannot cover a book whose language load is heavy. As a result, they shift to the local book which she said "very easy" to cover. This may be understandable to some degree in that academic admission is a challenge in Turkey.

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According to the official statistics by Student Selection and Placement Institution (ÖSYM in Turkish), in 2014 there were 2.086.115 applicants for UEE but 922.275 of them were placed at either four-year faculties or two-year colleges. This being the case, abandoning instructing English classes particularly speaking may seem profitable in the short run to students, and teachers. Yet, in the long run, it is a waste of time, money and effort given for the instruction of English in the previous years. Furthermore, it seems that the relative neglect of speaking skills was probably the reason why the washback effect came to shape the perceptions of students and even teachers.

The commentary above can be a cue to perceive the big picture regarding the relation between the textbooks and the assessment systems at schools. After a survey of textbooks, Dat (2008) explains the weaknesses of the textbooks analyzed. He points out that "while putting emphasis on communicative use of English, such publications tend to stay disconnected with the local examination system" (p. 266). Similarly, if the localized textbook were concerned with probably the biggest concern of students – university entrance exam – the line between the exam preparation and learning English might not be such clear-cut. If it claims to be a localized textbook – indeed it does – then local relevance should be within the interest domain of the textbook authors and publishers.

To alleviate the negative effect of washback, whether it stems from textbooks, classroom instructions, or, in particular, teachers' manners, it is once again the teachers, the major negotiators between the unwanted consequences of education and the productive learning process. Adapting the classroom materials and engaging learners in the process of learning with their informative resources and also with their creative pedagogical performance, teachers can be *the* key for not only reducing the negativity imposed by the external factors but also for increasing the motivational level of the learners.

The last point to highlight is the high level of dissatisfaction of the students in İstanbul in terms of the criteria in the survey. The evaluation of the statistical and thematic analyses based on the provinces, regarding the similar themes – usefulness of the textbooks, encouragement by the teachers, or the need to be autonomous – it was quite surprising to see that students using the local textbook in İstanbul were less or even in most cases the least satisfied group. The reason why I used the word *surprising* did not stem from any bias towards any of the provinces the survey was conducted in, including İstanbul. Rather, it is mostly the case that bigger cities have better opportunities and İstanbul is certainly not an exception. However, it is the question of availability that matters. Therefore, the dissatisfaction of the students in İstanbul should be explained by means of other rationalizations. Expanded surveys in the future may help see the underlying reasons.

Still, on the basis of the assumptions in this survey, particularly in the qualitative part – thematic analysis – I can say that students in other cities, though limited in speaking materials such as audio-visual aids, depended more on their teachers to learn speaking. Comments that conveyed their wish to be guided by their teachers to a great degree and the desire to use multimedia implied that they were eager to succeed in speaking English and to get the most out of less opportunities. Contrary to logic, sometimes learners may manage to use language with limited exposure and inadequate materials. This is, however, not contrary to the reality which is not uncommon in EFL countries. In the context of this study, participants were from a wide variety of backgrounds. Therefore, to be able to trace the origin of the differences of these students, there is a need for more field-tested qualitative studies.

5.4. The Discourse Competence Test Achievement

The DCT was written so that it was noticed whether students were aware of the elements that provide discourse competence and therefore make the underlying principles of a text salient. And it was revealed that a little more than half of the test takers answered the first item correctly which required them to distinguish between

an authentic and artificial transcript of a dialogue. This was the lowest percentage among the items. The item that was answered correctly by nearly 80% of the test takers was the third item which required awareness of locutionary and illocutionary act, a reference to pragmatics.

Students attending private schools were more successful than those attending public schools. On the other hand, test achievement decreased as the grades (from class 9th to 12th) increased, despite the opposite expectation. In addition, achievement was the highest in students using the localized textbook, followed by those using the international and local one. Since the students from cities other than İstanbul were all using the local textbook, the other two were not included in the comparison of the test results regarding the provinces. These students did not differ in their test achievement.

In the above lines, while mentioning the major results of the DCT, I used the phrase "despite the opposite expectation." The reason is that normally, one would expect that as students get older and get more education through the years, they become more self-regulated and successful, which was not the case in this study. It is quite possible that older students lost their motivation to study English as they had to study for a high stakes exam, UEE. Also, as thematic analysis made it obvious, they may not have seen any relevance of studying English because they were not responsible for any English task and text in that exam.

In relation to the achievement of the students using the localized textbook, following factors may have had a role: strategy parts for raising awareness of communicative features, and dialogues that could attract the young students because of their topics related to popular culture such as shopping, going to social gatherings. Also, communicative dimensions may have contributed to the users' higher achievement and satisfaction. Yet, there might be other external factors. Conversely, though the setting was varied, the achievement level of students using the local textbook was

similarly low. This is also important in that these students attended state schools and so the achievement level of state schools were lower than that of private ones. Given that a lot more students attend state schools in Turkey and lack the opportunities private school students have, it is sure that substantial improvements are urgently needed. The culprit may not be known exactly but it is apparent that students at state schools needed much more motivation, a point clearly stated by them in the commentary part, as well.

5.5. The Questionnaire for EFL Teachers

Based on the frequency analysis, in the first section of the questionnaire for EFL teachers (TQ), 1st and 2nd statements had the highest percentages according to which teachers were satisfied with the space allocated for speaking tasks in the textbooks and speaking tasks helped improve the speaking level of the students. In the second section, statement 9 had the highest percentage which claimed that during speaking activities, teachers favored pair work a lot. In the following section, statement 17 had the highest percentage according to which, teachers thought speaking texts and tasks in the textbooks included different styles of English. In the fourth section, statement 21 had the highest percentage according to which, teachers were cautious with their pronunciation to teach it correctly to their students. In the last section, statement 25 had the highest percentage according to which teachers thought students would be more willing to learn if there were more activities related to life outside the classroom. It was an interesting finding that teachers were right in their claim regarding statement 25. In other words, students, as teachers correctly guessed, were affected by the content of the textbook more than other causes of washback.

Next come the verbal explanations based on the quantitative analysis of the TQ.

Teachers using the local textbook had the lowest level of satisfaction from the textbooks in relation to the amount of the conversational data and those who had the most were teachers using the international textbook. It is important to note here that

the highest number of tasks and the longest spoken texts were included in the international textbook. As to the integrative aspect of speaking tasks, teachers using the localized textbook were the most satisfied group. An interesting finding was that the number of integrative tasks was the highest in this textbook – a result obtained through the framework, MEF.

Further, teachers working at state schools were less satisfied than their colleagues at private schools in relation to how their textbook approached speaking skills. Also, more teachers in the latter group claimed giving enough time for speaking skills in the classroom and using English as a medium of teaching in speaking classes than those in the former one. As the experience of the teachers increased through years, their satisfaction from the textbooks in relation to their covering phonological competence and non-verbal communication techniques reduced. However, the more experienced the teachers became the more cautious they tended to become with their pronunciation to teach it correctly to their students.

One critical point to underline is that teachers working at public schools were less satisfied with respect to their textbook's (local textbook) coverage of speaking skills than their counterparts at private schools. Given that the students at public schools who used the local textbook were also less satisfied than the other student groups, people involved in language materials writing are recommended to attend to the current situation for a better future for both students' and teachers' language development. Lack of extra materials, technological opportunities, and overall language learning and teaching policy may be the underlying reasons. Further studies may confirm these. However, when the DCT achievement of public school students, their responses to the SQ statements, themes gleaned from their comments, and the dissatisfaction of public school teachers were all considered holistically, this study may not exceed its limits if it emphasizes their urgent need to reflect upon what is missing in their learning and teaching environments and to compensate for it.

5.6. Contrastive Analysis of the Common Statements in the Student and Teacher Questionnaire

When teachers and students were compared based on their responses to the common statements in the questionnaires, it was noticed that students had a more tendency to think that the speaking parts in the textbooks helped develop their vocabulary knowledge than the teachers. However, when the point was the class hours allocated for speaking skills, students were less satisfied. That is, teachers had a more tendency to think that class hours were sufficient. This could be a positive remark that students were willing to take more. As to motivational support by teachers, more teachers than students tended to think that they encouraged the students even if they made mistakes while speaking English. Further, More teachers seemed to be eager to do out-of-class activities than students. On the part of the teachers, this was a good indication that the teachers were supporting their students in different contexts. In relation to somewhat neglected aspect of language learning, pronunciation, more teachers than students tended to pay attention to it.

With respect to the washback effect of the textbooks, more teachers than students seemed to think that if speaking skills were given more weight in the coursebooks, they would also increase their attention on teaching speaking, too. Furthermore, more teachers had a tendency to change their perceptions about teaching skills in relation to their weight in summative and formative evaluations in the classroom. Students seem to have been less affected by the same hypothetical change in the weight of the assessment of the speaking skills whether it was summative or formative – a common theme that also emerged from the thematic analysis of the students' comments.

