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EXPLORING THE FLEXIBILITY OF ESP MATERIALS THROUGH THE IPO MODEL: CORPUS AND CONSUMER INSIGHTS FROM THE TURKISH EFL CONTEXT

Meliha R. Simsek

University of Health Sciences, Turkey

Abstract. *Previous research tended to exclusively conduct expert/user evaluation and rely heavily on subjective survey data for simply ascertaining general satisfaction with a fixed predetermined set of coursebook features. However, not only the material's absolute worth separated from the users' personal opinions but also multiple perspectives on its relative worth informed by their lived learning experiences should be concurrently assessed to make better informed decisions about textbook adoption. Thus, this multimethod study sought to provide a holistic, multidimensional and more realistic assessment of coursebook performance through conflating objective information on its compositionality with reflective user knowledge about the actual functioning. We used the inputs-processes-outcomes (IPO) model for the deconstruction of a global coursebook in dental English, based the expert review on corpus findings and complemented it with the less-studied student-users' (87 sophomores from a Turkish-medium dental school of a large urban public university) retrospective evaluation against preferred criteria. The corpus-based IPO analysis of the coursebook (non-)texts and content analysis of their post-use reflections revealed that: i. striking the right balance between text comprehensibility/authenticity and content breadth/depth emerged as a major concern to lower-level learners, ii. disciplinary vocabulary coverage and explicit teaching of high-frequency dental words constituted its greatest strengths, and iii. despite awareness of the need for differentiation in the 21st-century workplace, they prioritised meaningful practice over freer use to survive university and approved the cyclical progression from whole-class comprehension-based procedures to text-manipulative production activities. To achieve deeper learning outcomes than functional language mastery, it still needs transformation through: learner-compiled (e-)portfolios of academic and humorous genres, increased visibility for women dentists, creative use of illustrations, conscious attention to grammar and ludic language use, and integration of cross-cultural elements and service-learning projects on linguistic/cultural mediation.*

Key words: *corpus analysis, inputs-processes-outcomes model, retrospective evaluation*

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Corresponding author: Meliha R. Simsek. University of Health Sciences, Turkey.
E-mail: malliday@gmail.com

1. INTRODUCTION

In our shrinking world, where professionals across sectors are urged to think globally and act locally, a good command of English is a prerequisite for transferring expert knowledge and becoming a fully-functioning member of one's borderless community of practice. Over half a century since the launch of the first course in technical English, the practical concept of work/study-motivated language learning has resulted in the emergence of many different kinds of tailored programs, and the teaching of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has now established itself as one of the most dynamic approaches to EFL instruction. Owing to the US-led economic boom and educational investments in oil-producing countries, the postwar world first witnessed the rise of English as an internationally-accepted language of technology and commerce (Hutchinson & Waters, 2010). With the expansion of global mobility, healthcare providers are now faced with the need for learning occupational English perhaps more than in any other profession (Ferguson, 2013; Kim, 2008).

Due to the impact of Covid-19, English-speaking countries, which have become dependent on migrant health workforce, are speeding up recruitment, and where free movement (i.e. of dentists across the EU) is ensured by mutual recognition of professional qualifications, both probability of working abroad and demand for ESP learning are increasing, especially in undergraduate dental education (Belcher, 2009; Cohen, 2021; Manogue et al., 2010; Moross et al., 2017). However, despite being widely termed "a materials-led field", ESP textbooks are still not proliferating, and compared with their super-domains (e.g. engineering, medicine), even fewer sub-specialist materials exist that target the learner's particular specialism (e.g. marine engineering, dental medicine) because publishers tend to target a general audience to make the most profit possible (Barnard & Zemach, 2007; Bhatia et al., 2011; Dudley-Evans, 2001, p. 135; Maher, 1986; Pasalic & Plancic, 2018). In the case of dental English materials, only one UK-produced series (e.g. Career Paths: Dentistry) (Evans et al., 2016), is found against three locally-produced counterparts from Czech (e.g. Dentistry English for dental practice) (Baumrukova, 2013), Persian (e.g. English for the students of dentistry) (Tahririan et al., 2015) and Polish contexts (e.g. English for dentistry) (Wawer & Stanska-Bugaj, 2007). Therefore, when it comes to the provision of instructional materials tailored to dental students' specific needs, (already overloaded) teachers can also face a moral dilemma over whether to write their own usually without proper training and/or support from stakeholders, or compile a potentially unprofessional-looking course pack from copies of commercially available general English (GE) textbooks and subject-specific articles.

Amid such apparent dearth of ESP materials with narrower focus, evaluation of the few sub-specialist textbooks as in the current case of dentistry gains importance for both materials writers and users, as the former group of professional authors and first-timers writing from scratch can then provide a better scaffold for the latter's teaching-learning process. While they might be known for showing more concern about collegial rather than customer feedback, evaluative review by multiple users; more precisely, by teachers as evaluator- and learners as consumer-readers, is required for all kinds of ESP materials, whether written for one's own specific classroom (teacher-made), or later developed into global¹/locally-produced textbooks for a broader audience as in the above examples on dental English (Hamp-Lyons, 2001; Stoller et al., 2006; Swales, 1995).

¹The term refers to the "genre of English language textbook which is produced in English-speaking countries and is designed for use as the core text in language classrooms around the world" (Gray, 2002, pp. 151-152).

There is ample support in the ESP literature for involving, besides their teachers, the learners in the process of investigating the material's compatibility with the instructional context, for evaluation by teachers promotes professional development and authorial empathy by raising awareness about what to do/look for and avoid in one's own/others' materials, whereas evaluation by learners utilises student expertise, reveals user-preferred selection criteria, guides textbook revisions and so boosts language learning (Bocanegra-Valle, 2010; Breen & Candlin, 1987; Hutchinson & Waters, 2010; Kim, 2008; Masuhara et al., 2017; Stoller et al., 2006). Nevertheless, in practice, learners given little/no say in the matter eventually buy their teachers' choice, and especially when teaching ESP for distant specialisms, many select easy-to-teach and unthreatening materials to their self-image and status (Glendinning, 1997).

1.1. Trends and gaps in ESP coursebook research

It appears that it would be difficult, if not impossible, to find the best possible vehicle for our shared learning journey without obtaining multi-user feedback from both teachers and students. Now that the two kinds of evaluation are equally significant to ESP materials selection and production, some form of learner evaluation, despite difficulties in design (multiple-choice/open-ended), timing (mid/end-course) and administration (in L1/L2), should definitely be undertaken after use, even in the presence of careful piloting (Barnard & Zemach, 2007). A closer look at the evaluation studies of the past decade has, however, demonstrated that despite being conducted in research settings as varied as periphery countries and with future professionals from all walks of life, i. local rather than global materials dominated the tertiary ESP classrooms (e.g. Celik, 2018; Hashmi et al., 2019; Kostenko, 2015; Razmjoo & Raissi, 2010; Wang, 2010), ii. inclusive representation of textbook views was only occasionally attempted through surveying relatively small samples of diverse participants (40-250 students, 12-30 ESP teachers, 2-10 faculty) (e.g. Bouzidi, 2009; Razmjoo & Raissi, 2010; Wang, 2010; Yasmin et al., 2016; Zangani, 2009), iii. similar Likert-type questionnaires and self-developed checklists (5-55 items) were used, often without standardisation, even after adaptation from established/already-adapted instruments for GE coursebooks (e.g. Bouzidi, 2009; Celik, 2018; Ebadi & Naderifarjad, 2015; Nikou et al., 2014; Wang, 2010), iv. if semi-structured/focus-group interviews were (co-)administered, cursory summaries of responses were given (e.g. Boshraadi et al., 2015; Hashmi et al., 2019; Karimnia & Jafari, 2017; Yasmin et al., 2016), v. expert reviews were limited to qualitative document analysis, where the coursebook researchers applied either of two major schemes to identify (dis)advantages (e.g. Darani, 2014; Karimnia & Jafari, 2017; Kostenko, 2015; Vera-Cazorla, 2015), vi. few addressed more discrete issues such as gender positioning through (non-)text elements, cultural orientation and diversity in global business English (BE) series (e.g. Goyal & Rose, 2020; Pashmforoosh & Babaii, 2015), communicativeness of maritime English (ME) coursebooks (e.g. Coslovich, 2021) and evolutionary development of English for medical purposes (EMP) materials in Spain (e.g. Vera-Cazorla, 2015).

