Language Teaching and Language Use in Non-Native Settings
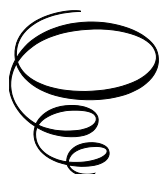
Language Teaching and Language Use in Non-Native Settings:

From Theory to Practice

Edited by

Antoine Willy Ndzotom Mbakop
and Nicoline Agbor Tabe

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FOREWORD

The intersection of fields of enquiry usually gives birth to fruitful and ground-breaking endeavours. However, we are usually too limited as individuals to specific domains of competence that elaborating works which bridge a gap between two areas of research can become a real challenge. The present volume results from the desire of the editors to reconcile language teaching and language use in order to contribute their share to the improvement of foreign language research and practice in non-native settings. They have succeeded to bring together their individual expertise in order to harmonise language teaching and language use into one coherent body of knowledge.

The language teaching and learning community quite often lacks the necessary tools to visualise the teaching and learning activity within the perspective of language use. The focus on the competency-based approach attests to this fact. The consequences of this are numerous in non-native settings. On the one hand, the language teacher cannot clearly envisage the end-product of his/her activity from the viewpoint of the materials and methods at his/her disposal. On the other hand, the language learner feels lost in the middle of an activity that does not provide him/her with the adequate resources for real-life bargains. Therefore, checking real-life language practices against the backdrop of the input provided is a route par excellence for better educational policies, teaching practices, and material development initiatives.

The five chapters presented here give different and inspiring insights into language teaching and its relationship to language practices or vice versa. The textbook, the language, the language learner, and the teaching style are all taken into account to reveal the distance between the educational realm and the sociolinguistics of foreign languages. Language boards, language teachers, and language users will certainly read this with much delight as it can be a resource manual for policy-making, the training of trainers, and the capacity-building of language practitioners in most non-native settings in the world.

Although the various chapters stand inspirationally alone in addressing specific issues of language teaching and language use, they tunefully embrace the main aim of the book. In that vein, a linear or differed reading

gives the reader the same quality of knowledge without diverting his/her attention to side-line issues.

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INTRODUCTION

FROM THE SECOND/FOREIGN LANGUAGE CLASSROOM TO THE CHALLENGES OF REAL LIFE

ANTOINE WILLY NDZOTOM MBAKOP & NICOLINE AGBOR TABE

New Englishes in Asia and Africa have established themselves as new vibrant varieties of English alongside the main European and American brands (Crystal 1995; Atechi 2009; Schneider 2009; Melchers and Shaw 2011). Their recognition as full-fledged varieties of English underscores two major facts. First, by acknowledging their existence as specific varieties, the outrageous pressure exerted on languages in contact situations is confirmed. Secondly, and this is the point raised in this book, it also emphasizes the remarkable language discrepancies between a theoretical norm (which is usually taught in schools) and the daily practice of language in non-native settings. Actually,

> The emergence of these non-native Englishes, and the uneasy relationship which exists between them and Standard English, especially in the classroom, is a major feature of the contemporary World English scene. (Crystal 1995, 359).

New Englishes: An overview

Although "…very little academic research is yet available on the nature of local variation in English structure and use" in the 'outer circle' and 'expanding circle' (358), the descriptions of new Englishes in a few dozen countries have highlighted specific sociolinguistic features, a growing phonology, syntax, lexis, and pragmatics. This is to be put to the credit of such academic journals as *English World-Wide*, *World Englishes*, and *English Today*.

