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AN INVESTIGATION OF ALBANIAN EFL TEACHERS' DECISION-MAKING IN THEIR USE OF CLT-ORIENTED TEXTBOOKS

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Aston University

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Thesis Summary

Against a backdrop of ongoing educational reforms that seek to introduce Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in Albanian primary and secondary state schools, Albanian teachers, among others, are officially required to use communication-based textbooks in their classes. Authorities in a growing number of countries that are seeking to improve and westernise their educational systems are also using communication-based textbooks as agents of change. Behind these actions, there is the commonly held belief that textbooks can be used to support teacher learning as they provide a visible framework teachers can follow.

Communication-based textbooks are used in thousands of EFL classrooms around the world to help teachers to “fully understand and routinize change” (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994:323). However, empirical research on the role materials play in the classroom, and in particular the role of textbook as an agent of change, is still very little, and what does exist is rather inconclusive.

This study aims to fulfill this gap. It is predominately a qualitative investigation into how and why four Albanian EFL teachers use Western teaching resources in their classes. Aiming at investigating the decision-making processes that teachers go through in their teaching, and specifically at investigating the relationship between Western-published textbooks, teachers’ decision making, and teachers’ classroom delivery, the current study contributes to an extensive discussion on the development of communicative L2 teaching concepts and methods, teacher decision making, as well as a growing discussion on how best to make institutional reforms effective, particularly in East-European ex-communist countries and in other developing countries.

Findings from this research indicate that, prompted by the content of Western-published textbooks, the four research participants, who had received little formal training in CLT teaching, accommodated some communicative teaching behaviours into their teaching. The use of communicative textbooks, however, does not seem to account for radical, methodological changes in teachers’ practices. Teacher cognitions based on teachers’ previous learning experience are likely to act as a lens through which teachers judge classroom realities. As such, they shape, to a great degree, the decisions teachers make regarding the use of Western-published textbooks in their classes.

Key words: CLT, textbooks, teacher decision making, teacher thinking, institutional reforms.

Dedication

To Lord, thank you!

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List of contents

<i>CHAPTER ONE – INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY</i>	Page 14
1.1 Introduction	Page 14
1.2 Rationale	Page 14
1.3 Teacher decision making and the place of the present study	Page 15
1.4 Main research questions	Page 16
1.5 Organisation of the present research	Page 16
 <i>CHAPTER TWO – LITERATURE REVIEW</i>	 Page 18
2.1 Introduction	Page 18
Part 1 – Individual and teacher decision-making processes	Page 19
2.2 Individual decision making	Page 19
2.2.1 A rational multi-step model	Page 20
2.2.2 Other individual decision-making models and theories	Page 21
2.2.3 Application of decision-making theories to the present study	Page 26
2.3 Teacher decision making	Page 27
2.3.1 The mental dimensions of teacher decision making	Page 28
2.3.1.1 Nature of beliefs and knowledge and definition of terms	Page 28
2.3.1.2 Main factors affecting teachers' belief and knowledge systems	Page 32
2.4 Part 1 summary	Page 35
Part 2 – Contextualising and relating the present research to other similar studies	Page 37
2.5 The use of teaching materials in EFL classes	Page 37
2.6 CLT-based policy initiative implementation in other similar EFL contexts	Page 42
2.7 Part 2 summary	Page 46
Part 3 – Communicativeness in English language teaching and published textbooks	Page 48
2.8 Communicativeness in ELT	Page 48
2.8.1 Communicative Language Teaching theoretical basis	Page 48
2.8.2 Communicative Language Teaching drawbacks	Page 51
2.9 Communicativeness in published textbooks	Page 53
2.10 Part 3 summary	Page 56

<i>CHAPTER THREE - ENVIRONMENTAL CONSTRAINS AND OPPORTUNITIES</i>	Page 57
3.1 Introduction	Page 57
3.2 Part of the communist camp	Page 57
3.3 Specifics of L2 teaching and learning in Albania	Page 59
3.3.1 L2 learning and teaching in the country	Page 59
3.3.2 L2 speaking in the country	Page 60
3.3.3 L2 teacher education and development in the country	Page 61
3.3.4 L2 Learning policy in the country	Page 62
3.3.5 EFL textbooks used in the country	Page 64
3.3.6 Analysis of the course-book "Access 3"	Page 65
3.4 Other factors affecting EFL in Albania	Page 69
3.5 Conclusion	Page 70
 <i>CHAPTER FOUR - RESEARCH DESIGN METHODOLOGY</i>	 Page 72
4.1 Introduction	Page 72
4.2 Definition of terms	Page 72
4.2.1 Three main research traditions	Page 73
4.2.2 Theoretical orientation of the present study	Page 75
4.2.3 Research design employed in the present study	Page 76
4.2.4 Role of the researcher in the present study	Page 77
4.3 Data collection methods used in the present study	Page 78
4.3.1 Quantitative research tools	Page 78
4.3.1.1 The observation grid	Page 79
4.3.2 Qualitative research tools	Page 83
4.3.2.1 Observation sessions	Page 83
4.3.2.2 Questionnaires and interviews in qualitative research	Page 84
4.3.2.3 Questionnaires and interviews in the present study	Page 86
4.3.2.4 Language used in the present bilingual research project	Page 89
4.3.2.5 Summary of qualitative research methods used in the present study	Page 91
4.4 Understanding the notions of value and integrity	Page 95
4.5 Trustworthiness of the present study	Page 99
4.5.1 Selection of participants	Page 99
4.5.2 Research ethics	Page 100
4.5.3 Engagement in the field	Page 101
4.5.4 Researcher-participant relationship building strategies	Page 101
4.5.5 Triangulation	Page 104
4.5.6 Changes in research design and methodology	Page 104

4.5.7	Research field work phases	Page 106
4.5.8	Reviewing and assessing the findings of the study	Page 110
4.5.9	Transferability of the present study	Page 111
4.5.10	Summary	Page 111
4.6	Understanding the process of analysing and interpreting qualitative data	Page 111
4.6.1	Content analysis	Page 111
4.6.2	Preparation and organisation of the data	Page 112
4.6.3	Writing initial thoughts	Page 113
4.6.4	The designation of the unit of analysis	Page 113
4.6.5	Coding perspective	Page 114
4.6.6	Generating categories	Page 116
4.6.7	Second cycle coding	Page 116
4.6.8	Drawing conclusions	Page 117
4.6.9	Reporting the findings	Page 117
4.6.10	Summary	Page 118
4.7	Data analysing and interpreting approach adopted in the present study	Page 119
4.7.1	Quantitative analysis	Page 119
4.7.2	Qualitative analysis	Page 120
4.8	Summary	Page 127
 <i>CHAPTER FIVE – FINDINGS OF THE STUDY</i>		Page 128
5.1	Introduction	Page 128
5.2	Case study 1: Miss Elona	Page 129
5.2.1	Miss Elona's profile	Page 129
5.2.2	How communicatively Miss Elona used the textbook	Page 131
5.2.3	Factors affecting Miss Elona's instructional decisions on how to use the textbook	Page 137
5.2.3.1	Lack of awareness of communicative teaching approaches	Page 137
5.2.3.2	Knowledge of students and the use of heuristics	Page 140
5.2.3.3	Belief and knowledge systems	Page 143
5.3	Case study 2: Miss Ada	Page 145
5.3.1	Miss Ada's profile	Page 145
5.3.2	How communicatively Miss Ada used the textbook	Page 148
5.3.3	Factors affecting Miss Ada's instructional decisions on how to use the textbook	Page 153
5.3.3.1	Conceptual understanding of successful L2 teaching	Page 153
5.3.3.2	Previous learning and teaching experiences and the role of the textbook	Page 157
5.3.3.3	Influence of colleagues, and support given by the authorities	Page 159
5.3.3.5	Knowledge of students	Page 160

5.4	Case study 3: Miss Evis	Page 162
5.4.1	Miss Evis' profile	Page 163
5.4.2	How communicatively Miss Evis used the textbook	Page 165
5.4.3	Factors affecting Miss Evis' instructional decisions on how to use the textbook	Page 170
5.4.3.1	Belief and knowledge systems and contextual factors	Page 171
5.4.3.2	Old teaching habits	Page 174
5.5	Case study 4: Miss Landa	Page 177
5.5.1	Miss Landa's profile	Page 178
5.5.2	How communicatively Miss Landa used the textbook	Page 180
5.5.3	Factors affecting Miss Landa's instructional decisions on how to use the textbook	Page 188
5.5.3.1	Lack of awareness of communicative teaching approaches	Page 188
5.5.3.2	Textbooks, and internal/external agents	Page 189
5.5.3.3	Belief and knowledge systems	Page 191
5.5.3.4	Previous learning and teaching experiences and the use of heuristics	Page 192
5.6	A cross-case analysis of the four studies	Page 193
5.6.1	Official student-based planning requirements and their influence on teachers' delivery	Page 193
5.6.2	Use of CLT-oriented textbooks in EFL classrooms	Page 195
5.6.3	Influence of heuristics on teachers' decisions	Page 196
5.6.4	Teachers' beliefs, feelings of uncertainty, and classroom delivery	Page 198
5.6.5	Influence of teachers' previous learning on their decisions on how to use CLT-based textbooks	Page 200
5.6.6	Influence on CLT awareness/lack of CLT awareness on teachers' practices	Page 201
5.6.7	Influence on local, institutional and contextual factors on teachers' decisions	Page 202
5.7	Summary	Page 204
 <i>CHAPTER SIX – DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS</i>		Page 205
6.1	Introduction	Page 205
6.2	Research limitations	Page 205
6.3	Answers to research questions	Page 207
6.3.1	How communicatively the teachers used Western-published textbooks	Page 207
6.3.2	The factors that shape the way Albanian EFL teachers use textbooks in their classes	Page 208
6.3.2.1	Contextual factors and teachers' beliefs and judgements	Page 209
6.3.2.2	Teachers' previous learning experiences	Page 211
6.3.2.3	Teachers' awareness of communicative language teaching practices	Page 211
6.3.2.4	Participation in long-term teacher development courses	Page 212
6.3.2.5	Teachers' tacit thinking	Page 214

6.4	Summary of findings	Page 216
6.5	Implications	Page 218
6.5.1	Recommendations for future research	Page 218
6.5.2	Implications for EFL teacher education and development	Page 219
6.5.3	Implications for CLT reform implementations in Albania and other similar countries	Page 221
6.6	Concluding remarks	Page 222
 <i>REFERENCES</i>		Page 226
 <i>APPENDIXES</i>		Page 253

List of appendices

Appendix 1: A graphical representation of the four communicative competence properties involved in natural speech	Page 253
Appendix 2: A schematic representation of the social constructivist model of the teaching/learning process	Page 254
Appendix 3: List of subjects students enrolled in the BA in TEFL programme (University of Tirana) have to take during their four-year study.	Page 255
Appendix 4: Table of content – “Access 3”	Page 256-257
Appendix 5: Units 3a and 3b – “Access 3”	Page 258-259
Appendix 6: Unit 1 – “Access 3”	Page 260
Appendix 7: Units 3f – “Access 3”	Page 261
Appendix 8: COLT observation scheme	Page 262-263
Appendix 9: Adapted COLT grid (Version 1)	Page 264
Appendix 10: Adapted COLT grid (Version 2)	Page 265
Appendix 11: Adapted COLT grid (Version 3 - final)	Page 266
Appendix 12: Form used to analyse observation sessions qualitatively	Page 267
Appendix 13: Five-item email questionnaire	Page 268
Appendix 14: Questionnaire on teachers' beliefs	Page 269
Appendix 15: Post observation interview/Informal interview summary form	Page 270
Appendix 16: Interview questions	Page 271
Appendix 17: The revised set of post-observation interview questions	Page 272
Appendix 18: Lesson plan/post-lesson evaluation summary form	Page 273
Appendix 19: Researcher's journal/memo/note summary form	Page 274
Appendix 20: Invitation to research letter	Page 275
Appendix 21: Research consent form	Page 276-277
Appendix 22: Consent forms used to video/tape-record the observation sessions and interviews	Page 278
Appendix 23: Application to conduct research in the school	Page 279
Appendix 24: An example of a partial transcript to show how the interviews were segmented and coded.	Page 280/282
Appendix 25: Initial codes	Page 283-284
Appendix 26: The coding manual	Page 285-293
Appendix 27: Questionnaire findings	Page 294
Appendix 28: Example of the pages Miss Elona used in one of her classes	Page 295-296
Appendix 29: Example of the pages Miss Ada used in one of her classes	Page 297-298
Appendix 30: Example of the pages Miss Evis used in one of her classes	Page 299-300
Appendix 31: Example of the pages Miss Landa used in one of her classes	Page 301-302
Appendix 32: Lesson Plan written by one of the participating teachers (Miss Landa)	Page 303/305
Appendix 33: The transcript of one of the lessons observed	Page 306/313
Appendix 34: Example of one completed observation scheme	Page 314
Appendix 35: The transcript of one of the post-observation interviews	Page 315/320
Appendix 36: A summary of individual classroom activities used to categorise the participating teachers' behaviours.	Page 321-322
Appendix 37: Lesson Plan written by one of the participating teachers (Miss Elona)	Page 323/325
Appendix 38: Example of another completed observation scheme	Page 326/328
Appendix 39: Lesson Plan written by one of the participating teachers (Miss Ada)	Page 329/330
Appendix 40: Lesson Plan written by one of the participating teachers (Miss Evis)	Page 331-332

List of figures

Figure 2.1: Six steps involved in decision making	Page 20
Figure 2.2: Main theories in organisational and individual decision making	Page 22
Figure 2.3: Four components of subject matter knowledge	Page 33
Figure 2.4: The series of alternations a curriculum passes through	Page 39
Figure 3.1: Speaking exercise illustration	Page 66
Figure 3.2: Writing exercise illustration	Page 69
Figure 4.1: Field observation notes	Page 102
Figure 4.2: Axial coding analytic memo	Page 124
Figure 4.3: Analytic memo accompanying an interview	Page 125
Figure 4.4: Dimensions and properties table derived from axial coding	Page 126
Figure 6.1: Manifestation of Miss Elona's tacit thinking	Page 214
Figure 6.2: Manifestation of Miss Ada's tacit thinking	Page 215

List of tables

Table 4.1: A summary of the research methods used in one of the four case studies	Page 91-94
Table 4.2: A final dataset of the research methods used in all the four case studies	Page 95
Table 4.3: A description of the eight stages that the present research project followed	Page 107-109
Table 4.4: Formation of categories	Page 122-123
Table 4.5: Refining categories (first round)	Page 123-124
Table 4.6: Refining categories (third round)	Page 125
Table 5.1: Miss Elona's classroom interaction patterns	Page 133
Table 5.2: Miss Elona's classroom activity patterns	Page 134
Table 5.3: Miss Ada's classroom interaction patterns	Page 151
Table 5.4: Miss Ada's classroom activity patterns	Page 151
Table 5.5: Miss Evis' classroom interaction patterns	Page 168
Table 5.6: Miss Evis' classroom activity patterns	Page 169
Table 5.7: Miss Landa's classroom interaction patterns	Page 184
Table 5.8: Miss Landa's classroom activity patterns	Page 186
Table 5.9: Factors influencing teachers' use of textbooks (Cross-case findings)	Page 203

List of acronyms and abbreviations

B.A.	Bachelor Degree
CELTA	Cambridge Certificate in English Language Teaching
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
COLT	Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ELTA	English Language Teachers Association of Albania
EQ	Email questionnaire
ESL	English as a second language
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
INASA	International Network of Albanian Student Associations
IR	Formal and informal oral and email interviews with the participants and their colleagues
JET	Japanese Exchange and Teaching Programme
L1	Students' first language
L2	Students' second/foreign Language
LE	Teachers' post-lesson self-evaluations
LP	Lesson plans
MASH	Ministry of Education of Albania
NNS	Non-native speaker
PCK	Pedagogical content knowledge
POI	Post-observation interviews
PPP	Presentation-Practice-Production
QAOS	Qualitative analysis of observation sessions
QTB	Questionnaire on teachers' beliefs
RJ	Researcher's journal
SCT	Socio-cultural Theory
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistic
SLA	Second language acquisition
SMK	Subject matter knowledge
TBL	Task-based Learning
USAID	US Agency for International Development
ZDP	Zone of Proximal Development

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an introduction of how the present study investigates English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers' use of textbooks by using a teacher-as-decision-maker framework. In section 1.2, I show why this study is of interest. In the next section, I present a rationale for the conceptualisation of teaching as a decision-making¹⁾ process, and situate the present inquiry within the field of teacher decision making. Next, in section 1.4, I frame the study's main intentions as research questions. Lastly, I finish this chapter with an overview of the structure of the rest of the thesis.

1.2 Rationale

This research aims to investigate the decision-making processes that teachers go through in their teaching, and specifically to investigate the relationship between teaching materials, teacher decision making, and teachers' classroom delivery. I use a mixed-method approach to investigate how and why four Albanian teachers of English use Western-published textbooks in a certain way in their classes. Against a backdrop of ongoing educational reforms that seek to introduce Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in Albanian primary and secondary state schools, Albanian teachers, among others, are officially required to use communication-based textbooks in their classes. The main intention behind these reforms is to help Albanian teachers to change their traditional L2 teaching approach, and the main assumption seems to be the commonly held belief that textbooks can be used to support teacher learning as they provide a visible framework teachers can follow (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994; Ball and Cohen, 1996; Rubdy, 2003; Masuhara and Tomlinson, 2008).

Educational reforms in many other countries seem to be based on the same assumption as authorities, in a growing number of countries that are seeking to improve and westernise their educational systems, are using communication-based textbooks as agents of change. Indeed,

¹⁾ In the present paper, the words "decision making" are hyphenated when used as an adjective. The same words are written as two separate words when used as a noun phrase.

communication-based textbooks are used in Japan, China, South Korea, Ghana, Ukraine, Sri Lanka, and in many other countries mentioned in section 2.6. EFL teachers in those countries are officially required to use communicative textbooks in their classes and incorporate student-centred approaches in their teaching, even though many of them do not have adequate knowledge of and expertise in CLT (Savignon, 2010).

Communication-based textbooks are used in thousands of EFL classrooms around the world to help teachers to “fully understand and routinize change” (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994:323). However, empirical research on the role materials play in the classroom, and in particular the role of the textbook as an agent of change, is still very little (Guerrettaz and Johnston, 2013; Garton and Graves, 2014), and what does exist is rather inconclusive (see for example, Carless, 2001; Humphries, 2014).

There is, therefore, a strong need for research on the impact of communication-based textbooks on the delivery of EFL teachers. The present study aims to fill this gap. It investigates the connections among teacher decision making, teaching resources and classroom practices when text-book instructions concerning operations in the classroom do not match teachers’ view about how languages are learned and taught. The study is based in Albania because the implementation of reforms in language teaching that attempt to change the traditional way non-native EFL teachers approach L2 teaching seems not to be very successful in this country as “the change of philosophical orientation is a particular problem, notably with some teachers” (Qano, 2005:6). Therefore, there is currently a need for empirical studies to provide further insights into the factors that may impede/foster the communicative development of Albanian EFL teachers. Similarly, this research can help the development of EFL teachers in other countries around the world that are seeking to improve and westernise their educational systems, and are relying on the use of communication-based textbooks as agents of change.