It was also worth noting that corpus evidence was seldom employed to corroborate findings from expert and user reviews; for instance, frequency counts of technical words were performed to crosscheck appropriateness of lexical content in Darani's (2014) comparison of local and global ESP materials and Boshraadi et al.'s (2015) investigation of teacher/student-perceived lexical needs and coursebook realisations, whereas Ou (2019)

alone used corpus tools to determine the extent of subject coverage, variety of discourse markers, amount of vocabulary recycling and text difficulty levels across Chinese-made series. Scantiness of corpus information, coupled with overuse of generic checklists/schemes, may however have led to duplicative results on coursebook efficiency because global materials often achieved user satisfaction in almost all aspects except for provision of L1-support and culturally-responsive teaching (e.g. Bouzidi, 2009; Celik, 2018; Ebadi & Naderifarjad, 2015; Kostenko, 2015; Medrea & Rus, 2012), and, conversely, local materials became the target of criticism due to lack of communicative methodology, text/task authenticity and skills integration (e.g. Darani, 2014; Nikou et al., 2014; Razmjoo & Raissi, 2010; Wang, 2010; Zangani, 2009). ESP coursebook research can therefore be claimed to concentrate on redocumenting what different materials have/lack for the typical profile of crowded, time-compressed and lower-level EFL classrooms with GE-teachers-turned-ESP-practitioners.

1.2. Rationale for the study and the inputs-processes-outcomes framework

It is observed that just as purchase decisions for any product can be determined as much by expert reviews as by consumer reviews, so more informed decisions can be made about textbook adoption in the ever-changing ESP classroom, provided that good teachers primarily as good materials providers consult and involve learners as most immediate users in decisions relating to their learning options, and moreover base their shared decision-making not only on personal preferences but also on sound corpus data. Leading authorities on materials evaluation, Harwood (2005), Rubdy (2007), Tomlinson (2007) and Littlejohn (2011) have likewise underscored both the limitations of judging coursebooks only against ad-hoc lists of directly observable global criteria and the need to provide a systematic in-depth analysis through corpus-driven methods rather than subjective impressions. Considering the increased circulation and complexity of all-encompassing contemporary coursebooks, it has now become more important to reveal their true nature, the interplay between the writer(s)' (non)linguistic and pedagogical choices, through reverse engineering and understand the rationale for being evaluated in specific ways, in order to give consumers more control over materials and model successful coursebook features for future editions (Chan, 2009; Littlejohn, 2011; Stoller et al., 2006; Swales, 1995).

For the above reasons, unlike previous research, which tended to exclusively conduct expert/user evaluation and rely heavily on subjective survey data for simply ascertaining general satisfaction levels with a fixed predetermined set of coursebook features, this study sought to provide a holistic, multidimensional and thus assumedly more realistic assessment of coursebook performance through conflating objective information on its compositionality with reflective user knowledge about the actual functioning in the ESP classroom. Consequently, we used Maley's (2011) inputs-processes-outcomes (IPO) model for the deconstruction of Evans et al.'s (2016) aforementioned global material for teaching dental English, based the expert review on corpus findings and complemented it with the less-studied student-users' retrospective evaluation. The analytical framework was specifically preferred due to its relevance, clarity and functionality. The basic assumption of the IPO model is that since all learners/teachers/teaching situations are "uniquely different", greater flexibility should be allowed "in decisions about content, order, pace and procedures", which in turn encourages creativity in teachers' (methodological) and learners' (linguistic) behaviours (Maley, 2011, pp. 379-380; 2013).

In his chart, Maley (2011, pp. 386-387; 2013, p. 181) organises materials production around three key constructs: i. inputs, raw texts of all imaginable forms (pictorial/auditory/visual/printed), ii. processes, “generalisable pedagogical procedures” to be performed on the inputs, with different modes (individual/group), mediums (spoken/written) and task-orientations (e.g. summarising/problem-solving), and iii. outcomes, the ends to be attained by engaging in the processes, ranging from material (e.g. visual displays) and pedagogical ones (e.g. reading speed) as “the direct product of learning” to educational (e.g. independence) and psycho-social (e.g. self-awareness) types linked to larger aims. In enabling different combinations of texts and procedures to generate desired outcomes, the IPO model empowers the stakeholders to exercise choice over created materials and provides a practical tool for revealing the (in)flexibility of published materials in an increasingly consumer-driven marketplace (Maley, 2011). Lastly, the IPO model, despite instrumentality in materials development and evaluation, is an underused framework, for we know of only McCullagh’s (2010) study, where it was used for an initial evaluation of a commercially-produced medical English textbook based on five teachers’ own views and their reports of student perceptions from semi-structured telephone interviews.

In summary, this study aimed to discover how and why a given ESP material got to be the way it was, whether it really contained what it should, as well as how the learners interpreted its performance against preferred criteria by collating corpus and consumer insights, and posed the following research questions: i. To what extent can the inputs provide variety in professional text-types, conversational/occupational role assignments, as well as pictorial, cultural and gender representations? ii. To what extent can the processes provide variety in activity types, sequencing and skills-focus? iii. To what extent can the recycled L2 functions, grammatical exponents and lexical items reflect essential work-related needs? iv. To what extent can the outcomes generated by the material’s methodological choices demonstrate deeper learning? v. To what extent can the material satisfy the student-users’ prioritised requirements for effective textbook experience?

2. METHOD

This study adopted a multimethod design in that two qualitative strands (text/corpus and reflective analyses) were utilised simultaneously and during data analysis, qualitative and quantitative approaches were combined through data transformation to allow comparisons between data sets and gain deeper insight into the problem situation (Creswell, 2009; Morse, 2003). It was considered that merging two qualitative analyses on the textbook corpus and students’ post-use reflections and quantifying qualitative data with frequency distributions could prove more sensitive than a single method in revealing the material’s absolute worth separated from the users’ personal opinions as well as multiple perspectives on its relative worth informed by their lived learning experiences, and thus offer a fuller picture of the researched phenomenon, i.e. flexibility of ESP materials (Mik-Meyer, 2020).

2.1. Data collection

Eighty-seven sophomores (39% male; 61% female, aged 19-21) were purposively selected among dental students (DS) of a large urban public university in Turkey. Having received no English preparatory education and being first-time takers of a two-credit ESP (elective) course at a Turkish-medium program, these multilevel adult learners constituted

information-rich cases capable of unravelling student-perceived benefits and limitations of *Career Paths: Dentistry* (CPD) (A1-B1) by *Express Publishing* (Evans et al., 2016), probably the only available global coursebook in dental English (Evans et al., 2016). Because thoughtful language data are easily procured from documents without resort to transcription, the students' post-use reflections, along with their ESP textbook provided the qualitative data (Creswell, 2009). All the verbal (written/aural) and non-verbal (visual) texts were included in the textual analysis of 45-unit/118-page material. Three glossaries also formed the corpus for comparative lexical analysis. At the end of two 16-week semesters, McGrath's (2002) pyramid activity was administered, whereby textbook views and prioritised evaluative criteria were elicited from their reflective writing in response to the prompt: "List up to three things you liked and disliked about your coursebook. What changes would you make to CPD?". In efforts to improve consent, encourage candid responses and increase data quality, the research purpose was explained to the participants and confidentiality was ensured by identifying their data with case numbers (e.g. S18) (Ciambrone, 2004; Creswell, 2009).