As a general fact, the spread of English is a result of the colonial enterprise. Whatever type of colony is considered (trade, settlement, or exploitation) the language has usually developed through a predictable scheme. This development has led to a commonly accepted social distribution in outer/expanding-circle nations, where they seem to have preferred domains in society, so that New Englishes will be reserved for the work place and other official and administrative circles, and local languages will be used at home and for peer group interaction (Jikong and Koenig 1983). This is due to the fact that they "are not as well developed in some registers as others" (Melchers and Shaw 2011, 138). Non-native societies face an internal variation in proficiency as far as English is concerned. This variation is twofold: first in terms of degree of local features found in English, and then in terms of accuracy. In addition, countries of the outer circle react to their encounter with English in different ways. This development has been captured in the dynamic model developed by Schneider (2003, 2007, & 2009). This model is an abstraction of the various stages outer-circle countries go through in their happenstance with English; it is "a description of prototypical stages and their properties" (285). According to the author, "New Englishes have emerged by undergoing a fundamentally uniform process which can be described as a progression of five characteristic stages: foundation, exonormative stabilisation, nativisation, endonormative stabilisation, and differentiation" (284). Simply put, in a colonial setting, language issues are very dynamic. In this dynamic model, the foundation stage marks the diffusion of the language of the colonial master in the settlement. Here, the language establishes itself as a lingua franca, mainly for such purposes as trade, administration and religion. In Phase Two (exonormative stabilisation), the language, given the stabilisation of the setting as a colony (with many more new settlers coming in), gains in prestige with "the external… norm of reference" being "tacitly accepted as the linguistic standard" (286). Nativisation begins if, after some time, the relationship between the colony and the mother country gets distant, especially due to struggles for independence. At this stage, there is some sort of vacillation as two ideologies are opposed: the continuing validity of the external norm and acceptability of an internal one. After effective political independence, endonormative stabilisation usually occurs, as the local norm is viewed as the symbol of that separation from the mother country. Therefore, localised forms are not only accepted, but they are nurtured as a symbol of effective independence. This sociolinguistics is of utmost importance in the overall understanding of language teaching in non-native settings. In fact, knowing the stage of a specific New English, for example, can be

decisive in determining how to envisage its teaching. This, we assume, can work for other languages within similar conditions.

From a phonological perspective, vowel restructuring, monophthongisation of diphthongs, consonant deletion, consonant restructuring and stress placement have been ascertained as major characteristics of New Englishes (Atechi 2009). In fact, they have developed a very specific vowel system that simplifies the complex Standard British English system. Vowel sounds are reduced to around 20 to 24 phonemes, while marked Standard British English sounds are usually simplified (Melchers and Shaw 2011). According to Schmied (1991), English vowels in African Englishes display the following characteristics:

- The levelling down of length differences in vowels, which are not used to differentiate meaning;
- The avoidance of the central vowels, which tend to be replaced by half-open or open vowels. /ɜ/ and /ʌ/ are replaced by /ɛ/ and /ɔ/;

On the other hand, diphthongs tend to be monophthongised, so that /əʊ/ and /eɪ/ are rendered as /o/ and /e/, for example. English consonants are usually simialar to other consonants, with the exception of the interdental fricatives /ð/ and /ɵ/. They are usually replaced by /d/ and /t/ respectively in West African Englishes, and by /z/ and /s/ in East African Englishes (Spencer 1971), yet without a significant phonemic meaning. Deviations towards the labiodentals /v/ and /f/ were even reported in Schmied (1991). Consonant deletion is another major characteristic feature of African and Asian Englishes, where final /t/, /d/ and /k/ are deleted in words like *past*, *almost*, *band*, *desk*, *thousand*, etc. Most non-native Englishes share the feature of being a little less stress-timed (Melchers and Shaw 2011, 139-140). Some of these stress patterns in Cameroon English have been described by Simo Bobda and Mbangwana (1993) and Simo Bobda (1994). From a phonotactic point of view, liaison and assimilation have been found to be absent in most non-native Englishes. The cause of all these phonological and phonotactic differences can be found in the fact that "many speakers will have learnt English first at school, where the written language may be emphasised, so avoidance of reduction may also be due to pronouncing words as they are spelt" (Melchers and Shaw 2011, 140). Similar problems have been observed with French in Africa (Manessy 1979; Mendo Ze 1992; Fosso 1999; Zang Zang 1999; Wamba and Noumssi 2003; Nzesse 2008; Onguene Essono 2012). Apart from the dispute between the advocates of a 'pure' language, and those of a nativised form, these works have emphasised the foreign language

problems in former colonies. They have featured, among other things, the fact that French is strongly influenced by local languages, in a similar process of nativisation as posited in the dynamic model. Ndzotom Mbakop, Emalieu Kanko, and Tida (2018) on the other hand, shows that the difficulty faced by learners of French as a foreign language in Cameroon are not only intralingual, but are due to exposure to incorrect input. In that vein, it is argued that language problems in non-native settings cannot be blamed solely on the influence of indigenous languages. This has been observed with New Englishes as well (Schmied 1991; Simo Bobda 1997; Agbor Tabe 2009). This is pedagogically significant in that it can provide new directions for the teaching of English, especially at elementary levels in non-native settings, where educational infrastructure are not conducive to the teaching and testing of foreign languages, and where textbooks are usually unable to provide an appropriate teaching to enhance proficiency in the target language.