1.3 Teacher decision making and the place of the present study

Teaching can be understood as the process of making educational decisions (Calderhead, 1984; Shulman, 1986; Clark and Peterson, 1986; Richards, 1998; Borko et al., 2008). Teachers make countless decisions before, during, and after the actual instruction takes place. Before delivering a class, teachers usually plan what to do, how to teach and assess students’ knowledge, and for how long. While implementing the instructional plans in their classrooms, teachers use their perceptions of the instructional context to make modifications to their plans (Smith, 1996; Richards, 1998; Borg,

2006). When the lesson is over, teachers can put time into reflecting about the teaching process. There is enough empirical evidence to suggest that teachers' reflections of their past lessons can impact teachers' current thinking as well as their planning decisions of future lessons (Clark and Peterson, 1986; McNamara, 1991; Borko et al., 2008; Farrell, 2011)

From the 1970s onward, teacher decision making has been studied extensively. In a major review of research on teacher thinking, Clark and Peterson (1986) delineate three primary directions within the field: 1) teachers' decisions while planning (i.e. their pre-active decisions); 2) teachers' interactive thoughts and decisions while teaching; 3) teachers' theories and beliefs when not engaged in the teaching process. The present study builds on the first two traditions of research on teacher decision making, and investigates the processes that inform teachers' decisions on how to use communicative textbooks when they plan, and deliver their practices.

1.4 Main research questions

The specific research questions guiding the framework of this inquiry are:

- 1) How communicatively do Albanian EFL teachers use text-books?
- 2) What shapes Albanian EFL teachers' decisions on how to use communication-based textbooks in their classes?
 - What role does a teacher's book play in the use of text-books?

1.5 Organisation of the present research

This study contains six chapters. This first chapter has provided an overview of the inquiry by introducing the research rationale, field, questions, and structure. The second chapter focuses on previous studies into the processes of individual and teacher decision making, as well as into the factors that shape teacher knowledge and belief systems. In this chapter, I also review the research on EFL materials use, analyse the factors that affect teachers' use of communication-based materials that do not match their beliefs, and examine the literature related to communicativeness in English language teaching and published textbooks. Chapter 3 gives information about the context of EFL language teaching and learning in Albania, while the fourth chapter discusses the design and procedures selected for this study. More precisely, chapter 4 describes the participant selection, the data collection methods, and justifies the use of observations and interviews as main research tools. The findings of the present study are reported in chapter five. The following chapter

assesses the meaning of the findings by evaluating and interpreting them. Chapter six also contains a number of recommendations for future research, implications for EFL teacher education and development, and CLT reform implementation in Albania and other similar countries, and several concluding remarks.

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

Many definitions have been used to describe the science of teaching, ranging from the traditional use of the term “pedagogy” to mean little more than the teaching method and curriculum to incorporating in this term a number of elements related to teaching, learning, and general culture (Moon, 1998; Hamilton, 1999; Greer, 2002). The present study views teaching as a mental process of making individual decisions closely related to the collective experience of classroom and school learning in a particular context, at a given time (Kansanen, 1993; Huber, 2003; Kohler et al., 2008; Parmigiani, 2012).

In accordance with this view of teaching, to establish the theoretical background in which the present study is situated, I review in this chapter the research regarding three main domains related to the present study. Firstly, in part 1, I introduce pedagogical teacher decision making as the theoretical framework of the study, focusing on the processes of individual and teacher decision making, as well as on the factors that inform teacher belief and knowledge systems. Next, in part 2, I review the research on EFL materials use, and analyse the factors that affect teachers’ use of communication-based materials that do not match their expertise, experiences, and beliefs (the context of the present study). Lastly, in part 3, I examine the literature related to communicativeness in English language teaching and published textbooks.

Part 1 – Individual and teacher decision-making processes

In this part, I first define the individual decision making in section 2.2. In the next two sections, I describe the process from different perspectives. In section 2.2.3, I show the relevance of the theories and debates in the field of individual decision making to language teachers. In section 2.3, I review the literature on the process of teacher decision making by examining the complex nature of the two cognitive structures that frame teachers' instructional decisions: knowledge and beliefs. In this section, I also discuss the possible sources that inform teachers' belief and knowledge systems. I conclude with a brief summary of the main points reviewed in part 1 (section 2.4).

2.2 Individual decision making

Decision making is the process through which an individual “answers the question ‘What is the best way to ...?’” (Marzano and Kendall, 2008:20). This definition of decision making, along with a large number of similar definitions that can be found in the literature, implies that all decision-making processes, including the teacher decision making, are individual approaches determined by the decision maker's preferences. It follows that, in order to comprehend how teachers make individual decisions about teaching, it is crucial to understand how people naturally make their decisions about many things on a daily basis. After all, teacher decision making is one of the many individual decision-making processes that are determined by decision maker's preferences (Kansanen, 2008).

In this section, I discuss human performance in decision terms from several perspectives. Firstly, I give a normative definition of individual decision making and outline the six typical steps associated with rational decision-making models in section 2.2.1. Following that, in section 2.2.2, I debate biases in individual decision making and review some of the main individual decision-making theories. Lastly, I summarise the discussion of individual decision making in section 2.2.3.

The discussion that follows lays down a number of concepts that form the basis of the theoretical framework used in the present study. This framework will help readers gain a better understanding of how teachers make instructional decisions in their classes.

2.2.1 A rational multi-step model

From a normative perspective, individual decision making is the process of making a choice from among a set of alternatives based on given criteria or strategies (Wilson and Keil, 2001; Wang et al., 2004; Eisenfuhr, 2011). Drawing on Archer's normative guide (1980) of how to be rational in thinking and deciding, normative theories provide a methodology for assessing decision making by using a list of rationalistic components. One of the most common rational decision-making models is shown in Figure 2.1.



Figure 2.1: Six steps involved in decision making (Robbins et al., 2009:124)

The model features six phases. Firstly, people are faced with opportunities to make decisions (such as the need to solve a problem). A thorough understanding of the situation is believed to affect the quality of the decision (Jones, 2010). A clear definition of what the problem is and is not can also help at the input stage. Secondly, decision makers develop alternatives during the processing stage. There are two key factors that can influence the process of generating alternatives: 1) having a clear vision of the end goals individuals are trying to achieve through their decision (Lunenburg and Beverly, 2005); and 2) non-limiting the search for alternatives (Nutt, 1999). Once the alternatives are generated, the advantages and disadvantages of each choice are evaluated during phase 3. In the next step, a decision is made after objectively and rationally choosing the best alternative, and comparing the outcome of alternatives with each other.

Two other post-decision steps, the output and the review phase, consolidate and evaluate the decision. During the output phase, a number of issues, such as enhancing the understanding of the decision, encouraging acceptance of the decision, providing enough resources, and assigning responsibilities, are taken into consideration to make the alternative succeed. The review phase

involves evaluating the outcome of the decision to see whether the desired results have been obtained. If this is not the case, a reassessment of each step involved in the process is conducted to see what went wrong and, if necessary, new decisions are made. The review phase, therefore, often prompts the beginning of a new decision-making cycle. It is for this reason that the process of decision making is often regarded as “an ongoing process of evaluating situations or problems, considering alternatives, making choices, and following them up with the necessary actions” (Benowitz, 2001:35).

The rational decision-making model, while having the merit of providing a clear configuration for individuals and organisations to follow, does not always describe how people make decisions in real life. Decision makers, in most real life situations, neither possess complete information of the problem with which they are dealing (Simon, 1955; Kahneman and Tversky, 2000), nor have the ability to configure all the relevant alternatives in an unbiased manner (Kahneman and Tversky, 1986; Kahneman, 2011), nor have unlimited time to search for the most appropriate alternative (Simon, 1955; Kahneman and Tversky, 1979; Kahneman, 2000). In addition, the rational model fails to explain why people do not always exhibit rational behaviours (Kahneman and Tversky, 1982).

To account for these limitations, a number of other models and theories have been developed in this field. The main paradigms are discussed briefly in the following section.

2.2.2 Other individual decision-making models and theories

Daft (2001) provides an extensive review of the literature in the field of decision making. As shown in Figure 2.2, individual and organisational decision making can be conceptualised as two different processes. For the purpose of this paper, I review the individual decision-making models only since this study focuses on individual teachers’ instructional decisions in relation to the textbooks they use in their classes.



Figure 2.2: Main theories in organisational and individual decision making. Taken from Daft (2001).

Kahneman and Tversky (1979) studied the real-life behaviour patterns in individual decision making and found many inconsistencies in the process, such as the fact that “many people simultaneously gamble and buy insurance” (Kahneman and Tversky, 1979:263). To explain a variety of irrational behaviours that cannot be fully captured by models of rational decision making (i.e. models that show how decisions should be made), they offered a descriptive theory, called “the Prospect Theory”, that shows how decisions are actually made. The theory was originally developed to explain illogical financial behaviours. Nevertheless, its main features are relevant to decision making in general (Camerer, 2000; Farber, 2005; Pope and Schweitzer, 2011, Kahneman, 2011).

The theory consists of two main phases: editing and evaluating. The first phase starts with the identification of a reference point. For Kahneman and Tversky, the reference point corresponds either to the current wealth state of the decision maker or to his/her aspiration level (i.e. the expectations of the decision maker). Once the reference point is established, the decision maker frames the outcomes as losses or gains from the reference point. Framing, a central concept of the

Prospect Theory, is the process of influencing the decision-making choices by altering the situational features, i.e. the language used to represent the information and/or the order in which options are presented. Empirical studies (Wang, 1996, 2008; Kühberger, 1998) show that people are more likely to choose the alternatives that are framed positively. An example of how the order in which options are presented can affect the decision outcome is provided by Stein (2013). Stein shows how in 1991 the US Secretary of State James Baker contacted the Palestinian Chairman Arafat multiple times to persuade him to join the Madrid peace negotiation with Israel by emphasising what Arafat would gain if he participated in the meeting. The US Secretary of State failed multiple times. Arafat agreed to participate in the meeting only when he was presented with a different order of options, i.e. what he would lose if he stayed away.

The theory, thus, maintains that the way the decision maker perceives the problem is framed by how the problem itself is represented. This is because decision makers tend to accept whatever choice options are presented to them as viable without second-guessing them. Decision makers' tendency to accept the framing of options and/or the language selected to represent the problem as the most appropriate formulation of the problem is known as "acceptance" (Tversky and Khaneman, 1979). The notion of "acceptance" is relevant in the field of teacher decision making because it links the way authorities impose teacher change by providing only one alternative to teachers (i.e. the alternative to approach L2 teaching communicatively) to the teachers' readiness for change.

Other mental mechanisms that control the framing process are "the norms, habits, and expectancies of the decision maker" (Khaneman and Tversky, 1986:8257). According to the authors, each individual brings his/her own experiences and understandings to the process of decision making. Because different people feature different norms, habits, and expectancies, they are likely to view the same situation or problem through a different lens. During the decision-making process, decision makers are likely to focus on the options that are relevant to their own context, experiences, and understanding. Focusing on some particular alternatives - while dismissing other outcomes - is an example of "segregation" (i.e. the mental mechanism that drives people to consider options that seem relevant to the given problem and deprives the consideration of other options that are likely to affect the outcome but are irrelevant to the specific problem at hand). The Prospect Theory advocates that decisions are routinely framed by decision makers' tendency to edit the number of choices available to them to accommodate their own understanding, experiences, and expectations. Applied in the field of teacher decision making, the notion of "segregation" gives

an enhanced significance to the experiences, understanding, and expectations teachers bring into their classroom.

During the second phase of the model provided by Kahneman and Tversky, decision makers evaluate the edited alternatives and select the preferred prospect.

Emphasising the impossibility of processing all the information available, the Bounded Rationality theory (Simon, 1955) recognises the cognitive limitations present in decision making. The theory claims that people have finite mental abilities to comprehend and analyse all the complete information available when selecting choices. Rationality of individuals can also be influenced by the complexity of the world in which they operate. To cope with the high cognitive demands of the process, the theory assumes that decision makers develop different non-optimising procedures. Firstly, they limit the number of goals, alternatives, and consequences considered to reduce information-searching and information-processing demands. Secondly, decision makers tend to evaluate alternatives sequentially rather than simultaneously. Constrained by the limited capacity of short-term memory, they operate on a pair-comparison model, i.e. people compare two choices first and select one of them, which, in turn, is compared to another one and so on. Theoretically, this pair-comparison process can continue until decision makers find the best alternative. However, in real life, people do not have the unlimited time to wait for the most suitable choice. As a result, decision makers are more concerned with “finding a choice mechanism that will lead them to pursue a ‘satisfying path’” (Simon, 1955:115) rather than discovering an optimal path. Lastly, to save mental energy, people often approach decision making heuristically by using rule-of-thumb strategies to find a satisfying decision. These simplified strategies can be used either individually or in conjunction with other techniques. Applied in the field of teacher decision making, the Bounded Rationality theory advocates that teachers’ decisions are not always rational. Teachers, like any other human beings, are likely to use heuristics to simplify the process. A number of common heuristics used in the process of individual decision making, and used in the present enquiry to shed light on the participating teachers’ decisions, are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Holistic approaches to decision making, which represent alternative perspectives of the rational multi-step model described in section 2.2.1, are automatic, content-specific, affectively-charged processes (Dane and Pratt, 2007) that compromise the scanning of memory for similar events or situations, as well as the retrieving of memory fragments without any use of formal reasoning. These mental mechanisms rely in an inductive way of knowing (Arvidson, 1997), and can lead to

biased outcomes (Kahneman and Tversky, 2000; Stroh et al., 2008; McCaughey and Bruning, 2010). The two most common heuristics used in individual decision making are:

- **Availability.** This mental phenomenon involves basing judgments on the information that is readily available rather than examining the alternatives. Frequently occurring events are easy to recall and decision makers tend to think of situations or occurrences easily brought to mind as more important than instances of less frequent classes. This heuristic is likely to turn into a cognitive bias when “the ease of recall is influenced by factors unrelated to the actual frequency of an event’s occurrence” (Stroh et al., 2008:95). Kahneman and Tversky (2000) illustrate the concept of availability by giving the following example: if the news has recently reported on several government initiatives to crack down on tax fraud, people are more likely to falsely believe that tax evasion is on the rise due to the availability heuristic.
- **Representativeness.** This refers to decision makers’ tendency to judge the probability of an event by comparing it with previous experiences or beliefs about the event, assuming that the probabilities will be similar. Representativeness can be misleading because it decides how likely something is by evaluating the degree to which an event or object is similar to its parent population. For instance, after reading the sentence “my spouse does not work, but takes care of our two young children at home” (my own example), most people would think that the writer is a man because this situation (i.e. the man working and the woman taking care of children at home) reflects their beliefs. The representativeness heuristic can be misleading because people tend to see patterns in truly random sequences (Kahneman and Tversky, 1986), and might ignore important information or alternatives.

Feelings also seem to be related to the process of individual decision making. Schwartz (2000) sees individual decision making as “a close interplay of feeling and thinking”. He argues that feelings influence the type of information people recall from their own memory. Consequently, decision makers in a happy emotional state are more likely to select as decision choices prior experiences and thoughts that reflect their current mode, and underestimate the likelihood of negative outcomes. Those in a sad state experience the opposite effect.

Many theories that emphasise the role the unconscious plays when making individual decisions have been postulated. Among others, Kahneman (2000) provides a psychological understanding of human irrational mental processes and distinguishes between intuition and reasoning in decision making. In his theory, called “The Intuition in Decision-making Theory”, he claims that intuition belongs to system 1, and reasoning to system 2. System 1 provides decision makers with

impressions, intentions, and feelings while system 2 embodies reason, self-control, and intelligence. Most decisions are based on system 1, and “System 2 is the one who believes is making the decision” (Kahneman, 2011:85).

Kahneman, however, claims that both systems are involved in the process of individual decision making, and can interact with each other. This view is shared by a number of other researchers (Khatri and Ng, 2000; Laughlin et al., 2002; Elbanna and Child, 2007; Sauter, 2009; Flewett, 2010) who argue that there is a complementary resonance between “intuition” and “reason”, and see these independent parallel dimensions as essential components of human thinking.

One critique, which can be made of this debate, however, is that no single theory explains how the range of different factors, including personal disposition and context, interface with each other. Additionally, little is known about what determines the dominance of either rational or non-conscious systems. Therefore, theories of individual decision making leave themselves open to the obvious criticism that they are incomplete (Flewett, 2010).

2.2.3 Application of individual decision-making theories to the present study

The debate on individual decision-making models has illuminated and enriched humans’ understanding of the process. It is now widely accepted that decision making is not always a rational, linear process that produces rational outcomes. There seem to be a number of factors that impinge on decisions, including time constraints, incomplete information, emotions, external influences, as well as cognitive and heuristic factors. In the context of the current study, what the theories and debates outlined in the previous sections show is that the process of teacher decision making should be viewed as a complicated process, which is not always rational.

As seen in section 2.2.2, the rationality of individuals during the process of decision making is bounded by three main constraints, i.e. limited time, limited capacity, and limited cognitive resources (the Bounded Rationality theory). Teachers, like any other human beings, cannot process an unlimited amount of information, and have a limited amount of time to make decisions while delivering lessons. To simplify the process and save mental energy, they are likely to use heuristics to find a satisfying decision. Common heuristics used in individual decision making are based on frequency-occurring patterns (see the “availability heuristic” described above), and on pattern-matching mental mechanisms (see the “representativeness heuristic” described above). Teachers might use the same heuristics during the instructional decision-making process. It follows that, to

fully understand teachers' decisions, one needs to investigate events that frequently occur in the classroom and are easily brought to teachers' mind as more important than instances of less frequent teaching behaviours (the "availability heuristic"), as well as teachers' tendency to judge the probability of a classroom event by comparing it with previous experiences or beliefs about the event (the "representativeness heuristic"). To fully investigate these mental mechanisms, in the current research, I observed how four teachers use communication-based textbooks in their classes, and studied their unconscious thinking by taking into consideration the participating teachers' previous learning and teaching experiences, as well as their belief and knowledge systems.

The Prospect Theory argues that framing is also controlled by the way decision makers contextualize problems in the light of their prior experiences, understanding, and expectations. As seen in section 2.2.2, decision makers tend to dismiss alternatives that are irrelevant to their own context, and focus on relevant options that best accommodate their understanding of the given problem. Applying the Prospect Theory and its framing effects to teacher decision making, in the present research, I recognise that teachers who feature different understandings of how languages are taught/learned are likely to see the same classroom routines and problems from different angles. This is because the way decision makers look at a problem is framed by how they contextualize the problem in the light of their prior experiences, understanding, and expectations.

Based on this body of knowledge, to understand how teachers frame the problem of using textbooks in their classes, in the present research, in addition to teacher belief and knowledge systems and their prior learning and teaching experiences, I also investigate a range of internal and external contextual-related factors that are capable of framing the participating teachers' thinking, and affect their implementation of new teaching approaches, especially as a result of government reform, of which materials are a part.

2.3 Teacher decision making

In the previous sections, I described the process of individual decision making from different perspectives, and highlighted the relevance of the theories and debates in this field to the current study. In this section, I examine the nature of teacher belief and knowledge systems, and discuss the sources that influence the development of teacher beliefs and knowledge (in sections 2.3.1.1 and 2.3.1.2). I finish part 1 with a brief conclusion (section 2.4).

2.3.1. The mental dimensions of teacher decision making

As seen in section 2.2, when making decisions, individuals select one alternative among many possible choices. The selection of one alternative is believed to be a conscious process, and the degree of consciousness varies from clearly motivated selections to unconscious decisions. The same holds true for teacher decision making (Kansanen, 2008). Teachers select one alternative among many possible choices.