5.7. Contrastive Thematic Analysis of the Commentary Part in the Student Questionnaire

In this part, students could write about their thoughts regarding speaking skills and in a freer and flexible way; with their own words. In the following section comments

were cross-referenced according to the textbooks students were using. In the second section, the comparison was made in relation to the provinces where the commenters were living and attending school. However, this part included only the comments of the students using the local textbook as the participating students living in provinces other than İstanbul were not using the localized or international textbook.

5.7.1. Contrastive Thematic Analysis of the Commentary Part Based on the Different Textbooks

5.7.1.1. Commentary by Students Using the Local Textbook

These students underlined the need for multimedia in learning speaking skills in the classroom. What they stressed more than that was the role of the teachers in learning speaking skills. To them, guidance by teachers was very important. Another very important argument was the focus on grammar and neglect of speaking. Their comments made it clear once again that students need education that focuses on the use of language in context. One student commented: "I know some words but I cannot make sentences. The only response I give to a tourist is 'I can't speak English'."

5.7.1.2. Commentary by Students Using the Localized Textbook

While some students using the local textbook were commenting on some basic needs about speaking, several students using the localized textbook took one step further and emphasized the importance of proper pronunciation and nativelike accent. They insistently told that they needed native teachers. To them, pronunciation could improve with the help of a native teacher. Also they repeatedly expressed their views about the value of their teachers' guidance on learning speaking. These students also underlined the importance of vocabulary but complained about the immersion in grammar instruction. One of them commented: "I have been taught grammar for 10 years but it was of no use. When I come across a foreigner I can't speak. Grammar classes should be reduced."

5.7.1.3. Commentary by Students Using the International Textbook

Students using the international textbook had certainly a tendency to complain about the excessive repetition of the topics or rules which they thought were lower than their proficiency level. One student emphasized the importance of a different language style, the use of "street language" in particular and told that there should be more instruction on phrasal verbs. This student might not have heard the research which pointed to the more use of phrasal verbs in spoken language than in written (Biber et al., 2003). But effective involvement in language learning, I believe, gives learners a kind of insight with which they develop intuition, whether consciously or unconsciously. Several students in this group mostly underlined their need to be exposed to daily conversational language and words of high frequency. They also complained about the excessive weight of grammar in their education. One commented: "We should first learn speaking so that we can understand grammar."

One of the common themes that is of note was that recycling of the content had a counter effect on the perceptions of the textbook users. From a theoretical background though it is much beneficial for students to be given repeated input which can lead to priming and associative learning, excessive repetition may not be appreciated by the users. As Lewis (1999) rightly claims "the idea that all the students are 'at the same level' is clearly an illusion" (p. 44). To add to the point, Stevick (as cited in Lewis, 1999) contends that "it is a matter of **balance** between security and insecurity, predictability and risk" (p. 67).

As to the importance of teaching beyond word or sentence level, or discourse, I will mention two comments, one by a student using the local textbook, and one by a student using the localized one regarding the third question in the DCT. Students were asked to interpret the response (I'm in the bath.) to the statement (Tom, dad is on the phone.) by choosing between the two options: "I'm in the bath, but I can still answer the call." or "I'm in the bath, so I cannot answer the call." The student using the local textbook told that the third question in the DCT was futile and wrote that

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"Do not ask such questions." And, the other student using the localized one wrote that the third question itself was wrong giving the Turkish translation of the sentence (I'm in the bath). It is quite probable that in the context of this study spoken discourse was sidelined in language learning and teaching unlike structure.

Last but not least, much emphasis on form rather than function seems to have caused a somewhat alienation from grammar among students as if it were the reason why they failed in speaking fluently. This sense of detachment from grammar was felt vibrantly in the study and many participating students attributed the gap between their actual speaking performance and what it should be to the immersion in form-focused teaching. Pointing to the imbalance may be justifiable from the viewpoint of the students, however, it appears that there is again a mismatch between the role of grammar in language learning and its value in students' cognition. To conclude, totally replacing grammar with other skills wouldn't be a remedy for learners in the long run just as the overemphasis on it at the expense of other skills doesn't.

5.7.2. Contrastive Thematic Analysis of the Commentary Part Based on The Different Provinces

5.7.2.1. Commentary by Students Using the Local Textbook in İstanbul

The commonest theme that emerged from the data of the students using the local textbook in İstanbul was their pessimist views on speaking English despite the length of exposure. The second commonest theme was the role of the teacher. Their writings indicated that they were so eager to learn how to speak English but the reason for their failure was the inadequacy of the classroom instructions. These students told that they were not pleased to cover the same grammar rules. Apparently several of them needed to have a reason or motive to learn English. So, the point is the matter of relevance. One student commented: "I haven't progressed in English for the past ten years so it is unnecessary for me."

5.7.2.2. Commentary by Students Using the Local Textbook in Trabzon

The commonest theme that emerged from the data of the students using the local textbook in Trabzon was the need for more dialogues that reflect the real life. Also, they emphasized the role of learning vocabulary in being able to speak English. There was also a demand for more hours of English at school as they wanted to practice English more.

5.7.2.3. Commentary by Students Using the Local Textbook in Kocaeli

Students using the local textbook in Kocaeli were dissatisfied with their current condition regarding speaking skills. They underlined the contradiction between the length of exposure to English and their inability to speak English. One student suggested being taught English in a more practical way claiming if that happened, they could speak English successfully in less than a year. As to the contradiction abovementioned, one student asked: "Why can't we progress in English despite eight years of learning? Is it because that we do not consolidate what we have learnt?"

5.7.2.4. Commentary by Students Using the Local Textbook in Kars

One of the commonest themes among the students using the local textbook in Kars was that they did not think learning English was very meaningful for them. One student commented: "English decreases our GPA. It should be an elective course." However, there were other students who thought the opposite – that there should be more hours of English at school. Another theme was the need for daily conversational English which would be useful in daily life.

The common themes in the commentary part that I name as "stream of consciousness" part of the survey pointed to the fact that students favored more active and practical but less difficult ways of learning English in the classroom and that there was a serious wish for being a good and a successful language user. Yet, because of the causes attributed to external factors by the students, such as the inadequacy of the textbooks or the teachers, they did not seem very hopeful for their

current command of the language. Having said this, the commonest theme was that a cognitive and affective grasp of speaking skills even at a moderate level was far from real. However, individual variances existed. What they seemed to need was the motivation to reflect consciously upon where socioculturally their L1 and L2 converge and what linguistic and communicative features they need to talk as accurately and appropriately as possible in interpersonal or intercultural relations.

CHAPTER VI
CONCLUSIONS

6.1. Research Questions

Below were given the research questions and their answers alongside the instrument or the relevant part of it through which critical reflections were developed.

Research Question 1: Do the speaking tasks in the local, localized, and international textbooks differ in terms of their promoting communicative competence?

Based on the data gleaned from the evaluation against the principles in Module I (Task analysis) in MEF, it was evident that the tasks in three of the textbooks were not at a satisfactory level to promote communicative competence. On the other hand, speaking tasks provided variety in terms of task, response, and conversation type with functional and integrative dimensions. However, the limited variety in spoken texts' content and length should be taken into account if textbooks are aimed to scaffold learners for producing interactive output out of qualified input. From a comparative perspective, though far from perfect, localized and international textbooks were better than the local one.

Module II (Phonological Analysis) reflected the fact that tasks regarding phonology were rather limited in all types of the textbooks. Yet, emphasis on both segmental and suprasegmental skills should certainly be included in the local one, stress and intonation in particular. The shift in the existing situation is a must in that the local textbook reflects the common practice in Turkey regarding language education as it is the one used in all public schools and in many private ones. The localized and the international textbooks, on the other hand, included phonologic knowledge in the prompts of the tasks to a better degree however in the latter one the weight of the explicit instruction and accompanying materials were much better.

Research Question 2: Do the spoken texts in the local, localized, and international textbooks differ in terms of their promoting communicative competence?

Search for discoursal efficacy and sociolinguistic appropriacy was the essential trait of Module III (Textual Analysis). It was evidenced that cohesive units were not uncommon in three types of the textbooks. However, based on the search for communicative units, coursebooks that were written by NSs (localized and international textbook) included more naturalistic exchanges or dialogues from real life, and references to different styles than the coursebook written by NNSs (local textbook). As for the sociolinguistic roles in speaking, the local textbook included a good number of essential phrases. On the other hand, the localized and especially the international textbook extended the range in terms of phraseology. Additionally, paralinguistic features, the complementary skills in interactive speaking, were not underlined the way they should be in all textbooks. However, with subtle gradations between the two, there was some reference to gestures, mimics or high or low intonation in the localized and international textbook. Because of the decreasing emphasis on form-focused teaching of grammar and vocabulary, LGUs were needed to compensate for the gap. Hence, unlike idioms, collocations, fixed expressions, institutionalized chunks, and modalities were abundant in the textbooks with wider variety in the localized and international textbook. Yet, it is of note that international coursebook was a much better model in representing the weight of idioms in speech, followed by the localized one.

