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# EXPLORING COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING IN A GRADE 9 NATIONWIDE TEXTBOOK: NEW BRIDGE TO SUCCESS

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BY

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THE PROGRAM OF CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION
İHSAN DOĞRAMACI BILKENT UNIVERSITY
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# EXPLORING COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING IN A GRADE 9 NATIONWIDE TEXTBOOK: NEW BRIDGE TO SUCCESS

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IN A GRADE 9 NATIONWIDE TEXTBOOK:
NEW BRIDGE TO SUCCESS

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July, 2015

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ABSTRACT

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IN A GRADE 9 NATIONWIDE TEXTBOOK:
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July 2015

Communicative language teaching (CLT) has been widely influential in English language teaching for the last two decades. Therefore, many materials including textbooks have been designed considered the principles of communicative language teaching, and have been analysed to see how, or if, they are compatible with communicative language teaching. In the context of Turkey, several high school textbooks have been designed, and have undergone such analysis but there is no prior example of a study investigating the content of *New Bridge to Success* (NBS) in detail with respect to CLT. This study aims to explore the extent to which *New Bridge to Success* Elementary for Anatolian High Schools is in keeping with the principles of CLT. To this end, the study used content analysis to examine the tasks given in each section of the textbook, and to identify the sub-skills the textbook intends to focus on.

Key words: Communicative language teaching, teaching English, textbook evaluation

# ÖZET

## 9. SINIF *NEW BRIDGE TO SUCCESS* ULUSAL İNGİLİZCE DERS KİTABINDAKİ İLETİŞİMSEL DİL ÖĞRETİMİ YAKLAŞIMLARININ İNCELENMESİ

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İletişimsel dil öğretimi son yıllarda İngilizce dil öğretiminde oldukça etkili olmuştur. Bu konuda ders kitaplarını da içinde bulunduran birçok materyal iletişimsel dil öğretimi ilkelerine uygun olarak tasarlanmıştır ve iletişimsel dil öğretimi ile nasıl uyumlu olduğunu veya uyumlu olup olmadığını görmek için analiz edilmiştir. Türkiye bağlamında birkaç lise ders kitabı tasarlanmıştır ve bu açıdan incelenmiştir fakat iletişimsel dil öğretimi açısından New Bridge to Success kitabının içeriğinin detaylı bir çalışma örneği bulunmamaktadır. Bu çalışma Anadolu Liseleri için hazırlanan New Bridge to Success adlı ders kitabının hangi ölçüde iletişimsel dil öğretimi yaklaşımının ilkeleriyle uyum içinde olduğunu incelemeyi amaçlar. Ders kitabının her bölümünde verilen görevleri incelemek ve ders kitabının odaklanmayı hedeflediği alt becerileri belirlemek amacıyla bu çalışma içerik analizi yöntemini kullanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: İletişimci dil öğretimi, İngilizce öğretimi, ders kitabı değerlendirmesi

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# CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

## Introduction

This chapter aims to provide an overview of the study by exploring the background of the use of textbooks in classrooms as well as current approaches to teaching English as a second language. After introducing the problem, the purpose and the research questions are proposed. Finally, the significance of the study is established.

## Background

The technological and economic developments in our rapidly globalizing world have raised the importance of the English language for communication considerably. Therefore, knowledge of English has become a highly prestigious qualification in many settings, with English being taught as a foreign language in many countries. Such widespread teaching of English has resulted in the availability and use of a variety of instructional materials including paper-based resources, textbooks, electronic resources, computer programs, multimedia, videos, movies, songs, and pictures. While the main goal for using these resources is to enable interactivity in both learning and teaching and all of these materials contribute to teaching and learning, it would be fair to say that textbooks still hold a primary role. From the teachers' point of view, the textbook constitutes a reference point used systematically, and from the students' perspective, it sets the context for instruction (Ur, 2007).

Textbooks have evolved drastically over time through exposure to various

approaches. Only two decades ago, the main approach to developing textbook content involved mainly the structural, direct transfer of grammar rules with activities consisting of unidirectional drills, and the orientation was mainly situational. After the 1970s, student-centred approaches became more popular; and more recently, the content basis of textbooks has evolved into developing skills and nurturing communication, with Communicative Language Teaching eventually taking over earlier approaches (Richards & Rodgers, 2005).

Although some teachers find textbooks boring, stifling and less than useful as sources for classroom teaching, others have a more positive attitude (Harmer, 2007a). So what are the reasons for textbook use? According to Harmer (2007a), English textbooks include a syllabus for grammar, appropriate vocabulary, practice, pronunciation focus and writing exercises. Therefore, teachers mainly use textbooks to take advantage of quality materials with a detailed syllabus. Textbooks that are well-prepared also considerably shorten the time teachers need to prepare lessons when compared to the time required to plan lessons and prepare new materials. Further, many textbooks typically assist teachers through a teacher's guide for procedures and the implementation of new ideas (Harmer, 2007a). From the learners' point of view; textbooks provide a grammatical and functional framework that assumes the common needs of learners, as well as enabling them to study topics in advance (Hedge, 2008), or revise past topics and consequently keep track of their own progress. On the downside, using a textbook can mean being too limited to only one material and its approach (Harmer, 2007a). In other words, textbooks may end up taking over teaching and learning instead of being used as a guide. While this causes some teachers to choose to prepare their own materials and avoid textbooks,

Harmer (2007a) argues that such teachers can succeed only if they are experienced and have enough time to prepare a systematic and relevant lesson independently. In a study conducted by Hedge (2008), a group of teachers were asked for their comments on the potential and limitations of textbooks, and one of them made the following comment:

> We have a dynamic head who is keen on in-service training and we have been working on Friday afternoons to develop some film-related materials. I have learnt a lot about two things in particular: one was how to motivate pupils by challenging them to think and the other was how difficult it is to write clear instructions. (p. 37)

This comment points out that teachers may have difficulty preparing instructions and implies that well-prepared textbooks may help teachers regarding instructions. However, the use of textbooks remains a controversial issue, with some studies showing that textbooks are useful guidelines for both teachers and students, while others demonstrate the danger of being restricted to a particular textbook, and the lack of practice teachers end up with in terms of preparing materials and instructions. For this reason, teachers could revise the most appropriate textbook for their classes, and then add some new activities and/or ideas to it in order to neutralize the negative effects of textbooks.

The task of selecting suitable textbooks is aided by a commonly used international framework called the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR). The CEFR provides a detailed recipe for leading instructors and curriculum developers to nurture cognitive development and enhance language skills in accordance with the vastly accepted theories of language teaching (Thornbury, 2006a). This reference framework is widely used in different countries for various languages as well, and is naturally taken into consideration during the development

and selection of textbooks. In Turkey, a report was released in 2011 by the Board of Education, which abides by the propositions and limitations of CEFR (TTKB, 2011). The English textbooks published by Turkey's Ministry of National Education (MONE) are intended to be based upon the same framework.

## Problem

The Turkish Ministry of National Education resolved to reform the English language teaching related policies in 1997 under a project called 'The Ministry of Education Development Project' initiated with the aim of fostering ELT in educational institutions (Kırkgöz, 2007a). The project has been an important step in replacing traditional methods with student-centred approaches. Kırkgöz (2005) stated that for the first time in the history of ELT in Turkey, the concept of the communicative approach was recognized in the curriculum. The goal of the policy was to develop learners' communicative skills, and the curriculum was designed for the use of the target language in classroom (Kırkgöz, 2007a). This new policy seems to have affected the role of the teacher in classroom, encouraging teachers to create student-centred atmosphere in the classroom and be expected to help students explore the language. However, the new policy on its own does not guarantee that all of the requirements of the communicative approach are met. Still, teachers and curriculum developers should make a great effort to ensure the requirements over time.

The Board of Education in Turkey designed a new curriculum for grades four to eight, and the curriculum developers revised the high-school curriculum in the beginning of the 2000s. They redesigned the provision of English language instruction, and decided to start from the second grade as recently as two years ago.

Subsequently, high-school curriculum was revised once again.

The Economic Policy Research Foundation of Turkey (TEPAV), a non-profit foundation that aims to establish research and projects contributing to the economic and political improvement of Turkey, has prepared a report entitled "Turkey National Needs Assessment of State School English Language Teaching", which seeks to identify the reasons underlying the low level of success in English language teaching and learning. Special attention should be paid to the following crucial findings that affect teachers and students (TEPAV, 2014):

1. With respect to teachers observed, even though their level of English and teaching training skills are satisfactory for teaching English, English is not used in lessons as a communication tool; instead, grammar-focused instruction is widely observed in classes. Therefore, extensive practice of grammar could be one of the factors resulting in the failure of students to speak English well after graduating from high school.
2. The second important factor is the lack of opportunities to communicate and use English independently in all classes observed. The classroom practice is based on teacher-centred communication including the teacher being the one asking questions of the students and the testing of grammar.
3. Seating arrangements do not ensure communication in pair or group work in most of the classes observed.
4. Another significant factor is that the current textbooks and curricula do not meet the requirements of the varying skill levels and student profiles. In other words, there is a discrepancy between the needs of students and the content of the

textbooks.

5. The inspectors act as another important factor contributing to the failure to learn English since they are non-English speakers, and therefore they seem to be incapable of aiding teachers with advice and support in language teaching. Instead, they compel teachers to complete each and every exercise given in the textbooks even when their relevance and utility are not suitable for the needs of students.
6. Considering the in-class observations and teacher surveys, as one delves further into the system, students are not able to improve their level of English due to the repetitions in the curricula in each school year and the teachers' dependency on the curriculum. This surprisingly leads students to assume that their level of English is regressing, instead of progressing over time.

According to the English Proficiency Index (EPI), Turkey has been placed 47$^{th}$ out of 63 countries on the ranking (2014). This figure shows that there is a need to analyse the reasons behind why Turkey ranks so low and has failed to improve and reach higher standards. Considering the second language learning and teaching context, the current state of English language teaching in Turkey does not match with the nature of new effective teaching methods and approaches.

As mentioned above, teachers are one of the main sources of the lack of success in language teaching, which can be directly tied to the textbooks used in English classes in Turkey between grades two and twelve. According to the TEPAV report, textbooks lack "content-based and functional objectives to give students a range of authentic and student-centred opportunities and reasons to communicate" and

therefore, discourage “flexibility to show teachers how to meet differing abilities of students” (2014, p.19). Consequently, it is important to put forth an action plan focusing on textbooks as learning materials.

Based on the findings of TEPAV report (2014), the Ministry of Education noticed the need to design a new curriculum and took the necessary actions in 2014 to improve the English curriculum for high school students. In general, the previous curriculum in 2011 aimed to mainly utilize the communicative approach by enabling students to practise the four skills with a student-centred approach. Although the 2011 curriculum was prepared based on a clearly student-focused approach, in 2014 it was stated that effective communicative competence has been missing in English classrooms in Turkey (MEB, 2011 & MEB, 2014). This has led the developers of the new curriculum to attempt to deal with this problem “by addressing the language functions and four skills in an integrated way, and focusing on how and why rather than merely on what” (MEB, 2014, p.IX ). Therefore, the designers adopted an eclectic approach to focus on the four main elements of communicative competence, which are grammar competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence (MEB, 2014). It is noted that among the four skills, listening and speaking have been prioritized with an extra emphasis on pronunciation in the new curriculum. Another significant step taken has been to increase learner autonomy, which can also foster motivation (MEB, 2014). Taking learners’ ages and interests into consideration, the designers conducted a survey to determine what learners’ preferences are in terms of themes for learning English. The themes were in fact modified in the updated curriculum to increase student engagement. The materials designers revised the textbooks and supplementary books according to the

principles of the new curriculum. Finally, the new curriculum intends to achieve "one of the most important goals of English language teaching: guiding our students to become productive, autonomous, and innovative individuals who are effective communicators of English in the global world" (MEB, 2014, p. XX).

According to Thornbury (2006b), communicative language teaching has resulted in a new understanding of grammar learning, highlighting 'discovery based learning' and communicative skills (p.23). However, his following statement points out that syllabi prepared in the 1970s seem to have underestimated grammar but favoured functions; still, a closer look at these syllabi reveals that grammar was presented explicitly. Moreover, he adds that so-called communicative textbooks also involve form-based explanations (Thornbury, 2006b). His study defines the problem as the lack of adoption of communicative approach principles despite the claims of textbook authors to fulfil the requirements.

A study was conducted with 50 teachers who teach English to young learners in Adana, Turkey (Kırkgöz, 2007b). A survey was used to explore the extent to which the national curriculum facilitates young learners' acquisition of English as well as teachers' attitudes towards new methods in the curriculum. The findings showed that although the Ministry of National Education promoted communicative language teaching, teachers did not seem to adopt the approaches into their practices, and the traditional method did not disappear completely in classroom practices (Kırkgöz, 2007b). This study showed that in Turkey, the focus is still on grammar and students practice with grammar exercises instead of using language for communication purposes. Furthermore, although students may have the competency to understand

the structure of language, they may face problems in communication.

The present study focuses on the *New Bridge to Success* (NBS) series, the textbook designed for high school students in Turkey. This textbook was the authorized book for English lessons in all high schools until 2013. However, here, the focus will be on one of the versions of the book used in a type of Turkish public school called Anatolian High Schools. Students in these types of high schools have 4-5 hours of English classes a week, while this decreases to 2-3 hours in other types of high school such as *Tourism Vocational High Schools*, *Industrial Vocational High Schools*, and *Electrical Vocational High Schools*. The version used in Anatolian High Schools has been chosen due to the importance placed on English at these schools. Teachers at Anatolian schools spend more time completing the textbook when compared to other schools (MEB, 2011).

The primary goal of the *New Bridge to Success* series as indicated in its introduction is to enable students to communicate with foreign language speakers in daily life situations. The book also offers meaningful activities to allow students to discover grammar functions (New Bridge to Success, 2007).

The textbook examined for the present study, *New Bridge to Success*, has previously been used for various analyses by Çakıt (2006) and Aytuğ (2007). The former used it to identify student and teacher attitudes towards the textbook and the latter used it to collect suggestions towards the ideal type of ELT textbook for high school students. In Çakıt's study, the goal was to assess the effectiveness of NBS from the perspectives of teachers and students (2006). The researcher found that "the textbook

was not very effective in terms of selection and organisation of content" (Çakıt, 2006, p.102). Furthermore, she concluded that teachers found the sequence of tasks and activities disorganised and unclear; similarly, students were not able to recognize the arrangement and the difficulty level of the materials. Also, students and teachers were found to be negative about the content of the book in general (Çakıt, 2006). Aytuğ (2007), on the other hand, attempted to understand English language teachers' perceptions for a model textbook for high school students in Turkey. To this end, English language teachers evaluated NBS' existing features. Aytuğ found that the majority of the research participants thought that a communicative approach integrated with a content-based approach was the most suitable model for high school students (2007).

Although the NBS textbook was widely used, there is very limited research on its approach to teaching receptive and productive skills, grammar, vocabulary, and the integration of skills within the framework of communicative approach to teaching. Although there are now new textbooks based on the revised English curriculum established by the Board of Education, it is important to mark the shape of the manifestations of the intended curriculum for providing platform for comparison.

## Purpose

The purpose of this study is to analyse one of the Anatolian high school textbook series, the *New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9, with a view to ascertaining the extent to which what the textbook intends to do is on a par with contemporary means for teaching language skills, vocabulary and grammar. To this end, first, the researcher analysed the stages and sub-skills targeted for teaching listening, reading, writing,

speaking, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary, and then discussed the outcomes within the framework of communicative language teaching.

## Research questions

This study intends to address the following main and sub-questions:

1. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop listening as a receptive skill within the context of communicative language teaching?

2. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop reading as a receptive skill within the context of communicative language teaching?

3. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop writing as a productive skill within the context of communicative language teaching?

4. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop speaking as a productive skill within the context of communicative language teaching?

5. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop pronunciation within the context of communicative language teaching?

6. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop grammar within the context of communicative language teaching?

7. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop vocabulary within the context of communicative language teaching?

8. How does *the New Bridge to Success* (NBS) for Grade 9 intend to develop integrated skills within the context of communicative language teaching?

## Significance

This study portrays the approach to teaching English in one of the *New Bridge to Success* textbook series through content analysis. The outcomes are then used to discuss the extent to which the textbook in question promotes the communicative use of language. The findings of the study may reveal to what extent the communicative approach is promoted in the Grade 9 NBS. In light of these findings, curriculum developers may take into consideration the outcomes of this study when they design textbooks to enhance communicative approach. The study also hopes to establish a rationale for examining a textbook with an eye to enhancing communication, including terms required for teaching the four skills, grammar, and vocabulary. Teachers may also use the findings of the research to plan their lessons by looking at the frequencies of pre-, while, and post stage tasks as reported herein. Additionally, researchers may benefit from the methods used in this thesis to analyse other ELT textbooks. Finally, this thesis could be a stepping stone for further research on the historical development of textbook series prepared by the Board of Education in Turkey.

## List of abbreviations

CLT: Communicative language teaching

EFL: English as a foreign language

ELT: English language teaching

MONE: Turkey's Ministry of National Education

NBS: New Bridge to Success (for Grade 9, Elementary). The compulsory textbook published by Ministry of Education used in grade 9 English lessons in Turkey.

## Definition of key terms

Productive skills: speaking and writing, because learners doing these need to produce language. They are also known as active skills.

Receptive skills: listening and reading, because learners do not need to produce language to do these, they receive and understand it. These skills are sometimes known as passive skills.

# CHAPTER 2: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

## Introduction

This chapter presents relevant literature beginning with the approaches to teaching receptive skills (listening and reading), and productive skills (speaking and writing) in EFL classrooms. Then it explores approaches to teaching grammar and vocabulary in detail, after which it mentions the history of teaching grammar. Finally, it examines the inclusion of communicative language teaching.

## Approaches to teaching listening

In this section, teaching-based approaches and components within the context of communicative language teaching are presented, as they pertain to the teaching of listening.

Morley (2001, p.71) outlines four models of listening and language instruction, each reflecting "underlying belief about language learning theory and pedagogy" during different periods:

- Model 1: Listening and repeating
- Model 2: Listening and answering comprehension questions
- Model 3: Task listening
- Model 4: Interactive listening

(pp. 71-71)

The main goals included in the *listening and repeating* model are pattern matching listening and imitating and memorizing. Imitating and repeating helps the student to get the pronunciation right through pre-set patterns and dialogues in conversation.

The *goal of the listening and answering comprehension questions* model is the comprehension of information provided in the listening tasks focusing on audial texts, but it does not include a full communicative purpose as it is based on question-answers.

The *task listening* model enables students to transfer the information given into actions such as taking notes, talking about the text and so on. The students are engaged in discourse through language and language analysis tasks. The *language tasks* help students to extract meaning for further production, and language analysis tasks raise metacognitive awareness for personal growth.

The *interactive listening* model brings students up to the level of effective speaking and academic skills where critical thinking emerges. The instruction focuses on building communicative-competence through active roles in interactional discussions individually and in groups where students can sharpen their linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competences (Morley, 2001).

Listening comprehension instruction involves three main features (Morley, 2001):

1. Information processing: bidirectional communication, or unidirectional communication, and/or autodirectional communication.
2. Linguistic functions: Interactional and transactional language functions.
3. Dimensions of cognitive processing: top-down and bottom-up processes

To Morley (2001, p.72), there are "three specific communicative modes: bidirectional, unidirectional, and auto-directional. The *bidirectional listening mode*

includes a listener and a speaker; the *unidirectional listening mode* does not allow the speaker to respond to what has been heard but there is instruction and practice; and in the *autodirectional listening mode,* one retrieves a previous speech or creates language internally in a self-directed way as in planning strategies and making plans.

Nunan (2007) states that listening is practised in language classrooms through two significant models, known as the bottom-up and top-down models, since the 1980s . The bottom-up model suggests that one decodes the smallest parts of a listening text in order to get the whole picture. In this sense, there is assumed to be a linear fashion for listeners to derive the overall meaning at the end of the process (Nunan, 2007). In Van Duzer's (1997) words, "Bottom-up processing refers to deriving the meaning of the message based on the incoming language data, from sounds, to words, to grammatical relationships, to meaning; stress, rhythm, and intonation also play a role in bottom-up processing" (p. 4). It can be concluded that the bottom-up model emphasizes the need for linguistic knowledge, and pronunciation features to derive meaning.

Clark and Clark (1977) provide a list that summarizes the bottom-up model (p.49):

> 1. [Listeners] take in raw speech and hold a phonological representation of it in working memory.
> 2. They immediately attempt to organize the phonological representation into constituents, identifying their content and function.
> 3. They identify each constituent and then construct underlying propositions, building continually onto a hierarchical representation of propositions.
> 4. Once they have identified the propositions for a constituent, they retain them in working memory and at some point purge memory of the phonological representation. In doing this, they forget the exact wording and retain the meaning.

A list of listening skills that promotes the bottom-up model is presented below (Richards, 2008, p. 6):

- Identify the referents of pronouns in an utterance
- Recognize the time reference of an utterance
- Distinguish between positive and negative statements
- Recognize the order in which words occurred in an utterance
- Identify sequence markers
- Identify key words that occurred in a spoken text
- Identify which modal verbs occurred in a spoken text

The top-down model, however, suggests a meaning-focused process while listening (Nation & Newton, 2009). It is associated with the use of scheme, personal background and context to understand the message without attending to the language items (Field, 2003). For this reason, it could be prioritized in fluency based activities.

Richards (2008) also provides a list of listening skills that can be used in the top-down model (p.9):

- Use key words to construct the schema of a discourse
- Infer the setting for a text
- Infer the role of the participants and their goals
- Infer causes or effects
- Infer unstated details of a situation
- Anticipate questions related to the topic or situation

Brown (2001) reveals that even though the top-down model is fundamental to communicative skills, both models need to be incorporated for the learner's automaticity in interpreting speech. Peterson (2001) also implies that the integration of top-down and bottom-up processes makes listeners proficient by offering a variety of different skills at different levels.

Harmer (2007a) makes a list of prominent principles that facilitate both models (pp.135-136):

1. Encourage students to listen as often and as much as possible.
2. Help students prepare to listen.
3. Once may not be enough.
4. Encourage students to respond to the content of a listening, not just to the language.
5. Different listening stages demand different listening tasks.
6. Good teachers exploit listening texts to the full.

Following from these principles, it is best to use a combination of bottom-up and top-down models in a listening lesson. Field (1998) also mentions that current teaching listening approaches use the three stages -pre-listening, while-listening, and post listening- to combine bottom-up and top-down listening. The pre-listening stage is a preparation stage and includes activating the mental schema, predicting the content, and providing a purpose for listening. The listening stage is the time for processing the listening input for a pre-set task. The last stage, post-listening, emphasizes the combination of listening with different language skills (Van Duzer, 1997).

A useful chart was developed by Richards (as cited in Morley, 2001, p.74) enabling teachers to cross-check a listening sub-skill considering the two prominent models, or processes (top-down and bottom-up), and types of two language functions (interactional and transactional) in teaching listening (Brown & Yule, 1983, as cited in Morley, 2001)

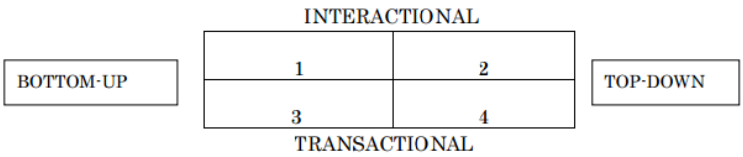



Figure 1. Richard's functions/processes chart

The *Interactional* language function suggests the skills that focus on interactive tasks in social contexts where learners maintain social graces and skills in conversations

such as greetings, short dialogs, jokes and so on, while the *transactional* language function represents processing new information and skills in order to receive the correct message in tasks such as giving directions, making an order, describing etc. Below there is a list of examples for each cell on the chart (Richards, as cited in Morley, 1990, p.75):

> In the bottom-up mode:
> Cell 1: Listening closely to a joke (interactional) in order to know when to laugh.
> Cell 3: Listening closely to instructions (transactional) during a first driving lesson.
>
> In the top-down mode:
> Cell 2: Listening casually to cocktail party talk (interactional).
> Cell 4: Experienced air traveller listening casually to verbal air safety instructions (transactional) which have been heard many times before.

Using this chart, teachers can adopt both of the facets of teaching listening in a balanced way. Morley (2001) agrees that a well-thought out combination of these approaches and functions aids teachers with effective teaching of listening skills.

Additionally, to Morley (2001), there are three principles that need to be kept in mind while creating or evaluating the usefulness of listening materials and while doing listening instruction: “relevance”, “transferability”, and “task orientation”. Relevance refers to how the input and outcome of the listening lessons being engaging for students; it follows from this that the nature of materials, and uses of language, should be related with students’ real lives, and provide an incentive for them to improve their skills. Relevance is crucial for setting a purpose before listening, and fostering student motivation for listening by selecting interesting materials (Van Duzer, 1997). Transferability means encouraging learners to use their learning experiences of listening in out-of-school circumstances or in a different

learning environment. Lastly, task orientation links two elements: “language use tasks” and “language analysis activities” (Morley, 2001, pp.77-78).

Brumfit and Johnson also discuss task-focused teaching, which means that tasks are used to transmit meaning, where learners are required to complete the task (1979). In order to accomplish these tasks, Aponte-de Hanna (2012) suggests a strategy based approach, which guides students in the listening process, can be useful in that it will foster learner autonomy and listening comprehension in listening classes.

In keeping with the principles above, communicative outcomes have utmost importance while developing listening skills and tasks (Morley, 2001, p.78):

1. Listening and performing actions.
2. Listening and performing operations.
3. Listening and solving problems.
4. Listening and transcribing.
5. Listening and summarising information
6. Interactive listening and negotiating of meaning through questioning/answering routines.

Most of the approaches to teaching listening have several common problems:
One of these problems is the simplification of the language used. Thornbury (2006a) states that while the difficulty level of most listening texts is decreased with the intention of establishing a simplified language use in classroom, this may obstruct the process of deriving information while listening in a social context since this simplification may lead to the exclusion of plain language, redundant expressions, non-lexical utterances, and pauses. The second problem follows from this: the nature of fluent speaking may also be affected by the simplified language use in classroom. Third, audio recordings, while very common in language teaching environments, do not sufficiently reflect real life. Learners are simply exposed to audio recordings that

lack visuals as well as the interaction one would typically have with an interlocutor (Thornbury, 2006a).

The idea that listening, as a receptive skill, is not as important as productive skills has recently been replaced by a clear emphasis on the development of listening comprehension. In fact, effective approaches to teaching listening are seen to play a key role in satisfactory language comprehension (Richards & Renandya, 2007).

## Approaches to teaching reading

Farstrup and Samuels (2001) note that "The field of reading instruction is ever changing as new understandings and approaches are revealed through research" (p.1). Therefore, it seems important to discuss the teaching of reading in terms of theory and practice in more detail in this section.

Richards and Renandya (2007) highlights the impact of reading on the process of second language learning as follows:

> Extensive exposure to linguistically comprehensible written texts can enhance the process of language acquisition. Good reading texts also provide opportunities to introduce new topics, to stimulate discussion, and to study language (e.g., vocabulary, grammar, and idioms)" (p.273).

There are numerous principles that can be followed for teaching reading. First, Nation (2009) suggests the following four principles: "meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development" (p. 6). Second, Harmer (2007a) suggests the six reading principles.

*Meaning-focused input* aims to facilitate learning through receptive skills: reading and listening. Therefore, it includes the activities focusing on comprehension and decoding meaning with different purposes for reading such as reading to look for information, reading for pleasure, and reading for transferring information. Also, this principle is applicable under some conditions which require learners to be familiar with the topic, to be interested in the input, to have the knowledge of 95-98% of the vocabulary in the relevant material, to be able to guess the meaning of unknown words using the context and background knowledge. This principle, finally, works best when learners are provided with substantial quantities of input. Accordingly, it requires the materials used in class to be designed such that it goes from low level to high level (Nation, 2007). Overall, reading instruction can be designed considering the benefits of meaning-focused input for effective learning of language.

Following this, meaning-focused output refers to utilizing productive skills to enhance learning. To this end, this principle is typically combined with the use of other skills: reading and listening. To put it differently, meaning-focused input can make a great contribution to forming meaning-focused output. The conditions stated for meaning-focused input are also valid for meaning-focused output (Nation, 2007). In that case, reading may serve for triggering creating language output meaningfully. *Language-focused output* or language-focused learning involves the practice of the language features intentionally. This principle has to do with learning the sound system, promoting knowledge of spelling, and developing vocabulary and grammar knowledge. It states that reading strategies during intensive reading should also be used such as getting an overview of the content, giving a purpose, activating background, guessing words using the context, evaluating the text should be both

practised and integrated to train learners. Therefore, a range of reading sub-skills may be used to focus on both meaning and form during reading. Lastly, a range of different materials for reading should be exploited in class (Nation, 2009). However, it is assumed that this principle is only a part of learning process, and aids the balance of the four principles stated by Nation (2007).

The *fluency development* principle refers to high-speed reading with good comprehension and decoding of language units. In this principle, the most common activities involve speed reading, skimming and scanning, reading for many times and so on. Comparatively the normal speed, learners are usually encouraged to perform these activities at a higher speed for the development of fluency (Nation, 2007). Here, Grabe and Stoller (2002, p.17) provide a list of important processes together to clarify the term fluency reading and how learners can be made more fluent in terms of reading comprehension: "a rapid process, an effective process, an interactive process, a strategic process, a flexible process, an evaluating process, a purposeful process, a comprehending process, a learning process, and a linguistic process". All of these processes are necessarily a part of a flowing reading program and aid to the development of fluency.