Numerous studies of teacher thinking and decision making have shown that behind the processes of identifying the problem, generating, evaluating, and selecting an alternative, are the systems of teachers' personal beliefs and knowledge (Weinstein, 1990; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Kagan, 1992; Borg, 1998a; da Silva, 2005). In this section, I review the body of empirical research related to the cognitive structures, i.e. teacher belief and knowledge systems, that frame teachers' decision selection. This discussion connects the present research to other studies in the broad domains of teacher cognition – defined by Borg (2003:81) as “the unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching: what teachers know, believe, and think” – and teacher decision making.

Before embarking on this discussion, however, it is necessary to clarify the complex nature of belief and knowledge systems, and to establish clear definitions for the purpose of the present study.

2.3.1.1 Nature of beliefs and knowledge and definition of terms

Within the fields of cognitive psychology, neurophysiology, artificial intelligence, linguistics, and sociology, there is an endless debate on the nature of knowing versus the nature of believing, the details of which go beyond the scope of this thesis. The ambiguity involved in distinguishing beliefs from knowledge is reflected in the field of teacher education too. A number of researchers have used different terms to describe somewhat overlapping representations of teacher knowledge, thoughts, and beliefs. Elbaz (1981), for example, coined the term “practical knowledge”; Shulman (1986) used the term “subject matter knowledge”; Freeman (1993) employed the term “conceptions”; and Borg (2003) used the term “teacher cognition”. In this section, to clarify the nature of beliefs and knowledge, I emphasise the similarities and differences between the two constructs before revealing how the two terms are employed in the present study. This discussion will avoid undue confusion, and increase clarity and understanding.

People form many beliefs and gain much knowledge about the world during their preschool and early school years (Hatano and Inagaki, 2000; Medin and Atran, 2004; Lackey, 2007). During their

childhood, as children engage in interactions with their family, others, and the environment around them, they form psychological propositions about the world that they accept as true, without questioning them (Richardson, 1996). These understandings of the world represent both what children know and believe about the world. Since knowledge and beliefs share the same external references, many cognitive psychologists (Polanyi, 1967; Nisbett and Ross, 1980; Pajares, 1992; Dretske, 2000) and a number of researchers in teacher education (Meijer et al., 1999; Borg, 2006; Ishihara and Cohen, 2014) hold the view that “knowledge” and “beliefs” are inextricably intertwined.

Another reason why the distinction between “knowledge” and “beliefs” is blurry is that all knowledge is rooted in beliefs (Lewis, 1990). People know they are alive because they can see, hear, feel, touch (people believe in their senses), and because they believe that these abilities are attributed to living people (as opposed to dead people). Thus, knowledge is deeply rooted in people’s belief systems, and the formation of new knowledge is evaluated and filtered by people’s beliefs (Pajares, 1992).

In addition, what makes the separation of “knowledge” and “beliefs” even more challenging is the fact that teachers’ mental life is unobservable (Pajares, 1992). The only way we can acknowledge the abstract entities of teachers’ knowledge and beliefs is by relying on what teachers say. However, the decision-making process is never fully conscious. As seen in section 2.2.2., decisions are often made through the integration between tacit and explicit systems of knowledge and beliefs (Polanyi, 1967; Sayegh et al., 2004; Djasasbi, 2007; Kahneman, 2011). The tacit component, while playing a key role in the process of decision making, is often not noticed and remains unarticulated. Or even worse, participants in research studies have a tendency to give logical sense to their unconscious decisions when asked to describe how they made decisions, either because they have a rational model in their mind or because it is difficult to describe unconscious processes (Taleb, 2007). This tendency makes it even more difficult for researchers to study knowledge and beliefs separately.

Nevertheless, for many epistemologists (i.e. experts who study the theory of knowledge), “knowledge is distinguished from belief by the ability to give an account of explanations” (Crumley, 2009:54). Said in other words, although beliefs have been defined as “psychologically held understandings, premises, or propositions about the world that are felt to be true” (Richardson, 1996:103), they can be naive mental states with little evidence of a theoretical knowledge base (Haskell, 2000). For instance, a gambler’s firm belief that he will win is a manifestation of a groundless belief which might or might not be true. By contrast, for epistemologists, knowledge is

any kind of belief which is considered to have enough evidence in its support that it might as well be considered certain or true. The traditional epistemological definition of knowledge is: “a justified, true belief” (Feldman, 2003; Hetherington, 2006; Crumley, 2009).

This line of thinking, however, raises an important concern: it locates the distinction between knowledge and belief to the notion of truth. That is to say, traditional approaches to knowledge have to justify the separation between mere beliefs and knowledge by following rational criteria of truth widely accepted by people. However, as Whitehead (1954 in McGlone and Knapp, 2010:XIII) claims, “there are no whole truths, all truths are half-truths”. It follows that, because universal truth widely accepted by all people does not exist, it is difficult to justify what people hold as true beliefs if there are no clearly prescribed criteria on which people can base their justification (Steup and Sosa, 2005; Pritchard, 2006; Lackey, 2007). Philipp (2007:259) adds the following to the separation of the terms “beliefs” and “knowledge”: “What is knowledge for one person may be belief for another, depending upon whether one holds the conception as beyond question”.

Although “beliefs” and “knowledge” are similar to each other, they still feature different structural properties. Unlike knowledge items that are stored in total independence of each other and are organised in a logical order within the knowledge system, beliefs must always be seen as part of a system where all items are connected with each other (Thompson, 1992; Furinghetti and Pehkonen, 2002). The system contains different types of beliefs: 1) primary or derived beliefs i.e. because some beliefs serve as the foundation of other beliefs in a quasi-logical structure, the former might be thought of as primary beliefs whereas the latter as derivate beliefs (Philipp, 2007); 2) evidential or non-evidential beliefs, i.e. supported or not by evidence (Green, 1971); 3) existential, shared, and observational beliefs. According to Rokeach (1968), the former are related to one’s existence and identity, shared beliefs are related to one’s existence and identity shared with others, and the latter are learned by direct experiences; 4) inferential, i.e. “beliefs that go beyond directly observable events and could be based on prior observational beliefs” (Chapman, 2002:179); and 5) informational beliefs, i.e. beliefs formed by accepting information provided by external sources (Robertson and Kassarian, 1990).

The beliefs within the system, rather than being organised in a logical order, are organised in some form of a psychological order. When demonstrating his/her knowledge, an individual says “I am 100% sure the earth rotates around the sun”. By contrast, to demonstrate his/her beliefs, the same individual might use a lower degree of certainty, as in the example that follows: “I am 60% sure that we will someday find an intellectual life form, other than human beings, in the stars” (example

taken from Furinghetti and Pehkonen, 2002). The two illustrative examples given above capture a unique dimension of belief systems: “psychological centrality” (Green, 1971). According to Green (ibid) important beliefs are psychologically more central in an individual’s belief system than non-important beliefs. Borg (in Birello, 2012:92), referring specifically to language teachers, extends this argument and claims that in most cases important or core beliefs are stronger and relate to educational issues, while non-important or peripheral ones are less stable and might include more general beliefs like the beliefs teachers’ hold about language learning. He emphasises that “inconsistency between beliefs is not unusual. We may believe in something, but we may also believe in something else that pulls in a different direction” (ibid, 2012:91). When there is tension among beliefs, core beliefs seem to dominate as illustrated in Phipps and Borg (2009). Participants in their study held simultaneously a core belief about the importance of using L1 to enable students to grasp L2 grammar concept, and a peripheral one about the importance of using L2 in EFL classes. In their classes, it was observed that the core belief dominated as the teachers did not try to minimise the use of L1 to accommodate their peripheral belief.

In the present study, the distinction between “beliefs” and “knowledge” is not crucial since the focus of this research is to investigate how the process of teacher decision making regarding the use of communication-based textbooks is shaped, among other factors, by teachers’ mental life. Therefore, rather than isolating particular mental properties, this study investigates teaching as “an interrelated whole compromised of many functional relationship between thinking and action” (Marcos and Tillema, 2006:114). In accordance with this view, it uses the terms “beliefs”, “knowledge”, and “thinking” interchangeably to mean “personal theories that teachers hold regarding the nature of the broader educational process, the nature of language, how it is learned, and how it can be best taught” (Breen et al., 2001:472).

In the next section, where the main sources that affect teachers’ belief and knowledge systems are discussed, different terms (e.g. beliefs, cognitions, constructs, theories, conceptions, images, perceptions, metaphors, knowledge, and thinking) are used in accordance with the terminology used by the original authors to refer to what teachers think, believe, and know about teaching and learning in general, and EFL teaching and learning in particular.

2.3.1.2 Main factors affecting teachers' belief and knowledge systems

In the previous section, I examined in detail two mental constructs that play a dominant role in shaping teachers' instructional decisions and practices (Brown and Cooney, 1982; Nespor, 1987; Evans, 1999). In this section, I discuss the possible sources that inform teachers' belief and knowledge systems. The literature reviewed in these two sections will help readers gain a better understanding of the nature of teachers' belief and knowledge systems, and of the sources that inform these constructs.

Tsui (2003) categorises the following four main sources that inform teachers' belief and knowledge systems:

- 1) Teachers' own experiences as learners. This source of influence relates to the ideas about teaching and learning teachers form during their formative years. These ideas are likely to become an important information source on which teachers draw (Lortie, 1975; Darling-Hammond et al., 2002). As a result, new teachers are likely to behave like their own teachers "without understanding why they are acting in a particular way" (Bullock, 2012:16). This is particularly true for novice teachers who enter their classes without adequate training (Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Johntson, 1999; Darling-Hammond et al., 2002). Some ideas teachers form during their formative years are likely to impact teachers' deliveries permanently as they are difficult to change (e.g. the conception of good teachers – Weinstein, 1990; teachers' concerns about teaching – Sanchez, 2011; trainees' image of teaching – Calderhead and Robson, 1991); while others are less resistant and can be altered if teachers are prompted to confront their existing belief and knowledge systems with new beliefs, and become aware of "the contradictions between what they themselves experienced and what they want their students to experience" (Tedick, 2005:163). A number of empirical studies support this view. For instance, Richards et al. (1996) show how trainees enriched their conception of the teacher's role in the class; Freeman (1993) reported changes in teachers' understanding of their knowledge of professional discourse, although he questioned whether there was a substantial change in beliefs; other studies (Sendan and Roberts, 1998; MacDonald et al., 2001; Clarke, 2008; Busch, 2010) also provide data that confirm developments in trainees' way of thinking during a teacher-training course.
- 2) Academic background. The disciplinary background knowledge teachers possess is discussed in detail in Shulman (1986) who referred to this type of knowledge as Subject

Matter Knowledge (SMK). SMK is an umbrella term that involves four different dimensions: content knowledge, substantive knowledge, syntactic knowledge, and teachers' beliefs about the subject matter. A schematic representation of the four components is shown in Figure 2.3.



Figure 2.3: Four components of subject matter knowledge (adapted from Grossman, et al., 1989).

Content knowledge refers to teachers' understanding of facts, concepts, principles, topics, structures, and explanatory frameworks in a given subject. Substantive knowledge encompasses an understanding of "the ways in which the fundamental principles of a discipline are organised" (Wilson, et al., 1987:113). Syntactic knowledge includes knowledge about major debates and disagreements in the field, knowledge of how the field has developed, and who has contributed the most in this development, as well as an awareness of how new knowledge in the field is created and tested. Teachers' beliefs about the subject matter, such as teachers' thoughts about how it is best learned, are also considered as an integral part of SMK (Thompson, 1992; Borko and Putnam, 1996; Graeber, 1999).

The four dimensions of SMK are interrelated and affect each other (Ball, 1991; Borko and Putnam, 1996). They are also intrinsically linked to the other types of knowledge teachers possess (Brown and McIntyre, 1993; Alexander, 2004). Empirical studies have found that teachers possessing strong subject matter knowledge do not always follow the textbook's structure, and often plan their own activities to expand and develop the lesson theme (Wineburg and Wilson, 1991; Richards, 1998). By contrast, less knowledgeable teachers are likely to follow the textbook's structure closely, use avoidance strategy (Grossman, et al., 1989; Tan et al., 1998), and give erroneous feedback (Tsui, 2003).

Participation in pre-service and in-service development programmes can affect teachers' academic knowledge in different ways: 1) It can influence teachers' belief and knowledge systems, and impact their classroom practices (Sendan and Roberts, 1998; Feryok, 2008); 2) it may lead to some changes in teachers' beliefs and knowledge only, without any impact on their practices (Golombek, 1998); 3) it might not necessarily lead to anticipated outcomes in teachers' development (Richards and Pennington, 1998; Lamb, 1995; Kubanyiova, 2006).

- 3) Teachers' own teaching experiences. This source is considered by teachers as the most important source of knowledge about teaching (Borko and Putman, 1996; Richardson, 2003; Tsui, 2003). Schön (1983) was one of the first to emphasise the importance of practice and experience in the field of education. According to him, once teachers engage in the act of teaching, they obtain a kind of "I can know more than I can tell" knowledge. This type of knowledge, called the "tacit dimension" by Polanyi (1967), helps teachers make sense of complex classroom situations, such as recognising problems that "do not present themselves as given" (Schön, 1983:50), or finding solutions for unanticipated or unique situations that cannot be resolved by applying the conscious knowledge teachers generate during their formal studies. Tacit knowledge of teaching, defined by Wilson (2013:42) as "context-specific difficult to make explicit", rather than stemming from conscious awareness of how to teach, derives from lived personal, formal, educational, and classroom experiences (Tennant and Pogson, 1995; Clandinin and Connelly, 1996; Bransford et al., 2000; Clandinin, 2002). Tacit knowledge is believed to be commonly used by teachers as the basis for monitoring and decision making during teaching (Clandinin and Connelly, 1996; McAlpine and Weston, 2002; Yamin-Ali, 2014).

Research in TESOL indicates that teachers' prior experience can inhibit change as teachers tend to rely on familiar practices they repeat on a regular basis (Woods, 1996; Akyel, 2000; Freeman, 2002; Feryok, 2010; Johnson and Arshavskaya, 2011). Nevertheless, if teachers are made aware of their own teaching practices, they are likely to identify potential gaps between the teacher they want to be (their conceptions of effective teacher) and the teacher who they are (the impact their actual teaching have on their students). This process of identifying and gaining control over familiar teaching practices, known as "emotional dissonance" (Golombek and Johnson, 2004; Kubanyiova, 2009), is likely to bring conceptual change.

- 4) Teachers' personal life experience. Ellis (2001) notes that the personality and skills of individual teachers determine to a great extent what L2 teachers do in their classes and, particularly, "how readily they embrace innovative pedagogical ideas produced by second language acquisition (SLA) studies" Ellis (ibid:61). A number of empirical studies (Goodson 1991, 1992; Bell and Gilbert, 1994; Carter and Doyle, 1996; Clarke and Hollingsworth, 2002) have investigated the influence of teachers' personal dimension in teaching, and have concluded that the conceptions teachers hold of themselves affect not only the practices of novice teachers, but also act as life-long references that shape teachers' identity.

2.4 Part 1 summary

The review of the literature so far has revealed a number of relevant themes. Firstly, numerous studies of teacher thinking and decision making have shown that behind the processes of identifying the problem, generating, evaluating, and selecting an alternative are the systems of teachers' personal beliefs and knowledge (Weinstein, 1990; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Kagan, 1992; Borg, 1998a; da Silva, 2005). Some of the belief and knowledge constructs teachers hold, particularly the ones that are based on teachers' previous learning experiences, are likely to impact teachers' deliveries permanently as they are difficult to change (Weinstein, 1990; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Sanchez, 2011); while others are less resistant and can be altered if teachers are prompted to confront their old belief and knowledge properties with new beliefs and knowledge (Freeman, 1993; Sendan and Roberts, 1998; MacDonald et al., 2001; Clarke, 2008; Busch, 2010).

Another emergent theme reaching across the discussion of teacher belief and knowledge systems is that of teachers as individuals. Kaplan and Owings (2011:5) argue that "before any individual becomes a professional, he or she is first a unique person of distinct appearance, personality, interests, abilities, talents, and ways of interacting with others". It follows that educators bring their personality, skills, and background to their classes. These internal factors influence to a great degree what they do in their classes (Ellis, 2011). Consequently, in this research, I view the decisions teachers make on how to use communication-based textbooks as individual decisions closely related to the collective experience of classroom and school learning.

With reference to the role teacher belief and knowledge systems play in teachers' delivery practice, a counter-theme emerging in the literature reviewed is the realisation that teachers' decisions are not always rational. When making pedagogical decisions, teachers select one alternative among many choices. The selection of one alternative can be seen as a conscious process, but the degree of

consciousness varies from clearly motivated selections, i.e. decisions based on teachers' beliefs and knowledge, as well as on other external factors discussed in part 2 and 3, to unconscious decisions. Not enough is known about conscious and unconscious decisions to determine whether they share the same basis or not.

The concept of using heuristics when making instructional decisions is largely ignored in teacher cognition research, since this discipline mainly emphasises "the active role which teachers play in shaping classroom events" (Borg, 2006:40), rather than teachers' passive thinking and acting. The present study investigates how teachers use communication-based materials in their classes by exploring both conscious and unconscious, deliberate and automatic thought processes related to teacher decision making.

The main themes discussed in this summary, in addition to the themes discussed in part 2 and 3 of this chapter, helped me to shape the study approach and methodology, described in detail in chapter 4. In addition, the review of the literature related to the factors that affect teachers' instructional practices helped me to recognise the main concepts and codes in the data collected, discussed in chapter 5.

Part 2 – Contextualising and relating the present research to other similar studies

The literature reviewed in part 1 of this chapter linked the present research with broader debates in the general field of teacher thinking and teacher decision making. The literature reviewed in this part of the chapter situates the present research in its relevant context by discussing how EFL teachers use EFL materials in classrooms (section 2.5), and by exploring the complex factors that affect the way teachers implement new teaching approaches, especially as a result of government reforms (section 2.6). I conclude part 2 with a brief summary of the main points covered in this part (section 2.7).

The review of the existing work on how and why EFL teachers use communication-based materials in their classrooms will contribute to a better understanding of the subject under review in the present thesis (i.e. What shapes Albanian EFL teachers' decisions on how to use text-books in their classes?).

2.5 The use of teaching materials in EFL classes

Classroom teachers use a number of resources, i.e. textbooks, handouts, pictures, hand-written explanations, videos, tapes, internet sites, computer programmes, and so on, to support the processes of learning and teaching (Tomlinson, 2008). All these artifacts - “that prompt the learning and use of language in the language classroom” (Johnston and Janus, 2007:5) – are known as “teaching materials”. In this study, I use the term “teaching materials” to refer primarily to textbooks because commercially-published textbooks are the most commonly found elements in second and foreign language classrooms around the world (Richards, 2014). The textbook was also the most widely used teaching resource in the classes I observed.

Textbooks have numerous roles amongst which they can: 1) act as a resource and point of reference for teachers and students (Cunningsworth, 1995; Kayapinar, 2009); 2) provide teachers and learners with detailed specifications of what, when, and how much attention to pay on a linguistic component or pedagogical task (Litz, 2005); 3) guide teachers on how to approach the process of learning as they often define the roles of teachers and learners (Richards and Renandya, 2002); and 4) capture students' interest in the content (Katz, 1996).