Question tags display major charateristics of the syntax of these Englishes, where "features which are typical of inner-circle English but not of other languages" tend to be eliminated. The overwhelming occurrence of non-canonical tags in Asian Englishes strongly buttresses this view (Wong 2007; Takahashi 2014). Similar variations have been found in African Englishes too (Schneider 2009). Some of these variations are described in Ndzotom Mbakop, Tchummo Kamga, and Fida (the present volume). Cameroon English, like other New Englishes, exhibits many syntactic features, including modifications of verb complementation (Mbangwana 2004). The lexical productivity of New Englishes from local sources has been reported in several works. Words like *cry day* (wake funeral rites), *fufu corn* (corn flour), *mimbo haus* (bar), and *njangi* (traditional banking system), *wahala* (trouble), *achu* (edible pasta), *mbanya* (co-wife), *fon* (chief) have been reported in Cameroon English. Other phraseologisms include *move with* (go out with), *be in state* (pregnant), and *give kola* (give a bribe) (298). In Kenya, words like pedestrate (walk), mitumba cars (second hand car), and panya routes (unofficial routes) have been reported by Skandera (2003). Similar lexical innovations have been observed in other African countries such as Nigeria and Tanzania. As a general fact, New Englishes are charaterised by the simplification of the number system whereby singularia tantum are pluralised (some softwares/some staffs), and prepositions are deleted in phrasal verbs (to fill a form). Pragmatically, these Englishes are very peculiar, although much more work should be necessary for totally conclusive decisions on the issue to be made.

The second/foreign language classroom

The specificity of language education – the setting this volume investigates – makes it very intriguing and contributes to the fascination it has always created in researchers. The multiplicity of language learning/teaching theories and methods accounts for the fascination language teaching has always inspired. The foreign language classroom in non-native settings is plagued with a variety of constraints, including learners' motivation, teachers' abilities, and infrastructure suitability (teaching material and classrooms settings). In addition language education had suffered a purely theoretical prejudice from second language acquisition in the first place. In fact, while most language teaching/learning theories developed in the late 1950s within the field of applied linguistics were relevant for language teaching and learning, they were not necessarily potent in language education. In fact, studies show, these theories "sought to explain second/foreign language learning, not language education" (Kramsch 2008, 2). Yet, most methodologies, if not all, used at universities and other secondary and high schools are inspired by second language acquisition research, Kramsch (2008) says. In most cases, educational policies in language education do not or cannot cater for linguistic and cultural differences among the learners, and are sometimes poorly planned and implemented by educational stakeholders. This is the case in Cameroon (Chiatoh 2013; Agbor Tabe 2016, 2019), and is potentially the case in most non-native settings, especially where the level of socioeconomic development and the mastery of approaches do not enable the appropriate implementation of some strategies.

Language teaching in non-native settings, and especially that which takes place in a language education environment (as opposed to a strict language teaching/learning one), is pummelled with the exigencies of the school system where the child is most often a captive learner (Courtillon 2003). In a language education setting, the learner is not only a *language learner*, as in language learning centres, where the learner goes for the sole purpose of learning a specific language. Besides, placement tests are carried out to ensure the levelling of abilities among the learners, and the learner usually has a conscious purpose for learning. In addition to the foreign language subject, the pupil in a language education setting is loaded with other school subjects, which s/he nurtures differently depending on his/her personal objectives in terms of job opportunities or other objectives s/he may have set. In many countries where real-life use of the other language is very much hypothetical, the language learner does not usually feel motivated to learn. This prejudice has been argued by

Takam (2003) and Kouega (2003, 2007) to be to the detriment of English in Cameroon. This prejudice has been shown to be both political and social. Politically, Takam says, English, despite the apparent good will displayed by state officials, remains a second-class language. On the other hand – and this supports Takam's point – Kouega believes that given the privileged status French enjoys in the country, Anglophone Cameroonians are more prone to learning French than their Francophone counterparts are keen on going for English. As a result of this 'disguised' monolingualism, learners of English as a foreign language are less motivated. Similar situations may occur in most non-native settings, and with other foreign languages, given that most of such countries are multilingual, with a few being of the A-Modal type.