The balanced inclusion of the four principles is needed to ensure proficiency in language; therefore, allocating equal time for the principles is a matter of utmost importance (Nation, 2007).

Similar to the principles below, Harmer (2007a) offers the following six reading principles which are in common with the previous ones in terms of the large

quantities of input and being engaging with learners. As can be seen below (Harmer, 2007a, p.101):

1. Encourage students to read as often and as much as possible.
2. Students need to be engaged with what they are reading.
3. Encourage students to respond to the content of a text, not just concentrate on its construction.
4. Prediction is a major factor in reading.
5. Match the tasks to the topic when using intensive reading texts.
6. Good teachers exploit reading texts to the full.

Based on the need for large amount of input through reading instruction, research on teaching reading emphasizes the importance of content-based instruction for the development of reading (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). The content-based reading approach states that reading needs to feature five goals: “background knowledge”; “experiential learning”; “vocabulary”; “comprehension”, and lastly “study and appreciation” (Lee, 2010, p. 2).

Also, bottom-up and top-down models are two important processes in current reading methodology (Brown, 2001). Brown (2001) states that bottom-up model involves the recognition of linguistic signals, those being: “Letters, morphemes, syllables, words, phrases, grammatical cues, and discourse markers”, and the need for processing language items actively (p.299). As far as the development of reading comprehension is concerned, Brown (2001) states a number of skills used in the bottom-up model (p.307):

- Discriminate among the distinctive graphemes and orthographic patterns of English.
- Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short term memory.
- Recognize grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), systems, (e.g., tense, agreement, pluralisation), patterns, rules and elliptical forms.

In top-down model, however, learners utilize their background knowledge and

experience to comprehend a text (Brown, 2001). Below is a list of reading skills that aids in the top-down model (Brown, 2001, p.307):

- Infer context that is not explicit by using background.
- Infer links and connections, between events, ideas, etc., deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization and exemplification.
- Detect culturally specific references and interpret them in a context of the appropriate cultural schemata.
- Develop and use a battery of reading strategies such as scanning, skimming, detecting, discourse markers, guessing the meaning of words from context, and activating schemata for the interpretation of texts.

As an alternative, Brown (2001) supports the idea that "interactive reading", which implies the blend of bottom-up and top-down models, should be adopted for a successful reading approach (p.299). According to Nuttall (1996), "[i]n practice, a reader continually shifts from one focus to another, now adopting a top-down approach to predict probable meaning, then moving to the bottom-up approach to check whether that is really what the writer says" (p.17).

Interactive models of reading have a pivotal role in different studies since this view combines the necessary lower- or higher-level processes from both the bottom-up and top-down views, and aims to contribute to different aspects of reading comprehension such as word recognition, skimming a text for the main idea and so on (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Including the up-to-date key points for reading comprehension, four models of reading are identified as follows: "the psycholinguistic game model", "the interactive compensatory model", "word recognition models", and "the simple view of reading model" (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p.34). The first model refers to using only simple interpretations and surface level content, which implies a top-down view on reading. The second model is based on a more need-based approach in which learners decide on which strategy or

process to combine depending on the situation. Next, the word recognition models involve both the bottom-up model and a connectionist approach in which the focus is on how learners perceive and process the text. The last model, the simple view of reading model, essentially requires two significant abilities in reading comprehension: the recognition of word units and the ability to understand the input (Grabe & Stoller, 2002).

Shin (2013) asserts that “natural language” or “whole language” approaches not only enhance the learner’s motivation for reading, but also emphasize the affective learning which asserts that emotions have a positive impact on learning; thereby, learners tend to learn more easily and quickly when reading texts that feature novelty, humour, or intriguing topics, and these texts are often self-selected with limited formal instruction (p. 160). Research shows that the whole language approach incorporates all language skills to encourage “writing personal texts”, “recounting stories”, and attempts to benefit from reading activities in various areas (Ediger, 2001, p.159).

Supporting the natural or whole language approaches, extensive reading, often for pleasure, could also be added to the types of reading. In terms of recent studies focusing on more learner-centred reading approaches; a recent study shows that extensive reading aids in language acquisition and development of reading skill, building a platform where learners can focus on meaning and content in a text, instead of linguistic information and forms (Shin, 2013).

To aid the instruction of reading, the stages referred to as pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading are generally used during teaching. Though formulating a purpose

for reading is missing, the most common pre-reading sub-skills include (Grabe & Stoller, 2001):

1. Making predictions about the content, titles etc.
2. Skimming to identify the gist
3. Generating or answering questions about the text
4. Focusing on essential vocabulary in context
5. Considering and evaluating the previous texts to draw on background knowledge

While-reading is basically the processing of the text for the following sub-skills (Grabe & Stoller, 2001):

1. Restating the key information from different parts of a text
2. Interpreting the attitudes and relationships of main characters
3. Deciding on the text complexity
4. Answering comprehension questions
5. Stating predictions about the following sections

Post-reading usually involves sub-skills that verify the understanding of learners and incorporate the text knowledge into other skills namely writing, listening, and speaking. Some typical post-reading sub-skills/tasks can be listed as follows (Grabe & Stoller, 2001):

1. Transferring the text information to a graphic or chart
2. Exploring and revising vocabulary (ex. Semantic mapping activity)
3. Listening to a similar topic in order to compare the content
4. Finding and ranking key information from the text
5. Evaluating the text critically, or relating the text to learners' mind-set and experiences

The principles, models, and approaches in this section should be interpreted and used while addressing the needs of learners in reading comprehension.

## Approaches to teaching speaking and pronunciation

### Speaking

An increasingly common view in communicative language teaching is that teaching speaking needs to have a prominent place in language classrooms to increase communicative competence (Lazaraton, 2001). Speaking is seen as an important aspect of proper performance in a target language. Thus, recent curricula and materials integrate speaking as often as possible with other skills. Harmer (2007a, p. 123) explains that students should be equipped with speaking skills through the following:

- Rehearsal opportunities – students imitate real life by speaking in a safe classroom environment
- Feedback opportunities – students gain professional feedback on problems with specific language use
- Activation opportunities – students activate elements of language in their mind which helps the brain to make faster connections.

These stages aim to prepare students to become autonomous speakers. Students should be exposed to "real life speech" through authentic materials which engage them in speaking and foster communication (Hughes, 2011). The speaking activities facilitating the aforementioned opportunities can be devised through a three-phased speaking lesson framework:

Pre-speaking: students are prepared for the actual speaking activity via exposure to visual materials (e.g. picture, video) and are asked to do some activities (e.g. gap filling) in order to raise language awareness (Tzotszou, 2012). Crookes (1989) has conducted a study on communicative tasks on intermediate level Japanese second language learners in two groups to test the communicative effect of pre-tasks. His results showed that despite little change in accuracy-oriented language performance,

students who were provided with pre-tasks were found to be more organized and fluent in the activities. This underlines that pre-tasks contribute greatly to speaking performance.

While-speaking: as the body phase, this could involve a range of activities from simple dialogues to communicative and realistic ones which gradually advance. This stage enables students to adopt real life spontaneous speaking. It is at this stage that working on a previously provided dialog or one generated as part of the awareness raising activities that students become more competent in speaking (Ellis, 1994; Willis & Willis, 1996; Torky, 2006).

Post-speaking: further activities such as matching or writing are carried out to validate the comprehension, and via the integration of skills, transfer of knowledge is fostered. At this phase, students are given feedback on the whole speaking lesson, raising their awareness of the aspects of speaking and evaluated, which enables them to self-evaluate their speech later.

Among the three phases, the literature mainly emphasizes pre-speaking as it is crucial for students to get into the context. In his study Saricoban (2005, p. 52) identifies the most frequently pre-speaking activities used by English preparatory school teachers at universities as follows:

a. Introducing the topic and arousing interest (giving the title and leading a discussion),
b. Teacher's questioning the students to access students' knowledge about and familiarity with the topic,
c. Focusing on the new vocabulary that will be necessary to understand a speech,
d. Providing students with extra material (a reading text or a listening task) about the topic.

Apart from pre-, while-, and post- stages discussed above, Florez (1999) notes five steps of speaking instruction in class (p.3);

> **Preparation**- establishing a context for the speaking task and initiating awareness of the speaking skills such as asking for clarification.
> **Presentation**- providing learners with a pre-production model that furthers learner comprehension and helps them become more attentive observers of language use.
> **Practice**- involving learners in reproducing the targeted structure, usually in a controlled or highly supported manner.
> **Evaluation**- directing attention to the skill being examined and asking learners to monitor and assess their own progress.
> **Extension**- using the strategy or skill in a different context or authentic communicative situation, or integrating use of the new skill or strategy with previously acquired ones.

This model slightly differs from the others reviewed here in terms of the presentation and evaluation steps.

*Accuracy vs. fluency*

CLT prioritizes communicative language use and consequently rejects exclusive focus on grammar in classrooms. Although there should be a balance between accuracy and fluency (Lazaraton, 2001), meaning is afforded much more attention than form.

According to Richards, "Fluency is natural language use occurring when a speaker engages in meaningful interaction and maintains comprehensible and on-going communication despite limitations in his or her communicative competence" (2006, p.14). The distinction between accuracy, where the focus is on generating correct use of language, and fluency, where language is used naturally focusing on meaning (Hedge, 1993) can be seen more clearly in the list below (Richards, 2006, p. 14):

Activities focusing on fluency

- Reflect natural use of language
- Focus on achieving communication
- Require meaningful use of language
- Require the use of communication strategies
- Produce language that may not be predictable
- Seek to link language use to context

Activities focusing on accuracy

- Reflect classroom use of language
- Focus on the formation of correct examples of language
- Practice language out of context
- Practice small samples of language
- Do not require meaningful communication
- Control choice of language

The required balance between accuracy and fluency based activities is explained by Brown (2004) such that drills should be short and basic leading to more communicative and authentic activities. In other words, accuracy should set the grounds for better fluency.

**Pronunciation**

In teaching pronunciation, there are two main elements: segmental and suprasegmental. The term segmental implies individual sounds such as consonants and vowels, while suprasegmental represents a comparatively macro-feature involving stress, rhythm, and intonation. It is essential to establish both for communicative situations, keeping in mind their contributions to communication, grammar, and pronunciation (Goodwin, 2001).

A recent study on teaching pronunciation presents some notable strategies for teaching pronunciation as (Schaetzel & Low, 2009): encouraging correct pronunciation, teaching features of speech for the sake of interactions, raising

awareness of patterns of sounds or teaching rules for arranging these patterns through exercises focusing on word stress and intonation, and meeting communication difficulties and improving communicative competence with the development of pronunciation.

In addition to this, Goodwin (2001) states five stages for teaching pronunciation within a communicative framework as follows: “description and analysis”, “listening discrimination”, “controlled practice”, “guided practice”, “communicative practice” (p.124):

To begin with, description and analysis involve the presentation of how and when a feature arises. The teacher can utilize a particular chart to show vowels, consonants, or articulators. The second stage, listening discrimination, enhances the discrimination of sounds in pairs, and rising or falling intonation. In the third stage, learners truly focus on form. Goodwin (2001) provides examples of some activities such as the choral reading of poems, rhymes and dialogues. This type of guided practice shifts the emphasis on form onto meaning-focused activities, grammar, communication, and pronunciation. The final stage, communicative practice, involves activities that balance form and meaning. Goodwin (2001), once again, presents various examples of activities, such as “role-plays, debates, interviews, stimulations and drama scenes” for communicative practice (p.125).

The current research shows that teaching and learning pronunciation paves the way for developing communicative competence and encourages learners to speak (Schaetzel & Low, 2009). Therefore, within the framework of communication, it is

important to allocate time for teaching pronunciation in class.

## Approaches to teaching writing

### Process, product, genre

Process, product, and genre approaches go hand in hand in teaching writing. While process and product usually dominate the teaching of writing, the genre approach is considered as an important approach complementary to process and product oriented writing. This is especially because the four stages of the writing process -planning, drafting, editing, and final draft- are also influenced by the content, genre and the channels of communication such as pen and paper, internet or face-to-face (Harmer, 2004).

1) The **planning** stage calls for learners to focus on three elements:
- Purpose, which determines text type, the words and style, sentence structures; it is extremely important in communicative language teaching to provide the purpose for students in order to generate the context.
- Audience, which attains the language and tone of writing; according to whom students are addressing. Writing (whether formal or informal) is structured with a specific choice of language in a specific style as in choice of paragraph number, relative grammar, and punctuation.
- Content structure, which is in relation to purpose and audience, and deals with how students decide on the sequence of ideas, and facts or the arguments.

2) The **drafting** stage is the first time a text is written, for this piece of writing will be edited later. It is advisable to write several drafts before the final version.
3) The **editing** stage is one where the writer reflects on their draft considering the content as well as language accuracy in each paragraph. Teacher feedback or another reader's ideas for revisions to the draft are also efficient ways of editing.
4) The **final version** is achieved after all the stages above have been fulfilled; it may appear to be a new draft, but it is generally a well-developed version of the first draft.

The writing process necessarily operates in a recursive system rather than a linear one as re-plan, re-draft, and re-edit processes are required (Harmer, 2004). This

move backwards or forward enables writers to observe their learning process and take remedial actions according to their needs.

In terms of the three approaches to teaching writing: Process writing is a learner-centred teaching approach in which learners have the opportunity to discover and work on their weak areas (Kroll, 2001). In terms of the product writing approach; the product has been the main focus of writing performance since 1960s (Kroll, 2001). Learners go through only one composing process. The primary goal of the product approach is to promote the correct use of language rules, not to address an audience or master on the content. The written product is usually checked to correct the language errors.

While applying these three approaches to teaching writing, various strategies for pre-writing stage should be practiced overtly. In response to this need, Reid (1995) proposes four strategies that can be used in pre-writing stage:

1. Brainstorming: Learners collate information about the subject given before starting writing with the whole class or individually.
2. Listing: Learners focus on one aspect of the topic and lists all the ideas at hand.
3. Clustering: it is a more systematic way of writing down all associations about the topic using a specific pattern to show the connection between them.
4. Free-writing: Learners usually have difficulty in starting writing, at this point; this stage usually helps them perform writing. In general, teacher provides a prompt to students and sets three to eight minutes for writing.

Learners are free to decide on which stage is the most suitable to begin with and which helps them most for composing an appropriate text (Reid, 1995).

Swales (1990) defines genre as follows: “a class of communicative events the members of which share some set of communicative purposes” (1990, p.58).

Despite having many similarities to the product approach, in the genre approach, purpose is the main concern; it is maintained that the social context in which the writing is produced changes the nature of it. Genre is influenced by such features of context as follows (Hedge, 1988, p. 15; Martin 1993, p. 23):

- subject matter
- the relationship between the write and the audience
- the pattern of organisation, channel or model

Therefore, in writing activities, the purpose should include the implications for the above. Teachers should provide sufficient information on the situation and identify the purpose and the social context as clearly as possible.

As Dudley- Evans (1997, p. 154) suggests, there are three steps for genre approach in writing:

1. The presentation and analysis of a specific genre model
2. Exercises of the relevant language structures
3. The production of the text

Throughout these steps, learners should be guided towards the efficient use of a particular language considering the audience and the situation through writing a letter, research article, report and so forth (Badger & White, 2000).

**Modelled writing**

For students to learn how to compose and write in various genres, it is important to be familiar with a range of examples produced by a proficient writer. Thus, the examples provided in the textbook are crucial to provide examples in the classroom. The modelled writing process occurs in an interactional way in which the teacher

shares his/her thinking process as the writing of the process follows the order given below (Regie, 2000; Dorn, French, & Jones, 1998):

- Planning
- Questioning
- Drafting
- Editing
- Revising
- Publishing

The students should be supplied with information and the strategies so that they can make decisions autonomously while creating their own text. Lastly, this approach creates an independent production of writing in connection to other skills, particularly reading.

**Product approaches: Controlled, guided and free writing**

*Controlled writing activities*

In controlled writing, the students produce a few simple sentences making use of the given prompts, pictures and tables. This stage is completely controlled by the teacher, and the aim is to teach the mechanics of writing accurately, and prepare students for further writing activities. Examples of controlled writing are handwriting, copying, dictation, and spelling (Badger & White, 2000).

*Guided writing activities*

Despite widespread belief in avoiding mechanical practice during writing, guided activities help learners to acquire complex language features and to practise other language areas. It is vital to note that the list of writing activities below are suggested as a part of pre-writing and editing stages in communicative writing tasks (Frodesen, 2001, p.240):

1. Text conversion
2. Revision and editing focused exercises
3. Sentence combining
4. Guided paraphrase
5. Text elicitation
6. Dictation
7. Text completion

Guided writing is based on guidance on vocabulary and the structures to be used in the writing task. The students are provided with key words and expressions as well as ideas and constructions, sometimes through a model to be rewritten and sometimes by providing new words and topics to be written freer (Badger & White, 2000).

*Free writing activities*

Free writing, on the other hand, should allow students to feel like they are creating their own product (Pincas, 1982). In free writing, students are able to genuinely create for example a letter, story or an essay without limitations. After going through controlled and guided writing activities students are assumed to be ready for free writing (Badger & White, 2000).

*Independent writing*

This approach facilitates individual writing practice for students, through personal opportunities to apply any techniques acquired and strategies. There should be writing activities everyday which is monitored by the teacher and the student himself. The purposes of independent writing are (Regie, 2000; Dorn, French, & Jones, 1998):

- Building fluency
- Establishing writing habits
- Making connections
- Exploring meaning
- Promoting critical thinking
- Discovering the pleasure of ‘relevant writing’ daily.

When designing writing practice in classes, it is important to include various types of writing tasks in the instructional sequence. Olshtain (2001) provides detailed explanations of different types of writing tasks that may be involved:

*Practical writing tasks*

It has been the major aim of practical writing to provide students with a variety of writing tasks that integrate spelling rules and word formation based on meaning. Deciding on content, learners can deal with “things to do” lists to practise base forms of verbs, “things completed” lists to use past form of the verbs, “fill in the forms”, designing invitation letters, greetings and writing short notes (Olshtain, 2001).

*Emotive writing tasks*

These include students’ personal writing such as journals, diaries, and letters where they can describe their personal experiences. These tasks help students to master knowledge of punctuation, spelling a format as well as using proper expressions and phrases relevantly (Olshtain, 2001).

*School oriented writing tasks*

Students spend most of their time at school, in class writing assignments as well as summaries, answering questions or writing essay-type passages help them to practise

writing and get instant feedback. The teacher corrects linguistic and format related mistakes and helps students to develop content and organisation in their writing. From a communicative perspective, writing dialog journals facilitate one-to-one interaction between teachers and students regardless of level and context. Dialogs generated for student-to-student or student-to-teacher interactions foster a comfortable classroom speaking atmosphere, and the step-by step the nature of communication advances. This helps students to experience a gradual and natural exposure to language use (Olshtain, 2001).

## Approaches to teaching grammar

### Historical background of grammar instruction

The history of language pedagogy shows that various practices and methods have influenced educators and the experiences contributing to the development of approaches to language teaching over time. In the early nineteenth century, language teaching differed greatly from the currently favoured communicative approaches in schools. Grammar was taught by introducing sets of rules in the target language; students practiced their knowledge with written exercises; the first language was the medium of instruction; and translated lists of vocabulary were used while reading texts (Lowe, 2003). This methodology is known as the Grammar Translation Method.

In this method, the main focus was on reading and writing skills. Translation into mother tongue was, therefore, seen as highly important. Listening and speaking were not regarded nearly as important as the other skills. Furthermore, as Corder (1973) suggests, the Grammar Translation Method was the most extreme example of the

deductive approach. It was described as the memorization of the rules and categories of linguistic description (Corder, 1973). Richards and Rodgers (2006) argue how tedious foreign language learning was for language learners; thousands of learners experienced memorizing lists of unfamiliar grammar rules and vocabulary and preparing absolute translations of texts or parts of literary works.

In the second half of the nineteenth century, language specialists recognized the need for communication in a second language rather than simple grammatical proficiency and reading comprehension. There was a rising interest in the process of learning the mother tongue. Moreover, a naturalistic approach towards second language learning inspired the development of the Direct Method.

The key features of the Direct Method were that the medium of instruction was the target language, listening and speaking activities were used to enhance communication skills, and explicit grammar teaching was avoided (Lowe, 2003). This meant that students were learning vocabulary incidentally, either from the phrases being taught or by the help of lists arranged according to situations. However, the Direct Method was effective in private schools, such as the Berlitz chain schools, where parents were enthusiastic to increase the quality of education, resulting in the hiring of native-speaking teachers (Richards & Rodgers, 2006). Although the method was generally applied, the conditions of the public schools were not suitable for the principles of the method. Richards and Rodgers (2006) noted that the Direct Method was often criticized because native speakers were required in order to foster fluency in speaking. They also claimed that the effort of the teacher was extremely important because textbook use was limited, so the

proficiency of all of the teachers was not enough to apply the principles of the method.

In the 1950s, the Audio-lingual method emerged in the U.S. Lowe (2003) defines Audio-lingual method as the "scientificised' version of the direct method"; it has a structure-based language teaching approach; the learning was grounded in behaviourist psychology that deals with stimulus-response learning (p.1). Hence, during language exercises, learners were repeating what they heard and then extending. Similarly, multiple choice and gap fill were the exercises for writing. Consequently, as Lowe (2003) summarizes, instead of encouraging learners to think, the method promotes automatic responses. In terms of the role of the teacher; the teacher has a central and active role in Audiolingualism; s/he moderates the students and class activities; the activity of talking in classroom develops language learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2006). Therefore, similar to the direct method, in the audio-lingual method puts the teacher in the centre, and training is required for the method to be applied effectively in the classroom.

The Audio-lingual method became relatively widespread in the 1960s, but it was not favoured any more owing to American linguistic theory in the 1960s. It was also noticed that the skills acquired the in classroom were not helpful in real communication outside, not to mention how boring and unsatisfying the process of learning language this way was (Richards & Rodgers, 2006).

So far, the methods mentioned did not involve meaning-based or situational learning. The structural-situational method appeared between 1960s and 1980s in the UK, and

it had a pragmatic aspect that distinguished it from the audio-lingual method: it incorporated classroom exercises with social meaning and real life situations (Lowe, 2003). Skehan (1998) introduced the idea of PPP; first, **p**resent the grammar point, then have the students **p**ractice it as a controlled or semi-controlled practice, and finally have the learner **p**roduce the target forms freely such as in a role play. Thus, the key element in this method has been the situation in classroom practices such as dialogues, mimes, pictures and sounds (Lowe, 2003).

Chomsky developed the idea of "Universal Grammar" and rejected the approach of behaviourist linguistics; instead, he perceived language as an innate capacity of the human brain. Thus, the development of the theory of Universal Grammar changed explicit grammar instruction in language classes; grammar teaching became based on the knowledge of first language and for this reason, students were required to deduce structures and meanings from the target language (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). Nevertheless, this approach did not hold up for very long because there was a need for proper methodological guidelines and too much explanation on grammar rules resulted in burden on learners (Richards & Rodgers, 2006).

In the 1970s, a new approach, Communicative language teaching, emerged as a reaction to grammar-focused approaches, syllabuses, and teaching methods (Richards, 2003). The approach attempted to develop communicative competence. Grammar instruction was not formal, but meaningful input was provided to learners to introduce target forms and vocabulary (Hinkel & Fotos, 2002). Although communicative competence was prominent, it was recognized that grammatical competence was also a necessity for communication (Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

**The status of grammar in foreign language teaching**

Teaching grammar means providing language learners with skills that enable them use linguistic forms in an accurate, appropriate, and meaningful way (Larsen-Freeman, 2001).

Over the centuries, there have been two approaches to language teaching among second language educators: those that deal with analysing the language and those that deal with using the language. The former is close to form-based teaching and learning. For example, students learn parts of speech, sounds, structure, and vocabulary. In addition, students do translation as a practice for learning the target language. The latter, on the other hand, enables students to acquire language and use it in communication. In the past, a similar distinction was between the form-based grammar-translation approach and the use-based direct method (Celce-Murcia, 1980). According to Swan (2007), students can be competent in rules and grammar exercise and be successful in tests. Nevertheless, this does not mean success in the actual use of a language in practice such as during daily conversations or fluency in speaking.

*Teaching grammar in context*

Teachers aim at engaging learners in meaningful interaction during grammar practices. Thus, students interpret the meaning of words, or grammar rules, or structures from the input (Celce-Murcia, 2002). Learning can be accomplished at a deep level instead of surface level.

The task-based approach to teaching carries the similar purpose of engaging learners

with meaningful interactions. However, Richards (2003) addresses task based learning as problematic because learner performance is only limited to tasks, whereas the learning process should be followed by various practices. The communicative approach, in contrast, provides different approaches for language teaching through fluency activities (Richards, 2003). In this respect, teaching grammar in context means the emphasis is on communicative skills.

Finally, it is important to emphasize that in the development of teaching grammar, there has been a debate over whether learners should master accuracy, or communicative tasks.

## Approaches to teaching vocabulary

Current research on vocabulary instruction provides a list of principles that can be adopted by teachers according to the needs of the students, school system and course design (Schmitt, 2008).

To begin with, the number of words and word selection are key, especially by using a language database to find high-frequency words. Another principle is focusing on spelling, syllable structure and pronunciation to store them in the mental lexicon. Third, during the elaboration on the context of the new words, using the first language is said to facilitate learning and recognition of form and meaning relation in the second language. Fourth, creating materials and lessons to teach vocabulary utilizing a number of different engaging factors such as more than one time exposure, motivation to learn the related vocabulary, explaining the features of vocabulary can also be highlighted. Fifth, the approach involves establishing phrasal

vocabulary rather than learning single words especially in context. And finally, the balance of explicit teaching and incidental learning as the last principle suggests a proper design of the class to enhance vocabulary learning (Schmitt, 2008).

Jacobson and Ianiro (2007) devote considerable attention to a number of vocabulary teaching techniques:

- The teacher introduces new words to the students by explaining the meaning, providing a meaningful context in a full sentence and helping learners to find a personal connection or context to the word.
- The teacher provides a variety of reading materials to expose the students to various and multiple contexts.
- The teacher introduces the concept of frequency words to the learners and teaches how to prioritize those words while they are learning.
- The teacher should help learners to analyse the relationships between word meanings while comparing, categorising, studying figurative language and analysis. While doing this, the teacher should introduce specific word building strategies.
- The teacher should choose a new word every day and teach it to the students.
- The teacher should encourage students to keep a vocabulary journal, which helps students to learn the definition of a word, associate the word with a context and write an example sentence using the target word.
- The teacher should encourage students to create “quadrant charts” by dividing a sheet of paper into four sections: important words, personal association, synonyms and antonyms.
- The teacher should encourage word card games that focus on forms and thematic

meanings of the target words. In other words, students should be asked to group words in themes such as *business* or *sports*.

Similarly, Marzano (2006) suggests a six-step approach to teaching vocabulary emphasising the need to expose the learners to target words in different ways. The six-steps are presented as, (1) *explain*: giving a clear definition and example of the new word, (2) *restate*: making students explain the new word in their own words (3) *show*: asking students to visualise the new word, (4) *discuss*: having students discuss the new word at regular times by using their vocabulary notebooks, (5) *refine and reflect*: ask students to update their entries regularly, (6) *apply in learning games*: allowing students to play with the new words through vocabulary games (p.28).

As an alternative to the previous vocabulary teaching approaches, Feldman and Kinsella (2005) focus on explicit vocabulary teaching with these five strategies:

- Pronounce: The teacher is the only person who uses and pronounces the target word in the classroom. Providing the correct pronunciation is the first step to encourage students to learn and use it correctly; therefore, the teacher should have the students repeat the word two or three times in choral repetition.
- Explain: The teacher should give a clear explanation of the word by providing a synonym in different contexts which helps the students grasp the meaning of the word.
- Provide examples: The teacher should give at least two or three examples from different contexts in order to help students build a semantic network and become comfortable using the target word.

- Elaborate: The teacher should create opportunities for the students to elaborate on the meaning of the word by generating their own examples, symbols, and visual representations.
- Assess: The teacher should include informal vocabulary assessment in the lesson; quick informal checks should go beyond the memorisation or simply matching exercises, it should demonstrate a deeper level of understanding of the new vocabulary.

**Two aspects of a word: form and meaning**

The balance between presenting form, and explaining meaning is extremely important for the learner to establish a mental connection between them. Special attention should be paid to the sequence of the steps in a vocabulary presentation (Thornbury, 2008).

Based on the explanations given by Thornbury (2008, p. 76) target vocabulary can be presented in two ways:

- From meaning to form: as in the example of showing an apple and then saying the word “apple”.
- From form to meaning: as in the same example when word repetition “apple” precedes the visual presentation.

Guided by these ways, especially for second language learners, it has been pointed out that when meaning is presented before form, a context is set in the minds of the students. This way is found more memorable and efficient as the form is expected after the mental representation of the meaning. If there is already a context for the vocabulary given, presenting the form first enables the students to figure out the meaning accordingly, which can be another effective vocabulary presentation

method. Regarding the number of words to be taught, formal presentation of vocabulary should have a limit of twelve words depending on some factors such as learners' proficiency level -whether lower or higher- and word difficulty considering pronunciation or abstract or concrete meaning (Thornbury, 2008).