Despite the central role teaching materials play in the language classrooms, the research on how EFL textbooks and other materials are actually used in the classroom has been scarce (Guerrettaz and Johnston, 2013; Garton and Graves, 2014). Canagarajah (1993) was one of the first to conduct

qualitative classroom-based research on EFL materials. He employed ethnographic methods to investigate Sri Lankan students' attitudes towards the communicative pedagogy of a Western-published textbook. The study found that, despite the students' initial understanding of the need to acquire English for instrumental purposes, they showed resistance to the communicative discourse proposed by the textbook, and favoured grammar-focused activities. In the same vein, Yakhontova (2001) explored the way an American textbook was used in a Ukrainian classroom. She concluded that the use of Western-written textbooks in non-Western countries might be challenging due to the lack of references to the local culture. Opoku-Amankwa (2010) also conducted a case study on the interaction between teachers, learners, and textbooks in a public primary school in Ghana. The study revealed that there are a range of factors that determine students' access to and use of textbooks, such as classroom dynamics and size, classroom norm and culture, seating arrangements, as well as teachers' understanding and interpretation of the official textbook policy.

Lastly, Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) investigated how a grammar-oriented textbook was deployed in classroom interactions by a teacher and his students in an advanced ESL class in an institution in North America. They examined the relationship between the textbook and the class in which it was used by adopting a classroom ecology approach. That is to say, they focused on the relationships between and among participants, processes, structures, and artifacts by conceptualising the classroom as an ecosystem composed of human players (i.e. teachers and students), forms of interaction (i.e. classroom discourse), organising forces (e.g. curriculum), and other elements (which they do not specifically mention, but refer to in their study as "and so on" (ibid: 782). Their research showed how the teacher they observed defined the purpose of the course he was teaching as completion/covering of the textbook chapters. They concluded that textbooks very often act as *de facto* curriculum.

The relation between the *de facto* curriculum (i.e. the textbook) and the *de jure* curriculum (i.e. the official national curriculum) has been studied by a number of researchers. Richards et al. (1992:94) define the curriculum as "the overall rationale for an educational programme that states the ends (the educational purposes), the means (the content, the teaching procedures, and the learning experiences that will be used to achieve the educational purposes), as well as the assessment means to measure whether the educational purposes have been achieved or not". Alexander (2001) links all of these elements in a conceptual framework. As shown in Figure 2.4, the curriculum as the formal set of official requirements exists in its pure form of directives at the beginning of the process only. It moves to the translation stage as a school or a teacher maps the official curriculum onto a feasible programme of study or chooses a published course book. "Then a school or teacher

may adjust the nomenclature and move parts of one curriculum domain into another to affect a transportation, which then leads to a sequence of lesson plans” (Alexander, 2008:8). It is during these three stages that the curriculum can frame the act of teaching.



Figure 2.4: The series of alternations a curriculum passes through (taken from Alexander, 2001).

The real change, however, begins when the official curriculum is transformed into feasible classroom activities and procedures. When the national curriculum is broken down to activities, classroom interaction, and learning outcomes, it ceases to be an official document and becomes inseparable from classroom activities and procedures. During the transformation stage, “the curriculum is expressed and negotiated as teacher-student interactions and transactions” (Alexander, 2001:553).

The use of textbooks as *de facto* curriculum has two main implications for language classrooms according to Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013). Firstly, it links progress and success in language classrooms to completion of chapters, quizzes, and tests provided by the textbook. Secondly, it gives the textbook a status as “arbiter of validity” which determines what is or is not a good use of class time.

The actual use of materials in EFL classes to mediate the structure of the curriculum was the first function of materials emphasised in Guerrettaz and Johnston’s study. The second actual function of the textbook is related to the role materials play in mediating the organisation and content of classroom discourse. In the classes observed, Guerrettaz and Johnston found that 83% of the discourse was related to the materials. Their data suggest that materials can influence the topic of discourse, i.e. “the propositional content or a single issue or a set of related issues that is sustained over a stretch of talk” (Lier, 1988 in Guerrettaz and Johnston, 2013; 786); the type of discourse, “i.e. the genre or category of talk as it relates to the purpose of the discourse” (Guerrettaz and Johnston,

2013; 786); as well as the organisation of discourse, i.e. “its structural features, the manner in which it is constructed and controlled by students, teacher, or both, the quality and quantity of talk” (ibid, 2013; 786).

Guerrettaz and Johnston’s study also shed light on the ways in which textbooks function to mediate learning in EFL classes. They found that in some cases, such as written homework, quizzes, and tests from the textbook, the students’ discourse was prompted by the clues given by the textbook. The authors referred to these occurrences as “intended affordances”. In some other cases, however, the learners barely used the target form and phrases the materials were designed to elicit. Instead, the intended affordances of the textbook were used by the participants to bring about unplanned possibilities for interaction and discourse that reflected participants’ identities, and their previous life experiences. The researchers reached on the conclusion that the way textbooks are actually used in the classroom, rather than determined by the intentions of the textbook designers, depends on the type of interaction between the materials themselves and the learners.

Guerrettaz and Johnston study is very important because it provides a theoretical framework (i.e. the classroom ecology approach) for studying the ways in which materials are actually used in EFL classrooms. However, Garton and Graves (2014) note that future studies in this area should avoid to measure the influence of isolated variables because language acquisition is a complex process that involves a great variety of factors. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2010) also agree that measuring the influence of isolated variables in L2 classrooms is an extremely difficult task.

Instead, to depict an accurate picture of the complexity of L2 classes, all important factors that facilitate the interaction between materials and the other elements of the classroom ecology should be given due consideration. To illustrate the point, in their study, Guerrettaz and Johnston studied the complex relationships among materials, discourse, and learners and concluded that when the content of the textbook connects with the learners’ lives, direct connections can be made between learners and the materials. Nevertheless, they did not analyse the role the teacher and the environment might play in this complex relationship.

Much of the research in education (e.g. Thompson, 1992; Wilson and Goldenberg, 1998; Lloyd, 1999; Chavez, 2003; Remillard and Bryans, 2004) has concluded that teachers’ beliefs about the subject matter, how it is learned, and teachers’ subject matter knowledge influence to a great degree how teachers interpret and use curriculum materials. The influence is particularly evident when conflicts exist between teachers’ beliefs and the ideas embraced by the curriculum designers (Stein et al., 2007:353). In TESOL, the main teacher-related factors identified by previous research

as affecting how L2 teachers use materials in planning and enacting curriculum are: 1) teachers' beliefs about grammar teaching (Borg, 1998b; Burgess and Etherington, 2002); 2) teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy (Borg and Al-Busaidi, 2011; Yoshiyuki, 2011); 3) teachers' conceptions of effective teaching (Khodabakhshzadeh and Shirvan, 2011); 4) teachers' beliefs about interactions with students (Li and Walsh, 2011); 5) learners' previous learning experiences, expectations, beliefs, and learning strategies (Oxford, 1992; Benson, 2001); and 6) teachers' knowledge about teaching, learning, and their students (Tsui, 2003).

Likewise, much of the research in TESOL (e.g. Nunan, 1992b; Johnson, 1996; Burns, 1996; Wu, 2006) emphasises how the knowledge of the big picture surrounding the classroom (i.e. knowledge of the classroom, school, community and state conventions) can inform teachers' delivery practices, including the types of interactions they prompt and when. For instance, Richards and Pennington (1998) report the case of several novice instructors in Hong Kong who opted for teacher-centred classes instead of the communicative learner-centred teaching approach they had been exposed to during their teacher training course and practice. They used teacher-centred approaches after realising that practising teaching methods that matched their students' expectations about L2 learning was a "safe teaching method" to deal successfully with discipline and motivation in their big classes. Likewise, Wu (2006) investigated four Chinese high school EFL teachers' beliefs and practices with regard to the role and place of CLT and teaching grammar. He found that, although the teachers believed in the use of pair-work in EFL classes as a means of maximising students' second language (L2) speaking time, they did not employ this type of class interaction in their young learner classes to avoid discipline-related issues, including the risk of students using mainly their own first language (L1) to accomplish their free speaking tasks. Lastly, difficult working conditions, such as heavy workload and lack of preparation time, may powerfully affect teachers' pedagogical choices (Crookes and Arakaki, 1999).

In concluding, two important issues raised in this section are: 1) the research in the area of EFL material use is very limited; 2) rather than investigating isolated variables, empirical studies in this area should investigate actual classroom processes and the way the numerous factors identified in this literature review influence teachers' delivery practices. These are the areas that the current research seeks to address.

2.6 CLT-based policy initiative implementation in other similar EFL contexts

As mentioned in chapter 1, authorities in many East European ex-communist countries, as well as in many other Asian countries, have been/are implementing reforms in language teaching that attempt to change the traditional way non-native EFL teachers approach the teaching. In Albania, as part of the educational reform, among others, educators are required to use CLT-oriented textbooks in their class and to incorporate student-centred approaches in their teaching. These curriculum policies are expected to influence teachers' delivery style and enhance student learning (Qano, 2005).

The expectations of authorities in Albania and in other East European ex-communist countries are based on the belief that materials can change the way teachers teach. A number of experts (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994; Rubdy, 2003; Masuhara and Tomlinson, 2008) share this view and argue that textbooks can act as "agents of change" by providing a visible framework teachers can follow, as well as by helping teachers to "fully understand and routinize change" (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994:323). There is also some empirical evidence to support this view. For example, Carless (2001) investigated the instructional practices of a Hong Kong EFL teacher who had used the official Target-Oriented Curriculum (TOC²⁾) for several years in her classes. TOC drew on teaching philosophies and classroom practices that did not match the teacher's beliefs about L2 learning and teaching, and communication-based textbooks were used in Hong Kong classrooms to support curriculum implementation. Research findings showed that the participating teacher adopted new teaching practices to accommodate top-down reform initiatives in her practices. Hence, Carless (ibid) concluded that the use of appropriate textbooks can promote teacher professional development when some conditions, such as when teachers are willing to consider alternative views, possess a high level of L2 proficiency and professional training, and have the right institutional support, are met.

Nevertheless, this is not always the case. There is enough empirical evidence (Holliday, 1994; Sullivan, 2000; Hiramatsu, 2005; Savignon, 2010) to conclude that when teachers are required to implement new teaching approaches, especially as a result of government reforms, they might encounter a number of challenges. Research in this area shows that teachers can be resistant to change when 1) the proposed changes do not reflect the beliefs they hold about learning and

²⁾ TOC was first introduced in three primary schools in 1994 in Hong Kong. The project expanded through the years. The TOC draws on three well-known communicative concepts: Target, Tasks, and Task-based assessment.

teaching (Smith, 2005; Kim, 2008); 2) when they are unsure about the effectiveness of the proposed changes (Wang and Cheng, 2005); and/or 3) when they lack the capability, knowledge, skills, or resources to embrace new policies (Butler, 2004; Hu, 2005a; Ahn, 2011). Based on this evidence, a general consensus has emerged that teachers do not always act as they are told (Cohen and Ball, 1990; McKay, 2003; Baldauf et al., 2011).

In the paragraphs that follow, I review a number of empirical studies into how teachers implement CLT-based policy initiatives in their classrooms in other EFL contexts where the circumstances are similar to those of Albania. Familiarity with this body of research will help readers to situate the present study, and serve as a guideline to this study's interpretations and findings.

In response to the ever-growing use of English in international communication, in the mid-1990s, the Ministry of Education in South Korea revised the curriculum for English teaching in its public schools. The new curriculum "mandated that CLT³⁾ replace traditional grammar-translation and audio lingual methods, and that teachers teach English through English using task-based activities that engage learners in meaningful language use" (Johnson 2009:81). To implement curriculum changes, authorities also revised textbooks in accordance with the tenets of CLT to promote the development of students' communicative competence (Cha, 2000). The implementation of the new curriculum started in 2001 and was completed in 2004. However, empirical studies (Li, 1998; Cha, 2000; Kwon, 2000; Kim, 2008 & 2013) investigating the use of CLT in the South Korean context have found that little has changed in the way South Korean teachers approach L2 teaching. Kim (2008) examined how a Korean EFL teacher understood and carried out her teaching practices under the new curriculum changes. The study shed light on the contradictions teachers experience when they are asked to implement teaching approaches that do not reflect their personal and professional beliefs of how languages are taught/learned. The teacher participating in this study believed that the mastery of the component forms of the language was a key prerequisite for developing students' communicative competence. Kim (ibid) concluded that Korean EFL teachers' perceptions of EFL teaching and learning, in addition to their lack of confidence in their own L2 speaking skills and their insufficient understanding of CLT-based curriculum, are the main factors that inhibit Korean EFL teachers' enthusiasm for implementing communicative approaches in their classes.

³⁾ CLT is discussed in detail in Part 3 of this chapter.

Similar factors emerged from another study in Japan. Since 1987, authorities in this country have envisaged a number of educational reforms, including the revision of ELT curriculum and the Japanese Exchange and Teaching (JET⁴⁾) programme, designed to cultivate Japanese students with English abilities, and to help Japanese EFL teachers change their traditional teaching approach. Hiramatsu (2005) conducted 13 one-on-one interviews with Japanese teachers and American JETs and several other officials, and observed six oral communication classes taught by four JET teams to investigate the impact of top-down educational reforms on teachers' actual instructional practices. The study concluded that Japanese EFL teachers maintain a very traditional way of teaching because: 1) they believe their current teaching approaches are appropriate for preparing students for high-stake university entrance exams; 2) they are offered few in-service training opportunities; 3) they show a limited understanding of CLT practices; and 4) their English language proficiency is insufficient. Of particular interest, Hiramatsu's study revealed the paradox of requiring teachers to comply with the changes proposed by authorities but having no system in place to measure the actual result of the reforms, i.e. teacher change. Because authorities do not assess the effect resulting from the reforms, Hiramatsu concludes, teachers do not consider it necessary to comply with the official top-down mandates.

In the same teaching context, Humphries (2014) investigated how four Japanese high school teachers used a new communication-based textbook in their classes. The textbook the participating teachers were using required a different teaching approach from the traditional teaching approach they were familiar with but the teachers had received little training for the new approach. After analysing the data collected through classroom observations and semi-structured interviews, Humphries (ibid) identified the following seven factors that mediated the teachers' use of communication-based textbooks:

- 1) Sociocultural traditions. All the participants in his study failed to adapt to new forms of teaching because the cultural norms, social roles, and strategies to perform speech acts integrated in the new textbook did not match the teachers' sociocultural traditions. A number of studies (e.g. Wedell, 2003; Dello-Iacovo, 2009) have argued that the methodology of many EFL textbooks published in English-speaking countries is

⁴⁾ JET programme was announced in 1987 and was designed to "increase mutual understanding between the people of Japan and the people of other nations, to promote internationalisation in Japan's local communities by helping to improve foreign language education, and to develop international exchange at the community level" (source: JET programme official website. Available at: <http://www.jetprogramme.org/e/faq/faq01what.html>)

incompatible with the predominant teaching methodology in East Asian countries which is based on a Confucian heritage that regards elders and teachers as a source of wisdom.

- 2) Uncertainty. Because teachers possessed limited knowledge of how to implement new teaching approaches, they often experienced feelings of uncertainty. EFL teachers' uncertainty can be the consequence of the lack of confidence in their own capacity to conduct CLT-oriented classes (Sakui, 2004).
- 3) Limited training. Due to the lack of CLT teaching training, the participants in Humphries' study tended to "fall back on how they themselves were taught in school as a student" (Kikuchi and Browne, 2009:175) when they mediated the use of the new textbook.
- 4) Negligible external influences. None of the participating teachers in Humphries' study reported any influence from external sources (e.g. parents, boards of education, or government policies). The author, however, acknowledges that the teachers neither needed to prepare students for any external exam, nor were in direct touch with official policies in the country.
- 5) Internal laissez-faire. All the participants in the study claimed that they felt no pressure from their school management to conform to any particular teaching approach. This finding supports previous research (Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004) that indicates that teachers do not feel any practical need to change their teaching approach when schools do not support the process of change.
- 6) Student issues. Sleeping, disrespect, and quiet passivity were three main student behaviours that hindered the implementation of new teaching approaches in the four classes observed in this study. Taguchi (2005) has also emphasised EFL students' tendency to be passive in CLT-oriented classes to avoid making mistakes in front of their teachers and/or classmates.
- 7) Unsuitable materials. The participating teachers in this study expressed the following three concerns related to the use of communicative materials in their classes: 1) students' lack of the required sociocultural knowledge; 2) the nature of activities. The teachers believed that there were not enough accuracy-based exercises; 3) the new textbook, with its lack of awareness of local needs, lacked coherence. As will be seen in part 3, CLT and communication-based materials are often criticised on the ground that they do not take into account local teaching realities.

Concluding, the use of communicative teaching methods and materials has proven challenging in numerous other countries where teachers have been asked to implement new teaching approaches and use new textbooks that seek to develop new communicative skills for classroom teaching (see,

for example, Carless, 2007 for CLT implementation in Hong Kong; Wang and Cheng, 2005 in China; Hiep, 2007 in Vietnam; Hasanova and Shadieva, 2008 in Uzbekistan; Orafi and Borg, 2009 in Libya). As any other L2 teaching method, CLT features a limited understanding of ELT since it is grounded on a particular (Western) knowledge and represents its social, cultural, political, and historical context. Consequently, it cannot readily fit in many EFL teaching contexts. There is now a wide spread consensus among researchers that, rather than conceptualising CLT as a manual of teaching instructions to be exported in EFL contexts, EFL teachers need to adapt CLT to suit specific teaching and learning contexts (Littlewood, 2014).

I am unaware of any study that investigates the practical challenges faced by Albanian EFL teachers. Therefore, it is hoped that the above examination of several representative studies in other EFL contexts similar to that of Albania will help readers to gain a better understanding of the context of the present research.

2.7 Part 2 summary

So far in this chapter, I have reviewed the body of empirical research related to the processes of individual and teacher decision making, the nature of the cognitive structures (i.e. teacher belief and knowledge systems) that frame teachers' decision selection, and the possible sources that inform teachers' belief and knowledge systems. I have also examined how EFL teachers use materials in their classrooms, and explored the factors that affect the use of new teaching approaches and materials in EFL contexts.

Three main themes that emerged from the discussion in part 1 are: 1) the systems of teachers' beliefs and knowledge play an important role in teachers' instructional practices; 2) teachers' personality, skills, and background also play an important role in teachers' instructional practices; and 3) teachers' decisions are not always rational.

Part 2 of this literature review has also introduced four important themes: 1) there is little research on how EFL textbooks and other materials are actually used in the classroom; 2) to fully capture the complexity of L2 classes, all important factors that facilitate the interaction between materials and the other elements of the classroom ecology should be investigated; 3) the use of communicative teaching methods and materials has proven challenging in many EFL contexts; and 4) rather than conceptualised as a package of instructional techniques and procedures to be exported in EFL

countries, it is recommended that EFL teachers adapt CLT to suit specific teaching and learning contexts.

The literature reviewed so far has conveyed to the readers the knowledge and ideas established on how EFL teachers use communication-based textbooks in their classrooms and the factors that influence teachers' instructional decisions. It has also helped me to identify areas of controversy in the field, formulate questions that need further research, as well as to familiarise myself with the types of analysis methods commonly used in my area of research.

CLT has so far been mentioned several times in connection with reforms in language teaching, materials, and teacher change but without an in-depth consideration of what is actually meant by the term. Therefore, in the next section, I discuss the theoretical foundations of the CLT, emphasising the basic appeal of this method in both EFL classes and materials.

Part 3 – Communicativeness in English language teaching and published textbooks

In this part, I first clarify what is meant by “communicativeness” in ELT by discussing the main theoretical and pedagogical assumptions, as well as the limitations of Communicative Language Teaching. All this is considered in section 2.8. Following that, I explore the main types of textbooks used in communication-based classes and explain what is meant by “communicativeness” in EFL textbooks in section 2.9. I conclude this part with a brief summary of the main points covered (section 2.10).