2.2. Data analysis

The qualitative data were examined with content analysis, for it enables not only the summary and reporting of main messages but also generation of "replicable and valid inferences from texts" (Cohen et al., 2007; Krippendorff, 2004, p. 18). In the first strand, the textbook content was explored with Maley's (2011) IPO model: i. 45 written texts were categorised into four text-types, ii. 45 aural texts were analysed with respect to conversational pairings and gendered role assignments, iii. 114 questions from 26 dentist-patient conversations were classified as information/confirmation-seeking (ISQs/CSQs) and subclassified according to degree of coerciveness Hale's (2004) varied forms exposed, iv. 202 visuals were separated into Hill's (2013) illustration styles and design purposes, and along with 40 culture-loaded texts, were evaluated according to Cortazzi and Jin's (1999) patterns of cultural representation. During the analysis of processes, the same 15 activity types were identified within 45 units and their frequencies were distributed according to instructional focus, mode and phase (Nunan, 2004). To specify what grammar, functions and vocabulary were activated, 45 role-playing activities were analysed in terms of macrofunctions, microfunctions and grammatical exponents (Nunan, 2004). A wordlist of 920 headwords (e.g. fill: filling>fillings) was derived from 1287 tokens in CPD's glossaries and compared with three reference wordlists, Carlson's (1999) first 50 word families, Crosthwaite and Cheung's (2019) top 50 keywords in the dentistry corpus, and Wang et al.'s (2008) top 30 word families in the medical academic word list (MAWL), using AntConc 3.5.8 (Anthony, 2019). Comparison against high-frequency wordlists was tabulated because it renders the best items for L2 learning across lists (Dang & Webb, 2016). While Carlson's (1999) full list was unavailable, the overall comparison was performed between the latter two. In both comparative modes, headwords became the unit of coding, which "minimises the difference between the numbers of items in each list" and is "the most valid approach" (Dang & Webb, 2016, p. 139). Crosthwaite and Cheung's (2019) top 50 keywords were reorganised into 36 headwords and full list of 873 keywords (proper names excluded) into 555 headwords. The intended learning outcomes produced by combination of inputs and processes were only qualitatively evaluated with regard to

Maley's (2011) material/pedagogical/educational/psycho-social outcomes, as their interaction, being complex and wide-ranging, cannot be reduced to a formula.

In the second strand, the students' post-use reflections were the content analysed by two coders independently. After rigorous reading of data, they determined salient patterns, compared preliminary findings and reached consensus on the final coding scheme of 24 categories beneath two overarching themes: 11 concerning textbook benefits (visual impact, learning of subject-matter, field-specific lexicon-building, ample reinforcement, communicative role rehearsal, scaffolded learning through text simplification, pronunciation modelling, self-study support, suitability for level, brevity of units, convenience) and 13 textbook limitations (lack of: balance between content depth and breadth, accuracy-based supplementaries, variety in activity order and difficulty, improvisational language use, reasonable price, generic diversity, extra visuals, interactive learning resources, grammar reference; unfulfilled proficiency expectations, cluttered layout, glossy paper, monoculturalism). To enhance accessibility and usability of qualitative findings, they were formulated as thematic statements, declarative summary sentences (Sandelowski & Leeman, 2012). To enhance reliability and validity: i. detailed description of the context was given, ii. theoretical frameworks were employed for data coding, interpretation, organisation and connection to existing research, iii. all parts of data were exhaustively inspected and analysed, iv. respondents were invited to confirm initial findings, v. frequencies and percentages of occurrence were appropriately tabulated alongside examples, vi. cross-categorical comparisons were made, and vii. as they used L1 for better self-expression, translations of direct quotes were abundantly provided (Collins & Stockton, 2018; Creswell, 2009; Silverman & Marvasti, 2008). The overall percentage agreement was calculated as 89% for the textbook data. The intercoder reliability for retrospective reflections (88%) also fell within Miles and Huberman's (1994) acceptable range.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Results from the IPO analysis

All three books (B1-B2-B3) relied on career-specific readings and listenings compatible with Turkish DS' first-year curriculum. Table 1 displayed the classification of written texts according to discursive functions. The vast majority was evenly balanced between instructive and informative types (76%). As the level increased, there was a shift from descriptive-instructive to instructive-informative paradigm.

Table 1 Distribution of written texts according to discursive functions

Types	Examples	B1		B2		B3		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Descriptive	Poster on tooth anatomy	6	13.33	2	4.44	0	0.00	8	18
Instructive	Brochure on oral hygiene	7	15.55	3	6.66	7	15.55	17	38
Informative	Article on medication	0	0.00	10	22.22	7	15.55	17	38
Persuasive	Ads on dental practices	2	4.44	0	0.00	1	2.22	3	6
Total		15	33.33	15	33.33	15	33.33	45	100

A thematic comparison also indicated: i. B1's descriptive and instructive texts outlined core concepts (e.g. dental specialties) and professional tasks (e.g. developing chairside manner), ii. B2's informative concentration extended L2 knowledge of common dental problems, and iii. B3's instructive and informative composition introduced other clinical procedures (e.g. taking health histories) and more specific subject areas (e.g. geriatric dentistry). Although the back cover blurb promised a rich variety of realistic passages, they did not closely reflect typical generic conventions of the material's self-professed genres in Table 1. Different varieties were only distinguishable by superficial features (e.g. chapter number/page orientation). Despite real-world settings, most with a dialogic style had fictive authors, condensed information into simple summaries and seemed fabricated as pedagogical texts for introducing language.

Table 2 Distribution of aural texts according to conversational pairings

Types	B1		B2		B3		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Dentist-dentist	5	11.11	1	2.22	4	8.88	10	22
Dentist-patient	5	11.11	13	28.88	8	17.77	26	58
Dentist-other	2	4.44	1	2.22	1	2.22	4	9
Patient-other	3	6.66	0	0.00	2	4.44	5	11
Total	15	33.33	15	33.33	15	33.33	45	100

When CPD's aural texts were categorised according to conversational pairings as above, more than half occurred between dentist and patient (58%) and ten involved two dental professionals (dentist-dentist/dental hygienist) (22%). Expert and novice (dental resident-intern) interactions went unexemplified. Triadic (dental resident-intern-patient) dialogues were nonexistent. Despite inclusiveness of their communicative circle, the conversations may not fully represent the institutional talk in everyday dental practice. Mixed-gender interactions might be assumed to induce gender equity in the discursive realm. Nevertheless, a closer analysis of conversational content demonstrated not only did men overall acquire the more occupational role of dentist oftener ($f_{md}=30$; $f_{fd}=20$), but they also outnumbered women dentists in dentist-patient conversations ($f_{md}=18$; $f_{fd}=8$). Female interlocutors were patientised twice as much ($f_{mp}=11$; $f_{fp}=20$) and subordinated as dental assistant/front office personnel to male dentists. In the case of male unavailability, referrals were made to female dentists as second-best alternatives. Female patients were portrayed as talkative, opinionated mother figures or appearance-obsessed, even irrational creatures, discussing treatment options because of unfounded concerns. In a total of 22 instances, where dentists were pictured beside patients, more men than women dentists appeared ($f_{md}=13$; $f_{fd}=9$). 12 out of 13 male dentists were illustrated as people in action, plying their trade, whereas five out of nine female dentists were simply shown interacting.