One major problem in the foreign language class is related to the discrepancy between language 'norms' – whatever model has been established – and real-life situations. Actually, as posited by the dynamic model, outer-circle settings are at different stages in the development of their rapport with English. However, there is a general penchant towards an internationally accepted form of the language, especially in African countries where the nativisation of English and French is faced with the reluctance of language 'purists'.

In fact, teaching materials, and especially the textbook, propose a model language that totally differs from the demand of the client populations for many reasons. First, in most settings, the language is hardly used outside specific settings. In that respect, several works have shown the limited use of English, even in so-called Anglophone settings where Pidgin-English reigns supreme. English in those settings is usually reserved for very formal interactions such as the classroom, the office, and other administrative purposes (Jikong and Koenig 1983). Even in religion, with the exception of some few urban settings, Pidgin-English is the main language (Kouega and Emaleu 2013). In such situations, the elaboration of the textbook is made even more difficult, since the book writer is faced with the difficult decision between an 'international' textbook that prepares the learner for the world, and a 'local' one that prepares him/her for local purposes.

Can the classroom deliver?

The central question in this volume "can the classroom deliver?" cannot be given a straightforward answer. In fact, its contributors have attempted from different perspectives investigations into the extent to which the classroom can lead to competence in the foreign language. From whatever

angle the question is addressed, one major observation emerges: the non-native classroom is generally doomed for failure. The causes of this are manifold. First, the textbook is usually not adapted to the setting. This perspective taken by Turhan & Kırkgöz (the present volume) with a focus on Turkey reveals that this commodity usually lacks in terms of pragmatic and discourse knowledge. In fact, and this is taken up in the next chapter, the absence of intercultural awareness limits the ability of the learner to locate him/herself in relation to other users of the language, and especially native users. Actually, Ndzotom Mbakop, Tchummo Kamga, and Fida (the present volume) observe that when learners' attention is called on intercultural awareness, they develop conscious learning strategies, and therefore perform better in the foreign language class. These authors peruse this through the use of French grammatical accents by English-speaking Cameroonians. Although Burcu Turhan & Yasemin Kırkgöz examine the issue in preparatory classes into the university, while Ndzotom Mbakop, Tchummo Kamga, & Fida scrutinise secondary schools, the two works yield a common factor, namely the inappropriateness of foreign language practices, and their effects on language use by non-native users. In the third chapter, Sharif Alghazo discusses the teaching of English phonology by three leading Jordanian lecturers. Despite their mastery of English and their undisputed leadership in their field of expertise, these lecturers were found to mainly use traditional methods in teaching English phonology, confirming 20 years old findings which had already revealed that language excerpts used in phonology classes were generally confined to sounds and words; they were always taken out of context; and the study of suprasegmentals focused on word stress, with little attention given to rhythm and intonation. This expectedly leads to poor communicative abilities in the learners, the author hints. The difficulties learners face at university level is addressed by Agbor Tabe (the present volume) in two Cameroonian state universities. The author shows that most students enrolled in the Department of Bilingual Studies find it hard to grapple with the other official language (the two official languages in Cameroon are French and English). This is due to a number of factors, including the learners' poor background, the lecturers' teaching style, and the learning environment, which is usually void of English in the case of most French-speaking learners. This requires strong measures by all stakeholders of the teaching fabric, especially teachers, learners, and school authorities. However, her contribution intimates the fact that the teaching of both French and English as foreign languages at lower levels is mostly unsuccessful. In fact, if learners admitted to read Bilingual Letters cannot cope with their other official language (French or English as a

foreign language), then the teaching of those languages might not have been appropriate in turning foreign language learners into effective language users. The last chapter by Dagasso & Faissam demonstrates the phonological lapses Cameroonians display in their use of English, focusing on a Fulfulde-speaking community in Maroua. The analysis tackles specific segments of English to unveil the influence of the complexity of the phonological features of this Francophone/Fulfuldephone type of English. Interestingly, the authors hypothesize the role of teachers' input in the dilution of the learners' language, underlining the somehow negative impact of the classroom in the acquisition of that foreign language.