The knowledge obtained by the literature reviewed in this third part will help readers fully understand the analysis and the findings of the present study.

2.8 Communicativeness in ELT

An understanding of communicativeness in English language teaching is a key aspect of the present study because one of the main research questions of this enquiry (i.e. How communicatively do Albanian EFL teachers use communication-based textbooks?) cannot be fully understood if the concept of communicativeness in L2 classes is not established first. In this section, I clarify what is meant by “communicativeness” in ELT by discussing the main theoretical and pedagogical assumptions, as well as the limitations of a teaching approach very often associated with communicativeness in L2 classes: Communicative Language Teaching.

2.8.1 Communicative Language Teaching theoretical basis

Toward the late-twentieth century, increased opportunities for communication among L1-L2, and/or L2-L2 speakers showed that L2 teaching methods tended to produce grammatically prepared students, but communicatively incompetent L2 users (Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, 2011). As a result, EFL instructors’ interest in the use of authentic, pragmatic, meaningful class activities grew considerably during the 1970s and 1980s. This movement, helped by the work of many British linguistics on the development of communicative syllabuses (i.e. Wilkins 1976, cited in Ellis, 2003:30-31; Munby, 1978; Widdowson, 1979; Candlin, 1984), was institutionalised by several European authorities, such as the Council of Europe, German, and British governments, that took steps forward to reform the teaching of modern languages in their respective countries.

Communicative Competence, a sociolinguistic theory about language use, constitutes the theoretical basis of CLT. The notion of communicative competence is founded on the claim that a successful L2

speaker must use his/her “competence for use” (Hymes, 1972) in addition to his/her “linguistic competence” (Chomsky, 1965). The former is the L2 speaker’s socio-cultural knowledge of how a language is used to indicate attitudes, culture, background, and social position, within the particular context of the discourse; the latter is the L2 speaker’s behavioural speech learned by the study of linguistic rules. Canale (1983) further elaborates and divides the concept of “communicative competence” into four subcomponents, namely, “linguistic and grammatical competence”, “discourse competence”, “sociocultural competence”, and “strategic skills” – a schematic representation is included in Appendix 1. “Linguistic and grammatical competence” is the learned knowledge of lexical items and rules of grammar, syntax and morphology, while the “strategic skills” category represents the learner’s capability to learn efficiently by applying strategies that worked in the past to their current learning situation. The other two subcomponents are concerned with abilities acquired by a learner to produce and recognise coherent and cohesive text, and socially appropriate language within a given socio-cultural context (Canale and Swain, 1980). The four categories proposed by Canale were further elaborated by Widdowson (1989) who drew the distinction between “grammatical competence” (usage) and “pragmatic competence” (use).

Social interactionism, an approach to language acquisition that emphasises the environment and the context in which the language is being used, has also provided a more recent theoretical basis for CLT. The research and the writings of Vygotsky laid the basis of social interactionism. Vygotsky (1978) was one of the firsts to draw the distinction between lower mental properties (i.e. unconscious perceptual systems) and higher mental functions (i.e. intellectual mental activities). In his view, culture, social interaction and the historical dimension (i.e. the circumstances under which the individual development occurs) heavily interact with the intellectual development of an individual. More precisely, Socio-Cultural Theory (SCT) maintains that while interacting with a more competent other, often in practices for which the child does not have a full understanding (“naive participation”, Fernyhough, 2004) – the child develops cognitively and learns new things, provided that the new concept(s) is within his/her pre-existing cognitive capacities, also known as Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD⁵), and he/she is given the right guidance (the expert’s role). As the child connects external and internal world and mediates social and individual functions, cognitive development occurs. Central to this creative process is the use of language, both inner and

⁵) ZPD is “the distance between a child’s actual development as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers” (Vygotsky, 1978:86).

external speech⁶⁾, other conceptual artifacts, such as concepts, forms of logic and rationality, and material tools, such as toys, objects, and so on.

The basic appeal of social interactionism in EFL classes is the equally weighted importance given to four main factors: 1) the teacher - seen as a facilitator⁷⁾ who helps learners to discover and make their own learning experiences; 2) the learners - seen as individuals who bring their own learning history, life experiences, and beliefs into the process of learning; 3) the task⁸⁾ - seen as the experience of learning, through which learners create their new knowledge while interacting with each other, and/or the teacher; and 4) the classroom - seen as the place where the learning is situated, which embeds the learner's intrapersonal and cultural world, as well as other physical properties. A schematic representation of this learning/teaching model, taken from Williams and Burden (1997), is included in Appendix 2.

A practical application of social interactionism in EFL classes is Communicative Language Teaching. CLT means different things for different people. Many experts (Nunan, 1991; Rodgers, 2001; Richards and Rogers, 2001; Spada, 2007) argue that CLT usually supports a wide variety of teaching techniques. Brown (2001) proposes the following four characteristics as a description of CLT:

1. Content-based. Typically, L2 language is used as a vehicle for L2 learning in CLT classes. Students focus on the use of language rather than on the process of language learning. This is achieved through the use of challenging and informative tasks that engage learners in communicative, real-world situations where they genuinely use L2 to agree/disagree, complain, make suggestions, give advice, and so on.
2. Whole language-based. Ideally, a CLT practitioner would see L2 as a complete communication system with four interacting aspects, i.e. phonological, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic, that equally contribute to the basic function of making meaning. To develop students' knowledge, teachers make use of language activities that integrate different skills, and invite learners to discover new lexical, grammatical, sociolinguistic, and discourse

⁶⁾ "Inner speech is not the interior aspect of external speech - it is a function in itself. It still remains speech, i.e., thought connected with words. But, where in external speech thought is embodied in words, in inner speech words die as they bring forth thought. Inner speech is to a large extent thinking in pure meanings" (Vygotsky, 1962:149).

⁷⁾ Bernstein (1990) rejects this term and emphasizes the active role of practitioners in students' learning. He argues (ibid, 1990: 64) that "the relationship basic to cultural reproduction or transformation is essentially pedagogical and the pedagogical relation consists of transmitters and acquirers".

⁸⁾ "Tasks are activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome" (Willis, 1996:23).

features with the ultimate goal of increasing their meaning-based communicative competence.

3. Learner-centred. A non-traditional role is given to students, and EFL teachers in a CLT class. The former are seen as individuals who bring their own learning history to class, capable of improving their L2 language proficiency while actively giving and receiving information in communicative activities. Students are also believed to be capable of selecting effective strategies in the process of transmitting and receiving information. Whereas the latter, also known as “facilitators”, talk less and listen more in a CLT class. Teachers assume the role of a coach who provides plenty of opportunities for learners to use their language, motivates them to engage and perform the task, creates a non-threatening environment, and so on.
4. Cooperative. Typically, L2 students will work in pairs of two or groups of three/four students in a CLT class. Underlying this procedure, there is the belief that languages are best learned with the help of the others through use and exposure. Donato (1994) researched this issue and found that collective scaffolding⁹⁾ was a very common pattern in CLT classes in the classes he researched in the USA where the seating was arranged in a way that allows learners to clearly see and hear each other. There are usually 12-15 students in a CLT class.

The use of this approach in L2 classes can be advantageous for students. Firstly, CLT can stimulate students’ motivation (Savignon, 2010). As students are engaged in meaningful activities in CLT classes, they are more likely to enjoy this way of learning. Secondly, it helps learners to build their confidence as tasks are often carried out in small groups, and students feel no real need to talk in front of the whole class (Belchamber, 2007). Thirdly, because the learning is carried out mainly by the learners themselves, they are likely to develop “the ability to continue learning after the end of their formal education” Littlewood (1999:71).

2.8.2 Communicative Language Teaching drawbacks

CLT has been criticised on many grounds. Firstly, like any other L2 teaching method, CLT constitutes a “limited understanding” (Pennycook, 1989) of ELT since it is based on a particular Western view, and represents its social, cultural, political, and historical context. Holliday (1994) notes that Britain, Australasian, North American (BANA) specialists and materials do not take into

⁹⁾ “Scaffolding involves the interactive work participants engage in to highlights accomplish a task collaboratively” (Ellis, 2003:350).

account local teaching realities and, thus, the applicability of CLT in non-English speaking countries can be questionable. Secondly, it has been pointed out (Holliday, 1994; Hinkel, 2005) that the CLT teaching approach does not meet the learning expectation of non-Western country students and teachers who are used to teacher-centred learning, and teaching practices. Thirdly, one can argue that the implementation of CLT in big classes can generate much noise, and the teacher can find it hard to make sure students use the L2 to complete the task. Fourthly, EFL students usually lack outside opportunities for using the target language. This factor can also lead to a lack of motivation to learn (Tomlinson, 2005).

CLT might also pose challenges for EFL teachers. Indeed, EFL teachers new to CLT can find it difficult to make an informed choice about how and what to teach from this framework in their classes since “CLT can be seen as an umbrella term that describes a change in thinking about the goals and processes of classroom language learning with a number of interpretations of how this might be realized in practice” (Hall, 2011:93). Advice about CLT pedagogy has often been conflicting and therefore confusing. To illustrate the point, some CLT experts (Carroll and Swain, 1993) argue that errors should be predicted and treated before they are made; others suggest on-the-spot feedback and clarification requests (Pica, 1997; Lyster and Ranta, 1997); others recommend a delayed feedback (Edge, 1989; Ferris, 2002); whereas others (Truscott, 1996; Loewen, 1998; Krashen, 2004) claim that error correction does not accelerate learners’ L2 acquisition at all. In addition, the L2 proficiency level of non-native speaker (NNS) EFL teachers can be another limitation (Jeon and Hahn, 2006).

Lastly, the theoretical foundations on which CLT is based have also been questioned. As seen above, in a CLT perspective, “communication” means achieving a purpose or expressing a notion. Therefore, L2 students are encouraged to choose a grammar or lexical item in accordance with meaning (i.e. function/notion) they want to express. A number of scholars (Widdowson, 1979; 1993; 1998; Benati, 2009) have pointed out that this correlation between forms and meaning might be misleading because not all grammatical/lexical items have explicit illocutionary associations.

Communicative language teaching has, of course, influenced not only L2 teaching around the world, but also the production of commercial EFL textbooks. In the next section, I discuss “communicativeness” in EFL textbooks.

2.9 Communicativeness in published textbooks

In this section, I explore the main types of textbooks used in CLT classes, and explain what is meant by “communicativeness” in EFL textbooks. The insights obtained from this literature review, coupled with the current state of knowledge on CLT discussed in the previous section, helped me to investigate how communicatively the four participating teachers in this study used the textbook in their classes. This body of knowledge will also help readers to gain a comprehensive understanding of the concept of “communicativeness” both in communicative classes, and in communication-based materials.

The three main syllabi developed for CLT, and commonly used in communicative classes around the world, are skills-based, functional-notional, and task-based (Richards, 1990; Brown, 1994). The former focuses on the development of four skills. The content pages of skills-based course-books are often set out according to reading/speaking/listening/writing micro-skills, such as recognising language that signals a new idea, asking for clarification, and so on. A notional-functional syllabus, as the name suggests, is based around notions (i.e. time, quantity, measurements) and functions (i.e. the purpose for which language is used) L2 students need to perform for each different context (Richards and Rogers, 2001). For example, the notion of socialising involves several language functions, such as greeting, being polite, and so on, and students are required to perform all/some of these functions while socialising with each other in class. The task-based syllabus, according to Nunan (2004), lays out the tasks students should perform during each class, such as booking a hotel room, applying for a job, and so on.

Reflecting a movement towards an L2 teaching/learning approach based on Halliday’s Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL) work (Halliday, 1994), text-based syllabi have also been designed and used particularly in the Australian ESL context. A text-based syllabus typically “uses text as the basis for developing tasks and activities for the classroom” (Burns, 2006:237). It is based around text-types (e.g. narratives, opinion texts, descriptions, procedures, and so on) used in different social contexts. It teaches how grammar, vocabulary, and functions are structured in relation to those contexts. The syllabus also outlines and teaches grammar, reading, writing, and communication through the mastery of text. Text-based syllabi have not been widely used in Europe and North America.

Most commercial textbooks claim to approach the teaching of English communicatively. Nevertheless, the extent to which the key tenets of CLT inform the content and organisation of published course books has been strongly questioned. Firstly, rather than using authentic language – which prepares learners to participate in “real-world” language events by developing strategies for dealing with its

complexity (Rilling and Dantas-Whitney, 2009) - most course books use tailored texts to help learners' understanding of the target language (Gilmore, 2007). Secondly, mirroring the components involved in real communication, i.e. - engaging in meaningful interaction to get new information, producing language that might not be predictable, seeking to link language to context, and maintaining comprehensible and ongoing communication (Richards, 2006) - the majority of commercial textbooks contain communicative tasks that aim to put learners in a position where they have to use their linguistic and communicative resources in order to obtain purposeful information (e.g. imaginary shopping at a grocery store). However, while these tasks put learners in realistic simulations of real-world situations, they are not classroom-based communication tasks that involve the skills used in real life, as would be the case when one student asks another student to correct the mistakes the teacher found in her writing. Therefore, one can argue that communication-based textbooks contain many tasks that are not real for students. Thirdly, most commercial textbooks contain visual clues, colourful pictures, authentic texts, and interesting topics to enable learners' appropriate responses to materials. Since CLT is a learner-centred approach, the importance of obtaining a positive response from learners is understandable. Yet, for obvious reasons, textbooks published for international use cannot cater to the learning and linguistic needs of particular students who live in a particular place, and share the same particular culture and particular social norms. Therefore, it can be argued that all commercially published materials lack authenticity (Mishan, 2005).

Ideally, a CLT practitioner would see L2 as a complete communication system with four interacting aspects (phonological/syntactic/semantic/pragmatic) which equally contribute to the basic function of making meaning. Consequently, to develop students' knowledge, there is a need to use language activities that integrate different skills, and invite learners to discover new lexical, grammatical, sociolinguistic, and discourse features with the ultimate goal of increasing their meaning-based communicative competence. Commercial textbooks are criticised in this respect because they do not "make enough use of engaging and intensive reading and listening texts" (Masuhara et al., 2008:310) to stimulate multi-dimensional (sensory, cognitive and affective) responses in learners.

Concluding, many researchers (for example, Van den Branden, 2006; Tomlinson, 2007; Burns and Hill, 2013) are of the opinion that the majority of commercial course books "are largely stuck in the behaviourist Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) way of working" (Burns and Hill, 2013:244). PPP-based syllabi have been criticised for simplifying L2 grammar structures to the point that learners are exposed to a straightforward L2 grammatical system based on rule generalisation

rather than on the real, problematic L2 grammar system (Willis, 1990; Evans, 1999). In addition, decisions made by material writers regarding the language and skills to include in a PPP-based syllabus, as well as the order of grammar presentation, have also received criticism as they are merely based on the intuition of the textbook authors (Brown, 2007).

2.10 Part 3 summary

In part 3 of this literature review, I discussed the concept of communicativeness in both communicative classes and communication-based textbooks. The major themes identified in this discussion are: 1) CLT can mean different things for different people, and EFL teachers can have difficulties in defining and implementing it; 2) despite claiming to base their methodology on CLT, the majority of commercial course books are stuck in the behaviourist teaching methodology. These themes emerged from a careful and complete look at the academic books, articles, and research documents related to communicativeness in CLT classes and communication-based textbooks.

The scope of the review in part 3 was driven by the research focus of the present enquiry. So was the scope of the review in part 1 (i.e. understanding the process of teacher decision making), and part 2 (contextualising the present project). The knowledge obtained by the literature reviewed in all three parts of this chapter connects the present study to previous research in the domains of teacher decision making, EFL teachers' use of communication-based materials, and CLT implementation in EFL contexts. It places existing work in the context of its contribution to the understanding of how and why EFL teachers use communication-based materials in their classes. At the same time, the knowledge obtained by the literature reviewed in this chapter places the present project within the context of existing research in these three domains by identifying areas of controversy that need further research. Indeed, there is a lack of empirical research studies investigating how EFL teachers use communication-based textbooks in their classes by taking into account both conscious and unconscious teachers' decisions, as well as by investigating all the factors that facilitate the interaction between materials and the other elements of the classroom ecology. This study adds to the current literature by taking steps towards fulfilling these gaps.

To fully understand the instructional decisions of Albanian EFL teachers, in the next chapter, I describe in detail the particular context in which the learning and teaching of English takes place in Albania, and discuss how the internal and external factors identified in this chapter affect Albanian EFL teachers' practices.

Chapter 3

ENVIRONMENTAL CONSTRAINS AND OPPORTUNITIES

3.1 Introduction

The present study is based on the teaching of English as a foreign language in Albanian state schools. This chapter provides a brief description of the past and present social, cultural, political, and educational context in Albania. Setting the present study within its historical and educational context will help readers to better understand the participants' thoughts and actions, the findings of this enquiry, and the present project as a whole.

The chapter first provides a historical background of the country, emphasising the similarities that education systems in East European ex-communist countries share in section 3.2. The particular context in which the learning and teaching of English takes place in the country is described in detail in section 3.3 by considering the aspects of foreign language learning and teaching, L2 use, L2 teacher education and development, and official L2 policies in Albania. A detailed analysis of a commercial textbook commonly used in the country follows. Finally, a discussion of the specific factors affecting EFL in the Albanian context is provided in section 3.4.

3.2 Part of the communist camp

The history of modern Albania begins with the end of Ottoman rule in 1912, when the country declared its independence. After a period of political and economic instability, the Albanian Communist Party was founded during the Second World War, and the country began to embrace socialism towards the end of 1944. During the communist era, the country – a founding member of the Warsaw Pact¹⁰⁾ – established close ties with the Soviet Union, and other East European communist countries. In 1968, Albania formally left the Soviet Block and allied with the People's Republic of China for almost ten years. Afterwards, Albania retreated into isolation from the capitalist West, and from the communist East for over twenty years (Vickers, 2001). In 1992, after two years of massive anti-communist protests, the history of the People's Republic of Albania ended, and the epoch of the democratic Republic of Albania began.

¹⁰⁾ "The Warsaw Pact, so called because the treaty was signed in Warsaw in May 1955, was a mutual military assistance alliance that included the Soviet Union and all the Eastern European communist countries" (Todd, 2011:110).

During the communist period, the country underwent radical socioeconomic transformations. As in all the other countries of the Soviet Block, Albania's economy was overwhelmingly based on state ownership, and was governed by five-year plans. It focused upon heavy industry, and followed paths of extensive development, which led to inefficiencies and shortage economies (Gjonca, 2001; Berend, 2009), as well as food and consumer goods shortages. It is generally acknowledged that the total binding up of the political and economic sectors brought about changes in the civil society of the East European communist countries as well. The totalitarian one-party control of all the major aspects of life forced a great number of East European residents to develop conformity with the authorities, suppress and hide their critical thinking, and display servile behaviours because "showing political loyalty to the ruling party was often linked to material privileges" (Martin and Drahokoupil, 2010:2).

Drastic changes were introduced in the education sector of all Warsaw member states as the regimes in those countries implemented a framework of various Soviet-like policies and initiatives that sought to create a state-based education system which was free for all citizens (Goldman, 1990). It is recognised that the educational systems in those countries reflected the communist ideological propaganda, and imposed tight ideological control over teachers and students through the use of institutionally prescribed syllabi and textbooks (Grant, 1979; Noah, 1986). In addition, attempts were made to link the education system with the needs of each country's economy by engaging students in manual labour practices. After-work and after-school public places - such as "the network of libraries, theatres, clubs, cinemas, houses of culture, etc." (Dutt, 1963:48) - were also established in all East-European communist countries to aid the educational and cultural needs of children, youngsters, and workers.