Module IV in MEF (Lexical Analysis) revealed that with respect to the use of words of high frequency, local textbook ranked first followed by the other two with no notable difference. The calculation of lexical density marked that vocabulary load of the textbooks was at a moderate level. Additionally, by recycling almost one in every two words in the spoken texts, the textbooks were all found to have a facilitating effect on learners' consolidating the vocabulary, with negligible variations between the different types.

Research Question 3: Do the ELT textbooks authored by NSs and NNSs differ in their claim to provide students with communicative competence in relation to speaking skills?

The framework, MEF, presented an opportunity to see that whether a textbook was written by NSs or NNSs, it may be laden with pros and cons for its users regarding language use and usage. However, it is a very clear fact that the textbooks published by native authors were of a type that incorporated more useful input in relation to communicative aspects of language. On the other hand, it should be certainly underlined that localized and international textbooks authored by NSs also need to be developed to the extent that their claims on their back covers really become true. So, they can be better in terms of the coverage of language competencies, speaking being one of them and preparing students for local exams. Given these textbooks' publishing companies' background in education, probably it wouldn't be much to demand what fits to their image in an EFL environment, for our case Turkey.

All in all, without the representation of the local needs and their enrichment with the global approaches, there may be something missing to the disadvantage of the language learners. Therefore, instead of classifying materials rigidly into written by NS or NNS, it sounds more sensible to focus on how much effective they are in promoting language competencies and transforming them into performances through both collaborative and autonomous learning within a framework of communicative competence.

Research Question 4: Do EFL learners and teachers who use local, localized, and international textbooks differ in their perceptions of the instruction of speaking skills through the textbooks in the classroom settings?

The other two major tools of this research study were questionnaires for EFL learners and teachers. Significant results denoted that the level at which students were

contented regarding their textbooks was from low to high for local, international, and localized respectively. The case was almost the same for the responding teachers. Apart from the statements regarding textbook usefulness, there were no difference among the teachers as users of different textbooks. That is, their self-reports in relation to classroom instructions of teaching speaking skills and their perceptions about the washback effect of the teaching and learning variables did not display any variety.

Further, although the concept of washback effect has been used mostly for testing instruments, classroom materials such as coursebooks can also have an effect or even impact on the preferences of the students. The study aimed to find out the washback effect of the textbook, teachers' practices, and assessment of speaking skills. A striking point was that students did not seem to be affected on the hypothetical increase in the spoken content of the coursebook. Neither did they seem to have been affected by the increase in the weight of the speaking skills in summative or formative assessment, but their teachers' interest in their progress outside the classroom.

Research Question 5: Do EFL learners and teachers who use local, localized, and international textbooks differ in adopting an autonomous approach towards gaining the communicative skills of speaking?

In the scope of this study, students using the localized textbook held the strongest ideas about the need for being self-regulated for gaining speaking skills. They were followed by the users of the international and local textbook. Moreover, students using the localized textbook were more open to focusing on messages sent by nonlinguistic mechanisms and adopted a more register-aware approach in speaking, a premise for macro skills. The users of the international textbook, on the other hand, tended to concentrate on suprasegmental features while speaking and these students seemed more open to being corrected by their speech partners.

Teachers using different textbooks did not differ in their orientation towards adopting an autonomous approach in learning and teaching speaking skills; they were autonomous and eager to promote their own and their students' level of speaking skills. Neither did they display any variety in their responses to the statements about the usefulness of the textbooks in terms of macro or communicative skills: They were not satisfied much about the textbooks' coverage of macro skills. When compared, teachers more than learners tended to be more active and autonomous as regards the development of speaking skills outside the formal context.

The final words will respond to the question left unanswered at the beginning of the dissertation: Communicative competence has just started to be introduced in EFL teaching and learning at least in the scope of this study. For all the negativity that accounts for the failure in gaining speaking skills to turn into useful guidelines what is needed is a conscious shift in language paradigms by merging pedagogical intuition with scientific knowledge. The shift should be based on a multi-dimensional approach; paying attention not only to individual differences but also to global needs within a framework of sociocultural sensitivity. In this respect, better designs of textbook materials in content and form are an important way to counter this challenge together with learner awareness and engagement raised by teacher involvement and contribution.

6.2. Pedagogical Implications

In addition to being classified according to the content they were embedded in, the following pedagogical implications were also numbered so that it could serve as a whole text making it easier to refer to a specific part later, if needed.

6.2.1. On Linguistic Competence-Communicative Competence Paradigm in Teaching and Learning Speaking Skills

1. First and foremost, one major pedagogical implication of this study is that the widespread de-emphasis on the collaboration of linguistic and communicative

competence probably stems from not looking at language from a holistic point of view. This could and should be achieved through the combined attempts of materials writers, teachers, and also learners.

2. In the initial phases of language learning, rather than teaching grammar only or strictly, exposing learners to various styles supported by the use of lexicogrammatical items can be an alternative. Trappes-Lomax (2004) suggests that "a discourse-based description of grammar – a 'discourse grammar' (Hughes & McCarthy, 1998; McCarthy, 1998) – will treat grammar functionally" (p. 154). An example for this is from Willis and Willis (2007). After a corpus-based analysis, they realized that "'would' meaning 'used to' is more frequent than 'used to' meaning 'used to'!" (p. 188). Given the discourse grammar is somewhere between spoken and written grammar, raising awareness towards its function in using language accurately and appropriately should be underlined. In a similar vein, Karaata and Soruç (2012) recommend that "textbook writers should display the similarities as well as differences and should not misguide the learners to the false idea that speaking skills are learnt only through 'spoken grammar' and written language only from 'written grammar'."

3. It may be true that the spoken discourse may be complicated than is thought, but at least most frequent expressions can be taught on a regular basis so that learners can gain autonomy and decide the function and content of the language they need to know themselves in time. Further, the most common feature of a daily interactional speech is the predictability inherent in it. In a casual speech, there is generally no sequential form. However, much literature shows that the unpredictability of spoken language can be alleviated by the predictability of chunks. In particular, extended phrases or chunks lessen the grammar load a student should carry for combining phrases or sentences. From this respect, for initial stages in language practice LGUs offer practical, motivating, and time-saving advantages – a fact that ought to be taken into consideration both by NSs and NNSs, but particularly by the latter.

6.2.2. On Authenticity-Artificiality Paradigm in Teaching and Learning Speaking Skills

4. What seems a negotiation in the paradigm of artificiality and authenticity is pedagogic tasks. Normally because such tasks are specifically written for language learning, they do not incorporate real life instances but some traces of them. Tomlinson (2013), however, contends that:

> Pedagogic tasks can require the use of real world skills. A task requiring a group to reproduce a diagram which only one member of the group has seen, for example, involves the use of visualisation, giving precise instructions and asking for clarification. It is arguable that such tasks, despite not being real world tasks, are in fact authentic. (p. xv)

5. Sinclair (1991) contends that "naturalness is to text what grammatical correctness is to sentences" (p. 175). However, the use of totally authentic or lifelike discourse can be a source of concern and intimidating factor particularly for those in the initial phases of meeting a new language. The reason for this is that there is a huge gap between the original transcriptions of the dialogues and the scripted ones in textbooks claimed to have been prepared for classroom use. Thus, there is a great need for a compromise regarding what and what not to include in textbooks that will probably continue to be the companion of teachers for a long time. In discussing the affective role of authentic materials on learners, McCarthy (1991) explains that:

> Complete naturalness is probably impossible in the classroom, but the feeling that one is engaging in an authentic activity is important to the learner, as is the feeling that one is being taught authentic and naturally occurring structures and vocabulary to use in simulations of real-life like. (p. 145)

6. To serve the need of learners to be exposed to the "language of negotiation" (Mol & Tin, 2008, p. 88), a hybrid model can be suggested that balances the emphasis on both content and form and so semi- or nearly authentic materials can be developed. Cunningsworth (1995) concludes that "a general coursebook can include interactions that display **some** features of real-life communication, a book of roleplays can set up

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realistic situations in which learners can communicate . . .” (p. 117, emphases added).