Table 3 Distribution of dentist-patient questions according to degree of coerciveness

Types	Examples	Dentist		Patient		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
ISQs		9	7.89	36	31.57	45	39.00
Wh-interrogatives	How do you typically treat autistic patients?	5	4.38	35	30.70	40	35.08
Modal interrogatives	Can you look at these pictures and tell me which foods you eat regularly?	4	3.50	1	0.87	5	4.38
CSQs		33	28.94	36	31.57	69	61.00
Polar interrogatives	Do you offer services in pediatric dentistry?	18	15.78	21	18.42	39	34.21
Choice interrogatives	Have you had any headaches or any pain in your ears or jaw?	3	2.63	0	0.00	3	2.63
Declaratives	But that will go away, won't it?	12	10.52	15	13.15	27	23.68
Total		42	36.84	72	63.15	114	100.00

CPD's 26 dentist-patient dialogues were subjected to further conversation analysis (CA) to determine whether patients were given equal rights to initiate conversational moves. As is often the case with real patients, conversational openings were done by dentists, except on three occasions. Table 3 showed patients asked over half of questions (63.15%) and both conversational partners mostly elicited agreement (61%) mainly through yes-no questions (34.21%). Instead of dentists (7.89%), patients elicited more information, using almost always open-ended questions (31.57%). Dentists preferred politeness, indirect forms of information-seeking (3.50%) and less limiting alternative questions (2.63%) for confirmation-seeking from clients, while patients produced the most coercive declaratives more frequently (13.15%).

Table 4 Distribution of visuals according to design purpose

Types	B1		B2		B3		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Photo	45	22.27	47	23.26	57	28.21	149	74.00
Functional	42	20.79	46	22.77	56	27.72	144	71.28
Decorative	3	1.48	1	0.49	1	0.49	5	2.47
Drawing	22	10.89	28	13.86	3	1.48	53	26.00
Functional	8	3.96	12	5.94	3	1.48	23	11.38
Decorative	14	6.93	16	7.92	0	0.00	30	14.85
Total	67	33.16	75	37.12	60	29.70	202	100.00

CPD's visual analysis provided that the majority of pictures were purely functional (83%), and photos, as the primary constituent (74%), became more commonly used for showing the meaning of graphically-enhanced target words (71.28%). Test paper illustrations and notepad holders, with no educational use other than stimulating interest in the end-of-unit activity (form-filling/summary writing), were decoratively embedded, and capitalised on the students' test-taking motivation. Like 40 culture-loaded verbal texts (50 culture-neutral), where all characters, settings and interactions featured Anglo-American people (e.g. Sarasota resident patient, Benjamin Dodson's health history),

geography (e.g. Belleville, NJ dental clinic for sale) and institutions (e.g. Harvard School of Dental Medicine), CPD's visual texts lacked cultural diversity. None but three product images (Euros, French milk bottle, German-made medicine) reflected international target cultures, where English is used as an international language by non-native speakers living in (non-)/English-speaking countries (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999). But for five black figures, CPD formed an all-white community and captured diversity neither in faces nor through discourse, let alone offer locally-relevant content. The material, notwithstanding a one-off opportunity to compare licensure processes, neglected to represent students' source culture and "culture(s) of their future interlocutors" (Matsuda, 2012, p. 177).

As can be observed from the procedural taxonomy in Table 5, CPD's activities followed a set pattern of continuity and mainly served to process contextualised language (78.57%). A typical unit structure started on open-ended questions for activating prior knowledge and led student groups into dictionary search for bold-faced/colour-coded/italicised words. They answered open-ended, true/false and multiple-choice questions (MCQs) to demonstrate reading comprehension and a range of closed tasks (2-option MCQs, matching, gap-filling, word substitution, lexical sets) to reinforce vocabulary, as well as imitating their pronunciation in the taped reading. Classwork on the listening text involved even more of the same comprehension-based activities and dialogue completion. In the productive phase, they memorised the model dialogue and moved on to make their own (7.14%). They eventually converted familiar spoken content into written texts, through form-filling (e.g. completing reports with the patient's information), or more divergent summary writing (e.g. formulating messages for the patient's physician) (14.28%).

Table 5 Distribution of activity types according to procedural settings

Focus (Mode*)	Instructional phase						Total	
	Processing		Productive		Interactive		f	%
	f	%	f	%	f	%		
Pre-communicative	495	78.57	45	7.14			540	86
Open-ended Qs	180	28.57					180	28.57
Dictionary use (GW)	45	7.14					45	7.14
True/false	45	7.14					45	7.14
MCQs (4-option)	45	7.14					45	7.14
MCQs (2-option)	30	4.76					30	4.76
Matching	27	4.28					27	4.28
Gap-filling	21	3.33					21	3.33
Word substitution	9	1.42					9	1.42
Lexical sets	3	0.47					3	0.47
Choral repetition	45	7.14					45	7.14
Dialogue completion	45	7.14					45	7.14
Dialogue memorisation (PW)			45	7.14			45	7.14
Communicative					90	14.28	90	14
Role-playing (PW)					45	7.14	45	7.14
Form-filling					29	4.60	29	4.60
Summary writing					16	2.53	16	2.53
Total	495	78.57	45	7.14	90	14.28	630	100,00

*Whole-group (WG) unless otherwise indicated. GW: groupwork; PW: pairwork.

The course depended on pre-communicative activities (86%), where they practised the specific language forms and functions needed for later communication (Littlewood, 2002). In line with its higher concern for skill-getting, CPD favoured the commonest learning mode, whole-class teaching, where all worked on the same task under the teacher's direct control (Harmer, 2007). This preference for lockstep activities seemed well-suited to large short-term multilevel classes in the Turkish setting. Controlled output practice with cued dialogues and text transformation ensured manipulation of recently-taught items and prepared them for spontaneous use in less intimidating environments (14%) (Littlewood, 2002). According to Table 5, receptive skills practice engaged about four times as much instructional time as productive skills practice, and despite the focus on vocabulary (28.57%), grammar was overlooked in the task chaining.

Table 6 CPD's coverage of disciplinary vocabulary

Overlap between	Common headwords	CPD's wordlist	
		f	%
Carlson (1999)	dental, tooth, treat, oral, health, patient, mouth, use, cancer, care, tmj, disease, gum, help, cause, prevent, therapy, periodontal, problem, infect, joint, inform, include, special, need, hygiene, diabetes, sugar, child, radiation, decay, medical, brush, food, effect, develop, time, dry, remove, pain, fluoride, symptom, surgical, plaque, important, tissue	46	92
Wang et al. (2008)	cell, data, clinic, analyse, factor, tissue, dose, previous, demonstrate, normal, process, similar, concentrate, function, therapy, indicate, area, obtain, research, vary, activate, require, cancer	23	77
Crosthwaite & Cheung (2019)	dental, tooth, caries, periodontal, enamel, oral, restore, implant, material, surface, ceramic, crown, molar, bond, wear, maxillary, occlusal, mandibular, composite, strength, orthodontic, fracture, wire, incisal, bone, specimens, width, rinse, force	29	81

Comparative lexical analysis revealed in Table 6 that CPD's wordlist covered 92% of Carlson's (1999) first 50 headwords, 81% of Crosthwaite and Cheung's (2019) top 36 headwords, and 77% of Wang et al.'s (2008) top 30 headwords. The overall comparison with the latter two lists showed 257 (46%) headwords in CPD's wordlist overlapped with 555 headwords in Crosthwaite and Cheung's (2019) reorganised subject-specific wordlist, whereas the resemblance decreased to 224 headwords (36%) with Wang et al.'s (2008) 623 headwords in the MAWL. CPD can therefore be claimed to provide the most essential dental vocabulary.