Can the classroom deliver? One can be of either view, but it should be noted that political choices may definitely determine success in the foreign language class. The textbook designer, the teacher, and the setting should all cooperate to construct the competent foreign language user.

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Chapter 1
Turkey

Effectiveness of textbooks in promoting communication through English in non-native settings

Burcu Turhan & Yasemin Kirkgöz

Abstract

Textbooks are commodities, political objects and cultural representations; hence, they are the result of divergences and consensus in order to specify how and by whom they are produced, how and to whom they are distributed, how and by whom their contents are chosen and how teachers and students make use of them (Shannon 2010). With regard to this, the current study aimed at revealing EFL (English as a foreign language) instructors' perspectives on the extent to which English textbooks are effective in fostering communicating skills of university students through English, particularly in non-native settings. The primary objective was to uncover in what ways English textbooks meet the communication needs of university students through English in a non-native setting like Turkey. Additionally, insufficient aspects of English textbooks were investigated from the perspectives of the Turkish EFL instructors. In this sense, an open-ended questionnaire and semi-structured interviews were administered to a group of EFL instructors working in different Turkish universities. The whole qualitative data were analyzed using the Interactive Model proposed by Miles and Huberman (1984). The findings indicate that English textbooks utilised in preparatory classes in Turkish universities do not meet the required standard to turn students into effective communicators in English, and should therefore be revised, paying special attention to pragmatic and discourse knowledge.

Keywords: English, communication, non-native settings, textbook, Turkish EFL instructors

A textbook can be compared to a teacher, a map, a resource, a trainer, and an authority (Cortazzi and Jin 1999). It is like a teacher because it presents grammar, vocabulary, and culture of English-speaking countries. It is a map because its role is to guide teachers and students to go through the linguistic steps. It can also be a resource because it consists of various materials and activities that can be appropriate for classroom use. Moreover, for novice teachers, it is a trainer which provides support and guidance in terms of designing their instruction. Last, it can be accepted as an authority written by experts and approved by ministries of education.

A textbook, as an instructional material, may be regarded as one of the most important components of English classes as it serves as a framework or a guide for both teachers and students on the way of achieving objectives of the courses. In fact, teachers are able to specify learning goals, students' needs and interests in their own context; however, they possibly need a map to provide them with a sensible route in the teaching process. In other words, textbooks can be an inspiring material, which offer insightful ideas to design courses for teachers. Yet, textbooks can restrict teachers' creativity in terms of adapting lessons according to the local needs and requirements if they follow their textbooks in a rigid way.

For students, textbooks can be a source for self-study because they can carry textbooks with them all the time. This is important to educate autonomous students who are able to guide and direct the learning process on their own. The main reason for this is that students in an English class may not be at the same level of proficiency. Besides, their beliefs, interests or needs may vary to a great extent. At this point, it can be claimed that textbooks do not lead each student to the same learning route; rather, students have the flexibility to use textbooks based on their own learning purposes, even outside the classroom. Specifically, level-based tasks and activities in textbooks are helpful for students at different levels. Moreover, textbooks present the culture of the target language as well as general linguistic knowledge. Thus, students have an opportunity to equip themselves with English speaking countries' culture. Needless to say the role of teachers is important if cultural values of students are not in consistency with cultural ingredients of textbooks. In such a situation, it is necessary for the teacher to overcome this discrepancy by re-designing activities accordingly.

Regarding the roles of textbooks, English as a foreign language (EFL) textbooks intend to equip learners with necessary linguistic knowledge, language skills, and knowledge about English speaking countries as well as information on how to interact with foreign people from different cultural backgrounds. Further, textbooks incorporate current and past

approaches in relation to language teaching. To exemplify, they are designed in the light of such concepts as "learner development, task-based methodology, cross-curricular themes and a framework for grammatical and lexical structures" (Hutchinson and Gault 2009, 4). Additionally, in Cunningsworth's (1995) view, a textbook has so many roles such as a source for interaction, self-study, presenting material, a syllabus or a support for inexperienced teachers, and so forth. Yet, he claims that no textbook will absolutely be appropriate to any teaching/learning environment; therefore, there is a need for teachers to make necessary adaptations in the textbook. This indicates that one should not struggle to find the most perfect textbook for one's own teaching context. Instead, it is important to be able to choose the best textbook that has the potential to meet students' needs. In Graves' (2000, 175) view, "what one teacher considers an advantage in a textbook, another teacher may consider as a disadvantage". For this reason, it cannot be asserted that a textbook should be evaluated or used in exactly the same way by all teachers or students since textbooks may fit in a specific teaching context with a specific group of students whereas they may not fit into another teaching situation with another group of students (Richards and Rodgers 2007).