6.2.3. On L1-L2 Paradigm in Teaching and Learning Speaking Skills

7. Positive transfer from L1 can have a facilitating effect on L2 education. Cunningsworth (1995) recalls us the importance of the function of L1 and says:

> Learners will already use different degree of formality in their own languages, so there is a foundation to build on, and coursebooks can help enormously by presenting examples of different styles in English in their appropriate contexts and identifying some of the main characteristics of formal and informal English. (p. 130)

Tomlinson (2013) states that “materials can achieve impact through appealing content (e.g. topics of interest to the target learners; topics which offer the possibility of learning something new; engaging stories, universal themes and local references)” (p. 8). The point to highlight is that while teaching communication strategies learners can be helped through the use of L1. That is, in their L1 they have already developed some competence regarding informal and formal interactions and in many different genres, such as the use of L1 in familial gatherings, in a break in theatre, or during a discussion with the whole class. Still, the very common idea in EFL settings is that L1 should never be used in classrooms so that learners can “think in English”. However, “using translation to convey the meanings of words and phrases is very efficient and is well supported by research as an effective way of communicating meaning” (Nation & Newton, 2009, p. 22). As an example of “methodological absurdity”, Lewis (1999) sarcastically answers the teacher (hypothetically) who says “*I insist on English all the time in the classroom.*” by saying “Why? Talking about English in L1 can be quicker and more efficient – why make life difficult?” (p. 192).

8. Moreover, complete dependence on L2 in classroom instructions may have a demotivating effect particularly on less participating students but it is quite probable that an increase in the weight of English as a medium of instruction rather than a subject will provide students with a more varied and lively use of English.

6.2.4. On Learner and Teacher Involvement Regarding Speaking Skills

9. A person's taking the responsibility of his own acts and producing ways to be successful are so valuable assets in education that without this quality, even best teachers may stop exhausted somewhere. It is for this reason that one major role of teachers is indeed to instill the sense of devotion to one's own goals. However, for learners' commitment – a sense often triggered by teachers – to turn into constant pursuit of their goals, tasks or texts in the materials ought to be meaningful for them. Ellis (2013) notes that "even if learners are successful in achieving the outcome of the task, they will have gained little unless the processes involved in performing the task can be shown to be of value to learning" (p. 224). However, "it is also possible for learners to enjoy using materials without learning very much from them and it is also possible to learn a lot from materials which are not particularly interesting or enjoyable to use" (Tomlinson, 2013, p. 298). Therefore language teachers do have a pivotal role in students' internalization of the language by effectively using and adapting the textbooks if or when needed.

10. For learners to promote speaking skills, Cooker (2008, p. 129) recommends that "ideally they should be encouraged to diagnose their own speaking difficulties using various means: feedback from teachers and advisers, checklists of skills against which to compare their own speaking or models of native speakers and successful users of English (SUEs) (Prodromou, 2003)." Making students part of the learning process is an ideal goal, and with repeated attempts it wouldn't be far from real. In addition to increasing their cognitive engagement through integrated tasks and (near) authentic texts, their affective involvement can also be provided by "classroom rapport and teacher confidence" (Prodromou & Mishan, 2008, p. 199). I agree with Nation and Macalister (2010) who state "as teachers we should believe that every problem can be solved through informed and imaginative pedagogy" (p. 56).

11. The strategic role of the teachers that can mediate the effect of in- and outside-class problems depends on their stance regarding the linguistic and communicative

mismatches learners can encounter. In order for the recasts by the teachers to turn into repairs by the students, teachers should see the textbook, classroom activities, and their own mental capacity and pedagogic performance as a whole since one cannot provide optimal benefit to learners without the other. As Dörnyei (2005, p. 117) rightly claims, "the teacher's motivation has significant bearings on the students' motivational disposition and, more generally, on their learning achievement." For a better performance by the teachers, though, some change in methodology and some incentive to take more responsibility can be needed. This can be met with systematic approaches to education but without disregarding the humane side of it.

6.2.5. On Alternative Classroom Materials

12. Utilizing from current IT developments inside and outside the classroom could serve as a refresher. Stating that "in many parts of the world spoken language is not examined and so, although it might appear in the curriculum, it does not get taught", Motteram (2013) offers a solution for this imbalance in language learning which is not seen infrequently and says "teachers need, then, to be creative, if they want to give their learners a greater chance of being able to communicate" (p. 303) implying the use of technology.

13. In this light, a "pedagogic corpus" (Willis & Willis, 2007, pp. 187-196) can enhance the level of language learners in relation to language skills, particularly, speaking. Willis (2013) states that "this pedagogic corpus will normally be made up of some or all of the texts and transcripts of recordings from the coursebook that learners have read or listened to before, and other supplementary materials they are already familiar with" (p. 54). As well, in the event that there is a lack of practicality in developing or using such materials, inclusion of some specific features into the syllabus can be emphasized. To illustrate, the ways to request for clarifying an utterance, to soften a form for increasing the rhetoric effect, or to gain who we talk to the sense of confidence by implying what he is saying is valuable can be given

priority by teachers in the classroom long before material writers could include them in the textbooks.

14. Given that accessibility of educational sources has increased in recent years, students can be led towards using their electronic devices for aims directed for learning a language, and speaking skills in particular. The reality of social networking websites can lead learners to the form of online writing styles which is actually neither written nor spoken completely.

15. However as Mukundan (2008) points out whatever its advantages are, "over-indulgence in multimedia is in direct contrast to sound language teaching pedagogy" (p. 109). As is emphasized throughout this thesis study, heading a midway in terms of methodology and attempting to go beyond the existing educational situations with a mutual support of students and teachers by means of useful textbooks can bear significant results desired by all.

16. In order to compensate what is missing in the educational settings such as classroom materials, testing materials or technological components, a teacher and a learner could attempt more to find alternative ways. Especially when the language skill that is aimed to improve is speaking, it is quite certain that those involved in the process should try harder to create productive settings for interaction. Because most of the time in EFL settings the first speech partner of a learner is his teacher. To this end, they should to take more responsibility and regulate their own schedules by sharing their conventional roles.

I verily hope that this study by means of its several instruments with their multi-faceted categories that have tried to elucidate what the problem was in teaching and learning speaking skills in a certain context gives some insightful idea to those who feel themselves responsible for their own and students' engagement, motivation, and progress.

It is quite probable that communicative competence could speak itself either inside or outside the classroom through more conscious and therefore effective and efficient strategies. An increase in the linguistic and the communicative load of the spoken tasks and texts in the textbooks can motivate the users of the textbooks to invest more for their own proficiency. To this end, dealing with the educational concepts that are theoretically on a continuum with both research and intuition together with experience seems as an old but universal key for teaching to yield learning.

By reconciling the seemingly sharp distinctions within a framework of collaborative efforts by the potential language users, students, and language facilitators, teachers, it could be possible to build more competent discourse communities.

6.3. Limitations and Suggestions for Further Studies

The following points are the limitations of this study so that researchers in ELT or related departments may find it worth to concentrate on them in their subsequent studies.

In the study, the number of the participating teachers was limited to 33 which was a hindrance for the scope of the research. The number of the students was quite high (1046) but since the sampling method was not probabilistic, talking about the typicality of the results wouldn't be purely scientific.

The format of the DCT did not allow for a spoken output, but rather concentrated on the students' awareness level of specific spoken discourse features in a written form. Future research can reveal how much students are oriented towards the use of language by prompting output through a more flexible instrument unlike the two-choice test in this study, if time and cost allow.

The number of the textbooks under scrutiny was three in this study. Further studies are needed to reveal whether and how much micro and macro skills are balanced in

more textbooks and to offer suggestions about how to wed modern theories of ELT and the current and common practices of teachers and students. Further, studies may be expanded by taking workbooks and teachers' books together with the textbooks into consideration. It would probably be much better to include not only the audio but also the visual accompanying materials such as CDs and DVDs into such a research. Some textbooks encourage the use of Internet, too. The usefulness of related websites or databases can also be a different venture for researchers.

Researchers in the future are also recommended to work intensively to find the reasons that lie deep in the minds of the learners and teachers for the relative neglect of the speaking skills, despite the urgent need for them. Ethnomethodical studies with a group of ELT teachers and EFL students could pave the way for more practical solutions. This said, the explanations of the former and the excuses of the latter could enable us to see the most part of the picture, if not the whole.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX-1 SCHEMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE MODULAR-EVALUATIVE FRAMEWORK-MEF

MODULE I **Task Analysis**	MODULE II **Phonological Analysis**	MODULE III*** **Textual Analysis**	MODULE IV **Lexical Analysis**
1. Task Type	1. Pronunciation	1. Cohesive Units	1. Lexical Frequency
2. Functional Category	2. Linking	2. Communicative Units	2. Lexical Density
3. Conversation Type	3. Stress And Intonation	3. Sociolinguistic Roles	3. Recycling Index
4. Response Type		4. Lexicogrammatical Units	
5. Integrative Aspect			

MODULE III IN DETAIL			
1. Cohesive Units	2. Communicative Units	3. Sociolinguistic Roles	4. Lexicogrammatical Units
A. Conjunction *1. Causative conjunctions* *2. Adversative conjunctions* *3. Additive conjunctions* *4. Temporal conjunctions*	A. Authenticity and Sociocultural Perspective	A. Turn taking	A. Chunks: *Collocations, Fixed Expressions and Idioms*
	B. Style and Register	B. Negotiation	B. Institutionalized Chunks
	C. Backchanneling	C. Topic Shift	C. Modality
B. Substitution	D. Hedging	D. Leave Taking	
C. Ellipsis	E. Politeness		
D. Reference *1. Anaphora* *2. Cataphora*	F. Vague Languge		

APPENDIX-2 A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF
LEARNING SPEAKING SKILLS (SQ) AND THE DISCOURSE COMPETENCE
TEST (DCT) (ORIGINALLY APPLIED VERSION-TURKISH) (p. 1)

KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNE DAİR DEĞERLENDİRME ANKETİ

Bu çalışma, İngilizce ders kitaplarında öğretilen konuşma becerilerine (speaking skills) ve okulda verilen
konuşma derslerine dair düşüncelerinizi öğrenmek için yapılmaktadır. Çalışmanın başarılı olması için
cevaplarınızı başkalarından etkilenmeden vermenizi rica ederim.