In addition to the vocabulary repertoire, a detailed specification of L2 functions and grammatical exponents served to discover which task(s) dentists usually did with language and what structures were recycled in communicative situations. In accordance with work-related needs, CPD foregrounded transactional tasks (78%), where DS mainly practised eliciting/providing information on patient backgrounds/complaints and modalising utterances about dental procedures. Interpersonal tasks (22%) incorporated more social exchanges with a focus on cliental opinion-seeking/sharing. There were no aesthetic tasks in the form of inspirational stories/dentist jokes/memes. However handy they might come in for improved patient satisfaction, CPD was not designed for

entertaining/teaching to entertain. As shown in Table 7, the grammatical content consolidated fundamental knowledge of direct Wh-questions, indirect questions, relatively simple sentences using common verb tenses and more complex ones with primary modal meanings, infinitives and that-clauses. Except the passive, CPD contained most of grammatical criterial features for A2-B1 levels and treated them as formulaic sequences (Cambridge University Press, 2011).

Table 7 Distribution of role-playing activities according to functional/grammatical focus

Macrofunctions Microfunctions	Grammatical exponents	Total	
		f	%
Transactional		35	78.00
Enquiring about events/services	Have you (ever) had...? Can you tell...?	8	17.77
Clarifying information	Oh (do) you mean...? You said that..., right?	7	15.55
Expressing necessity	All dentists are required to It's necessary that...	9	20
Expressing possibility	First/Then, we may/might...	5	11.11
Expressing plans/intentions	I'll/We're going to...	3	6.66
Describing features/functions	It's located/supplied with... Their function is to...	3	6.66
Interpersonal		10	22.00
Asking for/expressing opinions	Do you think we should...? I totally agree.	4	8.88
Reassuring	There's nothing to fear.	2	4.44
Greeting	Good morning, I'm Dr...	1	2.22
Giving/receiving compliments	You look nice... Thanks for the compliment.	1	2.22
Making/responding to suggestions	Maybe we could/should... Sure, that'd be great.	1	2.22
Expressing preference	I'd prefer/rather (not)...	1	2.22
Aesthetic		0	0.00
Total		45	100

The final evaluation in terms of the learning outcomes revealed that the material outcomes from using CPD consisted of uniformly-generated student texts. The pedagogical outcomes also remained unvarying, for the lesson objectives were specified in the teacher's guide as functional language and core vocabulary to be assimilated within each unit. The students were stripped of opportunities to reflect on the quality of the learning content and experiences, and neither were they instructed how to track their progress and extend learning beyond the classroom. There was little attention to building life skills for peer/self-assessment, except when partners compared answers to vocabulary and writing activities before whole-class feedback. Instead of teaching how to think critically, work collaboratively and solve real-world problems, it aimed to equip users with dental core content and functional language toolkit. Incidental encounters with vulnerable groups in texts did not guarantee to raise social/intercultural awareness.

Consequently, CPD was far from achieving even broader educational goals such as positive personality development in the psycho-social sphere.

3.2. Results from textbook users' retrospective evaluation

The content analysis of post-use reflections demonstrated that the student-users referred more to the many benefits of their ESP textbook (52%). They also proved quite voluble in criticising CPD in almost every respect except the vocabulary component. According to Table 8, visuals became the most popular textbook feature, for they linked increased comprehension and retention to the added interest from “high-quality photo prints” (S75) (f=66). For the same reason, they became the target of those demanding more contextualisation in vocabulary learning (f=24) (S46: “When more pictures support explanations, they become more interesting and stay in our minds”).

Table 8 Results from textbook users' retrospective evaluation

User Responses	f	%
Benefits	313	52
Appealing visuals facilitated comprehension and retention.	66	10.87
It promoted content-learning.	53	8.73
It developed discipline-specific lexical repertoire.	50	8.23
Activities provided ample reinforcement for appropriate language use.	40	6.58
Dialogues instantiated future communicative roles in work settings.	38	6.26
Simplified texts ensured content delivery and student engagement.	31	5.10
Listenings and taped readings provided accurate pronunciation models.	12	1.97
App provided a facility for self-study.	8	1.31
It was at the right level for the learners.	8	1.31
It was organised into compact readable units.	4	0.65
It was easy to carry.	3	0.49
Limitations	294	48.00
It favoured breadth over depth in content knowledge.	54	8.89
It lacked basic resources for extra practice and self-assessment.	47	7.74
Activities needed to vary in sequence and difficulty for greater learning.	36	5.93
Activities needed to enable improvisational language use in small groups.	31	5.10
It can be made more affordable.	31	5.10
It needed to be supplemented with academic and humorous texts.	24	3.95
More pictures were needed for cueing word meanings.	24	3.95
It lacked appropriate digital resources for interactive learning.	12	1.97
It lacked grammar reference.	9	1.48
It fell short of their proficiency expectations.	8	1.31
Cluttered pages interfered with their learning.	6	0.98
Glossy paper proved tough to write on.	6	0.98
It used target-language culture elements exclusively.	6	0.98
Total	607	100.00

*Respondents gave multiple answers.

The second most-cited benefit concerned integration of language and dental content (f=53). Topic familiarity assisted them in “fixing knowledge” (S39) and building readiness (S4: “It told many topics in small bits... supplied us with initial knowledge

about our field”). An almost equal number also advocated that the material needed to strike a balance between coverage and depth (f=54). The topics, though “well-chosen”, were “too many” and treated so “superficially” (S8) that when conflicts emerged between “what teachers taught in other courses” and the information being presented, they searched the web for details (S35). Even if more comprehensive information meant increased vocabulary load, they preferred it to “less professional” content (S49). They recognised the importance of content-specific words to exchange content knowledge (S6: “They will help us collect useful information from foreign sources and explain treatments to foreign patients in big cities”). As a result, CPD was generally found good at expanding dental lexicon (f=50).

As to CPD’s learning activities, they seemed divided over efficiency. 40 out of 87 users reported having enough opportunities for consolidating newly-learned language across the four skills, while another 36 required major procedural change in the sequencing and difficulty. For proponents like S14, “many different activities, tests, fill-in-the-gaps, matching, completing dialogues let [them] practise in many ways, reading, listening, speaking...”, which in return “increased [their] language capacity”. However, opponents like S32 (“We were doing the same activities one after another... Maybe effective, but I got bored and tired”) were upset about the doggedly predictable lesson sequence. S36 remarked: “The activities were good for memorising, but I want to use my mind. When I am challenged, I don’t forget easily”. They wished to engage in more open tasks and requested extension with cognitively demanding alternatives (S18: “...classical [essay-type] questions”), where they “[themselves] make inferences from the text” (S31), or “write freely about [their] ideas, not just what [they] listened” (S24).

From the learner’s perspective, another advantage was that the aural texts exemplified conversational moves and functional language use in professional communication (f=38). These dialogues (S28: “a fiction of real life”) gave glimpses of “everyday conversations, question-answer patterns, conversation flow” (S11) and “how [they] should react to patient complaints” (S16). When it came to their use for speaking practice, 31 expressed discontent over lack of small-group activities for extemporising. They were aware that cued dialogues essentially served vocabulary learning, and unless they learned to use the language actively through more communicative activities, namely songs (S19: “[to] teach our child patients”), games, puzzles, group discussions, interviews (S35: “...with our teachers and get interesting answers from real mouths”) and case discussions, they could not solve their notorious problem of “understand[ing] the language but not speak[ing] it” (S48).

CPD’s text collection was liked for comprehensibility (f=31) and disliked for variety (f=24). The former group argued text simplification aided their understanding of an otherwise overwhelming material and maintained student interest. For the latter group, CPD needed enriching with academic and humorous texts: articles (S20: “[for] those considering academic career”), case reports (S42: “I want to be an orthodontist. I must see how successful orthodontists treat different cases”), conference presentations, success stories (S1: “Dentists narrate memories and give advice to dentistry students”), cartoons (S55: “Our teachers tell us about their funny patient dialogues. Caricatures about dentist phobia can make it more enjoyable”) and practical tips (S44: “...did you know? corners give interesting facts about dentistry market”). If it is to escape inconsistency, CPD should also attach equal importance to phonological and grammatical accuracy. The textbook that used taped readings and repetition drills to teach the accurate pronunciation of words (f=12) neglected grammar for nine respondents, while “small reminders of grammar” could have supported comprehension and production (S29).