Meaning can be presented by translating, in relation with real things, visual prompts, miming/gestures, giving full definition or providing scenarios (Thornbury, 2008). While presenting meaning, it's important to determine whether to give the vocabulary in its written form, through such activities as gap filling or in its spoken form, through listening drills highlighting the vocal characteristics of the word. Alternative ways of meaning and form presentation can be found through peer teaching. As in information-gap activity, students collaborate on a task and exchange information as they peer-teach definitions of words (Thornbury, 2008). Schmitt (2008) highlights the contribution that principles can make for teaching vocabulary, by noting: "It is important to acknowledge the incremental nature of vocabulary learning, and to understand that an effective vocabulary learning program needs to be principled, long term, and have high vocabulary learning expectations" (p.4).

## Communicative language teaching

Communicative language teaching (CLT) is mainly based on *competence* and *performance* as explained by language in mind or knowledge of language, which implies competence, but there is also production of certain meaningful sets of words and sounds, that is the actual use of language which suggests performance (Chomsky, 1965). Later on, these terms were merged and broadened by Hymes (1972), and Champel and Wale (1970) as *communicative competence.*

The abstract knowledge and the concrete product are divided into three aspects by Canale and Swain (1980):

Linguistic competence*:* the knowledge of grammatical rules such as rules of morphology, lexical items, syntax and phonology.

Sociolinguistic competence*:* the knowledge of language use, as the discourse in the socio-cultural contexts.

Strategic competence*:* the knowledge of the strategies for both verbal and non-verbal communication. The speaker makes use of the proper structure in relative contexts.

Later, the first model of communicative competence was developed by Canale (1983) with the addition of a fourth factor.

Discourse competence: the ability to relate language with cohesive texts based on appropriateness.

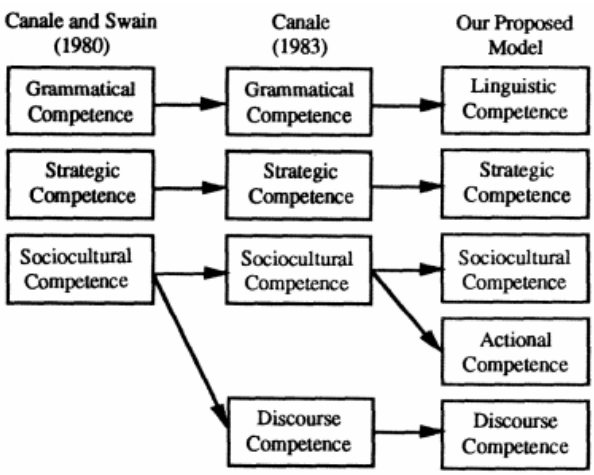



Figure 2. Chronological evaluation of the communicative competence model

The figure above (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1995, p.11) demonstrates

clearly that *linguistic competence* is stated as a comprehensive term to clarify the inclusion of lexis and phonology into *grammatical competence*, which was used formerly (as seen in Canale and Swain, 1980). With the use of *sociocultural* and *actional* competence instead of sociolinguistic competence, the focus shifts from the sociolinguistic dimension to the highlighting of language in *linguistic, actional* and *discourse* competences.

Following up on this model, *actional* competence can be further defined as "competence in conveying and understanding communicative intent; that is, matching actional intent with linguistic form based on the knowledge of an inventory of verbal schemata that carry illocutionary force (speech acts and speech act sets)" (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, and Thurrell, 1995, p.17).

Communicative competence has matured through practice in the field as the CLT approach has undergone changes over time, which Richards (2006) divides into three periods (2006):

*Phase 1:* traditional approaches (up to the late 1960s)

*Phase 2:* classic communicative language teaching (1970s to 1990s)

*Phase 3:* current communicative language teaching (late 1990s to the present)

**Traditional approaches**

In the *traditional approaches* period, only grammar competence gained considerable attention. In the *deductive grammar teaching approach,* students were presented with the rules then given the opportunity to use them, whereas in the *inductive grammar teaching approach,* students were provided with relevant examples from which they

needed to deduce the grammar rule. From this period in the Structural-Situational approach, one lesson format still being used widely is the **P-P-P,** which is made up of three steps;

***Presentation,*** when the students are provided with the new structure in a conversation or a text and their comprehension is verified.

***Practice,*** when students practice the given structure in drills or substitution exercises.

***Production,*** when students practice the given structure in a novel context with their original contribution.

**Classic communicative language teaching**

The traditional approaches: Audiolingualism and Situational Language Teaching, which generally conceptualize grammar and vocabulary teaching, were not sufficient in fulfilling the needs of using language communicatively, which draws on the appropriate use of language depending on the situation, purpose, role and so on (Richards, 2006). Classic communicative language is based on linguistics, particularly sociolinguistics; this way of teaching language went beyond grammatical competence. Especially after the 1980s, syllabuses and materials worldwide gradually shifted towards the principles given below:

> 1. As detailed a consideration as possible of the **purposes** for which the learner wishes to acquire the target language; for example, using English for business purposes, in the hotel industry, or for travel
>
> 2. Some idea of the **setting** in which they will want to use the target language; for example, in an office, on an airplane, or in a store
>
> 3. The socially defined **role** the learners will assume in the target language, as well as the role of their interlocutors; for example, as a traveller, as a salesperson talking to clients, or as a student in a school
>
> 4. The **communicative events** in which the learners will participate:

everyday situations, vocational or professional situations, academic situations, and so on; for example, making telephone calls, engaging in casual conversation, or taking part in a meeting

5. The **language functions** involved in those events, or what the learner will be able to do with or through the language; for example, making introductions, giving explanations, or describing plans

6. The **notions or concepts** involved, or what the learner will need to be able to talk about; for example, leisure, finance, history, religion

7. The skills involved in the "knitting together" of discourse: **discourse and rhetorical skills**; for example, storytelling, giving an effective business presentation

8. The **variety** or varieties of the target language that will be needed, such as American, Australian, or British English, and the levels in the spoken and written language which the learners will need to reach

9. The **grammatical content** that will be needed

10. The **lexical content**, or vocabulary, that will be needed

(van Ek and Alexander 1980, as cited in Richards, 2006, pp.9-10)

CLT has led to the development of several new syllabuses driven by these principles:

Functional syllabus: According to this syllabus learners should be able to carry out all functions of the language across various situations. The content, vocabulary and grammar to be taught are selected to facilitate communicative competence.

Notional syllabus: The content and the notions to be learned are the centre of this syllabus.

Task syllabus: This syllabus is based on the classroom activities and tasks to be carried out by students.

Skills-based syllabus: This syllabus mainly focuses of development of four skills and other components of language are taken into consideration under micro skills. Skills-based teaching has superseded grammar-based approaches with the development of communicative language teaching (Richards, 2006). Rather than mainly focusing on

grammar and vocabulary, this new teaching method puts emphasis on the four language skills. According to Richards, a skills-based syllabus is designed considering sub-skills that are components of each main skill, in addition to four main skills: listening, reading, writing, and speaking (2006). Since we link different skills as a primary practice in real life, Richards also emphasizes the place of combining different skills such as reading and writing in the current communicative language teaching methodology (2006).

All of these syllabuses individually serve language teaching efficiently but current CLT brings together the core principles scattered across these syllabuses, thereby embracing each feature of language.

**Current communicative language teaching**

The current *communicative language teaching* model has not evolved into a certain and single teaching model after changes in theory and practice. Rather, the emphasis is on a holistic model systematically combining the principles that embrace the elements of communicative competence while integrating language skills, topics, grammar, vocabulary and functional language in syllabus design (Richards, 2006).

Richards (2006) presents a set of ten core assumptions or principles of current Communicative Language Teaching as follows:

> 1. Second language learning is facilitated when learners are engaged in interaction and meaningful communication.
>
> 2. Effective classroom learning tasks and exercises provide opportunities for students to negotiate meaning, expand their language resources, notice how language is used, and take part in meaningful interpersonal exchange.

3. Meaningful communication results from students processing content that is relevant, purposeful, interesting, and engaging.

4. Communication is a holistic process that often calls upon the use of several language skills or modalities.

5. Language learning is facilitated both by activities that involve inductive or discovery learning of underlying rules of language use and organization, as well as by those involving language analysis and reflection.

6. Language learning is a gradual process that involves creative use of language, and trial and error. Although errors are a normal product of learning, the ultimate goal of learning is to be able to use the new language both accurately and fluently.

7. Learners develop their own routes to language learning, progress at different rates, and have different needs and motivations for language learning.

8. Successful language learning involves the use of effective learning and communication strategies.

9. The role of the teacher in the language classroom is that of a facilitator that creates a classroom climate conducive to language learning and provides opportunities for students to use and practice the language and to reflect on language use and language learning.

10. The classroom is a community where learners learn through collaboration and sharing.

(Richards, 2006, p.22)

Alternatively, there are five principles that ensure communicative curriculum developed by Savignon (2002):

- Establishing language analysis specifically targets forms of language through practices such as repetitions, translations, or memorisations. It is key not to use them on a continual basis.
- Ensuring language experience which suggests the use of language in meaningful or authentic settings in order to develop both communicative and strategic competence. In addition, increasing the exposure to the target language through content is one of the necessities of language teaching known as content-based instruction.
- Engaging all learns with meaningful exercises with the goal of building

communicative competence can help teachers ensure a communicative curriculum.

- Designating time and opportunities for role-playing, performing which set up genuine communicative contexts to use the target language.
- It is assumed that all the practices in class are a preparation for communication beyond the classroom. Therefore, learners should be familiarized with practical and functional language use as in the real life.

The principles above aim specifically to design communicative curricula. In this way, the communicative basis of a curriculum leads naturally to communicative classrooms.

**Types of practices**

Current CLT methodology addresses types of practices in three groups: *mechanical*, *meaningful*, and *communicative* (Richards, 2006):

The first one, *mechanical practice*, draws learner attention to form and suggests controlled practice such as substitution drills, matching exercises.

*Meaningful practice*, on the other hand, is semi-guided, and does not fully control the use of language, allowing learners make choices during practice. Richards (2006) gives the example of using prepositions to talk about locations of places using a map and prepositions.

The last one, *communicative practice*, provides an opportunity to practice language, most probably exchanging real information in a communicative context. For example, learners generate some questions on a real-life topic and pose them to others or discuss them in class.

Communicative practice suggests the practice of language to receive and transmit message effectively. Differently, performance tasks are designed around critical thinking skills, problem-solving skills, using strategies to maintain a task. As the name suggests, performance task types: *Restricted-response performance tasks* and *Extended performance tasks* differ from each other in terms of to the extent which they allow learners to perform tasks.

**Restricted-response performance tasks**

These tasks require students to answer one, very narrow question. Even when they are expected to assess performance; students generally deal with questions such as *write a letter of application for a job, read aloud a story, ask for directions* and so on. Only one skill used discretely is usually enough for correctly finalizing a task. (Linn & Miller, 2005)

**Extended performance tasks**

Extended performance tasks require more than one skill. This leads students to obtaining information necessary for the task, solving problems, analysing data, evaluating ideas and the like. During the process, learners benefit from their background knowledge and integrate different skills in the learning process (Linn & Miller, 2005)

## Studies on textbook analysis

Prior to English linguist Wilkins' (1976) work National Syllabuses, textbooks were mainly based on the direct transfer of grammar and vocabulary. After Wilkins'

opposition to these synthetic approaches, textbook writers began to adopt the notional use of language, especially after the initiatives of the Council of Europe. According to Wilkins, real language must be used appropriately for communication. This brought the new perspective of using language functionally for the achievement of a purpose (e.g. ordering, inviting). Thus, the units of sentences are provided meaningfully with their functions within a certain context in order to meet a certain communication potential. Communicative language teaching places communicative competence (Hymes, 1971) at the centre of language teaching and builds on all four skills in order to tighten the bonds of language and communication. CLT in English textbooks has been widely studied in various countries. In their studies conducted in Spain on several secondary-upper secondary English textbooks, Criado and Sánchez (2009) found 50 - 80% of the content comprised communicative activities. Interestingly, teenager textbooks as opposed to those designed for adults were found to have the most communicative materials in the study.

Another study was conducted in Iran on three different secondary school English textbooks at three different levels. After the analysis of both the textbooks and a questionnaire on teachers and students, Dahmardeh (2009) found that the textbook did not meet the teachers' or the students' needs in terms of supplying them with the necessary skills they need in the actual use of English. Having made use of structural methods, the text books fall short of supporting students and helping them reach the level they need to pursue higher education. Likewise, in an earlier study, Razmjoo (2007) compared two textbooks used in Iran, one belonging to a public high school and the other to a private high school in terms of their representation of CLT principles, and they concluded that the latter is almost twice as communicative as the

first. They conclude that the textbooks were not student-centred and were (p.134):

> (…) designed by the Ministry of Education, and the practitioners (teachers) do not have a voice in the decision making process.(…). Moreover, decision makers attach high importance to universality (centrality) rather than locality.

Meanwhile in China, Badger and Yan (2008) studied the extent to which CLT was used in classrooms including in the materials used. The textbooks were found to entail more CLT teaching elements statistically in comparison to GT (Grammar translation) or AL (Audio-lingualism).

In Taiwan, Hsu (2010) analysed the 6 most commonly used junior high school English textbooks as a response to the gap between the claims made by the Ministry of Education and the actual CLT compatibility of the textbooks. After the implementation of twelve different criteria, Hsu summed up the findings stating, "this set of junior high school English textbooks shows little consistency with CLT principles but a significant tendency towards form-focused materials" (p.67).

In another study, Lee and Chang (2011) analysed the speaking activities in Taiwanese and Chinese English textbooks. For all six books, they concluded that Taiwanese textbooks fall behind Chinese books in terms of the application of communicative principles.

In a comparative study between Korea and Japan, Choi et al. (2006) took four English textbooks from each country at high school level to examine the features of English language teaching in both countries based on their claims emphasizing the importance of the communicative aspect of language teaching in the 21st century. The results depicted a big difference between Korean textbooks, being more function

oriented, and Japanese books focusing mainly on structure. The Korean textbooks were found to have a balanced integration among the four language skills flowing smoothly across the levels of the textbook. In contrast, Japanese mechanic drills were maintained across four skills in the textbooks, the explicit focus of which became reading at the senior high school level.

Looking at Europe, Oslo and Finland in particular, Heim (2006) investigated two English textbooks from upper secondary schools from a student point of view. The researcher found the material quite communicative and underlined the abundance of activities enabling students to interact and use language in context.

In Jordan, Salameh (2005) analysed the *Action Pack Seven* English Language textbooks, the different levels of which were used in different grades as classroom material. The researcher focused on grammar teaching and evaluated the textbook and its components according to the level of communicativeness. A set of criteria extracted from the communicative approach was used in the study, and the results showed some indicators of communicative approach, as in several activities found relating to students' daily lives, but these activities limited in number lacked the integration of the four skills.

Although there is general agreement across the globe on the importance of integrating the communicative approach while creating ELT syllabuses and textbooks, there may be some discrepancy between the intentions and the output from time.

# CHAPTER 3: METHOD

## Introduction

This chapter presents an explanation of the research design, explores the context of the study, and defines the content analysis highlighting its purpose in research. It ends with the method of data collection and analysis procedures demonstrating the details of the data.

## Research design

In this study, this is a qualitative research study and it uses content analysis to examine the *New Bridge to Success* for grade level 9 considering the extent to which the textbook's intentions are on a par with contemporary means for teaching language skills, grammar and vocabulary. As Ahuvia (2001) explains, "Content analysis is used as a more general term for methodologies that code text into categories and then count the frequencies of occurrences within each category" (p.1). According to Weber (1990), "[a] central idea in content analysis is that the many words of the text are classified into much fewer content categories" (p.12). Therefore, the content is analysed in a systematic fashion to identify the features of teaching language. This research design enabled the researcher to identify categories and codes for analysis, and it facilitated the description of findings.

## Context

Until 2013, it was mandatory to use the *New Bridge to Success* textbook series (Bayral et al., 2011) for instruction at the Anatolian High Schools in Turkey. Students had to take six hours of English classes per week.

The curriculum used in Anatolian High Schools was prepared based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for language themes and content. Within the textbook series, the grade 9 textbook claims to have adopted a communicative syllabus. It also intends to encourage high school teachers to create a student-centred atmosphere in the classroom.

There is now a new series for grades 9 to 12 based on the revised English curriculum in 2014. However, the researcher started to collect data in 2011 when the NBS series was used actively in high schools. Although there are now new series of textbooks based on the revised English curriculum in 2014, the researcher believes that it is important to mark the shape of the previous grade 9 textbook, and the other textbooks in the series, as they are regarded as the manifestations of the previously established intended curriculum, and, therefore, such data will provide platform for future comparison.

### The structure of the textbook

The *New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) is an elementary level textbook for teaching English in Anatolian High Schools in Turkey. The textbook is composed of 202 pages in total. The content of the textbook is indicated under the *Contents* page, and includes the following: Course introduction, table of contents, units from 1 to 22, grammar reference, irregular verbs, word list and references. The table of contents

page introduces the following strands: topics, functions, language areas and structure, vocabulary. Also, the introductory page of the textbook emphasizes the development of the four language skills: Reading, Writing, Speaking and Listening. However, the table of contents page gives no indication of when and where the sub-skills are introduced.

The textbook includes 22 units, each focusing on a different set of topics:

- Personal identification
- Family
- People and places
- Traffic
- Daily routines
- Leisure activities
- Plans and intentions
- Dos and don’ts
- Feasts
- Refreshments
- Now and then
- A detective story
- Famous people
- Hopes for the future
- Health and sports
- Past activities
- People profiles
- Climate
- Experiences
- Superstitions
- Fashion
- Party

There are several related visuals in each unit, aiming to introduce and develop language and language skills. Different units focus on different language areas and skills, and overall, the textbook is composed of the following sections:

- *Listening and reading*
- *Listening and speaking*

- *Listening and writing*
- *Let's practice*
- *Let's remember*
- *Let's start*
- *Reading and listening*
- *Reading and speaking*
- *Reading and writing*
- *Speaking and reading*
- *Speaking and writing*
- *Writing*
- *Writing and speaking*
- *Fun corner*
- *Game time*
- *Phrasal verbs*
- *Project work*
- *Pronunciation*

There are 18 different sections that appear throughout the textbook. There are nine combined language skills sections such as *Listening and reading, Reading and writing,* or *Speaking and writing*, the first one being the main language skill targeted. Along with these skills, there are various sections explicitly focusing on grammar: *Let's practice*, *Let's remember* and *Phrasal verbs*. The textbook also includes the following sections to integrate language areas and skills: *Fun corner, Game time* and *Project work.* In essence, each unit in the textbook has a number of particular sections to facilitate language practice and integration of skills.

In each section, there are a number of sub-language skills and tasks aiming to introduce and develop language skills and use. Table 1 shows the number of sub-language skills and tasks identified in each section throughout the textbook. The researcher developed codes to count, sift through and sort the sub-skill and tasks.

Table 1
Sections and number of sub-skills and tasks in NBS

| **Codes** | **Sections** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|
| L&R | *Listening and reading* | 17 | 1.9% |
| L&S | *Listening and speaking* | 142 | 15.9% |
| L&W | *Listening and writing* | 36 | 4.0% |
| LP | *Let's practice* | 99 | 11.1% |
| LR | *Let's remember* | 50 | 5.6% |
| LS | *Let's start* | 48 | 5.4% |
| R&L | *Reading and listening* | 51 | 5.7% |
| R&S | *Reading and speaking* | 184 | 20.6% |
| R&W | *Reading and writing* | 121 | 13.6% |
| S&R | *Speaking and reading* | 8 | 0.9% |
| S&W | *Speaking and writing* | 19 | 2.1% |
| W | *Writing* | 3 | 0.3% |
| W&S | *Writing and speaking* | 5 | 0.6% |
| FC | *Fun corner* | 26 | 2.9% |
| GT | *Game time* | 8 | 0.9% |
| PV | *Phrasal verbs* | 4 | 0.4% |
| PW | *Project work* | 29 | 3.3% |
| P | *Pronunciation* | 42 | 4.7% |
| **Total** | | **894** | |

As shown in Table 1, the *Reading and speaking* section comes up the most frequently with 184 sub-skills and tasks. In other words, this section appears 184 times in 22 units. The main emphasis in such units is on reading, and the speaking stage is included for integrating skills. *Listening and speaking* with 142 and *Reading and writing* with 121 are the next most frequent. The *Let's practice* section also comes up quite often - 99 times - in the book, as shown in the table. This section seems to imply the importance placed on language practice. Subsequently, the *Let's remember* section pursues and supports grammar objectives with 50 times in the book. This indicates that different types of activities related to grammar occur around 149 times in the textbook. On the other hand, it is observed that *Reading and listening, Let's start, Pronunciation*, *Listening and writing*, *Project work*, *Fun corner*, *Speaking and writing*, *Listening and reading* are the sections that vary between 17 and 51. In the final analysis, the results show that both *Speaking and*

*reading* and *Game time* with eight sub-skill and tasks, *Writing and speaking* with five sub-skill and tasks, *Phrasal verbs* with four and *Writing* with three fall rather short in number. Figure 5 presents the percentage allocation of sub-skills and tasks given in each section.

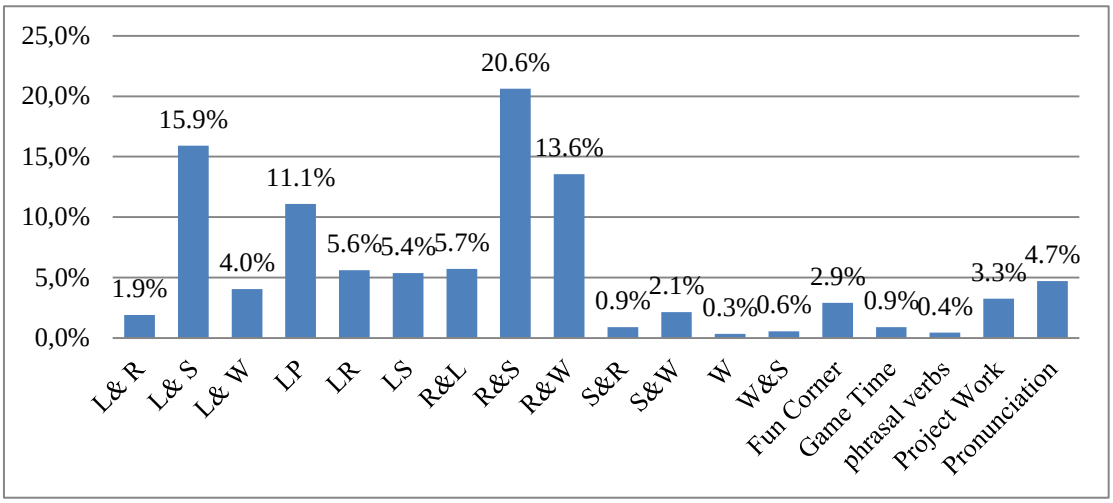



Figure 3. Frequency of sections and sub-skills & tasks in NBS

This chart displays the percentages of sections. The results indicate that there are more sections focusing on reading (39.9%) and listening (21.8%).

## Method of data collection and analysis

The EFL textbook *New Bridge to Success* for grade 9 was analysed to collect data. A framework was established for the analysis of the textbook. Overall, the textbook consists of 22 units, and each unit was examined separately.

To this end, a Microsoft Excel file was created, and all the data were processed using spreadsheets that included the following sections:

- unit number,
- integrated skills,

- skills,
- exercise letter,
- activity types-stages,
- practice (mechanical, meaningful, communicative),
- sub-skills and/or tasks

The Figure below is an excerpt from the analysis of Unit 4. The spreadsheet also includes the analysis of other units in the aggregated data.

| | A | B | C | D | E | F | G | H | I |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | no | unit | Integrat | Skills | se(task | ivityTypes- Sta | practice | sub-skills | tasks |
| 141 | 141 | 4 | LS | v | a | Warmer-LX | lexical content | guess the meaning of words | matching items with pictures |
| 142 | 142 | 4 | L& R | R | a | PR-Q&A | question and answer | talk about the picture | preview question- guessing the topic |
| 143 | 143 | 4 | L& R | L | b | PR-L | listening comprehension | listen to identify the key words or phrases in a text (BU) | selecting- ticking items |
| 144 | 144 | 4 | L& R | L | c | PR-L | listening comprehension | listen for specific information (TD) | answering comprehension questions about the text |
| 145 | 145 | 4 | L& R | R | d | R | reading comprehension | scan a text- identify details | selecting items- underline words |
| 146 | 146 | 4 | L& R | R | e | R | reading comprehension | scan a text- identify details | true/false statements |
| 147 | 147 | 4 | R&W | R | a | PR-Q&A | question and answer | talk about the picture | y/n q or wh q- preparing to read |
| 148 | 148 | 4 | R&W | R | b | PW-R | reading comprehension | skim for gist- identify the gist | matching items- text with pictures |
| 149 | 149 | 4 | R&W | R | c | PW-R | reading comprehension | scan a text- identify details | information-transferring activity-completing the table (extracting key informat |
| 150 | 150 | 4 | R&W | W | d | W | writing- free | write a descriptive paragraph | descriptive paragraph writing- about the traffic in Turkey |
| 151 | 151 | 4 | R&S | S | a | PR-Q&A | question and answer | talk about the picture | preview question- guessing the topic |
| 152 | 152 | 4 | R&S | R | b | R | reading comprehension | skim for gist- identify the gist | ordering pictures- interpreting the text |
| 153 | 153 | 4 | R&S | R | c | R | reading comprehension | skim for gist- identify the gist | matching items- text with pictures |
| 154 | 154 | 4 | R&S | R | d | R | reading comprehension | scan a text- identify details | correcting sentences/information |
| 155 | 155 | 4 | R&S | R | e | PoR-LX | lexical content | guess the meaning of words | matching the definitions with words/phrases |
| 156 | 156 | 4 | R&S | S | f | PoR-G | speaking-guided | ask and answer questions as in the example using prompts | structured dialog prompts given- using prompts/cue words |
| 157 | 157 | 4 | LP | g | a | MCU | controlled | match items | interpreting pictures |
| 158 | 158 | 4 | LP | g | b | MNU | semi-controlled | write sentences using prompts | reasoning gap activity- practical reasoning |
| 159 | 159 | 4 | LP | g | c | MCU | controlled | gap fill or substitution drill | completing the sentences using the grammatical structure |
| 160 | 160 | 4 | LP | g | d | MCU | controlled | gap fill or substitution drill | completing the sentences interpreting the pictures |
| 161 | 161 | 4 | LP | g | e | MNU | semi-controlled | write strips for the cartoons | production task- write appropriate strips for the cartoons |
| 162 | 162 | 4 | LP | g | f | MNU | semi-controlled | ask and answer questions as in the example using prompts | reasoning gap activity- practical reasoning |
| 163 | 163 | 4 | LR | g | | RR | remember rules | substitution tables/explanations and examples | |
| 164 | 164 | 4 | Pronun | P | a | MCU | controlled | listen and repeat the sounds/words | choral repetition |
| 165 | 165 | 4 | L& W | S | a | PL-Q&A | question and answer | talk about the topic | y/n q or wh q- preparing to listen |

FRAMEWORK-DATA / activity types vs. tasks / A- Activity types- numbers / B- Practice- numbers / C- Tasks -numbers / D- practice vs. tasks / E- Sub-skills vs.tasks(number) / F-Integrat

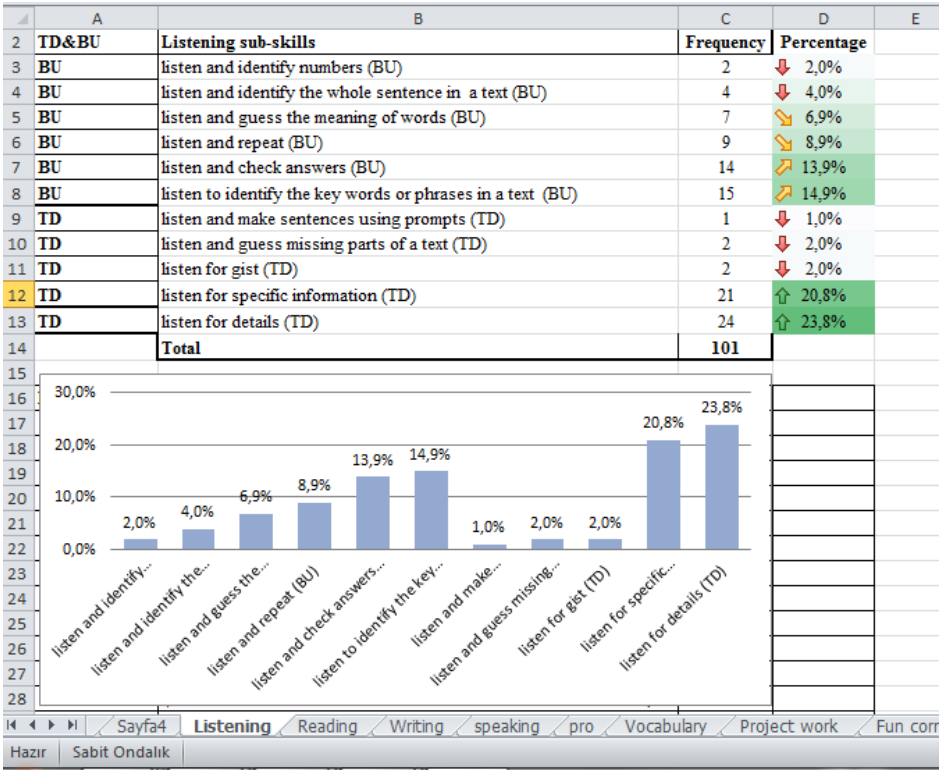
Düzenle | Sabit Ondalık | %90

Figure 4. A sample Excel spreadsheet

During the data analysis, the frequencies and percentages were calculated using the Pivot table tool in the Excel program. Later, they were demonstrated in separate tables and figures for each category.