Size uygun olan kısımların üzerini işaretleyiniz.

Ad/Soyad:　　　　　Mail:　　　　　Cinsiyet: | Male | | Female |

Yaş: | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 | 20 |　　　Sınıf: | 9. | 10. | 11. | 12. |

Okul:

İngilizce DERS KİTABINIZIN adı ve seviyesi:

Yes You can A 2.1	Yes You Can A 2.2	Yes You Can A 2.3	Solutions Türkiye A2	Interchange 2

1. Kaç yıldır İngilizce dersi alıyorsunuz?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |

2. Haftada kaç saat İngilizce dersi görüyorsunuz?

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |

3. Okulda konuşma dersi için ayrılan özel bir ders saati var mı?

1	Evet, konuşma dersini ayrı bir ders saatinde yapıyoruz.
2	Hayır, konuşma dersini dinleme, okuma-anlama gibi çalışmaların yapıldığı derslerde yapıyoruz.
3	Konuşma dersini bazen ayrı bir ders olarak, bazen dinleme, okuma-anlama gibi çalışmaların yapıldığı derslerde yapıyoruz.
4	Konuşma dersini ayrı olarak ya da başka derslerle beraber yapmıyoruz.

4. Genel İngilizce seviyenizi geliştirmek için herhangi bir kursa gittiniz mi?

1	Evet, gittim. / Şu an gidiyorum.
2	Hayır gitmedim.
3	Bundan sonra gitmeyi düşünüyorum.

5. Özellikle konuşma becerinizi geliştirmek için herhangi bir kursa gittiniz mi?

1	Evet, gittim. / Şu an gidiyorum.
2	Hayır gitmedim.
3	Bundan sonra gitmeyi düşünüyorum.

*Aşağıda verilen ifadelere katılıp katılmadığınızı belirtmek için 5-1 arası derecelendirmeden size uygun olanın
üzerini işaretleyiniz.*

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APPENDIX-2 A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF
LEARNING SPEAKING SKILLS (SQ) AND THE DISCOURSE COMPETENCE
TEST (DCT) (ORIGINALLY APPLIED VERSION-TURKISH) (p. 2)

5 - Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	4 - Katılıyorum	3 - Fikrim Yok	2 - Katılmıyorum	1 - Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum

1. İngilizce ders kitabımızdaki konuşma becerisine ayrılan bölümlerin yeterli olduğunu düşünüyorum. `5 4 3 2 1`

2. İngilizce ders kitabımızdaki konuşma becerisine ayrılan bölümler konuşma becerilerimin gelişmesine katkıda bulunuyor. `5 4 3 2 1`

3. İngilizce ders kitabımızın konuşma becerisine ayrılan bölümlerinde İngilizce günlük konuşma diline yeteri kadar yer verildiğini düşünüyorum. `5 4 3 2 1`

4. İngilizce ders kitabımızın konuşma becerisine ayrılan bölümlerindeki alıştırma ve aktiviteler beni konuşarak iletişim kurmaya yönlendiriyor. `5 4 3 2 1`

5. İngilizce ders kitabımızdaki konuşma becerisine ayrılan bölümlerdeki alıştırma ve aktiviteler kelime (vocabulary) bilgimin gelişimine fayda sağlıyor. `5 4 3 2 1`

6. İngilizce ders kitabımızdaki konuşma becerisine ayrılan bölümlerdeki alıştırma ve aktiviteler dinleme (listening) becerilerimin gelişimine fayda sağlıyor. `5 4 3 2 1`

7. Sınıf içi İngilizce çalışmalarımızda konuşma becerimiz için ayrılan sürenin / ders saatinin yeterli olduğunu düşünüyorum. `5 4 3 2 1`

8. Sınıf içinde konuşma aktiviteleri dinleme aktiviteleri ile birlikte yapılıyor. `5 4 3 2 1`

9. Sınıf içinde yaptığımız konuşma aktiviteleri günlük hayatın farklı alanlarında karşımıza çıkabilecek diyalogları içeriyor. `5 4 3 2 1`

10. Sınıf içinde yaptığımız konuşma aktivitelerinde grupla ya da ikili çalışmayı verimli buluyorum `5 4 3 2 1`

11. Öğretmenimiz konuşma dersinde İngilizceyi yoğun olarak kullanıyor. `5 4 3 2 1`

12. Öğretmenimiz, İngilizce konuşurken hata yapsak bile konuşmamızı ilerletmemiz için ders içinde bize destek oluyor. `5 4 3 2 1`

13. Öğretmenimiz ders dışında da İngilizce pratik yapmamız için bizi teşvik ediyor. `5 4 3 2 1`

14. İngilizce konuşma aktiviteleri esnasında konuştuğum kişiyi anlamadığımda kendisinden söylediğini tekrar etmesini isterim. `5 4 3 2 1`

15. İngilizce konuşma aktiviteleri esnasında konuştuğum kişinin ne söylediği kadar ses tonu ve vurgusuna da dikkat ederim. `5 4 3 2 1`

5 - Kesinlikle Katılıyorum	4 - Katılıyorum	3 - Fikrim Yok	2 - Katılmıyorum	1 - Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum

16. İngilizce konuşma aktiviteleri esnasında konuştuğum kişinin sözlerinin yanı sıra beden diline, yüz ifadeleri ve mimiklerine de dikkat ederim.   `5 4 3 2 1`

17. İngilizce konuşma aktivitelerinde konuşmanın kiminle ve nerede yapıldığının (öğretmen / okul; arkadaş / sinema; işveren / iş yeri vb.) konuşmada kullanılan kelime ve cümle seçiminde önemli olduğunu düşünüyorum.   `5 4 3 2 1`

18. İngilizce konuşma becerilerimin gelişmesi için ders dışında çalışmalar yapıyorum.   `5 4 3 2 1`

19. Farklı iletişim kanallarından (internet, TV… vb.) konuşma becerilerimi geliştirmek için dinleme yapıyorum.   `5 4 3 2 1`

20. İngilizce telaffuzumun gelişmesi için öğretmenim İngilizce konuşurken onu dikkatle dinliyorum.   `5 4 3 2 1`

21. İngilizce konuşma aktivitelerinde hata yaptığımı anladığımda, bir başkası tarafından hatamın düzeltilmesini doğru buluyorum.   `5 4 3 2 1`

22. İngilizce ders kitabımızda konuşma becerilerine ayrılan bölümler daha fazla ve yoğun olsa konuşma becerimin gelişmesi için daha çok gayret ederim.   `5 4 3 2 1`

23. İngilizce ders kitabımızdaki diyalog, ve aktiviteler konu / içerik yönüyle günlük hayatımızı yansıtsa bunları öğrenmeye daha çok gayret ederim.   `5 4 3 2 1`

24. Öğretmenimiz ders içinde beni İngilizce konuşmaya daha çok yönlendirse İngilizce becerilerimi geliştirmeye daha çok gayret ederim.   `5 4 3 2 1`

25. Öğretmenimiz ders dışında beni İngilizce konuşmaya daha çok yönlendirse İngilizce becerilerimi geliştirmeye daha çok gayret ederim.   `5 4 3 2 1`

26. Ders içi konuşma aktivitelerine not verilse ve bu genel performans notum için kullanılsa bu becerileri geliştirmek için daha çok çalışırım.   `5 4 3 2 1`

27. Okuldaki İngilizce sınavlarında İngilizce konuşma becerilerim ölçülüyor olsa bu becerileri geliştirmek için daha çok çalışırım.   `5 4 3 2 1`

Aşağıdaki sorularda, soru köklerini okuduktan sonra iki seçenekten doğru olanı seçiniz.

1.

1	Aşağıdaki diyaloglardan 1. sinin İngilizce günlük konuşma diline daha yakın olduğunu düşünüyorum.
2	Aşağıdaki diyaloglardan 2. sinin İngilizce günlük konuşma diline daha yakın olduğunu düşünüyorum.