With respect to supplementary resources, they were more negatively oriented. Only eight referred to the app, *digibooks*, as a useful tool for self-study, whereas more than seven times as many students reported lack of access to traditional paper-based (f=47) and interactive resources (f=12). Practice tests (f=26), mini dictionary (S40: "...of common words in the book") (f=18) and bilingual wordlists (S34: "...Turkish equivalents for instant learning of meanings") (f=11) were eagerly sought-after to self-monitor progress, increase test performance (S5: "Our educational system is based on tests, so we need more tests, quizzes after every unit") and build a better lexicon (S64: "Glossary gives just meanings. We want synonyms, example sentences"). As *digibooks* could not go beyond a digitised book (S60: "Pdf texts, key, CDs in app form don't make it interactive"), they desired multimedia-enhanced materials (videotaped dialogues, documentaries, interactive games, online quizzes), alongside online learning platforms (S36: "...we can watch videos, compete and chat with our friends and teacher") for interactive and individualised practice.

According to Table 8, those that considered the language content suitable for their level were equal in number to the ones yearning for a higher-level material (f=8). Unlike S51, who found it "neither too challenging nor insufficient", S2 noted, what is "sufficient for school life" can be "weak for professional life, if you want to work abroad". Despite teaching "challenging words" (S25), CPD was "simple on the sentence level" and rendered itself unhelpful for "publish[ing] English articles" (S58). Few participants mentioned the clear and concise manner in which each two-page unit presented the content (f=4) (S37: "It tells the topic briefly...has an easy design to study...never turns you off"). Three participants expressed their liking for its portability. However, even more students disapproved of cluttered pages (S27: "...too bright, crowded, weary pages. I'd leave empty spaces for taking notes") (f=6), and thin glossy paper (S7: "...good for a magazine but not suitable for an activity book. I couldn't write with a pencil or erase my pen writing") (f=6). Their objection to glossy paper was reiterated when more than one-third complained about the cost (S57: "If they used normal paper, they could sell it at a cheaper price") (f=31).

Finally, a small minority observed CPD's exclusive use of target-language culture elements (f=6) (S21: "It generally talked about dentistry abroad. It'd be better for our learning if they told us about dental applications in our country too"). They were seeking more relevance (S4: "They limited dentistry to private sector, but working in state hospitals is commoner in Turkey"), but those more open to learning about other cultures expected cross-cultural comparisons between the home and target country (S10: "Which courses does a dentistry student take in the USA? ...Does he, like me, carve teeth from soaps in his first year?") and across international contexts (S23: "The book didn't compare dentistry education in different countries, how long it takes, how they train in practical classes. Interviews with foreign students can make it more attractive).

4. DISCUSSION

4.1. Importance of providing comprehensible content-related multimodal inputs that model multiple genres, symmetrical dialogue, gender- and culturally-responsive communication

When the results from the IPO analysis of the coursebook material were evaluated in conjunction with the student-users' retrospective review of its performance in their primary focus areas, the way the right balance could be established between text

comprehensibility and authenticity, as well as between content breadth and depth, turned out to be a bigger bone of contention for the given Turkish ESP context. It was understood that if torn between the two determinants of textual quality, the majority seemed to value their understanding above the real-worldness of the coursebook texts, and accordingly appreciated CPD's choice of contrived, colourfully-illustrated, mainly instructive-informative type of content-specific texts for contextualising language. Being new-made sophomores and less proficient users of English, they were apparently enabled, through the use of pedagogical texts, to encounter new information in less challenging, inherently interesting environments and exploit their existing content-knowledge to counterbalance lack of language knowledge (Graves, 2000; Nunan, 2004).

A collection of such short, simplified texts, with familiar disciplinary content and visual supports, was also reported to provide a stepping stone to authentic technical texts (those not specially designed to contain previously-learnt language and equally problematic for teachers and learners), and when argumentative genres (text-types except descriptions, instructions and narratives), embodying abstract relationships, were omitted as well, they could further reduce processing difficulties (Coxhead et al., 2020; Hyland, 2006; Nunan, 2013; Tomlinson, 2001). Hutchinson and Waters (2010) also adapted their ME materials on the grounds that the teachers lacked the realia and lower-intermediate students much of the general technical language to interpret the specific language in their mostly descriptive texts. As a result, CPD clearly abandoned the "long-standing practice" of materials development from texts written "by specialists for specialists" to save the learner/teacher frustrations with the linguistic/specialist knowledge beyond their ken (Basturkmen, 2010; Jordan, 1997, p. 113; Mountford, 1988, p. 79).

Although a wide-angled approach to content selection was supported in undergraduate (i.e. freshman and sophomore) courses, and use of content-area materials from lower grade (e.g. elementary/secondary school) textbooks was even sanctioned, an almost equal number of the participants, who overlooked the resulting increase in grammatical complexity, lexical density and sentence length, incongruously demanded more elaborated and varied texts (Belcher, 2009; Bhatia et al., 2011; Bocanegra-Valle, 2010). This might be either because they had mistaken ESP teaching for content-teaching in English, or their ESP material, being aimed at lower English levels, had become too dependent on "conceptually oversimplified" texts (Dudley-Evans, 1998; Glendinning, 1997, p. 133). As also evidenced by their reflective writing, a more meaningful textbook experience could yet be engendered learnerwise, if the generic diversity included academic and humorous texts on a cline of authenticity from real-world to created (Brown & Menasche, 2005). It may still remain unknown how to make the perfect blend of genuinely authentic and non-authentic materials, but as early as the 1980s, a similar set of written resources to theirs, ranging from journal articles and research reports to slide presentations and comic books, was previously proposed for inclusion to prepare medical learners for potential difficulties in understanding/responding to professional matters and entertaining/being entertained (Allwright & Allwright, 1977; Morris & Stewart-Dore, 1984; Nunan, 2004). Clapham (2001) similarly highlighted the difficulty of selecting appropriate readings because of the wide variability of texts in specificity and of students in background knowledge and advocated use of academic texts including different rhetorical functions.

Another lesson from the joint evaluations of the coursebook composition and student-users' post-use reflections was that but for the corpus evidence on the exercise of power in dentist-patient dialogues and women's participation in the textbook-induced professional

image-building, valuable insights into CPD's (non-)linguistic inputs might have otherwise gone unnoticed by the participants, very few of whom were merely cognizant of the imbalance in the cultural content. More precisely, greater dependence on dentist-patient conversations could have been considered a desirable feature of this ESP material on the basis of the students' positive reception alone; nevertheless, the CA findings revealed that even if their simulated scenarios felt authentic to the audience, the majority of these conversations were actually transmitting unrealistic and gendered portrayals of dentist-patient relationships through primarily patient-initiated information-seeking and less coercive, male-dominated dentist roles.

While no normative constraints existed against clients' undertaking of such moves in service settings, doctors in previous studies of institutional talk exercised authority over patients by initiating conversations, adjusting openings to consultation purposes, asking more questions, asking more for factual information and restricting choice of answers (Frankel, 1984; Ferguson, 2013; Gafaranga & Britten, 2007; Hutchby & Wooffitt, 2008). One main reason for the unexpected power asymmetry in favour of patients could be that by enabling them to initiate questions, seek information and control responses more, CPD attempted to level the discursive status of interlocutors in dentist-patient interactions and accustom novices to the idea of patients taking a more proactive role in their oral health. In the same way, Maher (1986, p. 121) drew attention to scarcity of dyadic and triadic consultations in many of CPD's predecessors and raised questions about the ESP teacher's responsibility for reinforcing inequalities or introducing such "progressive modes" of conversational behaviour.