As can be seen in Figure 4 taken from Listening section, there are four columns showing the approaches: for example top-down (TD) and bottom-up (BU), sub-skills of the related skill (listening, speaking, writing, reading, grammar, and vocabulary), frequency, and percentage. Meanwhile, the figure below shows the percentages of

the sub-skills of the focused skill.



| TD&BU | Listening sub-skills | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|
| BU | listen and identify numbers (BU) | 2 | 2,0% |
| BU | listen and identify the whole sentence in a text (BU) | 4 | 4,0% |
| BU | listen and guess the meaning of words (BU) | 7 | 6,9% |
| BU | listen and repeat (BU) | 9 | 8,9% |
| BU | listen and check answers (BU) | 14 | 13,9% |
| BU | listen to identify the key words or phrases in a text (BU) | 15 | 14,9% |
| TD | listen and make sentences using prompts (TD) | 1 | 1,0% |
| TD | listen and guess missing parts of a text (TD) | 2 | 2,0% |
| TD | listen for gist (TD) | 2 | 2,0% |
| TD | listen for specific information (TD) | 21 | 20,8% |
| TD | listen for details (TD) | 24 | 23,8% |
| | Total | 101 | |



Figure 5. A sample from the Excel file showing skills

The ability to quantifying text is one of the advantages of content analysis. After the analysis of each unit, the frequencies and percentages were calculated for each category using a spreadsheet.

**Data analysis**

During the analysis, the data were stored using the *Microsoft Excel* program. Then, codes and categories were generated in order to sift and sort the data in the textbook. With the help of content analysis, the data in the following categories were collected and analysed:

- Sections and number of sub-skills/tasks
- Language skills and number of sub-skills/tasks

- Receptive skills and sub-skills/tasks
- Productive skills and sub-skills/tasks
- Pronunciation sub-skills/tasks
- Grammar sub-skills/tasks
- Vocabulary sub-skills/tasks
- Sub-skills/tasks included in other sections (*Project work, Game time, Let's start*)

Research design, context and method of data collection and analysis allow a detailed examination of the textbook, and the results are presented in the following chapter.

# CHAPTER 4: RESULTS

## Introduction

This chapter begins with the general structure of NBS, and the representation of the sections and the number of sub-skills and tasks they contain. Next, it introduces the receptive and productive skills covered with the number of sub-skills and tasks in each language skill. Lastly, it presents the sub-skills and tasks used in Pronunciation, Grammar, Vocabulary, *Project work*, *Game time*, and *Let's start* sections of NBS.

## Language skills and sub-skills

The textbook focuses on the development of the four skills (*Reading*, *Writing*, *Listening*, and *Speaking*). It also includes *Grammar*, *Pronunciation* and *Vocabulary* sections. There are about 894 sub-skills and tasks, and they are distributed as follows:

Table 2
Skills and number of sub-skills & tasks

| **Skills** | **Frequency of sub-skills/tasks** | **Percentage** |
|---|---|---|
| Pronunciation | 41 | 4.6% |
| Vocabulary | 54 | 6.0% |
| Writing | 76 | 8.5% |
| Listening | 102 | 11.4% |
| Grammar | 151 | 16.9% |
| Reading | 185 | 20.7% |
| Speaking | 285 | 31.9% |
| **Total** | **894** | |

According to the table, there are about 285 sub-skills and tasks related to *Speaking*, and when combined with *Pronunciation*, the total becomes 346. *Reading* follows *Speaking* with about 185 sub-skills. The least encountered language skill is *Writing*

with 76 sub-skills and tasks. The table also shows that there are 151 sub-skills and tasks focusing on grammar, and vocabulary appears to include 54 sub-skills and tasks.

Overall, mainly because of the role of speaking, there are more sub-skills and tasks aiming at productive skills than those aiming at receptive skills or grammar (Figure 6).

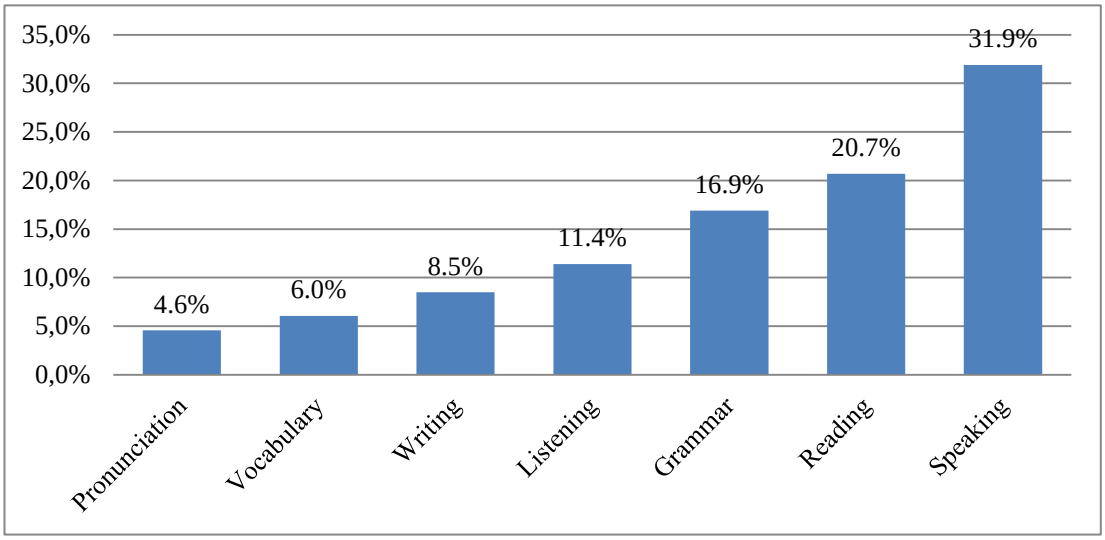



Figure 6. Percentage of language skills and sub-skills & tasks

*Speaking*, combined with *Pronunciation*, and *Writing* sub-skills and tasks, constitutes 45% of all of the sub-skills and tasks included in the textbook. However, *Reading* and *Listening* related ones make up 32.1% (Figure 6). Receptive and productive skills together represent 77.1% of all of the sub-skills and tasks in the textbook, which indicates that the textbook largely reflects a skills-based syllabus.

Another aspect is that the sub-skills and tasks related to *Grammar* and *Vocabulary* make up 22.9%, pointing to explicit instruction of grammar and vocabulary. In these sections, the focus is essentially on the use of rules and target vocabulary.

## Receptive skills

Overall, 32.1% of all sub-skills are designed to develop receptive skills: 11.4% for *Listening* and 20.7% for *Reading*.

### Listening sub-skills

As shown in Table 1, the textbook has three sections focusing on listening; there are also other sections that allow students to develop their listening skill. The textbook includes a total of 101 sub-skills which focus on listening in all sections (Table 3). When sub-skills are analysed individually, there are 11 sub-skills identified:

Table 3
Listening sub-skills

| **Listening sub-skills** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|
| listen and identify numbers (BU) | 2 | 2.0% |
| listen and identify a whole sentence in a text (BU) | 4 | 4.0% |
| listen and guess the meaning of words (BU) | 7 | 6.9% |
| listen and repeat (BU) | 9 | 8.9% |
| listen and check answers (BU) | 14 | 13.9% |
| listen to identify the key words or phrases in a text (BU) | 15 | 14.9% |
| listen and make sentences using prompts (TD) | 1 | 1.0% |
| listen and guess the missing parts of a text (TD) | 2 | 2.0% |
| listen for gist (TD) | 2 | 2.0% |
| listen for specific information (TD) | 21 | 20.8% |
| listen for details (TD) | 24 | 23.8% |
| **Total** | **101** | |

TD: Top-down BU: Bottom-up

As can be seen in Table 3, *listen for details* is the most frequent sub-skill with 24 in the table. *Listen for specific information* follows it with 21. Unlike these sub-skills, *Listen and make sentences using prompts* is the least frequent sub-skill.

The table also provides information about how the use of top-down (TD) and bottom-up (BU) strategies is distributed. Top-down with 50 and bottom-up with 51 appear to have very similar frequencies. The balance between them shows that the

writers of the book believe both strategies play a significant, but distinct role in listening.

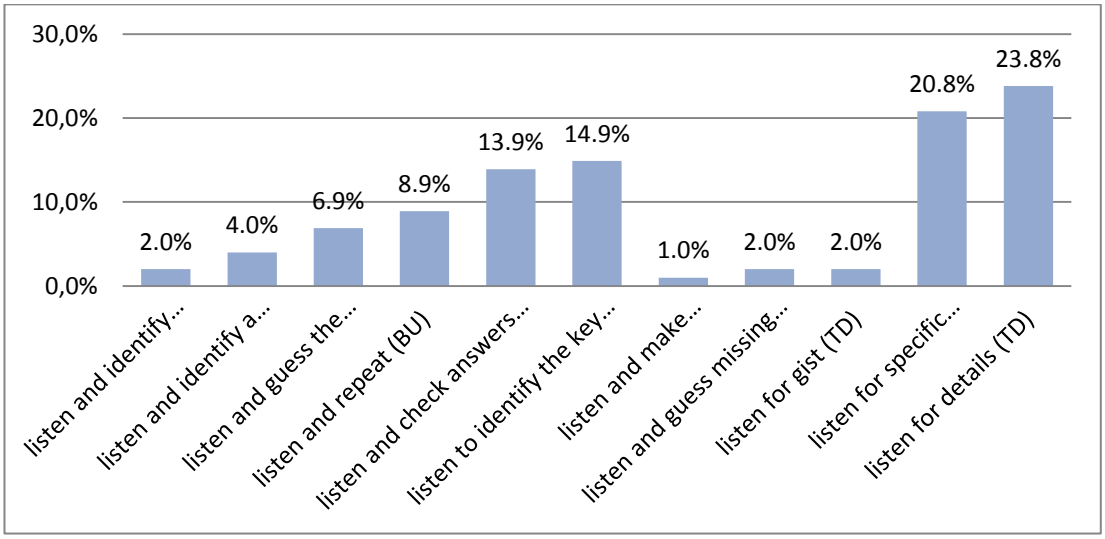



Figure 7. Percentage of listening sub-skills

When analysed in terms of percentages (Figure 7), it is apparent that a total of 44.6% sub-skills are allocated for *listen for details* and *listen for specific information*, whereas only 2% are for *listen for gist*. Nevertheless, for top-down and bottom-up strategies, the percentage allocation is balanced: 49% and 51% respectively.

*Focus on listening: stages and sub-skills*

A typical approach to teaching listening includes the following stages: pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening, as also mentioned in the course introduction section of the textbook. The pre-listening stage intends to prepare students, activating student background and providing a reason for listening; the while-listening stage allows students to develop their listening skills usually with the help of top-down and bottom-up strategies; and the post-stage is usually a means of integrating listening with other language skills such as speaking and writing. Listening could also be used as pre or post stages to develop other language skills such as Writing, Speaking,

Reading, or Grammar. Table 4 shows how the listening skills and sub-skills are represented in such stages.

Table 4
Stages of listening and sub-skills

| Codes | Stages | Frequency | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| PL- LX | Pre-listening: Lexis | 7 | 6.4% |
| PL-Q&A | Pre-listening: Question and Answer | 9 | 8.3% |
| L | While-listening | 19 | 17.3% |
| PoL-G | Post-listening: Grammar | 1 | 0.9% |
| PoL-LX | Post-listening: Lexis | 1 | 0.9% |
| PoR-L | Post-reading: Listening | 8 | 7.3% |
| PoS-L | Post-speaking: Listening | 1 | 0.9% |
| GT-L | Grammar through listening | 30 | 27.3% |
| PR-L | Pre-reading: Listening | 7 | 6.4% |
| PS-L | Pre-speaking: Listening | 16 | 14.5% |
| PW-L | Pre-writing: Listening | 11 | 10.0% |
| **Total** | | **110** | |

Overall, there are 16 pre-listening, 19 while-listening, and 11 post-listening sub-skills. While-listening is the stage where the main emphasis is placed on the development of the target skill. Table 4 shows that only 19 out of 92 sub-skills aim to enhance listening skills. Rather, listening is enhanced through integration into other language skills development efforts. There are many more listening sub-skills used as the pre or post stage for student engagement or the development of other language skills.

When analysed stage by stage in terms of percentage, Figure 8 shows that only 17.3% of sub-skills are designated as while-listening, and 30.9% as pre-listening, 8.2% as post-listening, and 27.30% as grammar-focused.

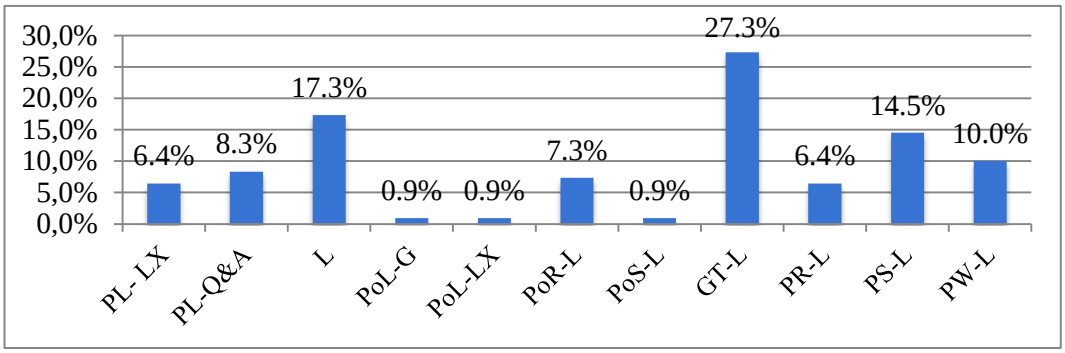



Figure 8. Percentage of stages of listening

This suggests that although the sub-skills designated for while-listening purposes are relatively fewer, listening is mainly used for the enhancement of other language skills.

**Reading sub-skills**

From Table 1 it can be seen that the textbook has three reading focused sections, while there are other sections enabling students to practice reading skills. Reading is the skill with the second highest frequency in the textbook. Table 5 reveals that a total of 180 sub-skills are identified in all reading sections, and there are 11 different types of sub-skills identified, which are clustered according to top-down and bottom-up strategies.

Table 5
Reading sub-skills

| | **Reading sub-skills** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Read. | scan a text- identify details (TD) | 120 | 66.7% |
| Read. | skim (TD) | 17 | 9.4% |
| Read. | skim for gist (TD) | 13 | 7.2% |
| Read. | skim a text- check predictions (TD) | 2 | 1.1% |
| Read. | read and write a dialog as in the example (BU) | 3 | 1.7% |
| Read. | identify the reference in the text (BU) | 1 | 0.6% |
| Voca | guess the meaning of words from context (TD) | 10 | 5.6% |
| Voca | guess the missing parts of a text (TD) | 2 | 1.1% |
| Voca | guess the meaning of words (BU) | 9 | 5.0% |
| Voca | find word forms, complete chart using dict. (BU) | 2 | 1.1% |
| Voca | look up words in dictionary (BU) | 1 | 0.6% |
| | **Total** | **180** | |

TD: Top-down BU: Bottom-up

To begin with, Table 5 indicates that 168 out of 180 sub-skills intend to activate top-down processing skills, which are regarded as an effective and efficient way of initially analysing a text. However, *scan a text-identify details* constitutes a large number of such skills. Although the textbook includes many reading sub-skills, they are limited to the development of one sub-skill to a large extent.

When analysed in terms of percentage (Figure 9), one can easily notice that top-down processing skills account for 91.1% of reading sub-skills. While this seems somewhat desirable, as many as 66.7% of them focus on the development of one sub-skill in particular: *scan a text-identify details*.

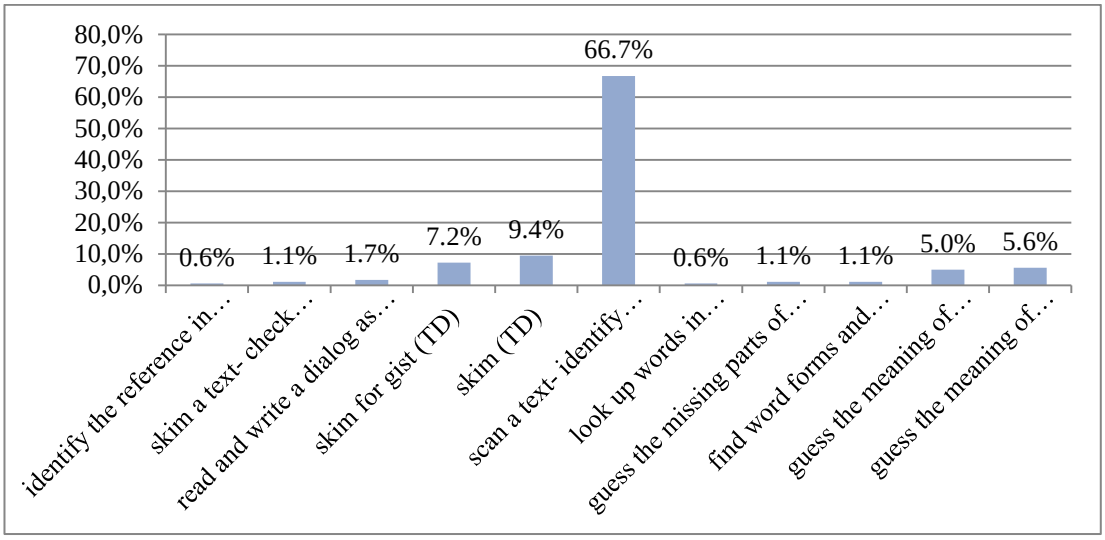


Figure 9. Reading sub-skills

Bottom-up strategy use is limited to vocabulary tasks; there is still plenty of room for using existing and other bottom-up strategies.

*Focus on reading: stages and sub-skills*

The conventional approach to teach reading involves the following stages: pre-

reading, while reading, and post-reading, as stated in the course introduction section of the textbook. The pre-stage needs to be done effectively since engaging students and providing a purpose before reading both play an important role in facilitating reading; the while stage intends to enable students to compare and discuss their understanding of the text through top-down and bottom-up strategies; and the post stage is utilized to integrate reading with other skills and vocabulary practice. It is noted that using reading as the pre or post stage could also contribute to the practice of other skills such as Reading, Speaking, Listening, Speaking, or Grammar. Table 6 illustrates how the reading skills and sub-skills are represented in these stages throughout the book.

Table 6
Stages of reading and sub-skills

| **Codes** | **Stages** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|
| PR-R | Pre-reading: Reading | 2 | 1.1% |
| R | While-reading | 72 | 40.0% |
| PoR-R | Post-reading: Reading | 1 | 0.6% |
| PoR-G | Post-reading: Grammar | 4 | 2.2% |
| PoR-LX | Post-reading: Lexis | 21 | 11.7% |
| PS-R | Pre-speaking: Reading | 2 | 1.1% |
| PW-R | Pre-writing: Reading | 27 | 15.0% |
| PoL-R | Post-listening: Reading | 1 | 0.6% |
| GT-R | Grammar through reading | 46 | 25.6% |
| PR-LX | Pre-reading: Lexis | 3 | 1.7% |
| PR-G | Pre-reading: Grammar | 1 | 0.6% |
| **Total** | | **180** | |

Overall, there are six pre-reading, 72 while-reading, 26 post-reading stage sub-skills. The while-reading stage is where the main emphasis is on the development of the target skill (i.e. reading). In the rest of the cases, reading is enhanced through integration into other language skills development processes.

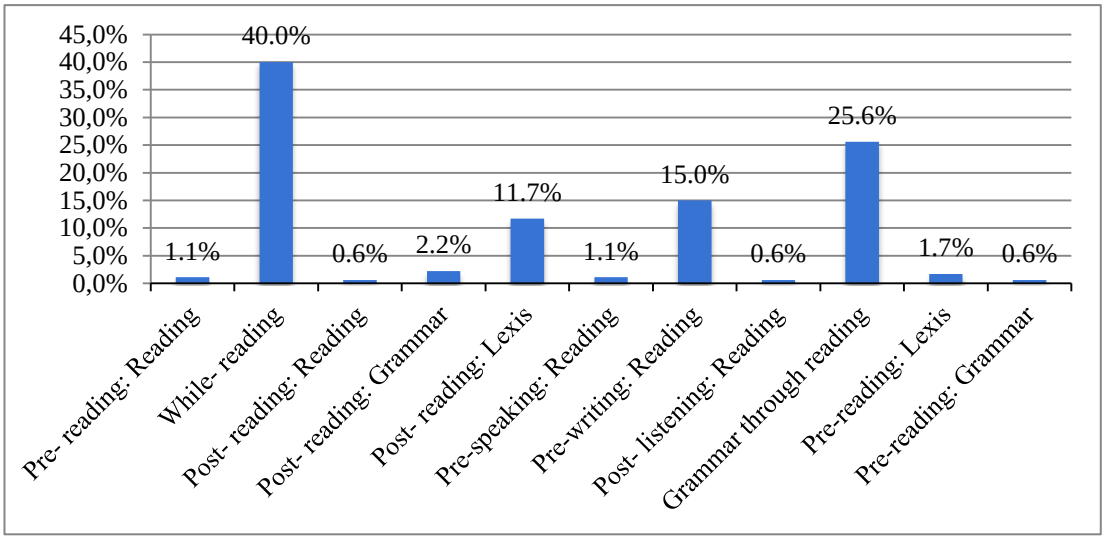



Figure 10. Percentage of stages of reading

Figure 10 shows that 40% of the tasks mainly focus on the development of reading skills.

**Productive skills**

Overall, 37.9% of all sub-skill and tasks are designed to develop productive skills: 30.9% for Speaking and 7% for Writing.

**Writing sub-skills and tasks**

As seen in Table 1, the textbook entails two writing focused sections; there are also other sections which incorporate writing in order to improve writing skills. The textbook includes a total of 57 sub-skills and tasks that offer writing practice in all sections (Table 7). When sub-skills and tasks are analysed individually, 19 different types of sub-skills and tasks are identified:

Table 7
Writing sub-skills and tasks

| Types | Writing sub-skills and tasks | Frequency | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| controlled | make sent. as in the ex. using prompts | 4 | 7.0% |
| controlled | draw a spidergram | 2 | 3.5% |
| controlled | combine sent. using prompts | 1 | 1.8% |
| controlled | complete an e-mail | 1 | 1.8% |
| free | write a descriptive paragraph | 11 | 19.3% |
| free comm. | write a transactional letter (respond) | 3 | 5.3% |
| free | write a dialog as in the ex. | 3 | 5.3% |
| free | write an invitation | 1 | 1.8% |
| guided | write a descriptive parag. using prompts | 6 | 10.5% |
| guided | write a narrative paragraph using prompts | 4 | 7.0% |
| guided | write a dialog as in the ex. using cue words | 3 | 5.3% |
| guided | make a list as preparation | 2 | 3.5% |
| guided | write a recipe (expository) | 2 | 3.5% |
| guided | write the summary of a text | 1 | 1.8% |
| guided | write captions for cartoons | 1 | 1.8% |
| guided | compare work with a partner-peer evaluation | 1 | 1.8% |
| guided | write a postcard using outline and plan | 1 | 1.8% |
| guided | complete a diary using the words given | 1 | 1.8% |
| lexical cont. | guess the meaning of words | 6 | 10.5% |
| lexical cont. | do the puzzle | 1 | 1.8% |
| lexical cont. | complete the text using the words given | 2 | 3.5% |
| **Total** | | **57** | |

The textbook provides opportunities for controlled, guided and free writing. There are 8 sub-skills and tasks designated for controlled, 22 for guided and 18 for free writing. As for the frequency of sub-skills, *write a descriptive paragraph* is found to be the most frequent with 11, when combined with *write a descriptive paragraph using prompts*; the total becomes 17 as seen in the table. Thus, *descriptive paragraph writing* comes up the most frequently. On the other hand, the least encountered sub-skills and tasks are *complete an e-mail, write an invitation, write the summary of a text, write captions for cartoons, compare work with a partner-peer evaluation, write a postcard using outline and plan, do the puzzle, complete a diary using the words given.* Each of these appears only once. The percentage of sub-skills is illustrated in Figure 11:

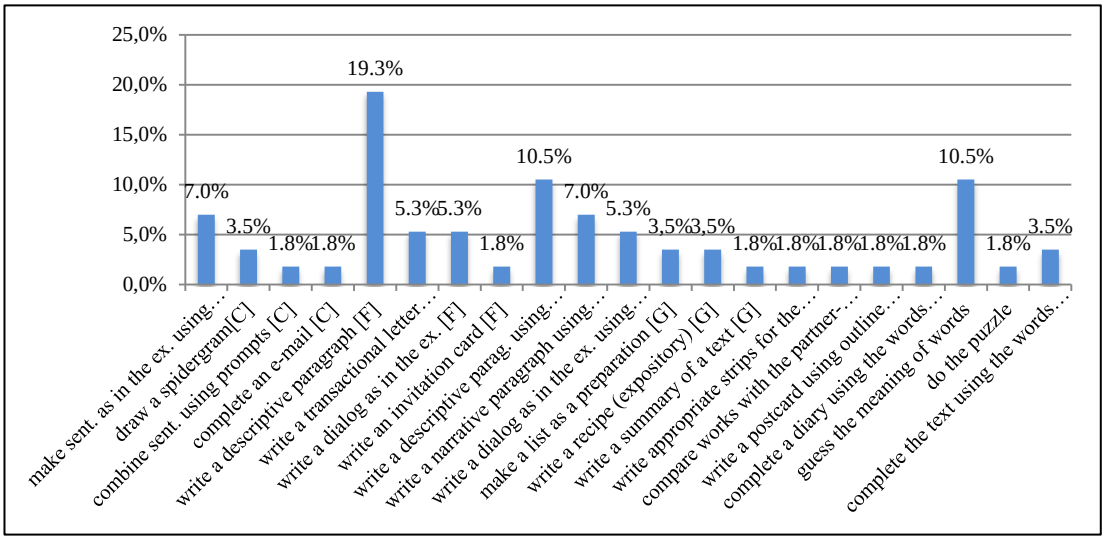



Figure 11. Percentage of writing sub-skills and tasks

The results indicate that the free writing task, *write a descriptive paragraph*, appears most often with 19.3%, whereas *complete an e-mail, write an invitation, write the summary of a text, write captions for cartoons, compare work with a partner-peer evaluation, write a postcard using outline and plan, do the puzzle,* and *complete a diary using the words given* are found least often. On the whole, controlled tasks form 14.1% of all writing tasks; guided tasks constitute about 38.8% and free tasks 31.7%.

*Focus on writing: stages and sub-skills & tasks*

Considering writing is a productive skill, making use of some stages while dealing with writing tasks is essential as they promote steady improvement. As introduced in the course introduction section of the textbook, writing has three major stages; pre-writing, while-writing, and post-writing. The pre-writing stage, particularly at lower levels, usually involves preparation for writing and allows students the opportunity to activate background knowledge about a certain topic rather than having them

generate ideas instantly. Furthermore, this stage enables students to plan their writing. The while-writing stage involves the production of a range of text types or accurate sentences. This stage typically involves controlled, guided, free, or free-communicative tasks. Lastly, the post-writing stage is usually used for the integration of writing with other language skills such as speaking and listening. To illustrate, students can be asked to write short dialogues that they will act out later during the post stage. Finally, writing as pre or post stages could help improve other language skills, namely Reading, Speaking, Listening, or Grammar. All stages of writing are indicated in Table 8.

Table 8
Stages of writing sub-skills and tasks

| **Codes** | **Stages** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|
| PW-LX | Pre-writing: Lexis | 9 | 15.3% |
| PW-W | Pre-writing: Writing | 6 | 10.2% |
| W | While-writing | 31 | 52.5% |
| PoR-W | Post-reading: Writing | 10 | 16.9% |
| PoL-W | Post-listening: Writing | 1 | 1.7% |
| PoW-S | Post-writing: Speaking | 2 | 3.4% |
| **Total** | | **59** | |

Overall, there are 15 pre-writing, 31 while-writing, and 13 post writing stage sub-skills and tasks (Table 8), and when analysed in terms of percentage (Figure 12),

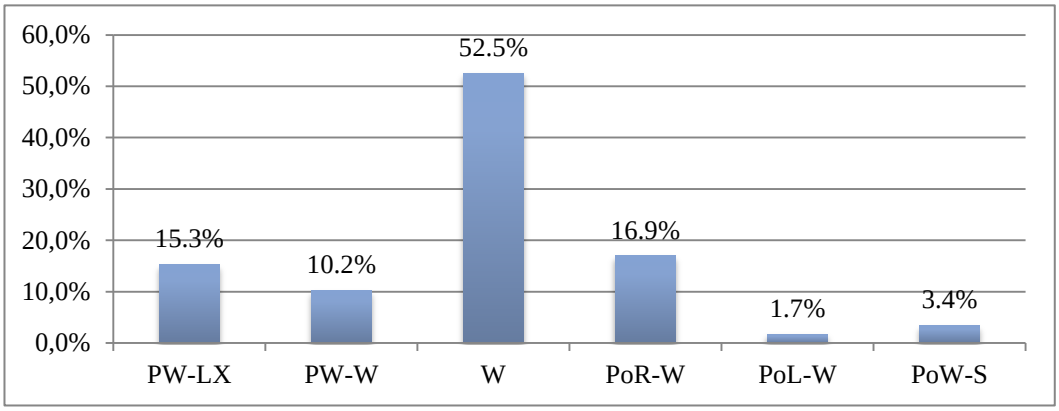


Figure 12. Percentage of stages of writing

the pre-writing stage composes 25.5% and while-writing stage forms 52.5% of the total in the textbook, whereas the post-writing stage constitutes only 3.4%. Overall, the distribution of stages does not seem well-balanced to the detriment of post activities in particular.