Regarding foreign language teaching, Russian was widely studied as an L2 in most of the secondary schools of East European communist countries (Fuhrer, 1998). It is generally accepted that, following the didactic approach promoted by the regime communists, L2 teachers in the countries of the Communist Bloc adopted a rigid teaching approach in their everyday practice that emphasised rote learning and reduced students' critical thinking (Stephens and Roderick, 1975; Goldman, 1990). This teaching style suited well the teaching capacities of the first generations of teachers in those countries as Warsaw Pact countries faced a lack of specialists, a lack of resources and materials, and other common challenges during the early regime years (Hoffmann, 1992; Berend, 2009). As regards the teaching of L2, it is generally accepted that many L2 teachers in Warsaw Pact countries, similar to the majority of non-native L2 teachers in other countries in that time, "felt unsafe about using the language they had to teach" (Medgyes, 1983:2). In addition, it is

acknowledged that L2 teachers in East-European communist countries had little awareness of the existence of other L2 teaching approaches due to the fact that L2 methodologies of Western origin, such as CLT, Task-based Learning (TBL), and so on, hardly penetrated the iron curtain that separated the Communist and the Capitalist camps (Eklof and Dneprov, 1993; Catlaks, 2005).

3.3 Specifics of L2 teaching and learning in Albania

Although education systems in all East European communist countries developed in the same way (Webber and Liikanen, 2001), L2 learning and teaching in Albania features its own profile dictated by the combination of the following three unique contextual factors: 1) the country's economic situation (Albania was, and is, on a lower stage of economic development than other East European countries); 2) its cultural difference (Albania is a Muslim-majority country while the culture of the other ex-members of the Warsaw camp countries were shaped and founded on Christian values); and 3) its lack of liberalisation experienced during the pre-transition communist period (Hazans and Trapeznikova, 2006).

3.3.1 L2 learning and teaching in the country

During the years 1945-1970, Russian was the main foreign language taught in Albanian secondary schools. Similar to the way other subjects were delivered in Eastern European schools, Albanian language teachers took the Soviet educational standard, and developed their everyday lessons around it using a traditional, rigid, teacher-centred methodology (Dyrmishi, 2001). The traditional approach considers language learning "as little more than memorising rules and facts in order to understand and manipulate the morphology and syntax of the foreign language" (Richards and Rogers, 2001:5). Consequently, EFL classes during the years 1945-1992 mainly focused on grammar, and "the only L2 'speaking activity' taking place in the class was translation drills from L1 to L2 or vice-versa" (Dyrmishi, 2001:25).

Albanian students began to learn either English or French as an L2 in the early 1970s, after Albania sided with the Communist Republic of China, and broke off diplomatic relations with Russia in the late 1960s. This political change encompassed major transformations in all spheres of life in the country, including the education sector. Several reforms were implemented to purge the schools and textbooks of the Soviet influence, and Russian was no longer the dominant L2 taught in the

country. Nevertheless, the Soviet methods of pedagogy and psychology continued to influence the teaching norm in Albania (Seferaj, 2010).

Since communism was overthrown in 1992, Albanian democratic governments have continually emphasised the need for Albanian students to be fluent in English. To achieve this major goal, EFL teachers in the country are required to adopt learner-centred teaching approaches in their classes, which aim to develop Albanian students' speaking abilities, in addition to the development of their grammar, reading, writing, and listening skills. Additionally, authorities have proposed the use of CLT as a classroom framework that features the types of interactions and procedures needed to translate the general curriculum guidelines into practical classroom units (Qano, 2005).

Nowadays, Albanian students start learning a foreign language at grade three (when they are ten years old), and attend three classes weekly until the age of fifteen, when they leave school (grade nine). Students who continue their education in higher levels attend four L2 classes every week (two of which are in English) during their high school and university course. Thus, most Albanian students take two to three EFL classes weekly for a ten/twelve-year period under the current national education system (Albanian Ministry of Education (MASH) official statistics, 2009).

3.3.2 L2 speaking in the country

There are three main foreign languages spoken in the country: Italian, Greek, and English. None of them is an official L2, although English is the dominant language learned in state schools and private tuition classes (MASH official statistics, 2008). Nevertheless, the environment outside the classroom provides fewer opportunities to practise English than to speak Italian and Greek. Italy is Albania's main trade partner and, consequently, Italian is the most commonly used language in the country's business with foreigners (Tirana Chamber of Commerce and Industry Statistics, 2011). Greece is home to more than six hundred thousand Albanian residents, which has contributed to the formation of a Greek speaking community in Albania - composed of repatriated families returning to their home country after several years of working and attending schools in Greece (Shorra, 2008).

Italian and Greek television programmes are widely watched throughout Albania, whereas British and American transmissions are received by satellite. Hence, there are considerably fewer viewers in the country. Still, English songs and movies are often broadcast on national television channels.

3.3.3 L2 teacher education and development in the country

There are six state universities in Albania that offer a four-year undergraduate course which leads to a bachelor degree (B.A.) in ELT, and qualifies graduates to teach in the state sector. The programme, very similar in all six universities, seeks to develop students' competence in L2. It covers the core areas of English language, i.e. grammar, syntax, phonology, morphology, lexicology, as well as the study of British and American history and literature. In addition, the programme includes compulsory modules that cover the Albanian language syntax, morphology, lexicology, and literature in the first two years (see Appendix 3). The emphasis on L1 studies gives insight into the teaching methodology that this undergraduate course promotes: the transmission-learning route. A number of scholars (Stern, 1983; Richards, 2002; Cook, 2013) argue that viewing the learning of a foreign language as a means of improving students' awareness of their own language is a typical feature of traditional teaching approaches. The traditional teaching methodology adopted in this programme is also manifested in the way lectures and seminars are conceptualised, and in the assessment tools employed. Most modules are taught in L1 by means of transmission of knowledge from the lecturer to the students, and students' progress is mainly assessed through oral and written examinations.

The BA in ELT course also seeks to introduce students to the skills needed to become a teacher. To this end, students take several ELT modules (methodology, pedagogy and sociology) during the third year, and a twenty-hour hands-on-teaching experience is scheduled during the fourth year. However, the teaching practicum is taken away from the university, usually in a primary or secondary school where it is often either not observed at all, or supervised by inadequately trained teachers from local schools. Therefore, very often, "the teaching practicum does not give the student actual teaching experience and/or developmental feedback" (Seferaj and Dyrnishi, 2006).

Continuing training opportunities are relatively scarce in Albania (Bani, 2009). Every five years, in-service teachers are required to participate in two formal two-hour training seminars in order to be promoted to a higher qualification category. Another training event conducted periodically is peer/chair observation of classes. Albanian authorities require teachers to hold one "open lesson" a year. During an open lesson, a teacher welcomes the headmaster and other three or four colleagues who observe the instructor teaching his/her class. Cosh (1999:25) notes that "peer observation can help to improve the skills of the observed teacher if the observation is followed by good quality constructive feedback". Unfortunately, my experience as an Albanian secondary school teacher shows that most observers do not take an active role when they observe peers; they just sit at the

back of the classroom and appear to take notes. Thus, it is arguable whether observation sessions can generate the kind of feedback that will support the development of Albanian state school practitioners.

Additionally, several agreements have been signed by the Albanian Ministry of Education and its international partners to provide professional development opportunities for Albanian EFL teachers. For example, through the “Train the trainer” programme the British Council Albania have trained a number of local EFL teachers to act as teacher development coordinators. Likewise, the English Language Teachers Association of Albania (ELTA) organises a workshop and/or a seminar every year, and outside agencies (e.g. the British Council Albania, and the US Agency for International Development (USAID)) run several training events for Albanian EFL practitioners. Yet, the 2011 ELTA seminar was not attended by a large number of Albanian EFL teachers, and participation levels in the other activities held in Tirana are also generally low as the distance from the capital city seems to be an obstacle to participation (Kamberaj, 2011a).

3.3.4 L2 Learning policy in the country

Since communism was overthrown in the early 1990s, all East-European ex-communist countries went through similar radical changes (Dörnyei et al., 2006). In Albania, a large-scale educational reform has implemented a new curriculum for the whole of the primary and secondary education sectors. As part of the new educational policy, English classes have been introduced at an early age (eight years old instead of eleven), and the importance of English as lingua franca has been continually emphasised. Indeed, to motivate Albanian EFL teachers to work harder, a decision was made in 2008 (Decree 186) to compensate maths and L2 teachers at a higher level than teachers of other subjects. Likewise, to prompt Albanian students to improve their level of English, all master and doctorate candidates are required to present proof of English language proficiency (IELTS overall Band 5.5) before degrees are issued by Albanian post-secondary education institutions (Decree 14/2012). Lastly, to re-emphasise the need for Albanian students to be fluent in a foreign language, authorities decided in April 2014 to add the foreign language to the two obligatory exams (i.e. Albanian language and literature, and mathematics) taken to complete secondary education in Albania.

The reforms have been carefully planned with the involvement of foreign experts. However, Albanian authorities are now being faced with the need to work with the public to gain acceptance of these reforms. Among several financial, organisational, and dissent challenges, the authorities admit that

“the change of philosophical orientation is a particular problem, notably with some teachers”, (Qano, 2005:24). To encourage non-traditional approaches and to disseminate the new teaching approaches, authorities in Albania are piloting new learner-centred approaches throughout the country. In addition, authorities in Albania have translated key reform concepts into a specific four-page instructional classroom guide handed out to teachers. The guide consists of four main components: 1) using L2 as a vehicle for L2 learning; 2) using language activities that integrate the four skills; 3) using collaborative learning methods; and 4) embracing a new non-traditional teacher role. The guide explains briefly why and how the above-mentioned approaches should be implemented in the classroom, and its aim is “to give teachers an understanding of the four basic concepts related to communicative, student-centred teaching” (Qano, 2005:32).

In addition, authorities in the country are requiring Albanian EFL teachers to prepare a new student-centred lesson plan that includes individual student profiles, main aims and objectives, subsidiary aims and objectives, personal aims, assumptions, problems and solutions, timing, interaction, stage, procedure, and rationale (source: MASH annual report 2007/2008). The official lesson plan format, which is similar to the template for preparing a lesson plan Cambridge English Language Assessment recommends for the Certificate in English Language Teaching to Adults (CELTA) candidates, depends upon the type of class teachers are teaching. Once teachers decide upon the focus of the class (e.g. grammar, listening, speaking, writing, and so on), they need to plan the steps or stages to sequence their lessons. According to the research participants in this study, the explanation notes that accompany the official lesson plan format, released in September 2006, clarify that teachers can choose among the following lesson stages: lead-in, prediction, language presentation, controlled-practice, freer practice, feedback, and revision. Likewise, teachers are asked to choose among the following interaction modes: whole class, pair work, group work, and individual work. Teachers are also required to describe what they are doing during each stage of the lesson (procedure), as well as to give a clear purpose for each activity/stage they plan (rationale). Lastly, to reflect on their own practices, the explanation notes also ask teachers to consider a number of post-lesson self-evaluation questions, such as: What modes of interaction did I use? Did I try to involve the whole class? Did I use pair/group work in my lesson? Was the lesson too easy or too hard for the students? Was there any problem I had not anticipated? What worked best about my lesson? What would I change if I did the same lesson again? Teachers’ reflections on different aspects related to teaching should provide the basis for the completion of the “personal aim” category (recommendation given in the explanation notes). Examples of the lesson plans the participating teachers wrote are shown in Appendices 32, 37, 39, and 40.

Albanian EFL teachers are required to complete the lesson plan in Albanian. A possible explanation for this requirement is provided by one of the participants in this research, teacher Elona, who believes that

Since lesson plans are checked by the school principals on a regular basis, (pause) and since not all school principals are English teachers, so (pause) it makes sense to prepare the lesson plans in Albanian [Source: IR].

More importantly, to mainstream the philosophical orientation of teachers, as well as to help them assimilate and put in practice learner-centred principles, authorities are transferring many responsibilities, including the provision of learning materials, to local schools and teachers. Until 2006, Albanian EFL teachers used an officially-prescribed EFL course book. Nowadays they are given the freedom to choose any EFL textbook they wish, as long as it reflects the priorities and the methodology of the new educational reform. This decentralised approach, however, raises a fundamental concern. As argued in the previous chapter, textbooks can play an important role in the professional lives of EFL teachers if they embody certain essential features of communicative language teaching. However, there is currently no authority in the country to review and control the relevance, content, educational approach, and efficacy of the textbooks EFL teachers choose to use in their classes. It is, therefore, not possible to ensure that the materials selected by teachers reflect government educational policies.

To summarise, Albanian EFL teachers, who, as argued in section 3.3.3, are likely to hold traditional beliefs about L2 learning and teaching based in their previous learning experiences, are given the freedom to select any textbook that claims to be based on CLT in their classes. Nevertheless, little is known about how they interpret the textbooks they chose in their classrooms.

3.3.5 EFL textbooks used in the country

There are no official initiatives in the development and publishing of EFL materials in Albania as authorities provide little funding for local publishers to design tailored textbooks that reflect the local learning and teaching context. Therefore, the provision of EFL textbooks for primary and secondary schools rests with multinational EFL publishers. A study by Kamberaj, (2011b) that monitored the sales of the Albanian representatives of several EFL publishing houses found that Express Publishing Ltd. occupied around 65% of the Albanian market in the year 2010, while Oxford University Press, Macmillan English, and Cambridge University Press shared 17%, 12% and 6% of

the sales, respectively. These numbers are reflective of both the primary and secondary state and private education market.

Among different EFL materials, “Blockbuster”, “Access”, and “Click On” (all three published by Express Publishing Ltd in 2009, 2008, and 2008 respectively) are the cheapest, and the most commonly used course books in Albanian secondary state schools (Kamberaj, 2011b). All three series are designed for beginner to intermediate learners, are based on the principles of the Common European Framework of Reference, and “combine active English learning with a variety of lively topics presented in themed modules” (Evans and Dooley, 2008:3). Two of the four teachers participating in this study used “Access” as the main textbook in their classes; one used “Blockbuster”, and the other “Opportunities”.

The following section provides a brief description of the students’ book “Access 3”. This discussion should be viewed as a way of getting inside the textbook and discovering what is there, rather than a systematic evaluation of the textbook. Such a discussion, also known as “material analysis” (Tomlinson, 2003; Littlejohn, 2011), aims “to understand what assumptions and beliefs lie beneath the surface and what effects can be anticipated” (McGrath, 2013:53). Therefore, it fulfils the purpose of familiarising readers with a textbook widely-used in the country, and informing them about the extent to which the textbook possesses the most common communicative characteristics identified in section 2.8.1.

A three-level material analysis framework, proposed by Littlejohn (2011:185) and shown below, is used as the basis for the analysis conducted in the next section.

1. What is there: objective description
2. What is required of users: focus on tasks, their content, what the learner is expected to do, and who with
3. What is implied: deducing aims, principals of selection and sequence, teacher and learner roles and demands on the learner’s process competence, such as the ability to draw on knowledge, skills, abilities, and attitudes

3.3.6 Analysis of the course-book “Access 3”

“Access 3 – pre-intermediate” is designed to be covered in 80 hours. It contains 11 modules. Each module focuses on a particular theme, and all the texts and activities within a unit are related to that particular theme. For example, module one is organised around *lifestyles*, module three around *travel*,

module four around *the media*, and so on. Each module contains six units, and is divided into six main components: grammar; vocabulary; reading and listening; speaking and functions; writing; and culture/curricular. A detailed overview of all the course components can be found in the introductory table of contents (see Appendix 4). All units contain mainly short activities that *fit well into the 45-minute lesson timetable* – as one of the participants in this study, Miss Ada, claimed.

The first two units of each module contain mainly reading and writing activities that serve the purposes of informing learners about the use and the meaning of the target language, as well as introducing new lexical items. For example, as shown in Appendix 5, there are three reading passages in the units 3a and 3b (i.e. Jules’ undersea lodge, Edinburgh’s ghost walks, and Cool sports) which illustrate the use of the present perfect in context. These passages do not give any useful information students can use outside of the classroom (as could give, for example, a *What’s on this weekend in the city* passage, a text on how to use Windows 8.1, and so on); they seem to be used for the mere purpose of focusing students on language use, rather than to “close the language gap between classroom knowledge and real life” (Guariento and Morley, 2001: 347). The textbook contains less than ten passages that might help students develop their skills for the real world by giving them useful information. For example, there is one short article on the abbreviations commonly used in emails (module 5), a bulletin on how to make a purchase on the internet (module 7), and so on.

As regards the listening materials, an attempt is made to represent speech in different accents at a normal speaking rate (i.e. “the rate at which a speaker reads aloud a continuous prose text” (Preiss and Gayle, 2006:316), but the scripted recordings lack some key features of everyday speech, such as repetitions, hesitations, and unplanned interruptions. Both listening and reading sections follow a topic-based approach.

The listening and reading passages are often followed either by traditional comprehension checking questions, i.e. true or false statements, wh-questions, and fill-in-the-blank sentences, or by tasks that promote both understanding of the text and communication, like the one shown below:



Figure 3.1: Speaking exercise illustration (“Access 3”, student-book, page 85)

Comprehension exercises (see Appendix 5, unit 3b, exercise 2 for an example) often accompany reading and listening passages. In addition, there are “word power” headings, “vocabulary” sections, and vocabulary-development exercises dispersed all through the textbook. “Word power” headings are rubrics reserved for the interpretation of multiple words and phrases (e.g. unit 1 introduces three different uses of the verb “feel”, unit 4 introduces four uses of the verb “make”, and so on). Vocabulary sections build upon familiar topics for students, and concentrate on learning new words in lexical sets. For example, unit 1 introduces synonyms, or words with a similar meaning/use related to the category “job”, unit 2 to “feelings”, unit 6 to “teenage problems”, and so on. Many of the vocabulary-development exercises focus on aspects of word knowledge. For example, exercise 7 (unit 1b) and exercise 5 (unit 2b) focus on the rules of word formation, and exercise 3 (unit 1a) and exercise 3 (unit 3c) focus on collocations. Students are usually asked to guess the meaning of new words from their context before they consult their dictionaries. The choice of the specific words that confirm the vocabulary input of the book seems to be appropriate for pre-intermediate students, as it explicitly addressed mainly vocabulary which is useful for learners at this level (i.e. “high-frequency vocabulary - traditionally operationalized as around the first 2,000 most frequent word families” Schmitt and Schmitt, 2012:2). Nevertheless, some passages include a number of low-frequency words (i.e. words beyond the 2,000 word families). For example, the words “bluebells”, “puffins”, “golden eagles” (see Figure 3.1 above). “Access 3” also contains numerous pronunciation activities designed to improve students’ pronunciation of individual sounds, word and sentence stress, as well as rhythm and intonation.

The course book features a strong morphological emphasis (such as using determiners, prepositions, singular and plural markings, and so on), and proceeds from apparently simple structures to more complicated ones (such as present simple, present continuous, past simple, present perfect, and so on). New grammatical structures or rules are presented inductively to the students in context by illustrating grammar structures in reading/listening passages that cover a wide range of topics that might be interesting for teenagers, such as celebrities, vampires, cool sports, travel, school, and so on. For example, exercise 1, unit 1 (see Appendix 6) first asks students to read the grammar rules and answer the question “How do you form the present simple?”, then to find examples of the present simple in the text. After reinforcing the rules from practical examples, students practise the structure in exercise 4 (Put the verbs in the brackets in the correct form of the present simple), and use the structure through practice of the language in context in exercise 5 (Put the words in the correct order. Then answer the questions: Where/you/live/do?). Therefore, it can be claimed that the textbook emphasises forms and functions of the language, as well as use.