Concerning advantages and disadvantages, some scholars (e.g. Cortazzi and Jin 1999; Cunningsworth 1995; Hutchinson and Torres 1994) are of the opinion that textbooks are necessary components of EFL classrooms for both teachers and students in a number of ways. For instance, with the help of textbooks, students can learn about subject content, improve linguistic skills, and become familiar with the culture of the target language. In addition, for teachers, textbooks can function as a framework for the teaching programmes or as a support for using new methodologies. On the contrary, other scholars (e.g. Allwright 1981; Porreca 1984; Cathcart 1989; Clarke and Clarke 1990) reckon that authentic texts are absent from textbooks and full of biases towards people from other cultures; thus, they are not suitable for classroom usage. Besides, there is another argument stating that textbooks are solely a teaching framework and need to be utilised based on students' needs, levels, and interests (e.g. Alptekin 1993; Graves 2000; O'Neill 1982; Prodromou 1988).

Again for disadvantages, Clarke and Clarke (1990) propose that textbooks are socially and culturally biased since there are obvious examples of sexism, stereotypes and gender bias, under-representation of female characters, and stereotypes about occupations, relationships, actions and roles in society. However, we cannot separate language and culture from teaching/learning environment. On this issue, Alptekin (1993) accepts target culture to be a means for teaching language via textbooks,

suggesting that culture should be integrated into language teaching. If this is not the case, learners might feel lacking sufficient knowledge about how to communicate in a culture that they know very little. Considering that most textbook writers are natives, they naturally incorporate clues on attitudes, beliefs, norms and values of their own culture. Likewise, Allwright (1981) claims that textbooks are too rigid and they represent the pedagogic, psychological and linguistic biases of their authors. In this regard, teachers should be cautious about critically evaluating textbooks from an intercultural perspective so that students could objectively evaluate linguistic and cultural messages transmitted through textbooks.

The focal point of the study, which is the enhancement of communication skills through textbooks, can be accepted as spoken communication activities such as discussions, debates, role plays, dialogues, simulations, information gap, brainstorming, storytelling, interviews, story completion, reporting, picture narrating, picture describing, finding-the-difference activity, memory games, audio-visual aids, songs, proverbs, limericks, and tongue twisters (Harmer 2001; Luoma 2004). All these communication-oriented activities can be used to improve spoken communication skills in non-native settings. In addition to those activities, segmental, prosodic, and connected speech features of English as well as formulaic language, which are largely neglected in non-native EFL settings, can be integrated (Arslan 2013). Specifically for teaching pronunciation, attention should be paid to segmental features such as consonant and vowel sounds, consonant clusters, or the study of phonemes (Morley 1991). However, instead of focusing only on pronunciation ability in segmental features of English, there is a need to focus on the development of abilities that are useful beyond the classroom. These include functional intelligibility, communicability, increased self-confidence, the development of speech monitoring abilities, and speech modification strategies (Jenkins 2004). Besides, Brown (2001, 270-271) suggests that such factors as "clustering, redundancy, reduced forms, performance variables, colloquial language, rate of delivery, stress, rhythm, and intonation" all make speaking difficult and we should put more emphasis upon those factors in language programmes. Luoma (2004) also defines a standard for learner pronunciation in order to achieve "communicative effectiveness" based upon "comprehensibility", which shows that there has been increasing value given to prosodic features of spoken language because prosodic errors negatively influence comprehensibility (Jenkins 2002; Munro and Derwing 2006; Seferoğlu 2005). To clarify, prosodic features are those features that operate at a sentence, discourse, or language level (Fromkin 1991; Morley Rodman and Hyams 2007). In addition to prosodic features,

language learners need to practise "connected speech" including assimilation, deletion or elision, adding or linking, weakening (including contractions) and stress patterning (Harmer 2001). Further, according to Harmer (2001, 269), another dimension of spoken communication skills is composed of "lexis and grammar". Using common lexical phrases such as agreeing, disagreeing expressing surprise, shock, or approval as well as knowledge of negotiation language used to seek clarification and to show the structure of what is said (Brown 2001). In sum, it can be proposed that acquisition of all these features leads to fluent speech or to effective communication.