1. DİYALOG
STUDENT 1: Excuse me, how can I get to the post office?
STUDENT 2: Cross University Avenue. Turn right. Walk straight ahead along University Avenue for three blocks. Turn left at Time Street. Walk south for two blocks. Turn left at Avenue. The post office is the big building on the corner of Bridge Avenue and Time Street.
STUDENT 1: Thank you for your help.

2. DİYALOG
STUDENT 1: How do I get to the Vet Clinic?
STUDENT 2: Oh, my God. It's far, but, um. It's on, it's Shaw Lane is right, if you keep going up here you'll hit Shaw Lane and it is going that way. But go a little bit more and then cross the parking lot and it goes that way.
STUDENT 1: Um hum.
STUDENT 2: And then cross the road and just follow the sidewalk all the way down. If you keep following it you' ll see a sign that says Vet Clinic. But go all the way down there and cross the road and just follow the sidewalk down.
STUDENT 1: Okay.
STUDENT 2: Okay?
STUDENT 1: Thanks a lot.

2.   A- Open the window.   A- Could you open the window, please?

1	Yukarıdaki ifadelerin günlük hayattaki kullanım yerlerinin aynı olduğunu düşünüyorum.
2	Yukarıdaki ifadelerin günlük hayattaki kullanım yerlerinin farklı olduğunu düşünüyorum.

3.   MOTHER: Tom, dad is on the phone.

        SON: I'm in the bath.

Yukarıdaki diyalogda Tom annesine ne demek istemiştir?

1	Banyodayım ama telefona bakabilirim.
2	Banyodayım, dolayısıyla telefona bakamam.

4.   STUDENT 1: Well, how was your exam?

        STUDENT 2: Not bad.

Yukarıdaki diyalogda geçen "Well" ifadesinin karşılığı aşağıdaki iki seçenekten hangisinde doğru verilmiştir?

1	"Well" diyaloğu başlatmak için kullanılan bir sözcüktür; bu cümlede tek başına anlam ifade etmez.
2	"Well" bu cümlede sınavın iyi geçtiğini ifade etmek için kullanılan bir zarftır.

5.   STUDENT 1: I think he didn't like me.

        STUDENT 2: I think so.

Yukarıdaki diyalogda geçen "so" ifadesinin karşılığı aşağıdaki iki seçenekten hangisinde doğru verilmiştir?

1	Bu cümlede "so" böylece anlamına gelen bir bağlaçtır.
2	Bu cümlede "so" bir önceki cümlede geçen sözcükleri tekrar etmemek için kullanılan bir kısaltma ifadesidir.

6.   A- She came late from work.

Yukarıdaki cümle aşağıdaki cümlelerden hangisiyle devam ederse anlamlı bir bütünlük sağlanır?

1	But she was very tired.
2	So she was very tired.

DİĞER DÜŞÜNCE VE YORUMLARINIZ ....

....

....

Katkınız için teşekkür ederim. Elif Gürergene (*elifgurergene@gmail.com*)

APPENDIX-3 A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF LEARNING SPEAKING SKILLS (SQ) (TRANSLATED VERSION-ENGLISH) (p.1)

Dear participating student, this questionnaire has been designed to consult you to find out your perceptions of how you are taught speaking skills through the textbook in the classroom and the speaking classes at school. In order for the study to reach its aim, please give your own answers without being affected by others.

Please circle what is relevant to your answer.

Name		Mail			Gender	Male		Female	

School			Class	9th		10th		11th	12th

Age	14	15		16	17		18	19	20
Name of the textbook for English classes	Yes You Can A1		Yes You Can A2			Yes You Can A3		Solutions Türkiye 2	Interchange 2

1. How long have you been taking English classes at school?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

2. How many hours of English classes are you taking at school per week?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10

3. Is there any specific hour of English class allocated for speaking skills?

1	Yes, we have a separate class of speaking skills.
2	No, but we have a speaking class integrated with classes such as reading/listening comprehension classes.
3	We sometimes have speaking classes separate from others; sometimes together with other classes such as reading/listening comprehension classes.
4	We do not have speaking classes either separately or integrated with other English classes.

4. Have you ever attended to a language course in order to improve your speaking skills?

1	Yes, I went to one in previous years. / I am going to one right now.
2	No, I have never gone to any.
3	I am thinking of going to one as of now.

5. Have you attended to a language course particularly for developing your speaking skills?

1	Yes, I went to one in previous years. / I am going to one right now.
2	No, I have never gone to any.
3	No, I haven't but I am thinking of going to one as of now.

APPENDIX-3 A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF LEARNING SPEAKING SKILLS (SQ) TRANSLATED VERSION-ENGLISH) (p. 2)									
Please rate how much you personally agree or disagree with the following statements using the following scale.									
5-Strongly Agree	4-Agree	3-Neutral	2-Disagree	1-Strongly Disagree					
1. I find the parts in the textbook allocated for speaking skills sufficient.					5	4	3	2	1
2. The parts allocated for speaking skills in the textbook help improve my level of speaking skills.					5	4	3	2	1
3. I find the amount of spoken English (daily conversational English) given in the speaking parts in the textbook satisfactory.					5	4	3	2	1
4. Tasks and activities in the speaking parts in the textbook motivate me to communicate through speaking.					5	4	3	2	1
5. Tasks and activities in the speaking parts in the textbook help improve the level of my vocabulary knowledge.					5	4	3	2	1
6. Tasks and activities in the speaking parts in the textbook help improve the level of my listening skills.					5	4	3	2	1
7. I find the number of classes / time allocated for our speaking skills in the classroom satisfactory.					5	4	3	2	1
8. Speaking activities in the classroom are done with listening activities at the same time.					5	4	3	2	1
9. In the classroom, activities for speaking skills include dialogues that a person can come across at different areas of life.					5	4	3	2	1
10. I find studying with a pair or group in classroom activities for speaking skills effective for learning.					5	4	3	2	1
11. Our teacher uses English in speaking classes a lot.					5	4	3	2	1
12. Even if we make mistakes while speaking English, our teacher encourages us in the classroom to improve our speaking.					5	4	3	2	1
13. Our teacher encourages us to practice English outside the classroom.					5	4	3	2	1
14. During speaking activities, if I do not understand what my partner tells, I want him to repeat what he has said.					5	4	3	2	1
15. During speaking activities, I pay attention to the stress and intonation of my partner as well as what he says.					5	4	3	2	1
16. During speaking activities, I pay attention to my partner's body language, facial expressions, and mimics as well as his words.					5	4	3	2	1
17. Where and with whom the dialogue takes place (for example in a workplace with a manager; at a school with a teacher; at the cinema with a friend) is important in word and sentence choice in speaking activities.					5	4	3	2	1
18. I do extra activities outside the class to improve my speaking skills.					5	4	3	2	1
19. I listen to different materials (from web, TV etc.) to improve my speaking skills.					5	4	3	2	1
20. I listen to my teacher carefully while speaking English to improve my pronunciation.					5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX-3 A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL STUDENTS' PERCEPTIONS OF LEARNING SPEAKING SKILLS (SQ) (TRANSLATED VERSION-ENGLISH) (p. 3)									
5-Strongly Agree	4-Agree	3-Neutral	2-Disagree	1- Strongly Disagree					
21. I find it appropriate to be corrected by someone else when I realize that I have made a mistake during a speaking activity.					5	4	3	2	1
22. If tasks and activities for speaking skills in the textbook were more in quantity and more intense, I would try harder to improve my speaking skills.					5	4	3	2	1
23. If the dialogues and activities in the textbook reflected our daily life in their topics and content, I would try harder to learn them.					5	4	3	2	1
24. If my teacher motivated me more to speak English in the class, I would try harder to improve my speaking skills					5	4	3	2	1
25. If my teacher motivated me more to speak English outside the class, I would try harder to improve my speaking skills.					5	4	3	2	1
26. If I were given a score for in-class speaking activities and this were used for my overall performance evaluation, I would try harder to improve my speaking skills.					5	4	3	2	1
27. If my speaking skills were tested through formal exams, I would try harder to develop my speaking skills.					5	4	3	2	1

APPENDIX-4 THE DISCOURSE COMPETENCE TEST (DCT) (TRANSLATED VERSION-ENGLISH) (p. 1)

After reading the prompts, please circle the correct one.

1. *(Source of the dialogues: A. Cunningsworth, 1995, p. 126)*

1. I think the first of the two dialogues below is more similar to daily conversational English.
2. I think the second of the two dialogues below is more similar to daily conversational English.