The representation of male and female dentists also failed to reflect the reality of their occupational community. Despite increased visibility of women in dental education and leadership (constituting 49% of dental graduates, 18% of dental school deans and 28% of dental society presidents in the USA), dentistry was here conceived as a male-dominated profession (Solana, 2019). Besides assigning more powerful/professional positions to men and foregrounding their authoritative voices and on-task images in workplace situations, negative stereotyping of women, through associations with domesticity and fragility, was another common practice in downplaying female contributions to the textbook-envisioned society. Through male overpopulation, speech initiation, expert-positioning and clichéd images, gender imbalances prevailed over editions and across content-areas, and ELT materials, whether originating in developing/developed countries, imposed "a skewed view of the world" (Adel & Enayat, 2016; Barton & Sakwa, 2012; Gray, 2016, p. 103; Goyal & Rose, 2020; Lee, 2014). As female invisibility in textbooks might deter girls from entering valued professions, or adversely affect medical students' future practice, CPD's dialogues and illustrations needed adapting in such a way as to convey more egalitarian and realistic role models for Turkish DS (Brugeilles & Cromer, 2009; Parker et al., 2017).

Given that the demand for more text-accompanying pictures could be taken as a compliment, visuality was another merit of the material they almost unanimously acknowledged. In addition to verifying the learners' accounts of the functionality of its pictorial input, the visual analysis proved yet again that their use was conventionally restricted to conveying meaning. As in Hill's (2013) analysis of three other global EFL coursebooks (*Inside Out*, *face2face*, *Outcomes*), CPD made greater use of colourful photos than drawings due to their readier availability from picture agencies, especially with digital publishing, whereas, unlike them, it mostly made functional rather than decorative use of illustrations. This finding stood in direct contrast to Romney and Bell's

(2012) study of 15 BE textbooks, too. Furthermore, the learners could have benefited more from the higher ratio of functional to decorative images, if the coursebook images served not mainly to teach vocabulary through direct association but also to stimulate creative language use (Hill, 2013). The majority of visual elements in ELT textbooks similarly fulfilled an explicative function, simply “that of a flashcard”, but their pedagogical utility should be improved through higher-level text processing (Basal et al., 2016; Carney & Levin, 2002; Duchastel & Waller, 1979; Romney, 2012; Seburn, 2017, p. 85). All in all, the current material can be considered to have achieved greater authenticity in its non-verbal rather than verbal texts. While even the presumably less naive teacher might be lured into buying by strategic positioning of such attractive illustrations, a few of these Turkish DS still preferred decluttered and cost-effective materials to existing glossy presentation (Bell & Gower, 2011; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018).

Despite making up only a small fraction of user feedback, cultural appropriacy emerged as a major issue in the textual analysis. The heavy concentration of target-language culture elements meant that due to a mistaken premise about textbook sales, their global ESP material, though intending quite the reverse, preferred to safely represent a more similar yet smaller circle of L2 users functioning exclusively in native contexts. As in McCullagh’s (2010) evaluation of another global EMP series, CPD targeted overseas-qualified dentists willing to work in English-speaking countries, and therefore, neither the learners’ culture nor those of diverse patient groups in the home country got taught in the ESP classroom. Since Turkey has been catering to medical tourists from most of Europe, the Middle East and North America, and some four million refugees from at least five different countries, CPD was found negligent in not providing exposure to cross-cultural communication (M2PressWIRE, 2013; Sengul & Cora, 2020; UNHCR, 2019). Two decades after Tomlinson’s (2001, p. 70) urge to present “English as a world language” to advance education/careers, and/or communicate with fellow non-natives, most ELT materials dominantly focused on the teaching of the target culture (Baleghizadeh & Shayesteh, 2020; Forman, 2014; Huang, 2019; Pashmforoosh & Babaii, 2015; Rai & Deng, 2016). As in CPD’s case, they reduced diversity by non-verbally excluding certain groups and verbally constraining lower-level students’ professional encounters to native/native conversations (Canale, 2016; Hu & McKay 2014; Huang, 2019; Pashmforoosh & Babaii, 2015; Syrbe & Rose, 2018). Possibly due to copying the basic design from best-selling ELT products, CPD was also marred by the homogenisation of culture and recommended to spice up content with elements of local and international cultures, so that as mentioned by the discerning few, culturally-relevant materials could make their learning more engaging (Forman, 2014; Rai & Deng, 2016; Shin et al., 2011; Toledo-Sandoval, 2020).

4.2. Importance of harmonising diverse learning foci, modes and procedures for mastering the really useful lexicogrammar at work and achieving beyond functional language practice

Upon comparison of the results from the textbook and user analyses, it became further evident that Turkish DS as experienced learners could grasp what was really done with the inputs, or more precisely, CPD’s real purpose of engaging them more in whole-class comprehension-based procedures and text-manipulative production activities, and though appearing to prioritise meaningful practice over freer use to survive university, they were almost equally aware of the need for varying the activity order, difficulty and interaction

patterns to develop fluency and thrive in the future workplace. Despite currently being met with mixed student reactions, the imbalance in favour of accuracy work was also not native to the given ESP material because it was recently documented that communicative activities indeed occupied less instructional time in L2 materials (Andon & Wingate, 2013; Chan, 2013; Coslovich, 2021; Gomez-Rodriguez, 2010; Huang, 2019; Lim, 2019). As a result, the ideal composition for developing fluency may not have been achieved here either; however, CPD's systematic combination of predominantly pre-communicative and loosely-controlled communicative activities was still found appropriate in that compared to open tasks, the relatively closed tasks stimulated more modified interaction and assisted lower-intermediate to intermediate learners to "get production going" (Murphy, 1993, p. 142; Nation, 1997; Nunan, 2013).

Emphasis on dentist-patient interaction and disciplinary vocabulary instruction also followed recent trends in upper-level EMP textbooks and received praise from the users, but CPD differed from other global ESP series by banishing grammar and focusing on receptive skills rather than listening and speaking (Celik, 2018; Ferguson, 2013; Fraidan, 2012; McCullagh, 2010; Vera-Cazorla, 2015). As recommended for lower-levels in existing literature, CPD made appropriate use of reading and listening texts to input to activities and model performance, and yet omission of language focus from its three-phase lesson format deprived them of the language awareness necessary to perform communicative tasks and overcome problems in content-learning (Chan, 2009; Evans & Green, 2007; Hutchinson & Waters, 2010; St. John, 1996). The reason for this may be that the target audience, at various proficiency and experience levels, was assumed to have previously studied English as the lingua franca in medical education (Ferguson, 2013; St. John, 1996).

Complementary evidence from the procedural taxonomy and opposing user responses to the unit structure suggested that since it takes time, effort and money to write varied and creative activities for presenting and practising language engagingly, CPD chose to employ the same type and number of activities in look-alike units, and thus self-inflicted the same inflexibility, for which many ESP materials have frequently been stigmatised as "assembly-line" productions (Ferguson, 2013; Gomez-Rodriguez, 2010; Hutchinson & Waters, 2010, p. 107; Mountford, 1988; Pilbeam, 1987). For this reason, like others in the past, wanting a change from their fixed, reading- and word-focused ESP course, the present participants too required more involvement in small-group fun oral-fluency activities rather than "reproductive language work" (Celik, 2018; Nunan, 2004, p. 32; Ou, 2019; Razmjoo & Raissi, 2010; Wang, 2010). In addition to more room for creativity in their communicative outputs, Turkish DS, being no different from other lower-level EFL learners, using global English materials, demanded bilingual support, grammar reference and extra language practice for three main reasons: i. L1 equivalents facilitated vocabulary-building and enabled cross-lingual/cultural comparisons, ii. grammatical explanations were missing due to the material's functional methodology, and iii. academic performance had primacy over language development due to their exam-oriented learning culture (Celik, 2018; Esteban, 2002; Huang, 2019; McCullagh, 2010; Medrea & Rus, 2012; Yakhontova, 2001). Though to a lesser extent than accuracy-based supplementaries, interactive learning resources, especially videotaped role-plays/consultations, were also desired by Turkish DS, whereas both published and in-house materials had already benefited from video recordings, in order for their upper-level users, to observe real-life doctors' language use and monitor personal

performance in different scenarios (Basturkmen, 2010; Ferguson, 2013; Maher, 1986; McCullagh, 2010; Shi et al., 2001).