The speaking and functions section adheres to a situational syllabus, as there are a number of tasks that aim to link the development of the language skills with the context in which to use the language by inviting learners to imagine something that inspires them for creative writing and speaking. For example, exercise 3 on page 37 (see Appendix 7) invites learners to imagine they are lifeguards and gives visual clues to motivate students to use their own speech. Likewise, the authors often use open-ended questions in discussions to take into account different learners' competences and needs. For example, exercise 4b on page 30 (see Appendix 5) invites students to discuss the question "What makes this place out of the ordinary?" (as opposed to "What are the two/three things related to the climate that make this place out of ordinary?") so that students of different levels of proficiency in L2 can have their own say, based on their understanding of the passage. In addition, the majority of the units include a "think" rubric that aims to develop students' critical thinking and their cognitive domain by asking questions such as "Should children work? Why/Why not?" (page 77); "Which of the following would you prefer: fame, wealth, or happiness? Why?" (page 110); "Does advertising influence your choices? To what extent?" (page 111), and so on.

"Access 3" emphasises pair and group work as it continually asks students to complete activities in their pairs/groups. Moreover, it provides a great number of controlled question-and-answer speaking activities, and targets some communicative speaking tasks designed with information gap as the central principle (see exercise 2, Appendix 7 for an example). However, the textbook features a limited number of authentic tasks - defined by Tomlinson, 2011:IX as "tasks which involve learners in using language in a way that replicates its use 'in the real world' outside the language classroom" - that put L2 speakers in a position where they have to use their linguistic and communicative resources to obtain purposeful information. To illustrate the point, exercise 5 on page 6 (see Appendix 6), and many other similar activities embodied in the textbook, might be used to a certain extent as genuine informative communicative activities when students do not know each other very well. Yet, used in an EFL class in a small city of Albania, in a context where students know each other, and their families very well, the only interest students might have in asking and answering these kinds of questions is that of displaying the correct use of the simple present.

The syllabus also devotes some time to the development of writing skills, such as paragraphing, and writing a thesis statement with supporting sentences and linkers, through the use of several portfolio tasks, as exemplified below:



Figure 3.2: Writing exercise illustration (“Access 3”, student-book, page 94.)

To summarise, “Access 3” contains many visual clues, colourful pictures, coherent content, a number of authentic texts, and interesting topics to prompt learners’ responses to materials. Nonetheless, despite the fact that there are a number of reading and listening texts that can be used for explanatory and informative purposes, the majority of the materials used in this textbook seem to have been tailored to encourage students to discover and practise specific L2 linguistic items, rather than help them to make discoveries about the language or to enable learning beyond just simple practice of the L2. Lastly, the authors of “Access” seem to believe that languages are primarily learned by building a solid grammatical stock of knowledge as its content is mainly centred around grammatical items.

3.4 Other factors affecting EFL in Albania

The following common environmental features might also influence what Albanian EFL teachers do in their classrooms:

- Albanian students share traditional beliefs about learning. A study conducted by Seferaj and Dyrmishi (2006) found that the cultural and educational background that characterizes Albanian EFL learners has stemmed from the influence of their early grammar-based learning experiences, their parents’ expectations, and the perception of uncertainty that comes from the on-going efforts of Albanian authorities to overhaul the communist era’s pedagogical philosophy.
- The limited autonomy given to Albanian institutions to make their own policies. In Albania, most of the decisions about the organisation of instruction, personnel-management decisions, and so on are made at the central level.

- Albanian EFL students' L2 use and needs. The International Network of Albanian Student Associations (INASA) estimates that less than 10% of Albanian students were enrolled in traditional university programmes in English speaking countries during the academic year 2010-2011. This number might indicate that Albanian students are not necessarily interested in achieving high levels of communicative competence in English since the majority of them do not plan to continue their academic life in English speaking countries.
- The examination syllabus. At present, the teaching of Albanian EFL practitioners is mainly evaluated through national tests (such as the National Maturity Exam of English) designed to assess the students' knowledge of grammatical competence, reading comprehension, and writing skills. Therefore, focus on grammar explanations and exercises are perceived as must-do activities by both Albanian teachers and students.
- Parents' expectations. It is estimated (Kamberaj, 2002) that one in three Albanian students attends private EFL courses, and most Albanian families positively affect their offspring's L2 learning.
- Albanian EFL teachers' knowledge about the subject of English. It can be argued that NNS teachers possess an understanding of language rules and feel that grammar is their strong point. Consequently, they are more likely to conduct accuracy-based activities in their EFL classes.

3.5 Conclusion

This chapter described the education sector in Albania during the years 1944-1992, and emphasised the effects of communism on East-European teachers' thinking. The description was followed by the specifics of L2 teaching and learning in Albania nowadays. I highlighted the various efforts of authorities in the country to implement several policies that aim to change the philosophical orientation of Albanian EFL teachers, and to support learner-centred teaching approaches. Among others, authorities have introduced a number of top-down policy directives, such as a communicative syllabi in 2006, and the requirement to develop a new student-centred daily lesson plan which includes details about students' learning goals, minimal and maximal learning objectives, lesson procedures, lesson descriptions, and the means of evaluation. In addition, Albanian EFL teachers are officially required to use in their classes course books, and other teaching materials that provide learners with some communicative functional input. Underlying all these institutional

initiatives, there is the perception that the communist system of education is neither efficient nor appropriate for the new democratic epoch.

Yet, it has been pointed out that learner-centred approaches often do not meet the learning expectations of non-Western students and teachers who are used to teacher-centred learning and teaching practices (Savignon, 2010). It was seen previously in this chapter that this reflects the case of Albanian teachers and students. In addition, several other context-related factors that are likely to have shaped ELT in Albania were discussed in this chapter, and a course-book widely used in Albanian secondary schools was analysed.

The insights gained from the analysis of the particular teaching context were used in designing the main study, and in interpreting the findings of the study. The research methodology of the present study is described in the next chapter, and the findings are presented in chapter 5.

Chapter 4

RESEARCH DESIGN METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the design of the study. In addition to this brief introduction, it comprises seven other sections. Section 4.2 gives a brief description of the main research traditions and situates the study within an interpretivist approach. Section 4.3 provides details about the research design employed in this inquiry, and outlines the main trustworthiness and credibility concerns for the use of observations, interviews, emails, and verbal communication as main research tools in empirical studies. The next two sections, 4.4 and 4.5, attend to the issues of credibility and trustworthiness in qualitative research in general, and in the present study in particular. Section 4.6 explains the basic analytic processes involved in qualitative content analysis, and section 4.7 describes the approach to analysing and interpreting the data adopted in this study. Section 4.8 summarises the whole chapter.

4.2 Definition of terms

Research has been described as a systematic inquiry that asks questions, and collects and analyses data to answer these questions (Nunan, 1992a; Mukherji and Albon, 2009). The questions asked, the way problems or hypothesis are defined for inquiry, as well as the theoretical and methodological approach a researcher selects to answer the research questions are determined to a great extent by the researcher's beliefs regarding research. The set of basic beliefs regarding research is known as "paradigm" (Richards, 2003). The approach to research a researcher chooses is known as "tradition". Richards (2003:2) provides the following detailed definition for "tradition" – "the approach to research covering generally recognized territory and employing a generally accepted set of research methods".

Three main research traditions are widely recognised: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed-method. Each of these approaches use their own research methods (i.e. "means of gathering, analyzing, and interpreting data using generally recognized procedures" (Richards, *ibid*:2). In the paragraphs that follow, I discuss the differences in 1) the schools of thoughts behind each tradition; 2) types or research questions posed in the three main traditions; 3) the methods employed in these research approaches. This discussion will help readers understand the nature of the present inquiry.

4.2.1 Three main research traditions

All three research traditions assume, implicitly if not explicitly, that “the world is such that it could be the object of knowledge of a specified type” (Bhaskar, 2011:39). However, each approach uses different lenses through which it views and understands the world. From a quantitative perspective, there is one single unitary reality. The world and the universe operate by pre-established cause and effect laws. It is the goal of science to uncover the truth that lies in these elements external to researchers. To achieve this goal, researchers formulate a scientific hypothesis, based on experiences or direct observations, and discover knowledge by testing the truth or falsity of hypothetical statements through positive verification of observable elements and events (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Alternatively, researchers can use an inductive approach that starts with making observations and searching for a pattern, and finishes with the formulation of a theory that explains why the pattern occurs (if it occurs). In both cases, numerical data instruments that aim to measure and quantify the extent of the phenomenon must be chosen before the process of data collection begins. Additionally, researchers must separate themselves from the phenomenon they study to accurately “observe and measure independent facts about a single reality” (Healy and Perry, 2000).

The quantitative approach is the dominant research approach used in natural sciences. In the past, human behaviours and societies were seen as subjects to laws in the same way that the nature world was (Collins, 2010), and quantitative methods were widely employed to objectively measure and study phenomena, free of the bias of social experiences. However, “quantitative research has not identified any universal or unerring laws of human behaviour” (Johnson and Christensen, 2010:33), and a number of contemporary quantitative researchers tend to use probabilistic causes¹¹⁾, rather than deterministic laws of cause and effect, when they study human behaviours. Those researchers, also known as post-positivists, agree that social science research can only approximate reality (Guba, 1990). Contemporary positivist researchers assert that researchers’ background, knowledge, and values can influence what they study. Post-positivists can use qualitative approaches to provide a supportive role in quantitative projects (Denzin and Lincoln, 2007).

¹¹⁾ An example of a probabilistic statement is: “Adolescents who become involved with drugs and alcohol are more likely to drop out of high school than are adolescents who do not become involved with drugs and alcohol” (Johnson and Christensen, 2010:33).

Qualitative approaches are commonly employed to investigate the nature and causes of human behaviours, and the social world in general. Qualitative researchers hold the view that there is no objective reality. Instead, there are many subjective realities. People construct and create their realities as they interact socially with each other, and the specific world around them (Willis and Willis, 2007). Consequently, the realities constructed by people from the same cultural area may be similar as people living in the same group share the same language, traditions, viewpoints and practices. However, people's realities are not identical because each individual features his/her unique life experiences. The ultimate goal of qualitative research is to create new knowledge by understanding social behaviours and experiences through accessing the unique meaning individuals assign to their own realities (Patton, 1990; 2002; 2014). To achieve this end, qualitative researchers take an interest in a particular social or human aspect, and explore people's behaviours and interactions, as well as their knowledge, beliefs, and thinking related to that aspect. Qualitative researchers do not generally begin with a hypothesis or theory. Rather, "they generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meaning" (Creswell, 2003:9) after building a holistic picture of the situation under investigation.

"Qualitative research" is an umbrella term for a number of interpretive approaches that base their research practices on exploring social or human problems by studying phenomena in their natural setting. All interpretive researchers attempt "to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them" (Stein et al., 2012: 146), and are likely to rely on qualitative data collection methods and analyses. Qualitative researchers can also use quantitative methods, in addition to qualitative research approaches, to support and extend their description of the phenomena (Yin, 2003). The combination of quantitative and qualitative research methods is known as a "mixed-method research".

The term "mixed-method" is also used in the literature to convey an alternative theoretical lens for understanding the world, the nature of knowledge, and the role of the research. The mixed method tradition has strong associations with the philosophical perspective of pragmatics (Datta, 1997; Howe, 2004; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Pragmatists emphasise the central role of experience in constructing knowledge. According to them, living organisms, including humans, establish and maintain a coordinated transaction with their environment (Dewey, 1996 in Biesta, 2010). As the environmental conditions change, organisms tend to maintain their dynamic coordination with their environment and, consequently, in a tentative, experimental way, they learn how to adapt to new environmental conditions. This learning process, pragmatists claim, is not a discovery of "what is out there", but rather a process of

producing knowledge through the occurrence of experiences. Applied in social studies, this means that social experiences/processes have played a key role in creating the world. Therefore, the understanding of social changes is a way of knowing the world. The ultimate role of science is to enable better understanding of social phenomena (Elwood, 2010), and to develop knowledge through a range of methodologies. To achieve this goal, pragmatists argue that research questions, rather than a researcher's philosophical orientation, should determine the data collection and analysis to be applied in a scientific project.

Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) argue that the use of mixed method research has the advantages of 1) providing a better understanding of the context in which research participants live, work, study, and socialise (believed to be a disadvantage of quantitative research); and 2) minimising the bias of the researcher's personal interpretations (believed to be a disadvantage of qualitative research).

The review of the differences and similarities among the three main philosophical research orientations will help readers understand the ontological (i.e. beliefs on what constitutes reality and how people can understand what exists) and epistemological (i.e. what we know and how we judge the reality to be true) foundations of the present study, which are explained in the next section.

The research design of the present study is discussed in the following sections.

4.2.2 Theoretical orientation of the present study

For this particular study, I employed predominately an interpretivist/constructivist research approach based on socio-cultural theory (SCT) to investigate how and why four Albanian teachers use textbooks in their classes.

SCT is a theory of human mental functioning that argues that “developmental processes take place through participation in cultural, linguistic, and historically formed settings such as family life and peer interaction, and in institutional contexts like schooling and work places, to name only a few” (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006:197). It is associated with the work of Vygotsky who was one of the first to draw the distinction between lower mental properties (i.e. unconscious perceptual systems), and higher mental functions (i.e. intellectual mental activities). As explained in section 2.8.1, SCT proposes learning as “a higher order mental function organized and amplified through participation in culturally-organized activity” (Lantolf and Thorne, 2006:216).

Basing the research design of the present study on the socio-cultural theory means viewing teacher development as a process of socialisation that occurs within a community and at the same time is shaped by its surroundings. This view, that seeks to explore and understand teachers' practices by investigating a great number of social, personal, and contextual factors, is in line with the definition of teaching provided in chapter 2.

4.2.3 Research design employed in the present study

To provide an in-depth account of the participating teachers' practices and decisions, a case study design was used in the present study. The philosophical underpinnings of the case study design can be seen as based on the qualitative tradition as it views knowledge as constructed as opposed to created (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2003).

According to Yin (2003) a case study design is more appropriate when 1) the focus of the study is to answer "how" and "why" questions; 2) researchers cannot manipulate the behaviour of the participants in the study; 3) researchers want to cover contextual conditions because they believe they are relevant to the phenomenon under study; 4) the boundaries between the phenomenon being studied and context are not clear. As the present study is an inquiry of Albanian teachers' use of teaching resources in their classrooms ("the how"), and the factors that influence their decisions (the "why"), I conducted four case studies with a view to obtaining an illustrative picture of the process of teacher decision making within the context in which it occurred.

Case studies have the power to resonate experientially with a broad cross section of readers (Stake, 1995). Because case studies provide an in-depth understanding of the situation and meaning involved through the collection of comprehensive and robust data, they offer the readers "an vicarious experience of having been there" (Merriam, 1997:238). Through the experiences of the participant(s) and the analysis of the data, case studies can facilitate a greater understanding of the phenomenon, beyond the immediate case. Stake (1995) calls this intuitive, empirically-grounded generalization process "naturalistic generalization".

There are many ways of classifying case studies. Baxter and Jack (2008) categorise six main types which are not necessarily mutually exclusive. These case studies are: 1) explanatory (used to explore presumed causal links to find underlying principles); 2) exploratory (used to explore situations in which there is no clear, single set of outcomes); 3) descriptive (used to describe a phenomenon, and the real-life context in which it occurred); 4) multi-case studies (used to explore

differences within and between cases); 5) intrinsic (used with the intent to better understand a case, when the researcher has a genuine interest in the case); and 6) instrumental (used to accomplish something other than understanding a particular phenomenon). My study is an example of a multiple case study design, as I examined four teachers to understand the similarities and differences among their teaching practices, and the overall patterns that emerged in this context.

The case study design allows the use of a variety of research methods (Denscombe, 2010:62). The present study, while predominately qualitative, also used quantitative data collection and analysis as a way of mitigating weaknesses associated with the use of only qualitative or only quantitative research (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). In addition, because Miss Elona (one of the participating teachers in this project) did not consent to the use of recording devices in her classroom, the use of an observation grid, allowing for quantification, provided the only means of collecting data in her classes. Observation grids were also used with the other three participants and their findings complemented qualitative research findings for all case studies by providing quantitative data to triangulate with qualitative findings.

The qualitative and quantitative methods used in this study are discussed in detail in section 4.3.

4.2.4 Role of the researcher in the present study

While an understanding of the context is an important element of all research, there is always the risk that the investigator's previous knowledge (or the personal and political lenses through which an investigator views the context and the reality under scrutiny) influences and compromises data collection, data interpretations, and the reporting of findings in interpretative qualitative research (Silverman, 2000; Coon and Mitterer, 2007). Revealing the position of the researcher in the study is therefore essential.

I am an Albanian teacher who has taught EFL classes in both private and state schools in Albania for over seventeen years. Therefore, I possess substantial knowledge about the context in which the phenomenon under study exists. That means that, although I did not know the teachers participating in this research, I still possess a good understanding of the roles and responsibilities they hold. This body of knowledge, however, was not sufficient to create an egalitarian relationship with the research participants. As argued in the following paragraphs, the relationship between the researcher (myself) and the study participants was influenced by a number of factors, and I would

suggest that it is best described by the term “functional relationship”, i.e. relationship established with another person to establish meaning (Cohen et al., 2007).

To bracket personal biases during the inquiry process, I first enhanced my understanding of the relationship among the four main actors involved in interpretive research: the phenomenon under investigation (i.e. the Albanian teachers’ EFL practices), the participants (the four teachers who participated in this project), the context (the Albanian language education environment), and the researcher (me). Those are four interrelated components that continually inform and influence each other. My main role as a researcher in this quaternary was to co-construct the knowledge owned by the participants, while continually updating my knowledge of the context, as well as my assumptions about the phenomenon under investigation. A number of strategies were used to fulfill this role. The next two sections give a detailed account of the actions taken into consideration during the preparatory phase, while collecting field data, and when analysing the data.

4.3 Data collection methods used in the present study

As mentioned above, both quantitative and qualitative data collection methods were employed in the present study. This section provides information about the following research methods used in this research: interviews, observations, post-lesson evaluations, email discussions, and an email questionnaire. It first describes how an observation grid was employed to collect and analyse data quantitatively. Then, it explains how observations, email and verbal communication, lesson plans, and a questionnaire were used as qualitative methods in the present study. The advantages and drawbacks of each data collection method are also discussed.

4.3.1 Quantitative research tools

Unlike some research that has investigated cognition through teachers’ self-reports – that do not necessarily reflect actual practices (Robson, 1993) - this project seeks to look at relationships with actual practice. Therefore, observing actual class behaviours and actions was an essential research tool for the present study. Two main types of observation practices are commonly used to investigate teachers’ and/or students’ behaviours: participant observation, and structured observation (Cohen et al., 2011). The former is widely used by participatory practitioners involved in investigating assumptions about classroom practice, while the latter is typically designed and carried out by a more detached researcher to evaluate participants’ behaviour in different contexts,

and is “a systematic method of data collection, where there is considerable pre-coding and the observation takes the form of recording when, how often, or for how long the pre-coded behaviours occur”, (Allen, 2012:109).

The present study used structured observation to gain a systematic analysis across the classes observed. Each observation session lasted for 45 minutes, and involved a standardization procedure: I observed teachers each teaching three/four of their classes, in their own classroom. Observation session data were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively.