**Speaking sub-skills and tasks**

As shown in Table 1, there are two speaking focused sections in the textbook; although other sections also enable the practice of speaking. Overall, speaking has the greatest frequency in the textbook. The textbook includes a total of 251 sub-skills and tasks in all speaking sections. A look at the sub-skills and tasks individually reveals 21 sub-skills in the textbook (See Table 9):

Table 9
Speaking sub-skills & tasks

| **Speaking sub-skills and tasks** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|
| make a dialog (roles assigned) | 1 | 0.4% |
| spell out | 1 | 0.4% |
| ask questions about the text | 1 | 0.4% |
| combine sentences using prompts | 1 | 0.4% |
| give an example | 1 | 0.4% |
| prepare a menu | 1 | 0.4% |
| act out the dialog prepared | 2 | 0.8% |
| answer questions according to a given situation | 2 | 0.8% |
| do a questionnaire | 2 | 0.8% |
| guess the missing parts of a text (making predictions) | 2 | 0.8% |
| report the results | 2 | 0.8% |
| talk about an experience in the past | 3 | 1.2% |
| talk about future plans | 3 | 1.2% |
| describe a person | 3 | 1.2% |
| express feelings | 4 | 1.6% |
| express likes/dislikes | 4 | 1.6% |

Table 9 (cont'd)
Speaking sub-skills & tasks

| **Speaking sub-skills and tasks** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|
| create your own dialog | 4 | 1.6% |
| express preferences | 5 | 2.0% |
| describe the picture | 5 | 2.0% |
| act out the dialog given | 7 | 2.8% |
| guess the meaning of words | 9 | 3.6% |
| make sentences as in the example | 10 | 4.0% |
| make a dialog using prompts | 13 | 5.2% |
| discuss the given topic | 16 | 6.4% |
| talk about the picture | 16 | 6.4% |
| talk about the picture- guessing content | 18 | 7.2% |
| talk about the topic | 20 | 8.0% |
| ask and answer quest. as in the example using prompts | 21 | 8.4% |
| share experiences/personal choice/opinion | 74 | 29.5% |
| **Total** | **251** | |

As can be seen from Table 9, the sub-skill, *share experiences/personal choice/opinion* (74), is the most frequent sub-skill in the textbook. In the table, the least frequent sub-skills are *ask questions about the text*, *combine sentences using prompts*, *give an example*, *dialog (roles assigned)*, *spell out*, and lastly *prepare a menu*. Each appears only once in the textbook. For the most part, the textbook contains one speaker oriented skills. Dialogue-based, two-way communication is rather rare.

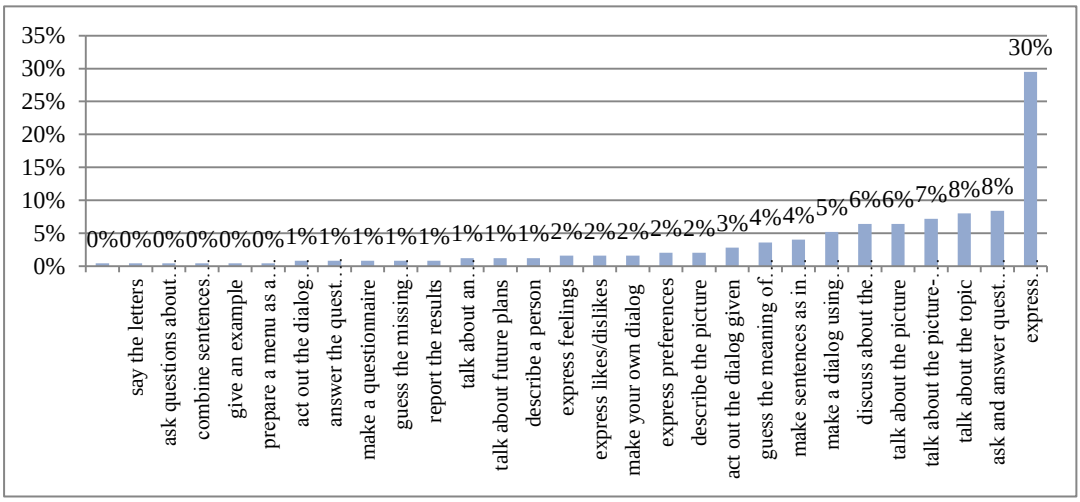


Figure 13. Percentage of speaking sub-skills and tasks

As illustrated in Figure 13, the sub-skill, *share experiences/personal choice/opinion*, only constitutes about 30% of all sub-skills and tasks. In contrast, the sub-skills, *ask questions about the text*, *combine sentences using prompts*, *give an example*, *dialog (roles assigned)*, *say the letters*, and *prepare a menu* are the least encountered ones, each making up 0.4% of speaking sub-skills in the textbook.

*Focus on speaking: stages and sub-skills and tasks*

Speaking is the most prominent skill in the textbook since the textbook aims to enable students to communicate effectively. This understanding is predicated on the course introduction section of the textbook. Therefore, the textbook includes speaking sub-skills and tasks at different stages. The typical approach to teaching speaking includes three stages: pre-speaking, while-speaking, and post-speaking. The pre-stage usually means activating background knowledge, as well as providing a solid purpose to speak; the while-stage focuses on the production at a high level of fluency; and the post- stage offers various follow-up activities integrating speaking with other skills, namely Listening and Reading. Speaking could also play an important role in Listening, Reading, and Writing. Indispensable for maintaining interaction in class, speaking also plays an important role as the pre or post stages during the development of other language skills and grammar. As stated in the course introduction of the textbook, an integrated skills syllabus is adopted to develop all language skills throughout the textbook. Considering all stages, speaking is used frequently in order to promote student-student interaction rather than student-teacher interaction in class. To this end, speaking is seen in a variety of stages in the textbook. Table 10 shows the stages of speaking.

Table 10
Stages of speaking and sub-skills & tasks

| Codes | Stages | Frequency | Percentage |
|---|---|---|---|
| PL-Q&A | Pre-listening- question and answer | 32 | 12.7% |
| PR-Q&A | Pre-reading- question and answer | 74 | 29.5% |
| PW-Q&A | Pre-writing- question and answer | 4 | 1.6% |
| PS-Q&A | Pre-speaking- question and answer | 5 | 2.0% |
| PW-S | Pre-writing- speaking | 5 | 2.0% |
| PL-S | Pre-listening- speaking | 10 | 4.0% |
| PS-LX | Pre-speaking- lexis | 8 | 3.2% |
| PS-S | Pre-speaking- speaking | 3 | 1.2% |
| GT-S | Grammar through speaking | 13 | 5.2% |
| S | While- speaking | 22 | 8.8% |
| PoS-LX | Post-speaking- lexis | 1 | 0.4% |
| PoS-G | Post-speaking- grammar | 1 | 0.4% |
| PoL-S | Post-listening- speaking | 17 | 6.8% |
| PoR-S | Post-reading - speaking | 32 | 12.7% |
| PoW-S | Post-writing- speaking | 2 | 0.8% |
| PoR-G | Post-reading- grammar | 22 | 8.8% |
| **Total** | | **251** | |

As shown in Table 10, overall there are 141 pre-speaking, 22 while-speaking and 75 post-speaking stage sub-skills and tasks. The remaining sub-skills/tasks are *grammar through speaking* (13).

When analysed stage by stage in terms of percentage, the following Figure 14

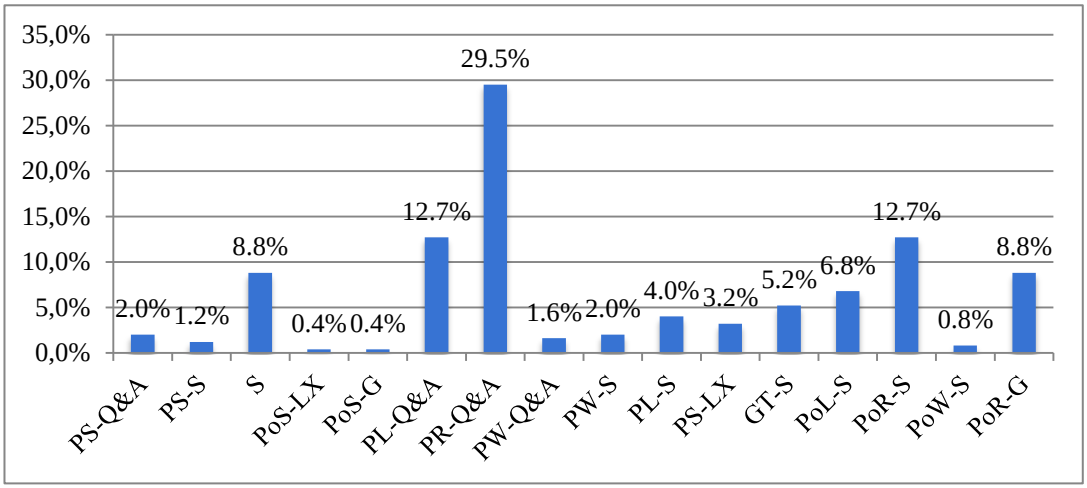


Figure 14. Percentage of stages of speaking

indicates that only 8.8% of the sub-skills/tasks are designated as while-speaking stage tasks. The pre-speaking stage sub-skills and tasks represent 56.2% of all in comparison to post-speaking stage items which make up 29.9% of the textbook. This demonstrates that speaking practice is used to integrate the language skills and communication in the classroom primarily in the pre-stage.

## Pronunciation sub-skills

As can be seen in Table 1, the textbook includes one pronunciation section with 42 sub-skills. All along the pronunciation sections, 10 sub-skills are identified (Table 11). The pronunciation sections are made up of controlled activities that fall under two features of pronunciation: segmental and suprasegmental. The former includes individual sounds and how they are combined, and the latter involves “stress”, “rhythm”, and “intonation” (Thornbury, 2006a, p.185).

Table 11
*Pronunciation* sub-skills

| **Types** | **Feat.** | **Pronunciation sub-skills** | **Freq.** | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Contr. | Seg | listen and complete the table with the verbs | 1 | 2.4% |
| Contr. | Supra | listen and label strong and weak forms | 1 | 2.4% |
| Contr. | Seg | listen and mark sent. with short forms of verbs | 1 | 2.4% |
| Contr. | Seg | listen and underline the weak syllables | 1 | 2.4% |
| Contr. | Seg | listen and notice the difference between sounds | 2 | 4.8% |
| Contr. | Seg | listen and notice the syllable number | 2 | 4.8% |
| Contr. | Supra | listen and repeat the sentences | 2 | 4.8% |
| Contr. | Seg | listen and mark/notice/underline/find stressed syllables | 5 | 11.9% |
| Contr. | Seg | listen and tick the sound you hear | 8 | 19.0% |
| Contr. | Seg | listen and repeat the sounds/words | 19 | 45.2% |
| | | **Total** | **42** | |

Contr.: Controlled, Seg: Segmental  Supra: Suprasegmental

As can be seen in Table 11, *listen and repeat the sounds/words* is the most encountered sub-skill with 19 in the textbook. However, *listen and complete the table with the verbs, listen and label strong and weak forms, listen and tick the*

*sentences with short forms of the verbs you hear*, and *listen and underline the weak syllables* are identified rather low with only one for each. Then, all pronunciation sub-skills are found in controlled type activities. It is also seen in the table that there are codes used for segmental (Seg) and suprasegmental (Supra) features. The table illustrates that while 39 sub-skills are associated with segmental features, the remaining three are suprasegmental. Segmental representation underlines how sub-skills deal with individual sounds. A suprasegmental feature is not at the phonological level, and varies with a continuous speech sequence. This feature, therefore, helps to improve speaking performance. Figure 15 illustrates the distribution of percentage of each sub-skill.

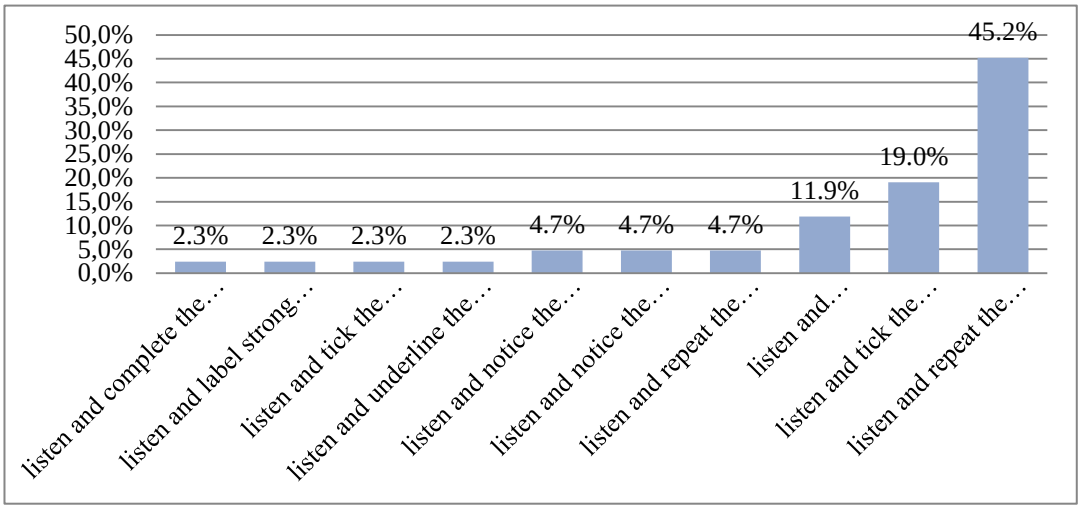



Figure 15. Percentage of *Pronunciation* sub-skills

As indicated in Figure 15, the sub-skill, *listen and repeat the sounds/words*, forms nearly half of the sub-skills with 45.2%. Among all, there is very little emphasis on *Listen and complete the table with the verbs* (2.4%), *listen and label strong and weak forms* (2.4%), *listen and tick the sentences with short forms of the verbs you hear* (2.4%), and *listen and underline the weak syllables* (2.4%). Together they make up

9.6% of the pronunciation section. All in all, the suprasegmental feature is seen in 7.2% of all sub-skills, and the segmental feature is observed in 92.8%. This shows that the suprasegmental feature comes up significantly less in terms of the proportion of all sub-skills.

## Grammar sub-skills and tasks

Following the practice of language skills, the textbook presents two sections mainly focusing on grammar in the textbook: *Let's practice* and *Let's remember*. Hence, it is necessary to examine how grammar is presented and practised in the textbook by considering the sections individually. As can be observed from Table 1, the *Let's practice* section includes 99 sub-skills and tasks, and the *Let's remember* section is counted as 50 sub-skills and tasks. The results indicate that there are 146 sub-skills and tasks regarding grammar use, which comprise 16.3% of the textbook in total (see Table 2).

### Let's practice

After grammar is presented in a context during the practice of four skills, the *Let's practice* section provides practice on language areas and revises target vocabulary. Table 12 shows the sub-skills and tasks in *Let's practice* section.

Table 12
*Let's practice* sub-skills & tasks

| **Types** | ***Let's practice* sub-skills and tasks** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|
| MCU | recognize the register | 1 | 1.0% |
| MCU | write the forms of the words | 1 | 1.0% |
| MCU | recognize the conjunctions in the text | 1 | 1.0% |
| MCU | put the words in the correct order | 2 | 2.0% |
| MCU | choose the correct option | 5 | 5.1% |
| MCU | match items | 8 | 8.1% |
| MCU | gap fill or substitution drill | 47 | 47.5% |
| MNU | answer the questions according to the situations given | 1 | 1.0% |
| MNU | ask and answer questions as in the example using prompts | 1 | 1.0% |
| MNU | write a paragraph using prompts | 1 | 1.0% |
| MNU | write captions for the cartoons | 1 | 1.0% |
| MNU | write sentences as in the example | 4 | 4.0% |
| MNU | rewrite sentences using prompts | 5 | 5.1% |
| MNU | write a dialog as in the example | 5 | 5.1% |
| MNU | combine sentences using prompts | 7 | 7.1% |
| MNU | write sentences using prompts | 9 | 9.1% |
| | **Total** | **99** | |

As indicated in Table 12, *gap fill or substitution drill* has a great majority with 47. However, there are less encountered sub-skills and tasks such as *recognize the register, write the forms of the words, recognize the conjunctions in the text, answer the questions according to the situations given, ask and answer questions as in the example using prompts, write captions for the cartoons,* and *write a paragraph using prompts,* which occur only one time.

Additionally, the table reveals how the use of mechanical (MCU) and meaningful (MNU) sub-skills is distributed. It is observed that mechanical with 65, and meaningful with 34 have divergent frequencies. This shows that almost less than one third of the activities are found as meaningful.

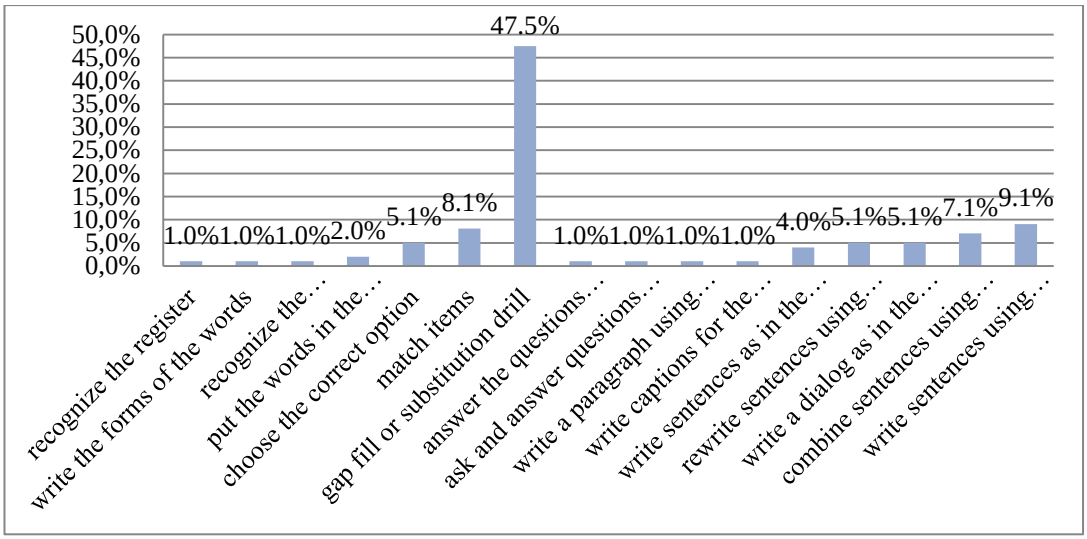



Figure 16. Percentage of *Let's practice* sub-skills and tasks

According to Figure 16, *gap fill or substitution drill* represents 47.5% of the sub-skills and tasks in the *Let's practice* section. In comparison, there are seven sub-skills and tasks, with only 1%, such as *recognize the register, write the forms of the words, recognize the conjunctions in the text, answer the questions according to the situations given, ask and answer questions as in the example using prompts, write strips for the cartoons* and *write a paragraph using prompts*. These form 7% of all. Considering the types of sub-skills and tasks, it should be noted that mechanical ones constitute a total of 65.7% sub-skills and tasks, whereas meaningful ones form 34.7%. It appears that the emphasis is on mechanical practice.

**Let's remember**

After the practice of grammar in the *Let's practice* section, the *Let's remember* section highlights the target grammatical rules through short notes, charts, and example sentences. This section aims to remind students of the structural points in grammar. Additionally, a short notice stating *see grammar reference* is also included at the end of the section with an eye to clarifying the grammar notes in detail.

Table 13
*Let's remember* sub-skills & tasks

| Code | Section | Sub-skills and tasks | Frequency | % |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| RR | Remember | Substitution tables/explanations | 50 | 100.0% |
| **Total** | | | **50** | |

Overall, this section is observed to include only *substitution tables/explanations and examples* throughout the textbook. It is also observed in the table that there are codes used for *remember rules* (RR). It can be seen that this section includes 50 *substitution tables/explanations and examples* in the textbook.

**Vocabulary sub-skills and tasks**

As given in Table 14, overall 59 vocabulary related sub-skills and tasks are identified. The vocabulary exercises in the textbook are distributed across three different sections; *Phrasal verbs (PV), Fun corner (FC), Let's practice (LP).* Target vocabulary is presented in *Fun corner* through tongue twisters, illustrations, puzzles and jokes, in *Phrasal verbs* through sentence completion drills *Let's practice* through several exercises such as guessing, defining, matching and so on.

Table 14
Vocabulary sub-skills & tasks

| Section | Vocabulary sub-skills and tasks | Frequency | % |
|---|---|---|---|
| LP | find word forms | 1 | 3.2% |
| PV | gap fill or substitution drill | 3 | 9.7% |
| PV, LP | guess the meaning of words | 3 | 9.7% |
| LP | guess the names of the items from the descript. | 1 | 3.2% |
| FC | tongue twister | 12 | 38.7% |
| FC | telling jokes | 10 | 32.3% |
| FC | entertaining questions | 1 | 3.2% |
| FC | making crosswords | 1 | 3.2% |
| FC | riddle | 1 | 3.2% |
| FC | unscramble the words | 1 | 3.2% |
| | **Total** | **34** | |

According to the table, *tongue twister* is the most frequent task with 12 in the table. *Telling jokes* follows with 10. It is also found that *entertaining questions, find word forms, guess the names of the items from the descriptions, making crosswords, riddle,* and *unscramble the words* are the least frequent ones, coming up only once. The table also reveals that in 26 sub-skills and tasks are identified in the *Fun corner* section, four in the *Phrasal verbs* section, and finally, four in the *Let's practice* section. This indicates that *Fun corner* is a tool to use the target vocabulary further.

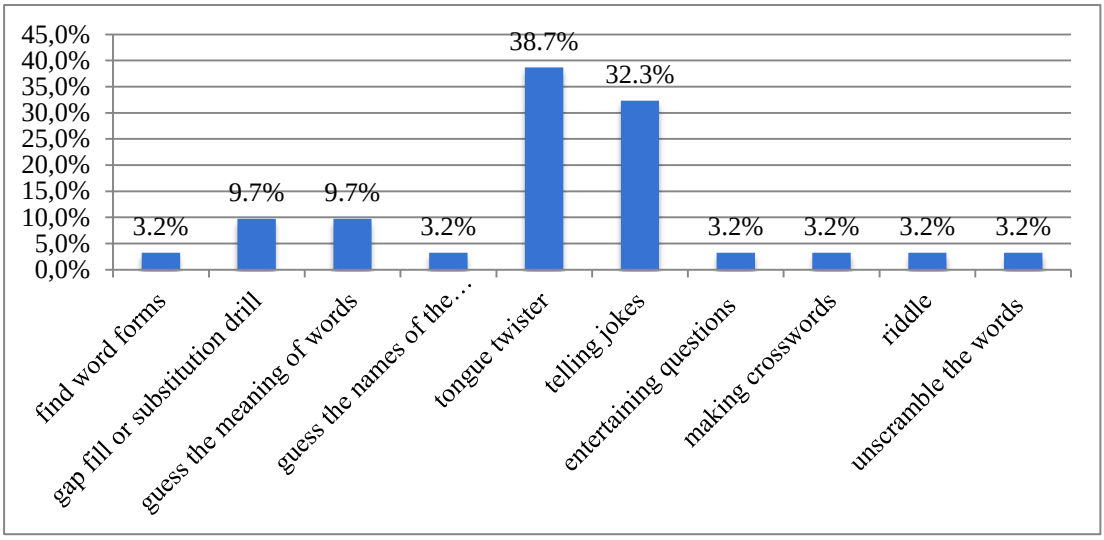


Figure 17. Percentage of vocabulary sub-skills and tasks

When interpreted in terms of percentages (Figure 17), it is observed that the key focus is on *tongue twisters* (38.7%) in the textbook. In contrast to this, *entertaining questions, find word forms, guess the names of the items from the descriptions, making crosswords, riddle,* and *unscramble the words* are each at 3.2%. Since vocabulary exercises are divided into three groups, it is necessary to calculate the percentage of sections related to vocabulary. The figure reveals that while *Fun corner* makes up 83.8% of the total, both *Let's practice* and *Phrasal verbs* are at 8.1%.

## Other sections

### Project work

The textbook integrates language areas and skills in the *Project work* section. As stated in the course introduction part of the textbook, this section enables students to activate all language skills and revise the whole. In particular, the activities include preparing questionnaires, preparing quizzes, writing descriptive paragraphs, writing instructions, drawing spidergrams etc. In total, there are 27 sub-skills and tasks identified in *Project work* section (Table 15):

Table 15
*Project work* sub-skills & tasks

| ***Project work*** **sub-skills and tasks** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|
| draw a spidergram | 1 | 3.4% |
| draw a street plan | 1 | 3.4% |
| share experiences/personal choice/opinion | 1 | 3.4% |
| guess the meaning of words | 1 | 3.4% |
| make a collage and describe it | 1 | 3.4% |
| do a questionnaire in class and share the results | 1 | 3.4% |
| prepare a quiz on which profession suits you | 1 | 3.4% |
| do a survey and report it in class | 1 | 3.4% |
| interview someone | 1 | 3.4% |
| prepare a questionnaire in class | 1 | 3.4% |
| prepare a sample speech and speak in class | 1 | 3.4% |
| prepare an ID card | 1 | 3.4% |
| prepare a similar quiz | 1 | 3.4% |
| talk about predictions | 1 | 3.4% |
| write a description | 1 | 3.4% |
| write a descriptive paragraph | 1 | 3.4% |
| write a letter | 1 | 3.4% |
| write a paragraph using prompts | 1 | 3.4% |
| write a short story | 1 | 3.4% |
| make up an ending to a story | 1 | 3.4% |
| write an invitation | 1 | 3.4% |
| write instructions | 1 | 3.4% |
| prepare a list | 2 | 6.9% |
| report results | 2 | 6.9% |
| prepare a poster | 3 | 10.3% |
| **Total** | **29** | |

As can be observed from Table 15, *Project work* sub-skills and tasks usually occur less than three times. On the whole, *prepare a poster* has the most noteworthy frequency with three. Later, *draw a spidergram, draw a street plan, share experiences/personal choice/opinion, guess the meaning of words, make a collage and describe it, do a questionnaire in class and report the results, prepare a quiz which profession suits you, do a survey and report it in class, interview someone, prepare a questionnaire in class, prepare a sample speech and speak in class, prepare an ID card, prepare a similar quiz, talk about predictions, write a description, write a descriptive paragraph, write a letter, write a paragraph using prompts, write a short story, make up the ending to a story, write an invitation,* and *write instructions* are the sub-skills and tasks that appear only one time in the textbook.

Figure 18 illustrates the percentage allocation of *Project work* sub-skills and tasks.

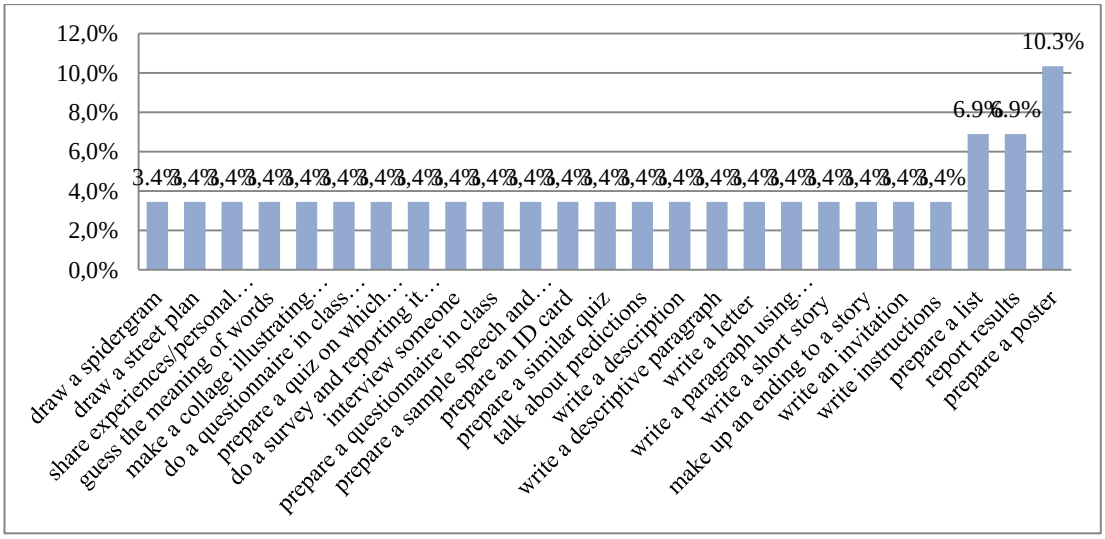


Figure 18. Percentage of Project work sub-skills and tasks

It can be concluded that *prepare a poster* comes up most often, but the purpose here could be to expose students to a range of different tasks and activities (Figure 18).

*Focus on Project work*

*Project work* is becoming popular in language classrooms; therefore, it is necessary to note the benefits of this activity for learners. The textbook offers 29 sub-skills and tasks that appear at the end of each unit throughout the textbook (Table 16). This section typically helps learners use integrated skills and newly learnt language components. Similarly, the activities encourage learners to use their background and creativity. Usually learners have an end product to complete at the end. Balance between fluency and accuracy can also be achieved during this section. Even though there is not a certain approach to acknowledge learners about the stages involved in *Project work*, a limited number of *Project work* sections involve various stages such as the pre and while stages (Table 16).