1st DIALOGUE **STUDENT 1:** Excuse me, how can I get to the post office? **STUDENT 2:** Cross University Avenue. Turn right. Walk straight ahead along University Avenue for three blocks. Turn left at Time Street. Walk south for two blocks. Turn left at Avenue. The post office is the big building on the corner of Bridge Avenue and Time Street. **STUDENT 1:** Thank you for your help.	**2nd DIALOGUE** **STUDENT 1:** How do I get to the Vet Clinic? **STUDENT 2:** Oh, my God. It's far, but, um. It's on, it's Shaw Lane is right, if you keep going up here you'll hit Shaw Lane and it is going that way. But go a little bit more and then cross the parking lot and it goes that way. **STUDENT 1:** Um hum. **STUDENT 2:** And then cross the road and just follow the sidewalk all the way down. If you keep following it you'll see a sign that says Vet Clinic. But go all the way down there and cross the road and just follow the sidewalk down. **STUDENT 1:** Okay. **STUDENT 2**: Okay? **STUDENT 1:** Thanks a lot.

2. A- Open the window.	**A-** Could you open the window, please?

1. I think both expressions above can be used interchangeably in daily use.
2. I think both expressions above cannot be used interchangeably in daily use.

(*The dialogue below was adapted from H. G. Widdowson, 2008, p. 29)*
MOTHER: Tom, dad is on the phone. **SON:**   I'm in the bath.
3. What did Tom mean to say to his mother in the above dialogue?
1. I'm in the bath, but I can still answer the call.
2. I'm in the bath, so I cannot answer the call.

STUDENT 1: Well, how was your exam? **STUDENT 2:** Not bad.
4. What is the function of the word "Well" used in the above dialogue?
1. "Well" is a word to initiate the topic; it has no meaning alone in this dialogue.
2. "Well" is an adverb in this dialogue used to indicate that the exam passed well.

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APPENDIX-4 THE DISCOURSE COMPETENCE TEST (DCT) (TRANSLATED VERSION-ENGLISH) (p. 2)

STUDENT 1: I think he didn't like me.
STUDENT 2: I think so.

5. What is the function of the word "so" used in the above dialogue?

1. "So" is a conjunction meaning "as a consequence of this" in this dialogue.

2. "So" is used not to repeat the words used in the former sentence to avoid repetition.

- She came late from work.

6. Which of the following statements can complete the above sentence in a meaningful way?

1. But she was very tired.

2. So she was very tired.

Your thoughts or comments

Thank you for your participation. Elif Gürergene (elifgurergene@gmail.com)

APPENDIX-5 A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS (TQ) (ORIGINALLY APPLIED VERSION-ENGLISH) (p. 1)

A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS

Dear participating teacher, this questionnaire has been designed to consult you to find out EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers' perceptions of teaching macro and micro skills of speaking through the coursebook in the classroom. I would like to express my gratitude for your valuable contribution to the field of ELT via this research. Elif Gürergene (*elifgurergene@gmail.com*)

Please circle what is relevant to your answer.

Name: **Mail:**   **Gender:**

Male	
Female	

Age:

School:

Name of the COURSEBOOK you are using in the classroom:

Yes You can A 2.1	Yes You Can A 2.2	Yes You Can A 2.3	Solutions Türkiye A2	Interchange 2

1. What is the year of your experience in teaching English?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	22	23	24	25

2. Level of education degree:

1	Bachelor's degree
2	Master of art (MA)
3	Philosophy of doctorate (PhD)
4	Other

3. Your department at university:

1	English Language Teaching
2	English Language and Literature
3	American Culture and Literature
4	Translation and Interpretation Studies
5	Linguistics
6	I am not a graduate of any of the English departments.

4. The university that you garduated from was:

1	a public university
2	a private university

5. Which of the following skills do you think you are better at?

1	Reading
2	Listening
3	Speaking
4	Writing
5	Grammar
6	Vocabulary

6. How do you rate your degree of speaking skills?

1	Very good
2	Good
3	Not satisfactory
4	Poor

7. Have you ever taken a supplementary course (*not* the related courses at university) in order to improve your speaking skills?

1	Yes, I went to one in previous years. / I am going to one right now.
2	No, I have never gone to any.
3	No, I haven't but I am thinking of going to one.

8. Do you teach speaking skills in separate classes or integrate it with other classes such as listening or reading comprehension classes?

1	Yes, I am teaching speaking skills in separate classes.
2	No, I am not teaching speaking skills in different classes but include it in classes such as listening or reading comprehension.
3	I sometimes teach speaking skills in separate classes and sometimes include it in classes such as listening or reading comprehension.
4	I am not teaching speaking skills.

Please rate how much you personally agree or disagree with the following statements using the following scale:

5 - Strongly Agree	4 - Agree	3 - Neutral	2 - Disagree	1 - Strongly Disagree

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APPENDIX-5 A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS (TQ) (ORIGINALLY APPLIED VERSION-ENGLISH) (p. 2)

5-Strongly agree 4-Agree 3-Neutral 2.Disagree 1-strongly disagree	5	4	3	2	1	YOUR COMMENT
1	I find the space in the coursebook allocated for speaking skills (tasks, activities, etc.) sufficient.						
2	The parts allocated for speaking skills in the coursebook help improve my students' level of speaking skills.						
3	I find the amount of spoken English (daily conversational English) given in the speaking parts in the coursebook satisfactory.						
4.	Tasks and activities in the speaking parts in the coursebook motivate my students to communicate through speaking.						
5	Tasks and activities in the speaking parts in the coursebook help improve the level of vocabulary knowledge of my students.						
6	Tasks and activities in the speaking parts in the coursebook help improve the level of listening skills of my students.						
7	While teaching in the classroom, I give enough time / class hours for speaking skills apart from other skills.						
8	I teach speaking through activities that include dialogues that students can come across at different areas of life.						
9	While doing activities for speaking skills, I prefer pair work a lot.						
10	While doing activities for speaking skills, I prefer group work a lot.						
11	I use / speak English a lot as a medium of teaching in speaking classes.						
12	Even if my students make mistakes while speaking English, I encourage them to improve their speaking in the classroom.						
13	I encourage my students to practice English outside the classroom.						
14	There is sufficient amount of information in the coursebook that aims to teach students some expressions to ask for help when they do not understand something while speaking.						
15	There is sufficient amount of information in the coursebook that aims to teach students the importance of stress and intonation for speaking skills.						
16	There is sufficient amount of information in the coursebook that focuses on non-verbal communication techniques like showing attention to body language, facial expressions and mimics for better communication while speaking.						
17	The coursebook includes specific texts, tasks, and activities that aim to teach students to use different styles in spoken English for example English in a workplace with a manager; at a school with a teacher; at the cinema with a friend.						
18	I do extra activities with my students that I think is lacking in the coursebook so that their speaking skills can become better.						
19	I use different audio materials (music, for example) for listening to improve my students' speaking skills.						
20	I use different visual materials (fragments of a movie, for example) for listening to improve my students' speaking skills.						
21	I am cautious with my pronunciation to teach it correctly to my students.						
22	Apart from preparation for speaking activities in the classroom, I try to improve my own level of speaking skills by working outside the school time.						
23	If tasks and activities for speaking skills in the coursebook were much more, I would focus more on teaching speaking skills.						
24	If the content of the tasks and activities in the coursebook were authentic and original (daily conversational English), I would teach more daily spoken expressions to my students.						
25	If there were more activities reflecting life outside the classroom for practicing spoken English, students would be more willing to participate in them.						
26	If I had to score speaking / oral activities (role plays, dialogues ... etc.) in the classroom and had to use them for their overall performance evaluation, I would focus more on teaching speaking skills to my students.						
27	If I had to test and assess the speaking skills of my students through formal exams, I would focus more on teaching speaking skills to my students.						

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APPENDIX-6 A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS (TQ) (TRANSLATED VERSION-TURKISH)

(p. 1)

KONUŞMA BECERİLERİNİN ÖĞRETİLMESİNE DAİR ÖĞRETMEN ANKETİ

Değerli katılımcı, bu anket İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğreten öğretmenlerin, sınıf ortamında, ders kitabı yoluyla konuşma becerilerini nasıl öğrettiklerini ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla hazırlanmıştır. Bu araştırma aracılığıyla, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanına yaptığınız katkıdan dolayı teşekkür ederim.

Elif Gürergene (elifgurergene@gmail.com)

Lütfen size uygun olanı işaretleyiniz.

Ad		Mail		Cinsiyet	Erkek		Kadın	
Ders kitabı adı	Yes You Can A1	Yes You Can A2	Yes You Can A3	Solutions Türkiye 2				Interchange 2

Okul		Yaş	

1. Öğretmenlik tecrübesi (Yıl)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	

2. Eğitim Derecesi

1. Lisans		2. Yüksek lisans		Doktora		Diğer	

3. Mezun olunan bölüm

1. İngilizce öğretmenliği	2. İngiliz dili ve edebiyatı	3. Amerikan kültürü ve edebiyatı
4. Mütercim Tercümanlık	5. Dilbilim	6. İngilizce bölüm mezunu değilim.
4. Mezun olunan üniversite	1. Devlet üniversitesi	2. Özel üniversite

5. Aşağıdaki dil becerilerinin hangisinde daha iyi olduğunuzu düşünüyorsunuz?

Okuma	Dinleme	Konuşma	Yazma	Dil bilgisi	Kelime

6. Konuşma becerilerine dair seviyenizi nasıl değerlendirirsiniz?

Çok iyi	İyi	Yeterli değil	Kötü

7. Üniversitede aldığınız ilgili dersler dışında konuşma becerilerinizi geliştirmek için takviye amaçlı herhangi bir ders aldınız mı?