Ultimately, the demystification of the recycled lexicogrammatical items led to a better understanding of the pedagogical intents the learning activities were primarily controlled by. It can be understood from the substantial lexical overlap with the three reference wordlists that contrary to “the pick-it-up-as-you-go-along” view commonly held in the teaching of medical vocabulary, CPD promoted careful selection and direct instruction of high-frequency dental words in a similar vein with the locally-produced materials, for which it was highly acclaimed by Turkish DS (Carlson, 1999; Crosthwaite & Cheung, 2019; Ferguson, 2013; Maher, 1986, p. 132; Wang et al., 2008). Despite negligible user disagreement over the level, its grammatical spectrum appropriately included grammatical features indicative of A2-B1 levels, and if instead of chunking, CPD raised awareness of passives/conditionals/relative clauses, it could have captured distinguishing characteristics of dentistry research writing (Cambridge University Press, 2011; Crosthwaite & Cheung, 2019). The classification of role-playing activities by the focal language function also revealed that despite advice to the contrary, CPD got them to use lexicogrammatical resources predominantly for fulfilling transactional rather than interpersonal tasks, and unlike some of its peers, incorporating use of humor and emotional responses to texts, CPD featured no aesthetic tasks due to attention to occupational needs (Casta & Hufana, 2016; McCullagh, 2010; Murphy, 1993; Pashmforoosh & Babaii, 2015). In her analysis of eight BE textbooks, Chan (2009) likewise determined that while institutional talk entailed both transactional and phatic interaction, the ESP materials presented language only for the former and lacked support for development of interpersonal strategies integral to meetings.

Hence, CPD’s activities were more intent on imparting fundamental L2 knowledge and skills for dentist-patient communication in an easy-to-learn manner and could go little beyond mere language practice (Nunan, 2013). However, attainment of this traditional outcome set may not suffice to succeed in the brave new workplace. 21st-century professionals are expected to master certain key learning (e.g. critical thinking, problem-solving, teamwork), digital literacy and life skills (e.g. self-direction, cross-cultural understanding, responsibility) alongside core subjects (Trilling & Fadel, 2009). As Moross et al. (2017) pointed out, development of higher-order thinking skills, team-building and communicative competencies has become a must for dentist candidates to provide patient-centered community care and evidence-based treatment, wherever they aspire to work. This ESP material can thus be made to serve “wider educational objectives”, namely, to foster learner autonomy, cultural awareness and character development, if supplemented with: gaming, tracking, sharing and chat app features, role-playing rating scales, exit surveys/checklists/can-do statements and service-learning projects, where global/local partners collaborate face-to-face/online and seek solutions to real-world problems (e.g. reducing communication barriers to dental care for refugee children/non-Turkish-speaking patients) (Nunan, 2004, p. 134; Trilling & Fadel, 2009).

5. CONCLUSION

For the purposes of ensuring consistency between knowledge sources and improving teachers’ decision-making during materials selection and/or design, subjective information from the student-users’ actual coursebook experiences and objective information from the

corpus-based analysis of its verbal and visual contents were concurrently evaluated in the current study. On the basis of the evidence from the corpus-based IPO analysis and student-users' retrospective evaluation, Turkish DS, with a mildly positive orientation towards their global ESP textbook, can be claimed to be more concerned respectively with: the scope of content-knowledge, visuality and text quality presented by the inputs; amount and nature of language practice, opportunities for oral fluency development and independent learning, and also acquisition of discipline-specific vocabulary triggered by the processes, apart from such miscellaneous features as reasonable cost, whereas CPD can be concluded to be efficient for: making core disciplinary content accessible by pedagogically-prepared non-argumentative texts, introducing an egalitarian style of communication through created dentist-patient dialogues, ensuring ample practice in a non-threatening atmosphere with the right blend of pre-communicative and loosely-controlled communicative activities, developing formulaic sequences essentially for workplace transactions, building a carefully-selected repertoire of high-frequency dental words, teaching vocabulary directly with true-to-life photos and providing standalone units of adequate material for two-hour classes.

It is a given, especially in the ESP context, that what matters more than the texts or tasks selected by the materials producer is both kinds of consumers' interpretation of them, for unless found relevant to their profile, not even the best coursebook is likely to stimulate the pedagogically-intended response from the learners, or give the teacher the necessary drive to create meaningful learning experiences (Tomlinson, 2017; Trabelsi, 2016). For a more learning-friendly version, this material can thus be transformed in the following ways: i. textual variety can be increased with learner-compiled (e-)portfolios of academic and humorous genres, ii. women dentists' visibility can be enhanced with expert-positioning, iii. pictorial material can be manipulated into eliciting creative rather than merely explicative language use, iv. cultural relevance can be improved through integration of cross-cultural elements, v. time spent on receptive and productive skills can be equalled, vi. grammar can be paid the same conscious attention given to vocabulary and diversified to also serve ludic purposes for smooth communication, vii. cyclical progression from mostly whole-class discrete-point comprehension to text-manipulative production activities can be enlivened with creative and collaborative ones, viii. available supplement can be augmented with accuracy-based and interactive resources for reviewing grammar, bilingual wordlists and communicative performance, ix. service-learning projects on linguistic/cultural mediation with immigrant/international patients can be incorporated to achieve such deeper learning outcomes as 21st-century skills, and x. cost-effective alternatives (e-books) can be offered to the glossy print coursebook.

While responsiveness to learner needs was once deemed as its greatest asset and transferability of solutions as the greatest drawback of ESP teaching, CPD's example here illustrates how different users can converge on variety as making/breaking any ESP textbook and whether similar materials can be made more teacher/learner-authentic, using the simple strategy of blending design options (in content, language, skills, procedures) for self-customisation (Hamp-Lyons, 2001). As understood in the Turkish ESP context, the much-needed flexibility to deal with context-specific constraints and possibly wider market appeal comes not from homogenising materials, but from combining different teaching/learning schemes. The choice of a one-size-fits-all or all-in-one approach to materials writing is also a matter of preference, but our findings confirmed previous observations that even if it involves doing the opposite, ESP coursebook writers should

provide consumers with a continuum of choices at any organisational level, from syllabus design to text and task methodology, so that the resulting blend can be eclectic enough to satisfy large and diverse user groups (Barnard & Zemach, 2007; Glendinning, 1997; Graves, 2000; Maley, 2013; Swales, 1980). In our gradually glocalised classrooms, where it has become ever harder to choose the right coursebook among the “near-clones”, the ability to bend it to consumer needs is also what distinguishes the really good-provider teacher from a mediocre one (Maley, 2011, p. 392). For this reason, although this study primarily focused on revealing the internal character of one global ESP material up to threshold-level and retrospectively evaluating its performance against corpus-informed data and less-studied student-users’ prioritised criteria, future research might consider: i. exploring the evolution of consumer behaviour over time (pre/in/post-use) and across coursebook (local/global/glocal/wide-angled/narrow-angled) species, ii. simultaneously addressing learner/teacher/sponsor/publisher/author-perceptions, and lastly but most importantly, iii. evaluating effectiveness of both ESP materials and (subject-specialist/non-specialist) teacher(s)’ actual use (adaptive practices) not just in terms of self-reports, but in terms of student achievement and classroom discourse.

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