Table 16
Stages of *Project work*

| **Codes** | **Stages** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|
| PS-LX | Pre-speaking: Lexis | 1 | 3.4% |
| PW-Q&A | Pre-writing: question and answer | 1 | 3.4% |
| PW-R | Pre-writing: Reading | 1 | 3.4% |
| PW-S | Pre-writing: Speaking | 1 | 3.4% |
| S | While-speaking | 6 | 20.7% |
| W | While-writing | 19 | 65.5% |
| **Total** | | **29** | |

As indicated in Table 16, the *while-writing* stage includes 19 out of 29 tasks and activities, constituting 65.5% (Figure 19) of all *Project work* tasks and activities. This shows how writing has a prominent place in the *Project work* section. While-speaking comes next with 6. The rest is composed of *pre-speaking lexis, pre-writing reading and speaking* stage tasks and activities, which are each found only once.

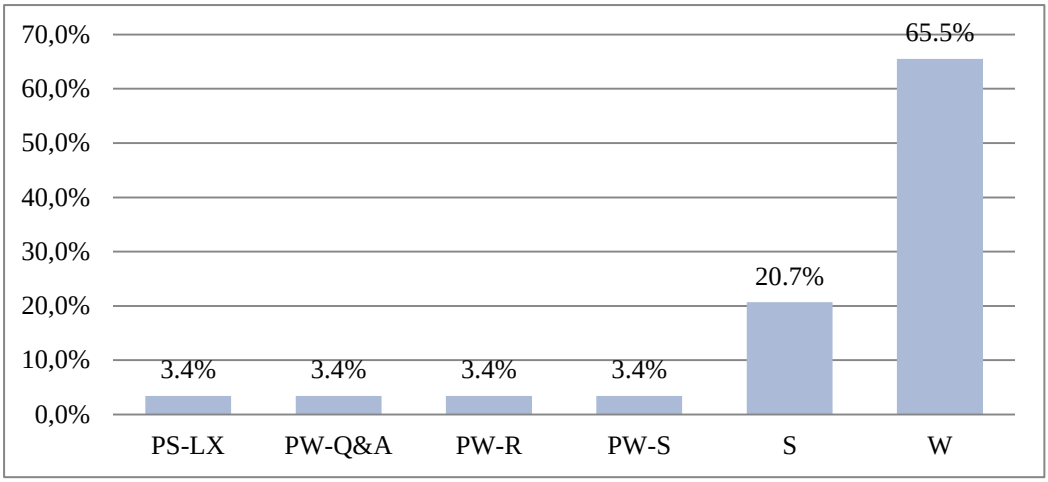


Figure 19. Percentage of stages of *Project work*

The total percentage of pre-stages is nearly 13%, but the while stages form 86.2% of the total. The while stage is divided into two; speaking (20.7%) and writing (65.5%.).

**Game time**

This section is scattered across units unevenly. It's made up of picture interpretations, guessing, bingo games, puzzles and several chart completions. The instructions of the section directly lead to the games. As seen in Table 17, in total eight *Game time* sub-skills and tasks are identified.

Table 17
*Game time* sub-skills & tasks

| Codes | ***Game time* sub-skills and tasks** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|
| S | answer the quest. according to the situations given | 1 | 12.5% |
| LX | bingo plus | 1 | 12.5% |
| S | guessing | 1 | 12.5% |
| LX | miming | 1 | 12.5% |
| LX | puzzle | 1 | 12.5% |
| S | ask and answer questions | 3 | 37.5% |
| | **Total** | **8** | |

S: speaking, LX: lexis

The table above shows that all of the tasks are given only once, but *ask and answer questions* occurs three times. As shown in Figure 20, *Ask and answer questions* is allocated

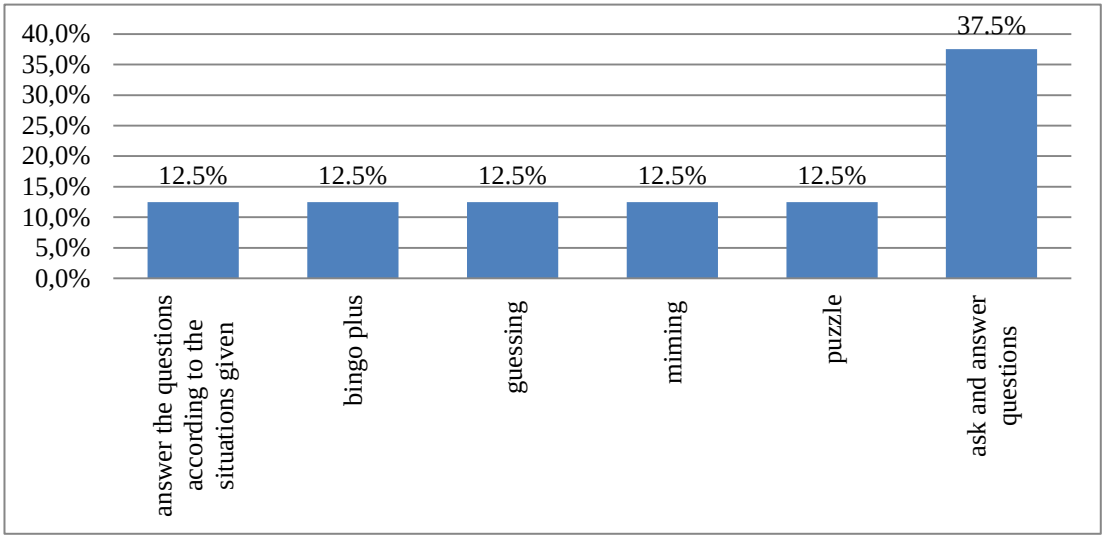



Figure 20. Percentage of *Game time* sub-skills and tasks

the highest percentage out of all tasks. Speaking tasks make up the majority of all tasks with 62.5% while Lexis focused tasks appear at 37.5%.

**Let's start**

At the beginning of each unit, this section comes up to introduce the theme and topic of the unit through several activities. The aim is to draw student interest and engagement for the activities coming up. The sub-skills and tasks, 48 in total, are given below:

Table 18
*Let's start* sub-skills & tasks

| ***Let's start* sub-skills and tasks** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|
| complete the dialog using the words given | 1 | 2.1% |
| give an example | 1 | 2.1% |
| introduce family members | 1 | 2.1% |
| listen and repeat | 1 | 2.1% |
| practise the dialog | 1 | 2.1% |
| talk about a person | 1 | 2.1% |
| talk about the picture | 5 | 10.4% |
| guess the meaning of words | 12 | 25.0% |
| share experiences/personal choice/opinion | 25 | 52.1% |
| **Total** | **48** | |

As seen in the table, *share experiences/personal choice/opinion* is the most frequent task with 25 sub-skills and tasks. The following sub-skills and tasks are found only once: *complete the dialog using the words given, give an example, introduce family members, listen and repeat, practise the dialog, talk about a person*.

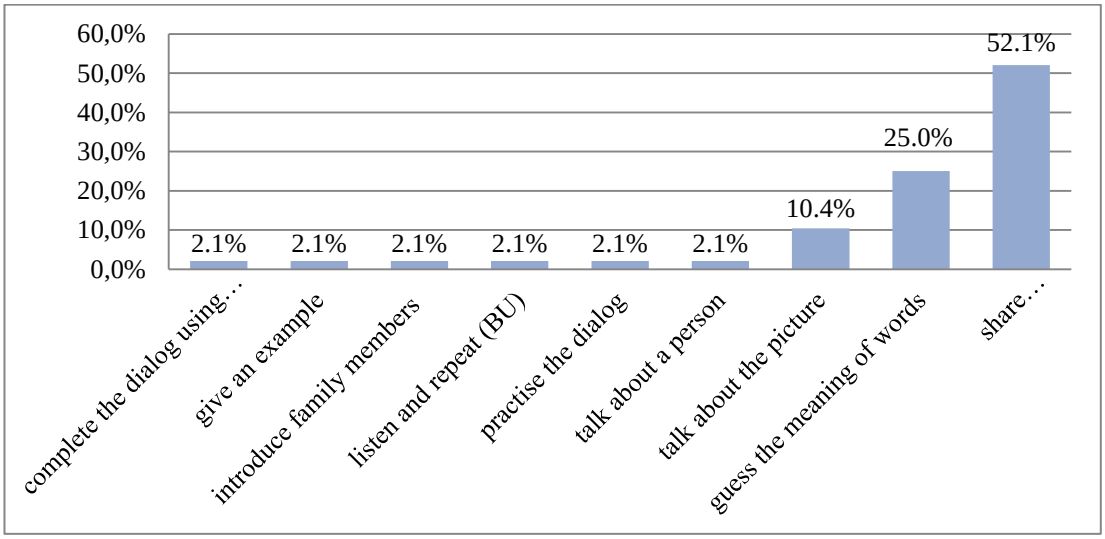


Figure 21. Percentage of *Let's start* sub-skills and tasks

Prominently, at the beginning of most units, students are asked to *share experiences/personal choice/opinion* (52.1%), and following that, they *guess the meaning of words* in 25% of the *Let's start* section. The rest of the sub skills occupy

very small percentages: *talk about the picture* (10.4%) and *complete the dialog using the words given, give an example, introduce family members, listen and repeat, practise the dialog, talk about a person* (2.1% for each).

*Focus on the stages of Let's start*

This section functions as a lead-in to each unit, and to this end, is used mainly for speaking and listening (Table 19).

Table 19
Stages of *Let's start*

| **Codes** | **Stages** | **Frequency** | **%** |
|---|---|---|---|
| Warmer-L | Warmer-Listening | 1 | 2.1% |
| Warmer-LX | Warmer- Lexis | 21 | 43.8% |
| Warmer-S | Warmer- Speaking | 26 | 54.2% |
| **Total** | | **48** | |

As shown in Table 19, *Speaking* with 26 sub-skills and tasks, constitutes 54.2% of all sub-skills and tasks (Figure 22).

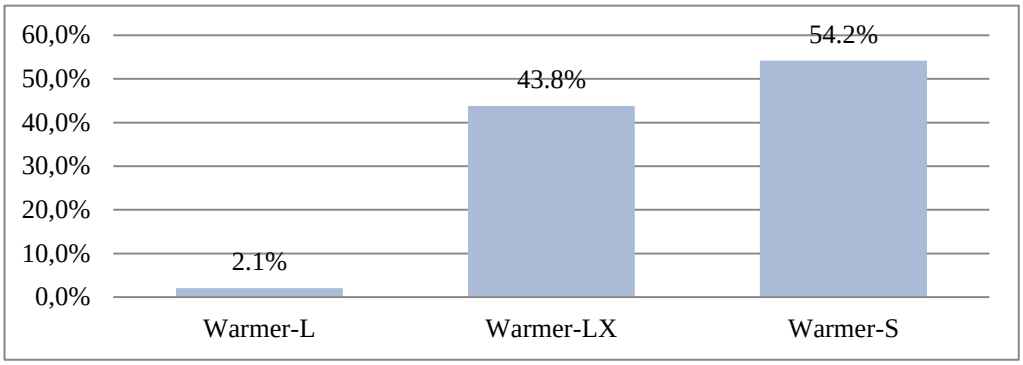



Figure 22. Percentage of stages in *Let's start*

The *Listening* (2.1%) stage appears the least frequently in this section.

# CHAPTER 5: DISCUSSION

## Introduction

In this chapter, an overview of the study, the discussion of findings, the implications for practice, the implications for research and finally the limitations are presented.

## Overview of the study

The aim of this study was to analyse one of the Anatolian high school textbook series, the *New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9, to see the extent to which the textbook complies with contemporary communicative means for teaching language skills, vocabulary and grammar. To this end, firstly, the stages and sub-skills targeting the teaching of listening, reading, writing, speaking, pronunciation, as well as grammar and vocabulary were analysed, and next, how they fit into the framework of communicative language teaching were discussed.

This study is built around answering the following questions and sub-questions:

1. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop listening as a receptive skill within the context of communicative language teaching?

2. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop reading as a receptive skill within the context of communicative language teaching?

3. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop writing as a productive skill within the context of communicative language teaching?

4. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop speaking as a productive skill within the context of communicative language teaching?

5. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop pronunciation within the context of communicative language teaching?

6. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop grammar within the context of communicative language teaching?

7. How does *the New Bridge to Success* for Grade 9 (NBS) intend to develop vocabulary within the context of communicative language teaching?

8. How does *the New Bridge to Success* (NBS) for Grade 9 intend to develop integrated skills within the context of communicative language teaching?

## Major findings

The major findings are discussed in the following order.

How NBS for Grade 9 intends to develop the following in the light of CLT:

- Receptive Skills: Listening & Reading
- Productive Skills: Writing & Speaking
- Pronunciation
- The four skills across the textbook
- Grammar: *Let's practice* & *Let's remember* sections

- Vocabulary
- Other sections: *Project work*, *Game time*, and *Let's start*

After an overall analysis, NBS is found to include sub-skills across the four language skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing. The report released by the Board of Education, grounding its principles on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), proposes all skills to be taught proportionately while emphasizing how the integration of four skills is vital for communicative language teaching (TTKB, 2011).

In NBS, there are about 894 sub-skills, and a wider variety of productive skills than receptive ones is noticed during the analysis: the percentages of receptive skills are found as reading 20.7% and listening 11.4%, and the percentages of productive skills as speaking 31.9% and writing 8.5%. As shown in Figure 6, although speaking holds the major percentage in all language skills, the uneven distribution of writing and speaking as productive skills indicates that the textbook falls short of developing productive skills. In spite of the high percentage of speaking sub-skills (31.9%), the pronunciation section is found to be only 4.6%. Evidently, there is not much attempt to provide systematic training and guidance for developing and improving pronunciation. Overall, the textbook is seen to represent a skills-based syllabus with 72.5% of all receptive and productive skills, while grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary are at %27.5. Still, the textbook is not found to include a relevantly balanced distribution of skills.

## Receptive skills

In this section, the two major receptive skills: listening and reading are discussed using the results from the analysis and the principles of the communicative language teaching approach. First, listening skills and then reading skills are explored.

### Listening

*Communicative listening*

In the context of communicative language teaching, listening has an interactive nature and involves learners in the content of listening practice with the help of activities in which they respond to a wide range of listening texts in spoken or written forms. As a result, non-participatory listening, in which learners are passive listeners, is replaced with a task in which learners actively take part in the listening process and give personalized responses (Nunan, 2007). Additionally, there are significant strategies that can be used in listening activities: *selective listening, listening for different purposes, predicting, progressive structuring, inferencing,* and *personalising*. These strategies help students to benefit from listening activities in the communicative classrooms (Nunan, 2007). Also, they can provide a framework within which learners can develop a variety of sub-skills in listening classrooms.

*Listening in NBS*

As it has been shown in the data, the listening tasks in NBS do not seem to encourage the involvement of learners in the listening activity thorough personalization or the capacity to perform strategies effectively. In fact, there are a very limited number of tasks that focus on giving responses: For instance, *listen and*

*make sentences using prompts* occurs only once throughout the textbook. Above all, there is almost no active listening, which would hinder the generation of the natural mode of autodirectional listening, where one retrieves a speech that has been stored in the memory or creates their own internal dialog as in making plans in mind (Morley, 2001), as mentioned in Chapter 2.

*Listening sub-skills*

As indicated in Table 3, there are 11 sub-skills identified in the textbook; the most frequently used one is *listen for details*, and the least frequently used ones are *listen and identify numbers*, *listen and guess missing parts of a text*, and *listen for gist*. The range of skill in the textbook is narrow, and the sub-skills are not evenly distributed.

Alternatively, NBS could have provided more opportunities for developing such top-down skills as *listen for gist*. Additionally, it could have included other essential sub-skills as given below (Richards, 2008, p.9):

1. Use key words to construct the schema of a discourse
2. Infer the setting for a text
3. Infer the role of the participants and their goals
4. Infer causes or effects
5. Infer unstated details of a situation
6. Anticipate questions related to the topic or situation

*Distribution of listening sub-skills*

The data shows that the listening sub-skills are firstly distributed under two processes: bottom up (BU) and top down (TD), using the conceptualization made by Richards and Renandya (2007, p.235). Secondly, these two processes are investigated according to the following two main communicative categories of

teaching listening: information processing and linguistic functions (Morley, (2001).

Information processing: Listening sub-skills are found to be almost equally distributed under top-down (TD) and bottom-up (BU) processes (TD: 49.6%, BU: 50.4%). Bottom up processes carry unidirectional communication characteristics that correspond to one-way listening without interaction, while top down processes are found to be almost autodirectional or bidirectional. As a result, learners appear to lack the necessary communicative roles in effective listening activities, and integrating them with each other through practice in three communicative categories.

NBS strongly fosters unidirectional communication through listening tasks such as *listen to identify the key words or phrases in a text (14.9%)*, while top-down processes fail to supply fully independent production and student-centred teaching. The task, *listen and make sentences using prompts*, is found to be the best example of autodirectional communication as coined by Richards and Renandya (2007), but it occurs only 1.0% in NBS. This shows that even though the number of top-down and bottom-up processes are balanced in NBS, top-down processing does not include tasks effectively contributing to autodirectional communication. Rather, NBS could have included the following sub-skills (Morley, 2001, p.78):

- Listening and performing actions
- Listening and performing operations
- Listening and solving problems
- Listening and transcribing
- Listening and summarising information
- Interactive listening and negotiating of meaning through questioning/answering routines

Linguistic functions: Transactional listening, where students are provided with

simple and predictable language, is included in NBS through BU processes, and interactional listening, where the students maintain autonomous interaction, is supported by TD processes but rather poorly. As seen below, BU process in NBS includes the tasks intending to:

- listen and identify numbers
- listen and identify the whole sentence in a text
- listen and guess the meaning of words
- listen and repeat
- listen and check answers
- listen to identify the key words or phrases in a text

According to Van Duzer (1997), the BU process should include both phonological knowledge, and pronunciation features to derive meaning. Also, according to Clark and Clark (1977), the bottom-up process should follow a path from the introduction of phonological representations to the memorization of the meanings without the need for representations themselves. The listening tasks in NBS as listed above serve information relating to sounds, separation of words and sentences. They also lead students to derive meanings. Transactional function is to some extent realized through these tasks where students can gather meanings and exchange information, such as, *listen and identify the whole sentence in a text.* Still, there is no organized path to lead students from solid phonological information and to meaningful use of language units in context.

The TD process is seen in the literature as the basis of communicative skills (Brown, 2001). The TD process in NBS includes the following listening sub-skills:

- listen and make sentences using prompts
- listen and guess missing parts of a text
- listen for gist
- listen for specific information
- listen for details

Differentiating listening has a primary importance for learners. It is significant to ensure that students listen with an interactional or a transactional purpose to foster communication. Interactional listening, which is a two-way listening, involves meaning-based conversations in a realistic context. However, transactional listening focuses more on conveying message or transferring information, and therefore, it is usually one-way (Morley, 2001).

The analysis of NBS shows that the listening tasks fall short of developing students' interactional skills. In order for them to be competent in social interactions, the tasks given in NBS could focus more on generating conversations, and preparing the use of language in social interactions.

When the listening sub-skills in NBS are compared to Richards' (2008) list of sub-skills for top-down model, as given below,

- Use key words to construct the schema of a discourse
- Infer the setting for a text
- Infer the role of the participants and their goals
- Infer causes or effects
- Infer unstated details of a situation
- Anticipate questions related to the topic or situation

it is seen that the tasks in NBS are weak in providing meaning focused (Nation & Newton, 2009), personalized context (Field, 2003) for students to go beyond repetition and to reach independent generation. NBS is not found to fully support learners' automaticity, i.e. the recognition of letters, words and sentences efficiently in fluent reading (Hudson, Isakson, Richman, Lane, & Arriaza, 2011). BU and TD processes are integrated in NBS, but some of the principles of this integration such as

‘Encourage students to respond to the content of a listening, not just to the language’, as suggested by Harmer (2007), are not met by NBS.

*Stages and sub-skills within each skill: Listening*

In alignment with the current teaching approaches (Field, 1998) in NBS, the textbook includes three instructional stages: pre-listening, while-listening, and post listening; and they are used to combine bottom-up and top-down listening. Since top-down listening requires the listener’s prior knowledge to understand the content, this process could be mostly utilized in pre-listening tasks. Both bottom- up and top-down listening processes could be used during the while-listening stage. Lastly, once again, the combination of both processes, top-down and bottom-up, could be used during the post-listening stage.

When the stages of listening are analysed in NBS, it is observed that the overall distribution of pre-listening sub-skills is 14.17%, while-listening sub-skills are 17.3%, and post-listening sub-skills are 1.8%. It is found that the pre stages, where the students are provided with a relevant background and cognitive preparation, are considerably small in number. This shows each listening task does not have a pre-stage, or lacks post stage sub-skills, which are found to be only 1.8%. Pre and post stages are crucial from a communicative point of view for students to be ready for listening through a pre-stage, and integrate the skills through a post stage.

In fact, listening is mainly used as a pre-stage to facilitate other language skills. 52.8% of the listening sub-skills are intended to facilitate the development of reading (6.4%), speaking (14.5%), writing (10%) and grammar (27.3%) skills. Interestingly,

27.3% of listening sub-skills are allocated to presenting grammar rules. This proportion is quite high when compared with actual listening sub-skills (17.3%). Throughout the textbook, students frequently repeat grammar rules through listening drills. Based on CLT principles and acquisition theories, listening underpins communicative teaching principles, but in NBS, listening tasks are found mostly as drills rather than activities adding to the communicative competence of students (Richards, 2006).

The rest of the listening sub-skills (30.9%) occurring throughout NBS are integrated with other sections as a pre-stage of reading, speaking, and writing. In addition, there are listening tasks like post-stage reading (7.3%) and speaking (0.9%). The focus on developing actual listening skills is found fairly weak.

NBS states in its 'Course Introduction' section that the textbook aims to provide meaningful activities in order for students to use language as a communicative tool. Also, the textbook is prepared based on the report released by the Board of Education in 2011 on the English curriculum for each grade of high school. The report underlines the importance of using primarily listening activities to develop higher order thinking skills such as creating novel sentences after listening (TTKB, 2011). The Board of Education roots these principles back to CEFR. NBS does not include sub-skills that enhance higher order skills, or overtly interactional listening activities such as discussions and role plays; hence, there is no room for students to go beyond understanding, remembering and answering. In addition to this, the relevant sub-skills are not built with properly designed setting, purpose or role in the listening activities in NBS (Richards, 2006); therefore, the textbook is not found in

alignment with its own claims or the requirements set by the Board of Education and CEFR.

## Reading

### *Communicative reading*

In communicative language teaching settings, a common expectation of reading is that reading activities and sub-skills should be designed based on negotiation of meaning, being appropriate for interactive nature of communication, and fostering functional language ability (Richards, 2006). Aside from this, within teaching reading, integrated skills approach needs to be carried out for the mastery of language, while providing communicative tasks (Savignon, 2001).

### *Reading in NBS*

As seen in Table 2, the textbook places a greater emphasis on reading (20.7%) compared to listening (11.4%). When the textbook is analysed, reading as a receptive skill is found to include passive exercises such as answering comprehension questions, reading a text to find specific information or building vocabulary. Another finding is that the textbook mostly addresses testing reading instead of teaching reading. However, as Thornbury (2006a) emphasises, the aim of reading activities should be fostering reading strategies through sub-skills of reading. As Richards and Renandya (2007) state, a textbook should include a great deal of texts that students are exposed to frequently for language input. However, reading sections include insufficient examples of proper content where the language especially is relevant, purposeful, and interesting although achieving this is a key factor in the success of

processing comprehensible input (Richards, 2006).

*Reading sub-skills*

As shown in Table 4, there are 11 sub-skills identified in the textbook; the most frequently used one is *scan a text- identify details,* and the least frequently used ones are *identify the reference in the text* and *look up words in the dictionary and find the meanings.* Although the reading section consists of a wide range of sub-skills, after weighing the percentages, what it comes down to is that they are limited to the development of one sub-skill, *scan a text-identify details,* to a large extent.

While designing a reading section in a textbook, it is important to account for the necessity of different purposes. Setting a purpose for reading is critical, not only to decide on what sub-skills or strategies to adopt, but also to prepare for synthesising information from two different sections such as reading and listening or basically two reading texts (Grabe and Stoller, 2002). Reading instruction should involve a variety of purposes which can be gradually applied into sub-skills as illustrated in the list (Nation, 2009, p.6):

- Reading to learn
- Reading for fun
- Reading to integrate information
- Reading to critique texts
- Reading to write
- Reading to use information for other tasks

Establishing the majority of these purposes in reading instruction stresses the need for a wide range of skills. With this in mind, alternatively, the textbook could have included some of the following sub-skills for more effective reading practice in NBS (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p.16):

1. Specifying a purpose for reading
2. Previewing the text
3. Predicting the contents of the text or section of the text
4. Posing questions about the text
5. Connecting text to background knowledge
6. Making inferences
7. Using discourse markers to see relationships
8. Critiquing the author/ the text
9. Reflecting on what has been learned from the text

*Distribution of reading sub-skills*

To begin with, similar to the analysis of listening, reading sub-skills are divided into two processes: top-down and bottom-up, using Brown's (2001) conceptualization. In reading instruction, two models, top-down and bottom up, are to be used: the top-down approach enables learners to engage with the topic, while the bottom-up approach entails having detailed comprehension about the related topic (Nutall, 1996). In CLT, both processes, bottom-up, which is used for the identification of single units, words, towards an understanding of the entire text, and top-down, which is tied to deducing purpose and contextual information, contribute to the reading process (Savignon, 2001).

When the data are analysed in terms of two processes, bottom up (BU) and top down (TD), as mentioned by Brown (2001), (see figure 9), it seen that top-down processing skills form 91.1% of reading sub-skills and tasks, while bottom-up processing is found to account for 8.9% of the related skills. It is especially important to break skills down into effective and varied opportunities; however, there is a surprisingly high focus on top-down processing with a limited number of skills. In the textbook, it is found that the sub-skill, *scan a text- identify details*, forms 66.7% of all listening sub-skills. This shows that most of the times, learners read a text in search of specific

information, and ignore the other components of reading.

In NBS, top-down strategy use includes the following sub-skills:

- scan a text- identify details (TD)
- skim (TD)
- skim for gist (TD)
- skim a text- check predictions (TD)
- guess the meaning of words from context (TD)
- guess the missing parts of a text (TD)

It is seen that there is some disagreement on the variety of reading sub-skills and strategies. NBS provides a limited number of sub-skills and strategies for reading such as scanning, skimming, and guessing. Alternatively, NBS could have included the following sub-skills (Brown, 2001, p. 307):

- Develop and use a battery of reading strategies such as scanning, skimming, detecting, discourse markers, guessing the meaning of words from context, and activating schemata for the interpretation of texts.
- Infer context that is not explicit by using background.
- Infer links and connections, between events, ideas, etc., deduce causes and effects, and detect such relations as main idea, supporting idea, new information, given information, generalization and exemplification.
- Detect culturally specific references and interpret them in a context of the appropriate cultural schemata.

As for bottom-up strategy use, it mostly facilitates vocabulary tasks (6.7%), and therefore, reading focused tasks are rather low with 2.2%. There is still plenty of room for using existing and other bottom-up strategies for developing reading skills. In NBS, the following sub-skills are found to be used through bottom-up strategy:

- read and write a dialog as in the example (BU)
- identify the reference in the text (BU)
- guess the meaning of words (matching words with definitions) (BU)
- find word forms and complete the chart using a dictionary (BU)
- look up the dictionary and find the meanings (BU)

NBS could have added more sub-skills for bottom-up strategy development, as Brown (2001, p. 307) categorizes:

- Discriminate among the distinctive graphemes and orthographic patterns of English.
- Retain chunks of language of different lengths in short term memory.
- Recognize grammatical word classes (nouns, verbs, etc.), systems, (e.g., tense, agreement, pluralisation), patterns, rules and elliptical forms.

Concerning the development of reading comprehension, the existing sub-skills are considerably limited in terms of number (8.9%) and there is no attempt to add the suggested sub-skills (Brown, 2001). However, it is essential that classroom reading extend beyond the simple practice of skills, and aids language input (Thornbury, 2006a).

Stanovich argues that "The Interactive-compensatory model of reading was developed primarily to explain developmental and individual differences in the use of context to facilitate word recognition during reading" (1984, p.11). As an alternative model, the interactive reading model, which aims to combine the advantages of both reading models, top-down and bottom-up, and avoids the drawbacks of both (McClelland & Rumelhart, 1981), is used in reading instruction. This results in effective and ideal reading instruction (McCormick, 1988). Reading lessons could be designed such that the needs of individuals, cultural elements and learners' own interpretations are taken into consideration; therefore, the interactive-compensatory model intending to avoid the downsides of reading activities as Grabe and Stoller (2002) state, functions well in reading activities. However, in NBS the implications of the interactive model is seen neither in the "course introduction" part nor in the reading section.

In the final analysis on reading, the two processes are examined within the framework of Nation's (2009, p.6) categories: meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, language-focused learning, and fluency development.