It should not be assumed that textbooks are end-products; rather, they are the starting point for designing the learning route because teachers and learners look back and forth on the topics which they have covered in the textbook (O'Neill 1982). According to Harmer (2001, 8), the crucial point is that "textbooks are only proposals for action; they are not instructions for use". That is to say, teachers should consider the proposals included in textbooks critically and decide whether they are acceptable for them or not. Another rationale behind the fact that textbooks should be critically examined in certain aspects is that, as Richards (2001) proposes, textbooks are deliberately written for classroom use; for this reason, they may not reflect the language used in real life. This shows that textbooks may lack the cultural or pragmatic elements which are necessary to present language in meaningful ways.

There are a number of Turkish studies on textbooks utilised in language classes. One of them, Arıkan (2008), states that course books can be beneficial in that teachers do not lose their ways. For students, textbooks are not only a linguistic resource but also a resource book containing information about the Western world. In another study, Arıkan (2009) revealed that future teachers of English found the way of using textbooks by practising teachers boring. As understood, Arıkan's studies show that textbooks offer benefits for both teachers and students although future language teachers' perceptions on textbook use oppose the way of practising teachers' use of textbooks. Only with regard to the textbook itself, Aydın (2012) found that pre-service teachers mostly have positive attitudes towards the presentation of skills except for speaking skills. Specifically, they believe that speaking skills are ignored in pronunciation activities. Similarly, Kayapınar (2009) examined teachers' views on English course book packages at different levels used in English preparatory classes in 25 high schools. The study revealed that teachers generally did not find those course book packages satisfactory. In addition, findings supported that a course book should be adapted to the needs of the learners within the

curriculum. Another study of teacher and student perception of textbooks revealed that teachers have more negative attitudes towards the textbook they used when compared to students (Özeş 2012). Accordingly, it can be inferred that opinions of teachers and students towards the same textbook can differ. For this reason, course books need to be evaluated periodically so as to deal with perceived inadequacies. This kind of textbook evaluation can take the form of either "predictive or retrospective evaluation" (Ellis 1997, 36).

As a result, positive perceptions of the use of textbooks are vital in that the quality of teaching and learning increases and learning outcomes become fruitful in the long run. We should not forget that it is teachers' responsibility to facilitate the learning environment by making logical use of their textbooks because teachers play an indispensable role in promoting and increasing opportunities for effective learning. Teachers should do this with an informed decision. This means that they should take shortcomings of their textbooks into account before they start to use the chosen textbooks in their classes.

Inspired from the above discussion, the present study revolves around the assumption that current textbooks used in Turkish universities may not be sufficient to promote communication through English in non-native settings. In parallel with this, the following research questions are formulated:

1. How do Turkish EFL instructors conceptualise textbooks?
2. For what purposes do Turkish EFL instructors use textbooks?
3. What do Turkish EFL instructors think about communication needs of students in non-native settings?
4. To what extent do Turkish EFL instructors think that textbooks are effective in promoting communication through English in non-native settings with a specific reference to oral skills, discourse skills and pragmatic skills?
5. What do Turkish EFL instructors think in relation to any insufficient aspects of textbooks? If there is any, which supplementary materials do they resort to?

Method

Research Design

The study was designed as a cross-sectional study in which a qualitative stance was adopted. That is to say "an open-ended questionnaire and semi-

structured interviews were conducted with a group of individuals at more or less the same point in time" (Bryman 2012, 62). The rationale is that the researchers had the chance to scrutinize the issue from the perspective of a great deal of different participants at a single point in time. Besides, the choice of a qualitative approach was to achieve a deeper understanding of the phenomena at hand. For this reason, open-ended questionnaire and interview questions were arranged so that no detail would go unnoticed.

Participants

Participants were EFL instructors working in preparation schools of universities in different parts of Turkey. In total, there were 42 Turkish native speaker instructors from 36 different institutions. The aforementioned preparation schools serve for the preparation of university students who need a specific level of English to study at their departments, most of which offer English-medium courses. Students at those schools are generally involved in an English-proficiency test and the ones who cannot obtain a satisfactory score are required to complete a one-year language programme so that they could study in their departments in the following academic year.