1.	Evet, geçen senelerde bir kursa gittim. /Şu an gidiyorum.
2.	Hayır, hiç gitmedim.
3.	Hayır, hiç gitmedim ama gitmeyi düşünüyorum.

8. Konuşma becerilerini ayrı derslerde mi, dinleme ve okuma anlama gibi derslerle birleştirerek mi öğretiyorsunuz?

1.	Evet, konuşma becerilerini ayrı derslerde öğretiyorum.
2	Hayır, konuşma becerilerini ayrı derslerde değil, dinleme, okuma anlama gibi derslerle birleştirerek öğretiyorum.
3	Konuşma becerilerini bazen ayrı derslerde bazen dinleme, okuma anlama gibi derslerle birleştirerek öğretiyorum.
4.	Konuşma becerilerini öğretmiyorum.

APPENDIX-6 A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS (TQ) (TRANSLATED VERSION-TURKISH) (p. 2)									
Lütfen aşağıdaki derecelendirmeyi kullanarak devamında gelen cümlelere kişisel olarak ne seviyede katılıp katılmadığınızı belirtiniz.									
5-Kesinlikle katılıyorum	4-Katılıyorum	3-Fikrim yok	2-Katılmıyorum	1-Kesinlikle katılmıyorum					Yorumunuz
1. Ders kitabında konuşma becerileri için ayrılan yerin (aktiviteler, alıştırmalar vb.) yeterli olduğunu düşünüyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
2. Ders kitabında konuşma becerilerine ayrılan bölümlerin öğrencilerimin konuşma becerilerinin seviyesini geliştirdiğini düşünüyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
3. Ders kitabının konuşma bölümlerinde günlük konuşma İngilizcesi 'ne yeteri kadar yer verildiğini düşünüyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
4. Ders kitabının konuşma bölümlerindeki aktivite ve alıştırmaların öğrencilerimi konuşma yoluyla iletişim kurmaya motive ettiğini düşünüyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
5. Ders kitabının konuşma bölümlerindeki aktivite ve alıştırmaların öğrencilerimin kelime bilgisi seviyesini geliştirdiğini düşünüyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
6. Ders kitabının konuşma bölümlerindeki aktivite ve alıştırmaların öğrencilerimin dinleme becerileri seviyesini geliştirdiğini düşünüyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
7. Sınıf içinde, diğer becerilerden ayrı olarak konuşma becerilerine yeteri kadar zaman/ders saati ayırıyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
8.Konuşmayı, öğrencilerin hayatın farklı alanlarında karşılaşabilecekleri diyalogları içeren aktivitelerle öğretiyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
9. Konuşma becerileri için aktivite yaparken, öğrencilerin ikili çalışmasını tercih ediyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
10. Konuşma becerileri için aktivite yaparken, öğrencilerin grup halinde çalışmasını tercih ediyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
11. Konuşma derslerinde öğretim aracı olarak İngilizceyi çok fazla kullanıyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
12. Öğrencilerim İngilizce konuşurken hata yapsalar bile, konuşmalarını geliştirmeleri için onları sınıf içinde destekliyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
13. Öğrencilerimi ders dışında İngilizce pratik yapmaları için teşvik ediyorum.				5	4	3	2	1	
14. Ders kitabında öğrencilere, konuşurken bir şeyi anlamadıklarında yardım isteyecekleri ifadeleri öğretmeyi hedefleyen yeteri kadar bilgi mevcut.				5	4	3	2	1	
15.Ders kitabında konuşma becerilerinde vurgu ve tonlamanın önemini öğretmeyi hedefleyen yeteri kadar bilgi mevcut.				5	4	3	2	1	
16. Ders kitabında konuşurken daha iyi iletişim kurmak için beden dili, yüz ifadeleri ve mimiklere dikkat etmek gibi sözsüz iletişim tekniklerine odaklanan yeteri kadar bilgi mevcut.				5	4	3	2	1	
17. Ders kitabı öğrencilere konuşma İngilizcesinde, bir iş yerinde yönetici ile, okulda bir öğretmen ile, sinemada bir arkadaş ile konuşurken kullanılacak İngilizce gibi, farklı tarzları kullanmayı öğretmeyi hedefleyen belirli metin, aktivite ve alıştırmaları içeriyor.				5	4	3	2	1	

APPENDIX-6 A QUESTONNAIRE ON EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF TEACHING SPEAKING SKILLS (TQ) (TRANSLATED VERSION-TURKISH) (p. 3)							
5-Kesinlikle katılıyorum	4-Katılıyorum	3-Fikrim yok	2-Katılmıyorum	1-Kesinlikle katılmıyorum			Yorumunuz
18. Öğrencilerimin konuşma becerileri gelişsin diye, ders kitabında eksik olduğunu düşündüğüm aktivitelere dair fazladan çalışma yapıyorum.							
19. Öğrencilerimin konuşma becerilerini geliştirmek amacıyla dinleme için farklı sesli materyaller (müzik gibi) kullanıyorum.							
20. Öğrencilerimin konuşma becerilerini geliştirmek amacıyla dinleme için farklı görsel materyaller (film fragmanı gibi) kullanıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1		
21. Öğrencilerime İngilizce telaffuzu doğru öğretmek amacıyla telaffuzuma dikkat ediyorum.	5	4	3	2	1		
22. Dersteki konuşma becerilerine hazırlık dışında, okul zamanının dışında kendi konuşma becerilerimi geliştirmeye çalışıyorum.	5	4	3	2	1		
23. Ders kitabındaki aktivite ve alıştırmalar daha fazla olsa, konuşma becerilerini öğretmeye daha fazla odaklanırım.	5	4	3	2	1		
24. Ders kitabındaki aktivite ve alıştırmalar, dilin gerçek kullanımına (günlük konuşma İngilizcesi) uygun olsa öğrencilerime daha fazla günlük konuşmada geçen ifadeleri öğretirim.	5	4	3	2	1		
25. İngilizce pratik yapmak için sınıf dışı ortamı yansıtan daha fazla aktivite olsa, öğrenciler onlara katılmaya daha fazla istekli olur.	5	4	3	2	1		
26. Dersteki konuşma/sözlü aktivitelere (tiyatro, diyalog vb.) not vermem gerekse ve bunu öğrencilerin genel performans değerlendirmesi için kullanmak zorunda olsam, konuşma becerilerini öğretmeye daha fazla odaklanırım.	5	4	3	2	1		
27. Resmi sınavlar yoluyla öğrencilerimin konuşma becerilerini ölçmek ve değerlendirmek zorunda olsam, öğrencilerime konuşma becerilerini öğretmeye daha fazla odaklanırım.	5	4	3	2	1		

APPENDIX-7 SAMPLES OF SPOKEN TEXTS FOR TEXTBOOKS

a. AUTHENTIC VERSION

Speaker 1: I went in and bought some stupid things this morning in Boots, twenty-five p, [laugh] for twenty-five p you could be as silly as you want to couldn't you? Silly aren't they? Oh what fun. Silly green nonsense. Children's bead earrings.

Speaker 2: You got green?

Speaker 1: I've got a green jumper which I wear in the winter.

Speaker 2: Yeah that's fine.

Speaker 1: So I thought I would. I'm-am very fond of my green jumper, silly pair of green earrings to go with it.

Speaker 2: Why not?

Speaker 1: It's a laugh. There was another lady there looking through all the stuff where I was and she said to me, 'Isn't it fun?' [laugh] and I said, 'Yes, only twenty-five p,' [laugh] Absurd.

b. SCRIPTED (COURSEBOOK) VERSION

Speaker 1: What nice earrings!

Speaker 2: I bought them this morning.

Speaker 1: Where did you buy them?

Speaker 2: I bought them in Boots.

Speaker 1: How much did they cost?

Speaker 2: Only twenty-five p.

Speaker 1: What a bargain!

Speaker 2: I'm going to wear them with my green jumper.

Speaker 1: What a good idea!

c. SEMI-AUTHENTIC (COMPROMISED) VERSION

Speaker 1: What nice earrings!

Speaker 2: Do you like them? Silly, aren't they? Silly green nonsense. I bought them in Boots this morning. Twenty-five p.

Speaker 1: What a bargain! Have you got something green to go with them?

Speaker 2: I've got a green jumper which I wear in the winter. So I thought I'd get some silly green earrings to go with it.

Speaker 1: What fun!

Speaker 2: I know. It's a laugh. Only twenty-five p!

(Source: S. Thornbury (2006, pp. 43-44))

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