Meaning-focused input: Briefly, meaning focused input helps extending learners' knowledge of the language system through a range of materials such as newspaper articles to be used in reading instruction (Nation, 2009). NBS covers several purposes such as *reading to search for information*, *reading to learn* especially for sub-skills for learning vocabulary, and lastly *reading to write* as noticed in the existing sub-skill, *read and write a dialog as in the example*. There is still the need to utilize reading instruction for more message-oriented practices and different purposes.

This category also highlights the design of materials from low level to high level. When analysing NBS, it is found that learners are not pushed to develop language proficiency through reading instruction. Ellis (1994) highlights the benefit of comprehensible input in order to implement consciousness raising activities in class; however, reading is not at the core of the language input that is suitable for internalizing features of language in the textbook.

Rather, reading instruction should involve a variety of purposes for reading as illustrated in the list (Nation, 2009, p.6):

- Reading to search for information (including skimming and scanning)
- Reading to learn
- Reading for fun
- Reading to integrate information

- Reading to critique texts
- Reading to write

Meaning-focused output: This strand means the integration of reading with other language skills: listening, writing, and speaking (Nation, 2009). Overall, it is found that 44% of the tasks provide opportunities for learners to develop other language skills in NBS.

Language-focused learning: A detailed study of language features such as grammar, vocabulary, sound system, and spelling knowledge is required for learners to understand a reading text without being distracted by unknown words and unclear sentence structure (Thornbury, 2006a; Nation, 2009). As a result, language-focused reading instruction helps learners to become engaged with the reading text, and be fluent readers. Language-focused learning is found to be used in NBS based on the course introduction of NBS. To illustrate, the findings of reading sub-skills indicate that reading is partly used as a tool for developing vocabulary (13.4%) and grammar (25.6%) through reading. This is done through sub-skills such as *guess the meaning of words from context, guess the meaning of words, find word forms and complete the chart using a dictionary,* and *look up words in dictionary.*

It is also noticed that the existing sub-skill, *scan a text- identify details* is found to be relevant to grammar practice, where learners work on sentence completion after reading, answering wh- questions based on a given reading text, and completing a table using given language items such as “must”, “mustn’t” and “have to”. However, doing grammar practice through only one sub-skill seems limited and ineffective. Additionally, language-focused learning also requires the teaching and combining of

some reading strategies such as previewing, establishing a purpose, making predictions, generating questions, and especially critiquing the text (Nation, 2009). These strategies are not given much emphasis in the textbook.

Fluency development: Fluent reading requires such processes as "*strategic process, evaluating process, purposeful process, learning process, and a comprehending process"* (Grabe & Stoller, 2002, p.17). If these processes occur during the reading procedure, fluent reading can lead to good comprehension. In order to develop fluent reading, Nation (2009) suggests the practice of reading using interesting texts and activities such as *listening to stories, shared reading* and *independent reading*. In terms of these requirements for fluency development, the textbook covers the processes to some extent, including comprehending process through comprehension questions, and learning process through exercises focusing on vocabulary. The rest of the processes are not covered internally in the textbook or given prominence externally through activities that can exploit the reading texts.

*Stages and sub-skills within each skill: Reading*

The distribution of pre-reading sub-skills in the development of reading skills is 3.4%, while-reading sub-skills are 40%, and post-reading sub-skills are 14.5%. Based on these percentages, efforts for pre-stage, which is necessary for learners to be engaged with the content and be prepared cognitively, are rather disregarded when compared to the while-listening stage (40%). Similarly, the post-reading stage which enables learners to maximise learning through different activities or language skills does not seem to accompany most of the while-listening tasks. In instructional settings, the balance of the three stages is helpful for learners to become *autonomous*

and *independent* in learning (Grabe & Stoller, 2001). The inclusion of these stages also encourages the development of communicative skills through a range of pre or post reading activities such as incorporating discussions and language practice.

In the textbook in question, reading is mainly used as a pre-state to facilitate other language skills. Most of the reading sub-skills are intended to facilitate the development of speaking (1.1%), writing (15%), and grammar (25.6%) skills. Focus on speaking is found to be very low. Reading is also used as a post-stage but with a rather low percentage (0.6%) of tasks. The integration of reading skills with other skills as a pre-stage of speaking (1.1%) and writing (15%) is not designed equally. This uneven distribution may keep learners from practising speaking skills after reading, but encourage them to improve their writing skills. Lastly, the textbook is found to use reading activities as a tool for practising grammar as most of the reading sub-skills are found to carry explicit grammar information in 25.6% of sub-skills.

In conclusion, regardless of the emphasis on improving critical thinking and intellectual background in the course introduction part in both NBS and the report released by the Board of Education (2011), students are not, in fact, given a variety of opportunities to develop critical thinking skills in the reading sections. To this end, the textbook adheres to its own claims and requirements set by the Board of Education only in part.

**Productive skills**

This section focuses on, and discusses two productive skills (37.9%): writing (7%) and speaking (30.9%). The skills are discussed using the results from the analysis and the principles of the CLT approach.

## Writing

*Communicative writing*

Writing is currently acknowledged as a process-based approach rather than a product-based approach (Brown, 2001). The process is composed of four stages: planning, drafting, editing, and final draft (Harmer, 2004). However, mastery of writing also requires a purpose to generate a text, audience to determine the style of the text, and teacher or peer feedback during the editing stage.

*Writing in NBS*

Writing as a productive skill forms 7% of the textbook. The results reveal that there are no efforts to include process writing in the textbook. The writing section usually includes a model for students as seen in the sub-skill, *write a dialog as in the example*. However, the textbook makes use of sub-skills such as *draw a spidergram* (3.5%); *make a list as a preparation* (3.5%) for planning at pre-writing stage. This suggests that there is little attempt for process writing, and only during preparation stage; and there is no direct instruction for planning, drafting, editing, and final draft, either, all of which Harmer has listed as the basic stages of process writing (2004). Similarly providing a clear purpose, audience, and structure, as mentioned by Harmer (2004) in product writing, is crucial for students to internalize writing and produce original texts. Ultimately, considering the above mentioned aspects of writing in CLT there is a serious need to revise the writing activities in the textbook bearing in mind the stages of process writing and the principles of product approach.

*Writing sub-skills and tasks*

As indicated in Table 7, there are 19 sub-skills and tasks found in the textbook, with the most frequently used one being *write a descriptive paragraph*, and the least frequently used ones being *combine sentences using prompts, complete an e-mail, write an invitation, write the summary of a text, write appropriate captions for the cartoons, compare work with a partner-peer evaluation, write a postcard using outline and plan, complete a diary using the words given,* and *do the puzzle.* The range of skill in the textbook is wide-ranging, but the sub-skills and tasks are not evenly distributed.

Similar to other language skills, writing also does not entail an organized distribution of sub-skills and tasks, which would enable students to go from preparation to production. This suggests that the density of the sub-skills and tasks includes practical writing tasks, which encourage symbolic language rather than the use of functional, daily language. There is no sustainable pattern for students to transfer linguistic skills created on paper into actual interaction. Also, students usually finish writing tasks straight away; it is worth pointing out that part of successful writing proficiency depends on students' going through a meaningful communication, and realizing how language is used appropriately under different circumstances (Richards, 2006). The uneven distribution of sub- skills and tasks also validates the finding above. The most frequent sub-skill with 19.3% is *write a descriptive paragraph*. The students are asked to write a plain, descriptive paragraph without relevant audience, context, role or purpose. Instead, NBS expects students to *compare work with a partner-peer evaluation*; however, this task is found only once. In the context of CLT, organizing writing practice in a process approach with

different phases such as pre-writing, drafting, editing, re-editing is considered to be the role of teachers, but they need a textbook conducive to the complex structure of process writing in order to achieve this (Richards, 2006). However, as a resource the textbook does not spare room for elaborating on writing practice to support the above mentioned phases in the classroom.

*The distribution of writing sub-skills and tasks*

The writing sub-skills and tasks included in the textbook are categorized into four types: controlled, guided, free and free-communicative. The controlled ones form 14.1% of all writing activities; the guided ones constitute about 38.8%, the free tasks, 31.7%, and the free-communicative, 5.3%. The nature of writing tasks in general does not abide by a predictable pattern or follow a set organization derived from CLT. As mentioned by Badger and White (2000), teaching writing should include a process where writing skills should be developed from creating simple sentences to producing original, self-written pieces. NBS could support such a flow with an even distribution of each type of writing task. Badger and White (2000) also underline that free writing tasks are expected to include independent language production, which suggests not being restricted by loaded details, and being able to be creative. However, in NBS, students are not directed with the aforementioned flow: they are simply given instructions such as *write a descriptive paragraph*. This is the reason why the interpretation of the previously given distribution comes up short in terms of communicative writing tasks since CLT aims at original language production as suggested by Pincas (1982), who describes free writing, which should involve students being free to create their own work. The best representations of communicative writing tasks are found in NBS under *free communicative tasks* with

only 5.3 %. Only these couple of tasks include a proper instruction facilitating independent communicative writing performance.

*Stages and sub-skills within each skill: writing*

In 'Course introduction' section in NBS, steps for writing instruction are set as pre-writing, while-writing, and post-writing. As illustrated in Table 8, the pre-writing stage composes 25.5% and the while-writing stage forms 52.5% of the total in the textbook, whereas the post-writing stage constitutes only 3.4%. From a CLT point of view, more while and post writing sub-skills and tasks could have been included for integration with other skills, since post writing tasks are regarded as crucial for the development of integrated skills.

Students are expected to complete a written product through these three stages; however, the analysis indicates that students are not introduced with strategies to use during the pre-writing stage: brainstorming, listing, clustering, free-writing (Reid, 1995). Therefore, the textbook needs to familiarize students with practical strategies to use during three stages before starting writing. Only then can students decide on the most appropriate strategy to use during writing since they can only develop themselves if the learning environment is enhanced. Pre-writing and editing stage activities that can promote writing skills are listed as follows:

1. Text conversion
2. Revision and editing focused exercises
3. Sentence combining
4. Guided paraphrase
5. Text elicitation
6. Dictation
7. Text completion

(Frodesen, 2001, p.240)

These ideas can be utilized during different stages of writing activities for the development of language use, newly learnt grammar rules and vocabulary.

Contextual writing is emphasized by presenting the topic of a writing activity and the reason for writing it in the ‘Course introduction’ section in NBS. At end of the activity, teachers are asked to give students a real follow-up activity such as sending the letter that they have completed to a pen pal although these instructions are not found to abide by relevant approaches. For instance, as required by the genre approach, the writing instructions should contain subject matter, the relationship between the writer and the audience, and the pattern of organisation, channel or model (Hedge, 1998; Martin 1993), which should have been included in NBS, as well.

Another way to facilitate communicative writing is covered by the modelled or process writing approach, which requires planning, questioning, drafting, editing, revising, and publishing (Regie, 2000; Dorn, French, & Jones, 1998). However, no emphasis on drafting or editing is apparent in NBS. Rather, the textbook could have encouraged learners by re-planning, re-drafting, and re-editing processes in writing (Harmer, 2004). In addition, CLT includes principles to enable students to improve language skills individually. As mentioned in Chapter 2, independent writing facilitates these principles by providing personal opportunities where students can demonstrate their acquired language skills independently (Regie, 2000; Dorn, French, & Jones, 1998).

## Speaking

*Communicative speaking*

In the field of CLT, speaking instruction involves the goal of building *communicative competence* to help learners follow a speech and respond meaningfully (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell, 1995). A communicative framework for teaching speaking includes speaking stages that generate autonomous speakers and authentic materials that have signs of real-life speech (Hughes, 2011). The focus on fluency also has a major place in speaking, as acknowledged by Nation and Newton (2009).

*Speaking in NBS*

In NBS, speaking has the largest proportion with 31.9% through all language skills, pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary. According to Thornbury (2006a), on the condition that learners are given more opportunities for speaking, they can speak sooner, after which, speaking practice runs smoothly. Even though this idea clearly implies the importance of the number of speaking practices, this practice should not be regarded as basically giving appropriate answers to a teacher's question, making repetitions or practising speaking drills. Instead, speaking practice should encourage students to negotiate meaning, as Lazaraton (2001) credits as the aim of fluent speaking, with another speaker and establish two-way communication easily. Furthermore, the preparation stage is as important as the speaking activity itself. In most of the speaking activities, students are not provided with information about the audience, role, or purpose; instead there are short instructions, such as *talk about the people in the picture, make a similar dialog with your partner*. Students may have difficulty in real-life conversations and discussions since the textbook sub-skills

intend only to prepare them for answering questions but not generating questions on their own to get truly involved in conversations. The speaking activities found in the textbook are not fully interactive. Within a CLT framework, it could be argued that textbooks should include more activities encouraging peer interaction, collaboration, and sharing (Richards, 2006). Also, while students take part in speaking activities, it is important to motivate other students to be engaged in the classroom. This idea works when active listening goes hand in hand with active speaking (Harmer, 2007b)

*Speaking sub-skills and tasks*

As indicated in Table 9, the speaking section includes 21 sub-skills and tasks, which is high compared to the number of listening and writing sub-skills and tasks. The most frequently used one is *share experiences/personal choice/opinion*. In contrast, the least frequent sub-skills are *ask questions about the text*, *combine sentences using prompts*, *give an example*, *make a dialog (roles assigned)*, *spell it out*, and lastly *prepare a menu*. Each of them appears only once in the textbook. The range of sub-skills and tasks is wide, but the distribution is uneven. There is a large emphasis on one sub-skill in particular, *share experiences/personal choice/opinion* (29.5%).

The appearance of sub-skills only one time is the downside of the textbooks since, as Nation and Newton (2009) emphasize, students benefit from the repetition of an activity that enables them to practice a language topic. This shows that when students are encouraged to repeat a sub-skill or exercise in another context, it contributes to their learning process.

As for the promotion of speech, Nation and Newton (2009) suggest, “Rehearsed talks

involve learners using the pyramid procedure of preparing a talk individually, rehearsing it with a partner, practising it in a small group, then presenting it to the whole class" (p.162). The textbook does not have any indication of rehearsal or preparation for performing speaking tasks. In this sense, students can be instructed to interact with each other through different tasks and revise their performance before the product. At the same time, pair-work, group-work, and interaction with peers aid both repairing of grammar and vocabulary, and learning from each other (Peck, 2001).

*Distribution of speaking sub-skills and tasks*

The data collected in relation to speaking sub-skills and tasks are discussed under two communication types: one-way communication and two-way communication.

One-way communication and two-way communication: The results show that there are mainly one-speaker oriented sub-skills and tasks such as *share experiences/personal choice/ opinion* (29.5%), *talk about the topic* (8.0%), *describe the picture* (2.0%), *describe a person* (1.2%), and *spell it out* (0.4%). These sub-skills and tasks are not well-suited for communicative practice, which is thought to be the most important of speaking activities. Dialogue based, two-way communication is rather rare.

Even though the notion of interactive speaking is highly valued in NBS as far as the course introduction section goes, two-way interaction is seen very rarely, and also lacks audience, purpose for speaking, and integration in communicative settings. The related sub-skills can be listed as *act out the dialog given* (2.8%), *make your own*

*dialog* (1.6%), *act out the dialog prepared* (0.8%), and *dialog (roles assigned)* (0.4%).

Another aspect of two-way communication is that the content should not be entirely predictable during conversations, activities, or discussions (Harmer, 2007b); however, all sub-skills do not fully support this principle, especially the sub-skill, *act out the dialog given*, is an example of how textbooks may restrict the content of a speaking task, and keep the learners from producing novel output.

*Stages and sub-skills and tasks within each skill: Speaking*

The textbook includes three instructional stages: pre-speaking, while speaking, and post-speaking for the enrichment of speaking skill (Green, Christopher, & Lam, 2007). The results indicate that the distribution of pre-speaking sub-skills and tasks is 6.4%, while-speaking sub-skills and tasks is 8.8%, and post-speaking sub-skills and tasks is 0.8%. The total proportion of sub-skills and tasks that develop speaking skills makes up 16% throughout NBS. This can be interpreted as those speaking sub-skills not being elaborated well therefore not fully contributing to the development of speaking skill with a sufficient number of opportunities. Ellis (1994), Willis and Willis (1996) and Torky (2006) all suggest that awareness raising activities help students become more competent in speaking. Within this context, consciousness raising activities could have been placed more frequently in the speaking stage through given dialogues or having students create their own dialogue. Though grammar is explicitly given in NBS, the speaking stage could have benefitted the learners by helping them pick up grammar use in different situations, which results in more competent speakers.

Another result of the study with regard to speaking shows that speaking is widely used at different stages in NBS. On the one hand, pre-stage speaking sub-skills and tasks (pre-reading, pre,-listening, pre-writing speaking) have the highest percentage, and post-stage speaking ones (post-listening, post-reading, post-writing speaking) are found relatively rare in the textbook. On the other hand, grammar through speaking is given less emphasis with 5.2%. Surprisingly, the stage in which speaking is integrated with other language skills is extremely high in proportion. This yields an important result: speaking is used with the intention of preparing students before new activities, especially with these sub-skills: *share experiences/personal choice/opinion, express feelings, express likes/dislikes, express preferences, and describe the picture.* However, these sub-skills are basically prepared as question and answer drills. Teacher asks students' experience, personal choice, or preference about the topic and then students answer each with one sentence. This is not effective in speaking classes since students are not the ones who initiate a conversation in class. As Lazaraton (2001) states, teachers should motivate students to be responsible for their own learning; in the context of speaking classrooms, students should take the initiative to enter conversations.

Even though the textbook includes a large number of speaking sub-skills for preparation, teachers cannot establish a student-oriented speaking environment only with the use of question and answer type of pre-stage sub-skills. In CLT, communicative speaking includes the use of activities such as discussions, speeches, oral reports and role-plays (Lazaraton, 2001). From this perspective, the pre- stage and post- stage speaking sub-skills do not entail such communicative activities.

With regard to teaching grammar through speaking sub-skills and tasks (5.2%) such as *make sentences as in the example, talk about future plans, answer the questions according to the situations given* are identified in the data. Since grammatical competence is one of the components of speaking effectiveness (Shumin, 2007), the textbook includes sub-skills focusing on accuracy. The reason for labelling them as grammar through speaking sub-skills is that they are composed of cue-response drills in which students answer wh-questions given at sentence production level and they are apparently based on accuracy. Grammar through speaking aligns with the **p**ractice phase in PPP approach, which refers to Presentation, Practice, Production in language classes (Harmer, 2007a). In this technique, firstly a language item is presented mostly in context; for example; the teacher shows a picture of walking people and then elicits the form of the present continuous tense from students' responses. In this way, students' awareness about the use of the language is also increased. Next, the practice stage enables students to practise the target language structure, focusing on accuracy. The teacher uses choral repetitions or cue-response drills at this stage. At the final stage, or production, students are asked to create their own sentences in context. Since the identified sub-skills are practised with cue-response drills, this type of speaking task can be regarded as a practice focusing on accuracy. For these reasons, it is concluded that the textbook prioritizes fluency, but intends to develop accuracy with some speaking sub-skills focusing on grammar. Accuracy vs. fluency: Learners should be provided with learning opportunities and experiences based on both fluency and accuracy for real communication (Richards, 2006). The textbook is found to include sub-skills and tasks that help accuracy and fluency.

Activities focusing on accuracy provide effective guidance in developing the correct use of language (Richards, 2006). In the textbook sub-skills*: spell out, make sentences as in the example, make a dialog using prompts* are identified to focus on accuracy. Through accuracy activities students gain the ability to produce target language items accurately, whether it is the production of sound, a word, or a sentence as seen in the given sub-skills above. Within speaking sub-skills, students are generally provided with examples of the relevant structure and prompts; the use of these sub-skills during speaking aims to familiarize students with the relationship between form and meaning (Fotos, 2002) in appropriate situations and context; this operation works well in communicative lessons.

Fluency involves communicating meaningfully especially while practising speaking and writing. In the textbook, fluency activities include the sub-skills and tasks such as *make a dialog (roles assigned), act out the dialog prepared, report the results, talk about an experience in the past, make your own dialog, discuss about the given topic* and *describe a person*. Within a CLT framework, there is a need for a direct approach to speaking instruction in terms of explicitly introducing some situations to students such as roles, audience, setting before speaking activity, and then students can improvise the language and vocabulary (Richards, 2006) and start to produce utterances during speaking activities. At this point, the speaking activities in the textbook are not sufficient for fluency speaking. In CLT, teachers are expected to give feedback on language use and pronunciation considering the requirements of the situation, role, audience and setting given. Students should be exposed to "real life speech" through authentic activities which engage them in speaking and foster

communication (Hughes, 2011).

One of the benefits of balanced accuracy- and fluency- based activities is that learners can start to make connections between complex language items and their functions in daily life, and elaborate on communication more effectively (Richards, 2006).

## Pronunciation

### Communicative pronunciation

As Goodwin notes, "[i]ndeed, pronunciation instruction needs to be taught as communicative interaction along with other aspects of spoken discourse, such as pragmatic meaning and nonverbal communication" (2001, p. 117). Essentially, pronunciation instruction helps students to understand language input correctly, and to produce speech that can be understood by others in conversations (Goodwin, 2001). Therefore, it can be perceived as part of speaking instruction. Celce- Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin have developed five stages that summarize the desired activities for teaching pronunciation within a communicative framework: "description and analysis, listening discrimination, controlled practice, guided practice, and communicative practice" (1996, p.124). Additionally, "*role-plays, debates, interviews, stimulations, and drama scenes*" are examples in which students can focus on the features, as well as form and meaning as they go through these five stages in class (Goodwin, 2001, p. 125).

**Pronunciation in NBS**

The textbook focuses on articulation of sounds, consonants and vowels, stress, intonation and the distinction between similar sounds such as /v/ and /w/ in each unit. Comparing pronunciation instruction in the context of CLT and the existing pronunciation sections in NBS, pronunciation instruction covers the first three stages only. The last two stages, which emphasize meaning-focused and communicative practises, are not found in the textbook. For the last two stages, teachers may have to incorporate the pronunciation knowledge of students with other activities, but there is no evident guidance or activity that directly contributes to pronunciation. Richards (2006) advocates that students can improve themselves by autonomously noticing how language is used such as how speakers ask questions or respond to them; furthermore, the design of a lesson should involve language analysis and reflection to discover the underlying features of pronunciation to illustrate they can assess what they have performed and evaluate peers in this way they can gain from the atmosphere in class.

**Pronunciation sub-skills**

As observed in Table 11, 10 sub-skills are identified in the textbook; the most frequent one is *listen and repeat the sounds/words* (45.2%), and then *listen and tick the sound you hear* follows it. On the other hand, *listen and complete the table with the verbs, listen and label strong and weak forms, listen and tick the sentences with short forms of the verbs you hear, listen and underline the weak syllables* are the least frequently used ones. The range of pronunciation is wide, but the uneven distribution of sub-skills is noticed through detailed analysis.

**Distribution of pronunciation sub-skills**

All sub-skills are defined as controlled activities which fall under two features: segmental and suprasegmental (Thornbury, 2006a).

Segmental and suprasegmental features: The recent research shows that the suprasegmental feature, which focuses on stress, rhythm, and intonation, is highlighted more than the segmental feature, which deals with individual sounds, consonants and vowels and their combination, as classified by Goodwin (2001). The distribution of the two features shows that segmental feature is found in 92.8%; in contrast, the suprasegmental feature is observed in 7.2% in the pronunciation section. The mere proportion of the suprasegmental feature indicates that the textbook does not prepare students gradually for communicative situations; rather, the section is limited to only sounds and syllables. Harmer (2007a) suggests students should be exposed to spoken English to recognize intonation patterns, and view the pronunciation features as a whole; for instance, stress in phrases, songs and chants, tongue twisters can be useful for teaching pronunciation.

## The four skills across the textbook

The distribution of each skill, with regards to pre, while, and post stages, is given in Appendix A, with the frequency of sub-skills under each stage also presented.

There is considerable effort to integrate the stages of the four language skills, and to differentiate pre-stage and post-stage language skills and sub-skills (Table 20). For example, the pre-stage of the sub-skills that intend to develop reading skill include grammar, listening, lexis related sub-skills. Similarly, the post-stages include writing, grammar, speaking, listening related sub-skills.

Table 20
The four skills across the textbook

| | | Number of sub-skills/tasks | Percentages of sub-skills/tasks % | Percentages of sub-skills/tasks in all stages % | Percentages of while-stages only % |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Integrated Reading Skills | Pre | 87 | 33.9 | | |
| | While | 72 | 28.0 | | 50 |
| | Post | 98 | 38.1 | | |
| | N | **257** | | 50.30 | |
| Integrated Listening Skills | Pre | 58 | 59.2 | | |
| | While | 19 | 19.4 | | 13.9 |
| | Post | 21 | 21.4 | | |
| | N | **98** | | 19.2 | |
| Integrated Writing Skills | Pre | 62 | 63.9 | | |
| | While | 31 | 32 | | 21.53 |
| | Post | 4 | 4.1 | | |
| | N | 97 | | 19 | |
| Integrated Speaking Skills | Pre | 34 | 57.6 | | |
| | While | 22 | 37.3 | | 15.28 |
| | Post | 3 | 5.1 | | |
| | N | 59 | | 11.5 | |

In terms of the while-stage sub-skills, it is seen that 50% of them intend to develop reading skills. A total of 63.19% of the sub-skills are geared towards the development of receptive skills, whereas 36.81% of the sub-skills focus on productive skills, 21.53% on Writing, and 15.28% on Speaking.

There is an effort to develop all four language skills in an integrated way; however, there are notably more sub-skills centred around the development of receptive skills (69.5%), and there are markedly fewer speaking sub-skills, and fewer integrated sub-skills in pre and post stages (11.5%), and the while-stages are observed to be low for listening and speaking skills.

## Grammar

There are two sections, *Let's practice* (11.1%) and *Let's remember* (5.6%), which explicitly introduce or revisit grammar rules in NBS. Overall, grammar-focused sections form 16.9% of the textbook.

### Let's practice

*Communicative grammar*

In the communicative methodology, discrete activities that focus on grammar have given way to communicative language tasks (Richards, 2007). As Savignon (2002) states, designing skill-based lessons, and promoting functional language use address communicative language use. In communicative contexts, the tasks that focus on fluency rather than accuracy are usually emphasized more.

*Grammar in NBS*

After grammar structures are implicitly presented in context during the practice of the four skills, the *Let's practice* section focuses on language areas, and revises the vocabulary from the related unit. However, there is no explicit link between the skill practised previously and the exercises in this section. This section usually offers controlled practice, and the tasks included do not stimulate interaction among students. On the other hand, as Richards (2006) suggests learners need to practice language through interaction and meaningful communication. It is therefore not surprising to observe that all the sub-skills are in the form of drills, resulting in the overuse of repetitive and mechanical exercises.

*Grammar sub-skills and tasks*

Table 12 shows that there are 16 sub-skills identified in this section; the most frequently used one is gap filling or substitution drilling, and the least frequently used ones are *answer the questions according to the situations given, recognize the register, write the forms of the words, recognize the conjunctions in the text, ask and answer questions as in the example using prompts, write a paragraph using prompts,* and *write captions for the cartoons.* The range of sub-skills in the textbook is wide, but the sub-skills are not evenly distributed.

An appealing alternative to grammar-focused drills could be *discussion-based materials, communication games, simulations, role-plays,* and *pair work or group work activities* (Richards, 2007).

*Distribution of grammar sub-skills and tasks*

The data from the grammar sub-skills/tasks are distributed under three types of practices: *mechanical*, *meaningful*, and *communicative* (Richards, 2006).

Mechanical, meaningful, and communicative practices: The tasks in the textbook mostly focus on mechanical practice, which mainly includes *gap filling or substitution drilling.* It is observed that instead of providing grammar rules implicitly within context, this section prominently dictates drills to students. This is similar to what Richards has referred to as mechanical practice, where the learners' attention is limited to form (2006). In NBS, students are mostly exposed to form rather than meaning. Also, the textbook has very poor CLT related content with the frequent occurrence of *Let's remember* and *Let's practice* sections; these two include merely

grammatical information and activities. The mechanical sub-skills and tasks constitute a total of 65.7% sub-skills and tasks, whereas meaningful ones form 34.7%. While the major emphasis is placed on mechanical practice, meaningful ones only appear 9 times in the textbook; therefore, students do not have less restricted opportunity for language production. One of the meaningful tasks is *write sentences using prompts,* but this task does not fully involve communicative instruction. Richards (2006) suggests especially real-life situations need to be included in order for students to practise real life language in a communicative context, but NBS does not fully respond to this need. In addition, grammar is not practiced through any free activities where skills are integrated, whereas in a truly CLT context, grammar presentation and practice needs to be combined with different language skills to enable language use interchangeably (Richards, 2006). More importantly, there are no communicative sub-skills or tasks included in grammar practice in NBS.

*Stages of grammar and sub-skills & tasks*

Although the *Let's practice* section appears two to four times in each unit, it does not include extended tasks; therefore, all the sub-skills are presented in isolation. This hinders integration with other skills, or stages, and the use of newly learnt grammar rules in speaking, writing, or listening. Thus, students may find it difficult to transfer their knowledge, or practice grammar in meaningful, natural and realistic contexts through communicative activities (Richards, 2007).

**Let's remember**

This section presents the target grammatical rules by using short notes, charts, and example sentences. It also aims to remind students of the structural points in grammar. Additionally, a short note stating, "*see grammar reference"* is also

included at the end of the section with an eye to clarifying the grammar notes in detail. This static section only promotes remembering grammar rules; it does not help students to actually make use of those rules in real life (Swan, 2007). According to CLT principles, the best way for students to remember grammar rules is interpreting them from the input and practicing within context interactively (Celce-Murcia, 2002). However, the textbook includes 50 sub-skills in the *Let's remember* section, all of which are composed of *substitution tables/explanations and examples,* and they don't offer any means to use the target structures given. While it may useful to remember the rules, the textbook could include more opportunities for interactional meaningful use of grammar (Richards & Rodgers, 2006). NBS claims to be a communicative textbook but the results seem to show that there are discrepancies between the requirements of CLT and the content of the textbook.