The participants came from different universities located in different regions of Turkey. This ensured maximum variation of the sample. Thus, the scope could be claimed to be extensive because primary data were obtained from diverse EFL contexts. In terms of gender, there were 26 female respondents (62% of the population), and 16 male respondents (38%). Their age ranged between 25 and 59, with the age average being 35. With regard to the number of years of experience in preparation schools, there was a participant who had only one year of experience whereas the most experienced participant had 26 years of experience. The average experience was found to be 10.5 years. A total of 42 participants were asked to fill in the written questionnaires via e-mail. Afterwards, telephone interviews were carried out with all the participants.

Data Collection Tools

To collect data, the researchers designed an open-ended questionnaire and an interview (see Appendix A and B). The open-ended questionnaire checked such issues as participants' gender, age and year of experience as well as some general questions on textbooks including how instructors conceptualise a textbook or how they make use of their textbooks for various purposes. The interview included some specific questions on the

effectiveness of textbooks in communication through English in non-native settings in terms of oral, pragmatic and discourse skills. Other interview questions investigated differences between communication needs in native and non-native settings as well as sufficient and insufficient aspects of textbooks in promoting communication through English in non-native settings. To ensure the clarity and understandability of questions formulated, expert opinion was obtained and a pilot test was implemented. Following this, wording and content of questions were modified.

Measures

The whole interview data were analysed using the interactive model proposed by Miles and Huberman (1984, 21-22). As clarified by Miles and Huberman (1984, 23), this type of data analysis is divided into four stages: data collection, data reduction, data presentation, and drawing conclusion and verification. This kind of qualitative data analysis model allowed us to analyse the data simultaneously with the data collection process. Thus, the data collection and analysis were conducted concurrently so that the first findings directed the content of the upcoming findings. Questionnaires were analysed without transcriptions as they were collected through written reports via e-mails. However, before dealing with the interview analyses, each interview was transcribed verbatim and filed separately. Participants were assigned different codes such as "Participant 1, 2, 3, 4…" in order to compare the data systematically. This was followed by the procedures summarized in the paragraph below.

Based on the four-stage analysis of the interactive model, in the data collection stage, the data obtained were recorded into descriptive and reflective sections. The former required the researcher only to take record of what was obtained without any interpretation. The latter included the recording of impressions, opinions or interpretation of the researcher on findings. Afterwards, in the data reduction stage, the focus was on classifying the relevant data leading to answering research questions. The data were systematically simplified and summarized, and important points were reduced and explained. In the data presentation stage, the data were reported in the form of writings, tables and figures with an aim to organise and combine the whole data. To draw conclusions, first a tentative conclusion was obtained after sufficient data were collected; then, a final conclusion was drawn after the whole usable data were complete. Moreover, in this stage, the researchers defined themes, patterns, equations, relationships, hypotheses and so on. Lastly, conclusions were

clarified and verified. To ensure trustworthiness, two raters were involved in the analysis process for the sake of inter-rater reliability. The first rater analysed the data based on the interactive model and this was followed by a collaborative analysis process in which the second rater checked the analysis and the two raters arrived at a consensus on unclear themes or categories together.

Results

In tandem with research questions, results were presented in five sub-headings appertaining to how participants conceptualise textbooks, for what purposes they use textbooks, their views on the communication needs of students in non-native settings, what they think about the effectiveness of textbooks in relation to communication skills in non-native settings, and what insufficient aspect textbooks display, along with supplementary materials utilised by instructors.

Conceptualisations of textbook

The first aim of the study was to reveal what the concept "textbook" meant to participants. The various concepts that emerged from questionnaires are illustrated in Figure 1.

As summarized in Figure 1, the concept "guide" was found to be the most frequent one (42%) among the other concepts. To clarify, participants stated that textbooks were a guide to teach grammar, to determine the flow of lessons or they were the main guide for the teachers. Likewise, there were some participants indicating that textbooks were also a guide for students. Excerpts below exemplify these conceptualizations:

> It is a guide to lead classroom interaction ... (P10)

> It's the main guide for a language teacher to follow for his/her classes. (P18)

> ... It reminds me of a tool which guides the teacher and reduces the stress to prepare lesson plans and extra materials… (P23)