## Vocabulary

### Vocabulary teaching in CLT

Schmitt (2008) presents six principles for effective vocabulary instruction: the correct choice of high-frequency words, recognition of spelling, syllable pattern and pronunciation to store the target vocabulary in mind, constructing the relation between form and meaning with the help of the first language, providing multiple vocabulary learning opportunities such as extended activities, building up word chunks in contextualized activities, and lastly, the balanced inclusion of both incidental and explicit learning. In addition, the current approach to teaching vocabulary is bound to the exposure of the learner to the target words in various ways; teachers can have students "*explain, restate, show, discuss, refine and reflect, and apply* (in learning games) *vocabulary*" (Marzano, 2006 p.28). From a current

perspective, the nature of vocabulary teaching requires multiple stages or processes both for teachers and learners.

**Vocabulary in NBS**

The textbook does not include a separate section for developing vocabulary. Vocabulary practice is scattered across various sections. As concluded from the analysis of the vocabulary tasks, vocabulary instruction occurs in a series of discrete exercises. When compared with the current desired practices in vocabulary teaching, there is no indication of vocabulary teaching in an organized way. On the contrary, building up vocabulary requires effort for an extended period of time through well-organized instruction (Schmitt, 2008).

**Vocabulary sub-skills and tasks**

Table 14 reveals that there are 10 different types of sub-skills and tasks intending to develop vocabulary in the textbook; the most frequently used one is *tongue twister*, and the least frequently used ones are *find word forms, guess the names of the items from the description, entertaining questions, making crosswords, riddle,* and *unscramble the words.* Vocabulary sub-skills and tasks are wide-ranging, but they are not evenly distributed. The vocabulary sub-skills and tasks need to be developed considering that learners progress at different rates and have various needs and interests for learning (Richards, 2006). The examples of vocabulary tasks show that the NBS does not have a very student centred and well-organized nature.

### Distribution of vocabulary sub-skills and tasks

Vocabulary sub-skills and tasks are distributed under three sections: *Phrasal verbs* (PV), *Fun corner* (FC), *Let's practice* (LP). As indicated in Table 2, although the general appearance of vocabulary practice is found very low (6%), the integration of tongue twisters and telling jokes in *Fun corner* section is useful in terms of both practising pronunciation and familiarizing students with the target culture. Still, there could have been more such activities throughout the textbook. Other sections expose students to some vocabulary but in a very limited sense through controlled activities. The only section including the practice of vocabulary explicitly is *Phrasal verbs* (0.4%). Still, the exercises in this section are restricted, and do not integrate with other skills. Language learning requires not only the development of individual performance but also sensitivity to interactional situations and using several language skills (Richards, 2006).

## Other sections

### Project work

The textbook intends to integrate language areas and skills in the *Project work* section, which appears at the end of each unit. As seen in Table 15, there are 27 project work sub-skills/tasks found in the textbook, which mainly focus on writing. Overall, only 4 of them include a pre-stage, providing opportunities for preparation. Although this section provides many activities to develop all skills, it falls short of supplying a meaningful context where the students can make use of all skills at once. As Richards (2006) points out language learning through communication has a multi-layered nature; therefore, the use of several language skills and knowledge in one task is necessary. It is not clear whether the *Project work* tasks are meant to be

completed in class. Although the textbook intends to present this section as conducive to performance-based activities, the nature of the tasks is not the same: Some of them are extended performance-based tasks, but most are restricted. Extended performance tasks are usually staged, and provide opportunities to use multiple skills; the restricted ones, however, are narrow in focus (Linn & Miller, 2005).

**Game time**

This section, which appears in various units, is found to include tasks focusing on Speaking and Lexis. The *Speaking* task, with its apparent intent to promote integration in class, holds the majority of all tasks with 62.5%, while *Lexis* focused ones are relatively rare, with 37.5%. The analysis indicates that *ask and answer questions* is the most frequent task (37.5%), while the other tasks, -bingo plus, guessing, mining, and puzzle-, form 12.5% each. The *Game time* section is found quite useful for students since it allows students to speak. However, this section is composed of six different tasks whereas it could have included a much wider range of tasks. Additionally, the tasks are not well-structured, neither are they integrated into other skills, nor provide opportunities for enhancing discovery learning, creativity or performance. It is the case in CLT that there should be room for activities and tasks that encourage deductive and reflective learning of language (Richards, 2006).

**Let's start**

This section occurs at the beginning of each unit, and intends to familiarize students with the topic of the unit. The tasks in this section are in the form of title exploitation, questions, and picture exploitation, and could be regarded as *lead-in.*

As given in Table 18, this section includes 9 sub-skills. Students most frequently (52.1%) *share experiences/personal choice/opinion*, and following that, the *guess the meaning of words* sub-skill comprises 25.0% of the *LS section*. The rest of the sub-skills occupy very small percentages: *talk about the picture* (10.4%) and *complete the dialog using the words given, give an example, introduce family member, listen and repeat, practise the dialog* and *talk about a person* (2.1% for each). The tasks are unevenly distributed.

As for the stages, the section is a lead-in to each unit; for this reason, the tasks are not designed in stages. They are discretely given but intend to achieve topical integration and give a hint for the related topic. It is concluded that speaking is the most common skill throughout the section; however, *LS* sub-skills and tasks may not be conducive to group discussion, or discussion in pairs, since the tasks are not well-developed with sub-questions. Classroom is the best place for collaborative learning and sharing, but this section is found to be more individual oriented (Richards, 2006). It is found that though most of the LS sub-skills and tasks are composed of speaking, it is very limited in facilitating communication strategies. A key feature in language learning concerns the use of communication strategies and organising those (Richards, 2006). However, the section merely provides guiding questions and

pictures leading to speaking, listening, and lexical development for activating background and facilitating engagement.

## Implications for practice

The aim of this study was to analyse NBS from a communicative point of view. In order to determine the extent of communicativeness, receptive, productive and integrated skills, as well as grammar and vocabulary are analysed by identifying the sub-skills for each one per unit. NBS itself does not include a proper description of units and sections in its units, neither for teachers, nor for students. It is found to be both very complicated in design and vague in terms of the application of CLT principles. For this reason, it is recommended to include a clearer and more balanced distribution of four skills, sub-skills and tasks in each section. Also, the textbook could be revised by taking into account how to adopt the principles of CLT in a classroom setting, how to include engaging topics and themes for all students, and lastly how to turn the textbook into a more user-friendly material for both teachers and students. The overall integration of skills is found to be disorganized and unbalanced. The sections *Project work*, *Game time*, and *Let's start* include the integration of all skills and vocabulary, but they fall short of supplying a meaningful flow of communicative practice.

At the end of each unit, there is a need to add a progress check which may include performance tasks or activities that entail the objectives in the relevant unit. The use of such a tool would allow teachers and learners to reflect on the learning process and student needs. Similarly, students may evaluate themselves across units, which would result in student reflection on, and awareness of, strengths and weaknesses.

Finally, teachers especially can review the needs of students at the individual level and then revisit the objectives and plan lessons to meet their needs by the use of such a tool.

The results indicate that there is no specific section to work on vocabulary except for the *Phrasal verbs* section. Considering that vocabulary is challenging to remember, and, calls for learning collocations and using them in appropriate contexts, a section could be added to familiarize students with relevant vocabulary in each unit.

Also, teachers could employ a range of level-appropriate authentic texts such as recorded materials, videos and articles to augment the language input.

As for implications for listening practice: in a communicative textbook, the activities should carry strategic training and mostly involve students. There are a variety of listening activities, but they mainly concentrate on transactional listening. There should be plenty of listening activities providing interactional environment where the context is personalized.  Through personalized activities, transfer between skills could be enabled in the textbook.

Reading in a CLT textbook should include a process where the students' reading abilities from minor to major are nurtured. Students should both gather information from a specific text-understand the gist- and should also be able to interpret the cultural and social implications of the message relayed. In this way, the textbook should enable students to transfer skills from one to another, and reading should enable fluency. For instance, a thematic flow between sections in textbook would help students to acquire the relevant vocabulary and skills. As students would be

exposed to various genres in different context, they would able to uncover more and more complex structures not only linguistically but also cognitively. Finally, reading should go beyond the representation of grammar, and help students improve independent encoding and decoding of language.

When it comes to writing, like in reading, the process should be explicitly practiced. Students should be able to plan drafts, edit and finalize their own work autonomously. The content of activities should vary to meet the daily language needs: for instance, a student should be able to write an essay as well as a petition. Similarly, writing tasks could be enriched including some Web 2.0 tools such as writing blog posts, instant messaging, and using social media. In doing so, a gradual flow from simple to complex structures is needed in order for students to be more effective in their written discourse. CLT proposes doing this through freer activities where students determine the order of thinking and strategies on their own. Also, for students to produce accurate language, revision and feedback should be proposed by the textbook.

## Implications for further research

Based on the findings and limitations of the present study, there may be several suggestions for further research. To begin with, this study can be implemented into a new research study that compares the current English language textbooks series used in high schools in Turkey. It is crucial to select methodology that embraces both the theoretical framework, which is CLT in this case, and quantitative sifting of skills and sub-skills with regards to the milestones of CLT for textbook content. This study is unique in that the analysis included the main aspects of CLT in the data analysis

such as integration, purpose, role, audience, setting and so on, which is seen to be an efficient way to analyse English textbooks. These aspects are generally overseen in material analysis. To this end, the scope of the study can be used during the analysis of different textbooks in future research studies.

## Limitations

Although it is a great deal of work for a master's thesis to analyse all of the skills and sub-skills in a textbook from a CLT point of view, the researcher attempted to provide a general picture on where NBS stands as a communicative English language textbook. Given the time and structural limitations in the thesis, all the data gathered from NBS was not able to be discussed in detail. In the process of writing this thesis, the textbook used in the research was replaced in the high school syllabus. Even though the textbook is no longer in use in Turkey, as a representative of textbooks written or selected by the Ministry of Education, this study has very important implications. The findings are still valuable in the field.

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## Appendix A: The frequency of sub-skills under each stage

| Codes | Stages | Frequency | % | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| PR-G | Pre- reading: Grammar | 1 | 0.4 | 33.9 |
| PR-L | Pre-reading: Listening | 7 | 2.7 | |
| PR-LX | Pre- reading: Lexis | 3 | 1.2 | |
| PR-R | Pre- reading: Reading | 2 | 0.8 | |
| PR-Q&A | Pre-reading: Question and answer | 74 | 28.8 | |
| R | While- reading | 72 | 28.0 | 28.0 |
| PoR-R | Post- reading: Reading | 1 | 0.4 | 38.1 |
| PoR-W | Post- reading: Writing | 10 | 3.9 | |
| PoR-G | Post-reading: Grammar | 26 | 10.1 | |
| PoR-L | Post- reading: Listening | 8 | 3.1 | |
| PoR-LX | Post- reading: Lexis | 21 | 8.2 | |
| PoR-S | Post-reading: Speaking | 32 | 12.5 | |
| **Total** | | **257** | | |

| Codes | Stages | Frequency | % | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| PL- LX | Pre- listening: Lexis | 7 | 7.1 | 59.2 |
| PL-Q&A | Pre-listening: Question and answer | 41 | 41.8 | |
| PL-S | Pre-listening: Speaking | 10 | 10.2 | |
| L | While- listening | 19 | 19.4 | 19.4 |
| PoL-G | Post- listening: Grammar | 1 | 1.0 | 21.4 |
| PoL-LX | Post- listening: Lexis | 1 | 1.0 | |
| PoL-R | Post- listening: Reading | 1 | 1.0 | |
| PoL-S | Post-listening: Speaking | 17 | 17.3 | |
| PoL-W | Post- listening: Writing | 1 | 1.0 | |
| **Total** | | **98** | | |

**Appendix A: The frequency of sub-skills under each stage (cont'd)**

| Codes | Stages | Frequency | % | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| PW-LX | Pre- writing: Lexis | 9 | 9.3 | 63.9 |
| PW-L | Pre- writing: Listening | 11 | 11.3 | |
| PW-Q&A | Pre-writing: Question and answer | 4 | 4.1 | |
| PW-R | Pre- writing: Reading | 27 | 27.8 | |
| PW-S | Pre-writing: Speaking | 5 | 5.2 | |
| PW-W | Pre- writing: Writing | 6 | 6.2 | |
| W | While- writing | 31 | 32.0 | 32.0 |
| PoW-S | Post- writing: Speaking | 4 | 4.1 | 4.1 |
| **Total** | | **97** | | |

| Codes | Stage | Frequency | % | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| PS-L | Pre- speaking: Listening | 16 | 27.1 | 57.6 |
| PS-LX | Pre-speaking: Lexis | 8 | 13.6 | |
| PS-Q&A | Pre-speaking: Question and Answer | 5 | 8.5 | |
| PS-R | Pre- speaking: Reading | 2 | 3.4 | |
| PS-S | Pre-speaking: Speaking | 3 | 5.1 | |
| S | While- speaking | 22 | 37.3 | 37.3 |
| PoS-LX | Post-speaking: Lexis | 1 | 1.7 | 5.1 |
| PoS-G | Post-speaking: Grammar | 1 | 1.7 | |
| PoS-L | Post- speaking: Listening | 1 | 1.7 | |
| **Total** | | **59** | | |

# Appendix B: Unit 4 of NBS

Unit 4 TRAFFIC

**Let's Start**

All traffic signs are the same in the world, but they are in different languages. Look at the signs and match them with the countries.

- [ ] England
- [ ] Mexico
- [ ] Morocco
- [ ] Turkey
- [ ] Korea

a 정지 STOP b قف c ALTO d DUR e STOP

**Listening & Reading**

a. Look at the picture. What is the dialogue about?

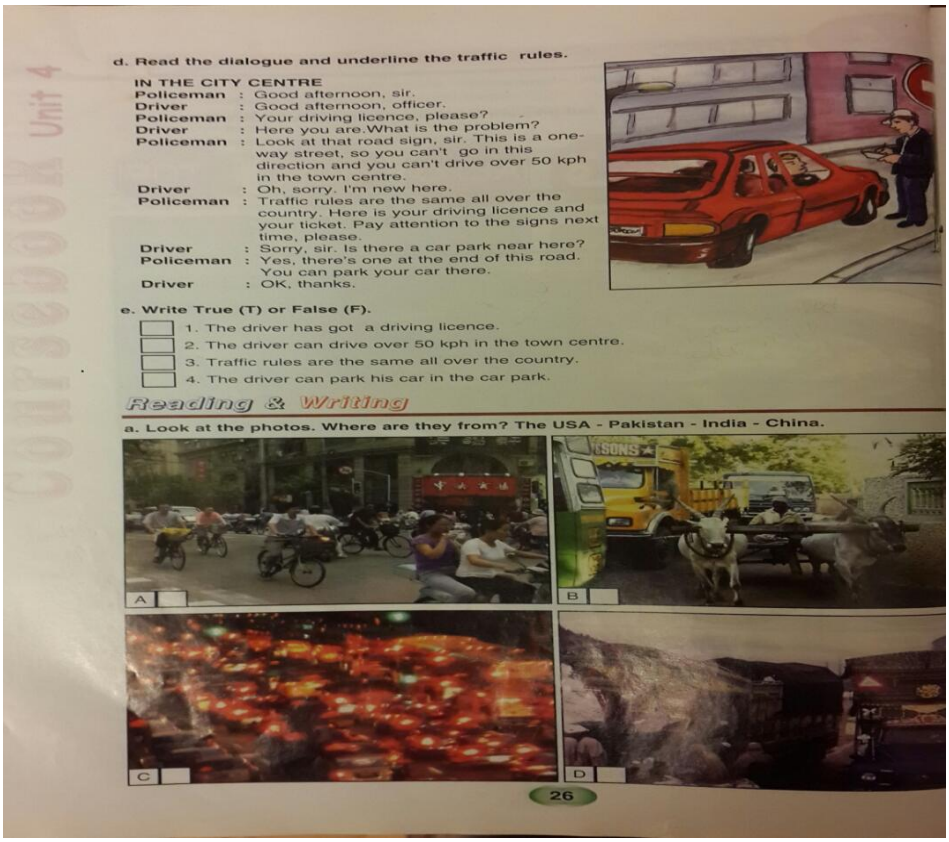
b. Listen to the dialogue and tick the signs you hear.

1. Stop 2. Wait 3. Go 4. Turn left 5. Turn right

6. Don't Park 7. Don't turn left 8. Don't turn right 9. Don't enter

c. Listen to the dialogue again. What can't the driver do?

25



Unit 4 COURSEBOOK

d. Read the dialogue and underline the traffic rules.

IN THE CITY CENTRE

**Policeman** : Good afternoon, sir.
**Driver** : Good afternoon, officer.
**Policeman** : Your driving licence, please?
**Driver** : Here you are.What is the problem?
**Policeman** : Look at that road sign, sir. This is a one-way street, so you can't go in this direction and you can't drive over 50 kph in the town centre.
**Driver** : Oh, sorry. I'm new here.
**Policeman** : Traffic rules are the same all over the country. Here is your driving licence and your ticket. Pay attention to the signs next time, please.
**Driver** : Sorry, sir. Is there a car park near here?
**Policeman** : Yes, there's one at the end of this road. You can park your car there.
**Driver** : OK, thanks.

e. Write True (T) or False (F).

- [ ] 1. The driver has got a driving licence.
- [ ] 2. The driver can drive over 50 kph in the town centre.
- [ ] 3. Traffic rules are the same all over the country.
- [ ] 4. The driver can park his car in the car park.

**Reading & Writing**

a. Look at the photos. Where are they from? The USA - Pakistan - India - China.

A B C D

26

## Appendix B: Unit 4 of NBS (cont'd)

**b. Read the texts and match them with the pictures.**

1.
There are some traffic problems in New York, USA. You can't drive fast during the rush hours because there is a terrible traffic jam, so you can't arrive home in time every day. Traffic rules are strict here. You can't break the rules because police officers and cameras are everywhere. It is the good part of NY traffic.

2.
Traffic in India is enjoyable but difficult. There are a lot of cows, people, bicycles, trucks and cars on the streets. You can see some road signs or traffic officers. The roads are in chaos. You can't go fast, turn right or left or find a parking place. The traffic is bad.

3.
Cyclists are everywhere here in Beijing, China. Men, women, children and even business people are on their bicycles, without helmets. It is dangerous for them. You can't see many cars on the streets. It is very nice because you can park your bike everywhere. You can buy a bike easily because they are cheap. Don't forget! You can't ride fast, because it is not polite.

4.
Trucks are very important in Pakistan. They are very special for their drivers. They can carry a lot of goods or people. There are no rules for them. People can drive them in the town center or in the mountains. So you can't drive or walk easily on the streets. Be careful and go slowly!

**c. Fill in the chart according to the texts.**

| countries | can do | can't do |
|---|---|---|
| The USA | - | drive fast at rush hours<br>break rules |
| India | | |
| China | | |
| Pakistan | | |

**d. Write a paragraph about the traffic in Turkey.**

.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....
.....

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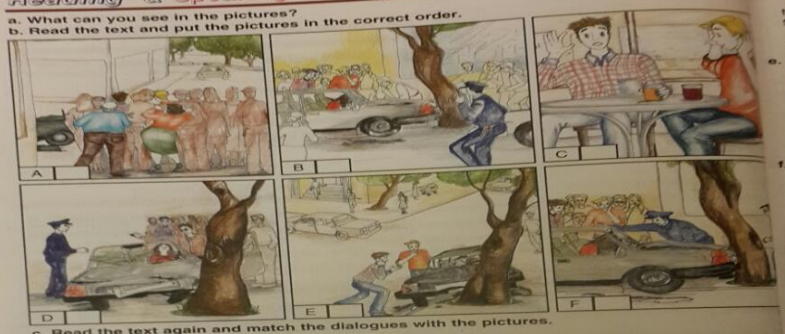
Coursebook Unit 4

## Reading & Speaking

**a. What can you see in the pictures?**
**b. Read the text and put the pictures in the correct order.**




**c. Read the text again and match the dialogues with the pictures.**

**A Car Crash in Arizona**

..... (1)
**David** : What's that terrible noise?
**William** : I think there's a traffic accident.
**David** : Come on. Let's have a look!

..... (2) (Ten seconds later)
**David** : Oh, it's a car crash! Can I use your mobile phone for an ambulance?
**William** : Sure. Dial 911.
**David** : Hello, the ambulance service? There's an accident here. A car crash. Send an ambulance. What? Oh, yes. It's at the crossroads near the post office in North Star. Hurry up, please.

..... (3)
**Police Officer** : Yes, sir. A car crash. There's a young lady in the car. She's unconscious.
**Sheriff** : Is there anybody else in the car?
**Police Officer** : No, sir.
**Sheriff** : OK. The ambulance is on the way.

..... (4)
**The woman** : Can you see anything?
**The man** : No, I can't. There are some tall men in front of me.

..... (5)
**Police Officer** : All right, ladies and gentlemen. Stand back, please. Hey kids, you can't play h You! You, sir. Don't come near the car.
**Doctor** : I'm a doctor. Is the ambulance on the way?
**Police Officer** : Yes, it is.

..... (6)
**Doctor** : It's serious. She's badly injured.
**Police Officer** : Here comes the ambulance!

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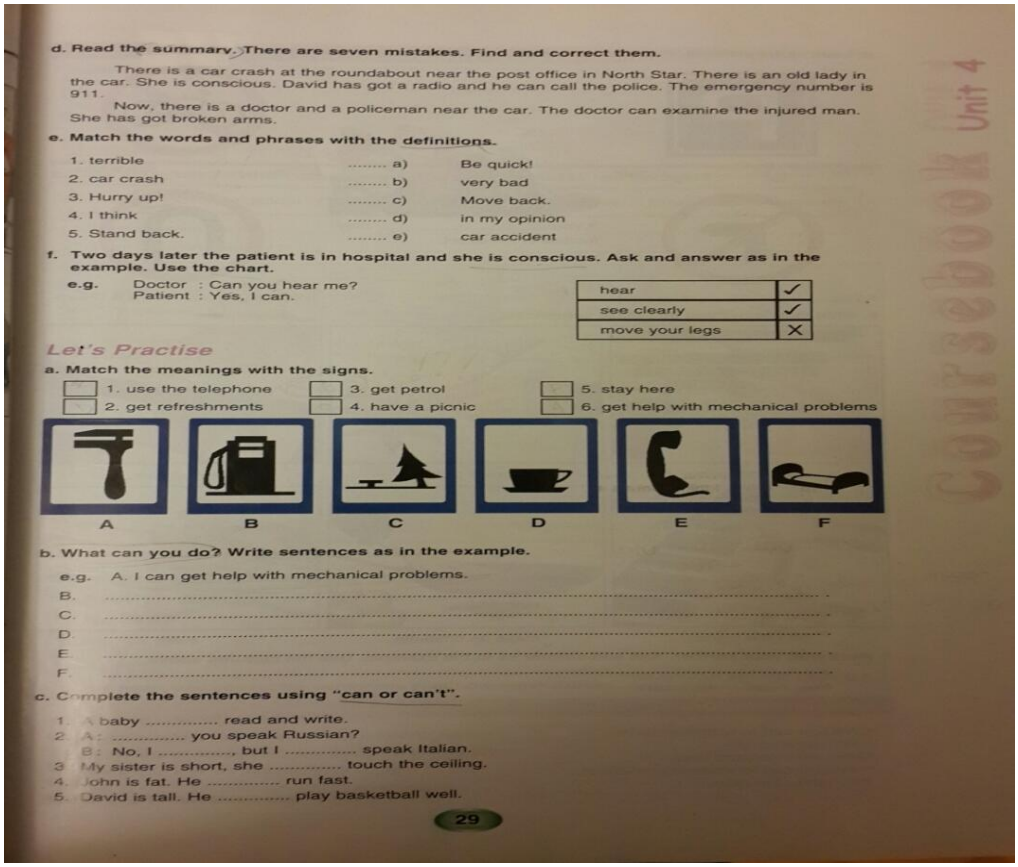
**Appendix B: Unit 4 of NBS** (cont'd)



d. Read the summary. There are seven mistakes. Find and correct them.

There is a car crash at the roundabout near the post office in North Star. There is an old lady in the car. She is conscious. David has got a radio and he can call the police. The emergency number is 911.

Now, there is a doctor and a policeman near the car. The doctor can examine the injured man. She has got broken arms.

e. Match the words and phrases with the definitions.

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| 1. terrible | ..... a) | Be quick! |
| 2. car crash | ..... b) | very bad |
| 3. Hurry up! | ..... c) | Move back. |
| 4. I think | ..... d) | in my opinion |
| 5. Stand back. | ..... e) | car accident |

f. Two days later the patient is in hospital and she is conscious. Ask and answer as in the example. Use the chart.

e.g. Doctor : Can you hear me?
Patient : Yes, I can.

| | |
|---|---|
| hear | ✓ |
| see clearly | ✓ |
| move your legs | ✗ |

Let's Practise

a. Match the meanings with the signs.

1. use the telephone
2. get refreshments
3. get petrol
4. have a picnic
5. stay here
6. get help with mechanical problems

A B C D E F

b. What can you do? Write sentences as in the example.

e.g. A. I can get help with mechanical problems.
B. .....
C. .....
D. .....
E. .....
F. .....

c. Complete the sentences using "can or can't".

1. A baby ..... read and write.
2. A: ..... you speak Russian?
B: No, I ....., but I ..... speak Italian.
3. My sister is short, she ..... touch the ceiling.
4. John is fat. He ..... run fast.
5. David is tall. He ..... play basketball well.

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d. Look at the pictures. Put "can" or "can't".

1. You ..... park.
2. You ..... ride a bike.
3. You ..... play football in the street.
4. You ..... turn right.
5. You ..... make a U-turn.

e. What can / can't you do? Make sentences.

1 use a computer
2 draw a picture
3 play chess
4 play the piano
5 make an omelette
6 swim

f. Work with your partner. Ask and answer as in the example. Use the pictures above.

e.g. Can you use a computer?
Yes, I can. / No, I can't.

Let's Remember

- We use **can** to express ability.
I can see clearly.
She can't move her legs.
- We use **can** to express prohibition.
You can't park here.

see GRAMMAR REFERENCE

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**Appendix B: Unit 4 of NBS** (cont'd)

## Pronunciation

**Listen and repeat.**

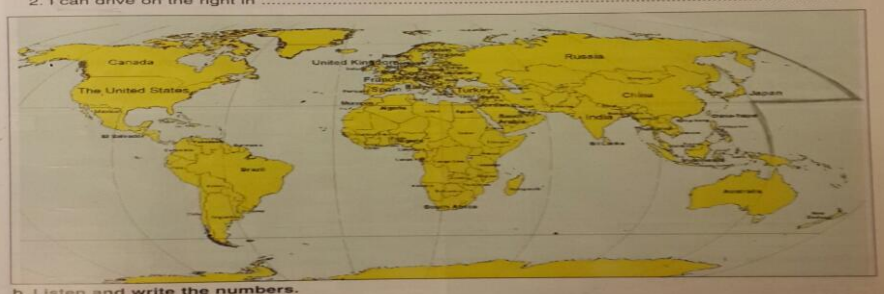
I can. I can't.
Can you turn right?
No, I can't. (ka:nt) / (kænt)
Yes, I can. (kæn) / (kən)

## Listening & Writing

**a. Look at the box. In which countries can you drive on the left / on the right?**

Austria - India - Singapore - Canada - The United Kingdom - Taiwan - Brazil - Japan - Lebanon

1. I can drive on the left in .....
2. I can drive on the right in .....




**b. Listen and write the numbers.**

Emergency telephone numbers

1. Police : .....
2. Ambulance : .....
3. Fire : .....

**c. Listen again and correct the sentences about driving in Turkey.**

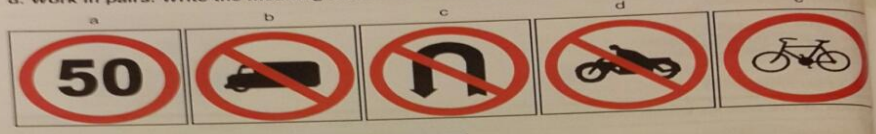
1. You can drive on the left in Turkey.
2. You can ride a motorbike without a driving licence.
3. At the age of seventeen, you can get a driving licence.
4. The speed limit on motorways is 90 kph.
5. You can call the police at 154 in an emergency.





**d. Work in pairs. Write the meaning of the road signs. Use "can" or "can't" as in the example.**

a b c d e




e.g. You can't exceed 50 kph (kilometres per hour).

a) .....
b) .....
c) .....
d) .....

**e. Write a list of traffic instructions. Then use some of them and write a dialogue. Use the dialogue on page 26 as an example.**

## Project Work

**a. Study the project below.**

To be a good driver...

**b. Choose one of the topics below and write instructions as in the example above.**

- to give a good party
- to be a good friend
- to stay healthy

## Fun Corner

**1. In a school in Europe, students study lots of languages. Write down the names. What is the other word for the Irish language?**

1

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | | | M | | N | |
| S | | | N | | | H | | |
| | R | | | C | | | | |
| | | | A | T | | | | |
| | | I | | | L | | | |
| | | | H | | N | | S | |