4.3.1.1 The observation grid

The use of an observation scheme has the advantage of minimising observer bias as the data that are collected are pre-determined (Nunan, 1992a; Lightbown and Spada, 1999). In addition, when a previously validated scheme is used, researchers are able to replicate the work of others in different settings (Gerrish and Lacey, 2010). Nonetheless, a number of researchers (Chaudron, 1988; Seedhouse, 2004; Borg, 2008) believe that the use of highly structures schemes for coding and recording behaviours might have the disadvantage of preventing the capture of unanticipated classroom events and behaviours that can be crucial to the research question.

Despite the above criticisms, an observation grid was employed in the present enquiry to address a potential limitation related to the particular research context in Albania. One of the main problems I have encountered in my previous research projects in the country was the continual concern of Albanian teachers about the use of any recording device during the observations and interviews (privacy issues are fully discussed in section 4.5.1). Therefore, to solve this potential limitation, an observation scheme was used to document and quantify what went on in the classrooms observed.

The Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) – a validated scheme widely used in the observation of teaching and learning in L2 classes - was chosen as an instrument to collect observation data. COLT, developed by Allen et al. in 1984 and believed to be one of the most sophisticated observation schemes (Nunan 1992a; Byram and Hu, 2013), features two parts. Part A (see Appendix 8) contains five parameters that aim to describe the type of the classroom activities and episodes (such as drills, role-plays, dictations), the participant organisation (i.e. class, group, or individual), the content (i.e. management, language, or other topics), the content control (i.e. teacher, students, or teacher/text/students), the student modality (such as speaking, writing, and so on), and the materials used (i.e. the type and the source).

Part B “consists of an analysis of the communicative features occurring within each activity” (Allen et al., 1984:240). As shown in Appendix 8, it provides a set of seven categories, each of which is covered by several subcategories in the coding scheme. The selection of the categories, according to Allen et al. (1984), is informed by the L2 theories of the time when the scheme was devised.

The scheme has been widely used in classroom-based research to examine the relationships between teaching and learning (Spada, 1986), to investigate the role played by individual learner variables (Harley, 1993), to help teachers themselves reflect on their own teaching (Ellis, 1997), and so on. For the purpose of this study, an adapted version of the COLT scheme was created (see Appendix 9). The adapted version of the COLT scheme is further explained in the following paragraphs.

It was seen in chapter 2 that there are four central concepts to CLT: 1) content-based; 2) whole language based; 3) learner-centred; and 4) cooperative. In accordance with these features of CLT, three central categories were created in the adapted version of the COLT to see 1) whether teachers engage learners in activities that focus on the use of language or on the language learning process – the category created for this purpose was “activity” and the subcategories were “productive”, “receptive”, “system”, “function”, and “other”; 2) whether teachers make use of language activities that integrate different skills and aim to develop students’ fluency or focus mainly on their accuracy – the category created for this purpose was “focus” and the subcategories were “fluency”, “accuracy”, and “other”; and 3) whether teachers believe that languages are best learned with the help of the others through use and exposure or through continual lecturing – the category created for this purpose was “interaction” and the subcategories were “whole class”, “pair or group work” and “individual”. Twelve subcategories were included to pinpoint the type, focus, and interaction patterns during each activity. In addition, to reflect the central place of materials in the present study, teachers’ instructional behaviours were classified into three major groups: “instructions similar to teacher’s book”, “instructions partially similar to teacher’s book”, and “instructions different from teacher’s book”. Lastly, a new category (“notes”) was generated so that the observer could write details in case the instructions were partially similar to the guidance given in the teacher’s book (i.e. what exactly was similar or different).

Cone and Foster (2006) note that any observation scheme that is created or adapted by the researcher should be piloted and validated before it is used for research purposes. Accordingly, the observation scheme used in this project was piloted twice. Firstly, I had the opportunity to assess the reliability of the modified version of COLT while completing a small-scale study in preparation for my

main research study in March 2011. I used the checklist of target teaching behaviours while observing a colleague of mine teaching a class of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at York University, Toronto.

One potential problem was identified with the adapted scheme. It was realised that there were observations that could fall into more than one “type” of subcategory. For example, a spoken grammar exercise was coded simultaneously under the subcategories “conversation”, “grammar”, and “exercise” as it was employed as an activity (i.e. exercise) that aimed to develop students’ speaking skills, as well as to reinforce their grammar knowledge.

Therefore, the use of the adapted COLT scheme was revised in light of the first pilot test results. The new grid (see Appendix 10) included most of the same categories. However, some changes were made to the subcategories of the category “activity”. Indeed, six new mutually exclusive subdivisions (i.e. “listening”, “reading”, “writing”, “speaking”, “pronunciation”, and “system”) were created to better reflect the type of activities that take place in a class. Likewise, to make it easier for the researcher to identify the focus of an activity, the previous three behaviour checklists of the category “focus” (i.e. “fluency”, “accuracy”, and “other”) were replaced by “meaning”, “form”, and “use”. For the same reason, a new subcategory (i.e. “class – teacher-led activity”) was added to the instruction section. In addition, the importance of time in this observation scheme was recognised by adding a new category, “timing”, with the following three subcategories: “start”, “finish”, and “duration”. Lastly, the adapted COLT scheme version 2 featured another new category “language use” as the amount of L1 use in an L2 class can be an indicator of how communicative the class is. Indeed, Majer (2003) claims that excessive use of L1 by L2 teachers can be ineffective because it has the potential of turning a seemingly communicatively L2 classroom into a content one in which all authentic communication is done in L1.

The inter-reliability of the adapted COLT scheme (version 2) was assessed during a pilot study conducted in January 2012 with an Albanian EFL teacher who teaches English at a private EFL school in a southern city in Albania. The instructor, a former colleague of mine, was observed teaching a sixty-minute EFL class; the data were independently coded by two raters (a senior lecturer in Linguistics at the University of Vlora, and me).

Two main issues related to the structure of the observation scheme were identified. It was observed that the instructor shifted the focus of two activities from fluency (material target) to accuracy (teacher target). Likewise, on one occasion, the teacher asked the class to do the activity in their groups (teacher’s instruction) but performed a teacher-led classroom discussion (actual class

interaction). The adapted COLT scheme version II could not account for these significant events and, thus, two new categories were created: “teacher target” (i.e. teacher actual use of material) next to “material target” (i.e. textbook authors’ intended use of material), and “class dimension” (i.e. the interaction pattern the teacher selected to do the activity) as opposed to “teacher’s instructions” (the interaction pattern recommended by textbook authors to do the activity). Moreover, a new subcategory titled “other” was added to the “activity” category after realising that there was no room in the actual grid to describe non-teaching related activities, such as classroom management and discipline issues that may occupy “a considerable amount of the actual class time” (Savage and Savage, 2009). Lastly, a modification to the layout of the grid was made to render the subcategories “instructions” and “if textbook material¹²⁾” more visually salient so that the similarities and differences between the teacher’s instructions and teacher’s book instructions were more highlighted.

During the field data collection, the final structure of the observation scheme (see Appendix 11) was completed partially during the lesson observed (i.e. while the teacher was teaching, I jotted down the start and the finish time for each activity, the way the teacher instructed the student to do the activity, the activity, teacher’s focus of the activity, the class dynamic, and the language the teacher used), and partially after the observation session (i.e. If the teacher was using textbook materials, I checked after the observation session whether the teacher’s instruction were similar to the textbook/teacher’s book instructions, as well as whether the teacher was shifting the focus of the activity or not. If the teacher was not using textbook materials, I found out the source of the material during the post-observation interviews). See Appendices 34 and 38 for two completed observation schemes.

Twelve observation sessions were recorded (see Appendix 33 for the transcript of one of the lessons observed), so I had the possibility to review the observations at home and check the accuracy of the in-classroom observation grid completion. Three observation sessions were not recorded, and the notes jotted down during the observation sessions were used to document and quantify what went on in the classrooms observed.

Cohen et al. (2011) claim that several factors (such as the influences of the researcher’s own interests on observation judgements, influences of the observer’s physical presence on participants’ behaviours, and the possibility that the researcher becomes unaware of important antecedent events while exploring the present) might prevent researchers from collecting representative data during observation sessions.

¹²⁾ Activities based on the textbook content, as opposed to teacher-made activities or activities from other sources, were coded as “if textbook materials”.

To ensure trustworthiness and credibility in the present study, a number of actions were taken into consideration during the preparatory phase. They are fully discussed in section 4.5.

4.3.2 Qualitative research tools

Multiple sources of evidence are seen as “key characteristics of case study research” (Hartley, 2004). For this predominately qualitative study, information was gathered during observation sessions, from one-on-one post-lesson interviews, oral post-lesson evaluations, email discussions, an email questionnaire, and informal interviews with the participating teachers. To develop a comprehensive understanding of the context in which the fieldwork was collected, I spent four-to-six days at the school where each participant taught, and had a number of informal discussions with the participating teachers’ colleagues and headmaster. Data generated from this source were also coded and analysed.

This section expands on each of the qualitative data collection methods mentioned previously, provides more information about the order in which they were executed, and discusses the advantages and disadvantages of using communication-based data gathering research methods.

4.3.2.1 Observation sessions

During and immediately after the observation sessions, for all 15 classes observed, I also took field notes to record teaching behaviours that could help me to gain information on each of the three main research questions of the present study. After each observation session, I viewed the video recordings, and/or read the notes over and over, and I summarised and coded the information on the research questions obtained by each observation session. I used an observation summary form to analyse the data collected by observation sessions qualitatively (see Appendix 12). The form, along with the COLT scheme that was used to analyse the data collected by observation sessions quantitatively, accounted for a better understanding of the teaching practices of the participants.

The main issues and themes that struck me after analysing the data collected by observation sessions both quantitatively and qualitatively were noted and discussed with the teacher during post-observation interviews.

4.3.2.2 Questionnaires and interviews in qualitative research

Questionnaires and interviews are widely used to elicit a wide range of research data (Bryman, 2008; Kumar, 2010; Lodico et al., 2010). Both research instruments gather either factual information (e.g. when respondents are asked about the qualifications they possess) or introspective data (i.e. when respondents report on their own knowledge, opinions, beliefs, views, interactions, and so on) by asking questions to research participants. The questions can be 1) planned beforehand, and handed out or emailed/mailed to the participants (as in the case of questionnaires or email/mail interviews); 2) planned beforehand and asked out to the research participant(s) either in a face-to-face interview or in a phone/computer interview (as in the case of semi-structured interviews); or 3) unplanned - when the researcher follows a more conversation-like approach during a face-to-face/phone/computer interview by asking unplanned questions to “probe for more detail or redirect the flow of the interview to areas that have not been discussed” (Lodico et al., 2010:98) (as in the case of unstructured interviews).

In questionnaires and email/mailed interviews, the respondents read the questions and record the data themselves by either ticking or writing short answers. These methods of data collection do not require face-to-face interaction between the researcher(s) and the respondent(s). Therefore, questionnaires and email/mailed interviews feature the advantage of being convenient and inexpensive (Denscombe, 1998; Cohen et al., 2007; Gray, 2009). Additionally, these data collection tools, that involve no face-to-face interaction, are believed to be very appropriate when research participants are scattered all over a place/country (Phillips and Zavros, 2013), or when the study is about sensitive issues that participants are reluctant to answer in the presence of an interviewer (Silverman, 2006; Kendall, 2008).

However, the lack of real-time communication between the researcher(s) and the questionnaire respondent(s) is seen by some (Williams et al., 2000; Silverman, 2006; Hopkins, 2008; Gray, 2009) as a potential drawback of questionnaires since it is impossible to provide instant clarification for research participants in case they have difficulties in understanding a question/questions. Additionally, participants’ non-verbal behaviours, that “are used to identify inconsistencies in responses to obtain more valid data” (McCrary et al., 2010:109), are hardly observed when paper-based/online questionnaires and email/telephone/computer interviews are used as the main tools to gather research data. For many (Newman et al., 2002; Gray, 2009), the loss of non-verbal communication is seen as a significant disadvantage which can lead to misunderstandings and/or misinterpretations of research data.

Conventional interviews, on the other hand, which involve the researcher(s) sitting down face to face with the respondent(s), are typically used to obtain more valid data by observing both verbal and non-verbal behaviours (King and Horrock, 2010). Seen as “social encounters where speakers collaborate in producing retrospective accounts of their past actions, experiences, feelings and thoughts” (Rapley, 2004:16), face-to-face interviews, according to Brown (2006) and McCrady et al. (2010), are employed when 1) follow up questions are needed to clarify initial responses to structured questions; 2) clarification of questions, phrases or words in the interview is needed; 3) future questions are based on responses to initial questions; 4) sensitive information is being disclosed and the development of personal rapport may increase trust and comfort; and 5) judgement is required to code responses.

Conventional interviews are one of the most common methods for gathering data in sociolinguistic research. They have the advantage “of providing researchers with unscripted, conversational data” (Mackey and Gass, 2007:136). However, as with all data collection tools, the use of interviews in qualitative/quantitative research has been criticized on several grounds. To start with, the synchronous nature of communication (in both time and place) in a face-to-face interview has been highlighted by a number of studies (Wengraf, 2001; Gubrium and Holstein, 2003; Barbour and Schostak, 2011). Wengraf (2001:194) acknowledges the demanding role of the interviewer who “must be both listening to the informant's responses to understand what he or she is trying to get at and, at the same time, bearing in mind his needs to ensure that all his questions are liable to get answered within the fixed time at the level of depth and detail that he needs”.

Not only do interviewers have to be attentive listeners, but they also have to think of different strategies to enhance interviewees’ participation. Some experts (Weiss, 1994; Lavin and Maynard, 2001; Monette et al., 2014) claim that showing a sympathetic understanding of the interviewee’s thoughts, opinions, and perspectives might help to establish a rapport of trust with them. Others (Rubin and Rubin, 1995; Fontana and Frey, 2000; Ellis, 2010) suggest that researchers should use silence and pauses to deliver appropriate prompts, as well as be attentive to the interviewee’s non-verbal clues, such as their facial expressions, tone of voice, and so on. However, more recently, the traditional view of researcher-participant relationship in research interviews – “the one in which the interviewee is viewed as a repository of answers and the interview process itself is visualized as a conduit or pipeline of information that the researcher seeks” (Hiller and Diluzio, 2004:2) – has been questioned. Constructivist theorists (Holstein and Gubrium, 1995; Denzin, 2001; Duncombe and Jessop, 2007) claim that the space of the interview should be actively shared between the interviewer and the respondent. Lincoln and Denzin (2003) talk about active interviews in which

“interviewers and respondents carry on a conversation about mutually relevant issues” (ibid, 2003:239). Lastly, the use of one-on-one semi-structured interviews also has the disadvantage of providing large amounts of data and, thus, being time-consuming.

Interviews can be structured, semi-structured or unstructured (Mackey and Gass, 2007). As seen above, structured interviews present the same set of pre-planned questions, in the same manner and order, to each research participant. Unstructured interviews, on the other hand, encourage participants to express their thoughts freely, and do not use pre-planned questions, although researchers might use some pre-planned ideas or prompts to direct the discussion (Punch, 2009; Polgar and Thomas, 2013). Semi-structured interviews fall between these two extremes. Researchers in these interviews might prepare a set of questions as the basis for the interview. However, they are free to alter the manner, the order of the questions, as well as to ask new, unplanned questions to suit the situation (Friedman, 2011; Polgar and Thomas, 2013). As a result, the researchers in semi-structured interviews might ask different questions to different research participants. According to Mackey and Gass (2011) most qualitative interviews in education follow a semi-structured format.

4.3.2.3 Questionnaires and interviews in the present study

A series of email exchanges, face-to-face interviews, and informal discussions were conducted across the present study. To start with, a five-question interview (see Appendix 13) was sent to the participants via email to gather relevant information about their education, teaching background, textbooks they had used, as well as their own perception of “good textbooks”. Raw data collected from the five-question interview took the form of a first-person narrative (i.e. the original text written by the participants formed the data set to be analysed). Secondly, before observation sessions took place, an email questionnaire (see Appendix 14) was sent to the participants to shed light on their beliefs on L2 teaching and learning. Raw data collected from the email questionnaire took the form of numerical codes and bar charts were used to convert the raw data in quantitative form for analysis (see Appendix 27).

Thirdly, in each case study, between 42 and 68 in-site interviews and informal discussions/corridor chats took place before and after the observation sessions (see the final dataset of the research methods in section 4.3.2.5 for the actual number of formal and informal interviews for each case study). As I spent an average of five school days with each teacher, the informal discussions were daily and numerous. These interactions accounted for a better understanding of the participant as

they were asked to talk in length about their teaching and learning beliefs, their teaching practices, relation with their headmaster and colleagues, their awareness of CLT practices, and other issues related to English language teaching. Some interviews and formal discussions were video recorded and some others (the majority) were recorded by taking written notes after the event. Depending on the length of the exchanges, I either tried to recall word by word what the teacher(s) said, or used my own words to paraphrase and/or summarise the conversations. Raw data collected from the formal/informal interviews took the form of 1) participants' quotes (when I wrote down what the participants said word by word); 2) two-way dialogues - as in the case of the interviews that were recorded and transcribed. I transcribed each recorded interview in its entirety, leaving participants' speech untouched, and retaining the original structure of the interview with questions and answers (see Appendix 24 for an example); 3) a third-person narrative - as in the case of the summary of the informal interviews that were neither recorded nor written word by word; 4) a first-person narrative - as in the case of the notes I wrote after viewing/reading the observation sessions and the interviews. My notes were written in the form of an interpretive narrative and contained several quotes from the interviews and the observations to illustrate the interpretation (see Figure 6.1 in section 6.3.2.5 for an example). I used a researcher's journal form to record, and analyse my thoughts, impressions, and tentative interpretations (see Appendix 19). Similar forms were used to summarise, and analyse the information on the research questions obtained by each formal/informal conversation, and classroom observation (see Appendix 15).

A set of three open-ended questions (see Appendix 16) was originally planned to be used during the post-observation sessions. However, the post-observation interview questions were refined after the pilot study. In January 2012, to determine whether the three open-ended questions were effective in generating enough data, I implemented a full post-observation interview with a former colleague of mine whose class I observed while the other rater (Dr. Kamberaj – his real name used with permission) observed and took notes. It was realised during this pilot interview that teachers might sometimes not provide adequate data by giving general answers like *I asked students to do this because it is good for them*. Attempts to take the interview to a deeper level by asking for more details did not always provide elaborate answers as the teacher, on several occasions, gave broad answers like *It helps students improve their English*. To overcome this limitation, it was decided to ask a more direct question regarding the potential influence of the teacher's book on teachers' practices (question 2), as well as to add three more questions that gave more prompts to participants to speak and eventually led them in additional directions that might be worth investigating. The revised set of six interview questions is included in Appendix 17.

Likewise, the video recording of lessons for a “modified stimulated recall”¹³⁾ was originally planned to walk the teachers through the lesson, stop the video sequencing at the event, and verbally ask the participant why they behaved in that way. However, it was realised at an early stage of the field data collection process that Albanian teachers led a busy professional and personal life, and were unable to dedicate unlimited time to the present project. The first teacher observed for this project – who teaches at a state school every week day from 8.00. – 2.00., tutors in her home every afternoon for two hours, and has a family to take care of - never had enough time to watch herself teaching the observed classes and politely refused to write post-lesson self-evaluation reports because she was “short of time”. To deal with these field work-related constraints, I used observation notes and conducted post-observation interviews immediately after the classes observed (either during the twenty-five minute lunch or the twenty-minute recess following lunch) so that the participant had a fresh memory.

In addition, emails and informal discussions with the teacher were also used to clarify teaching behaviours, and other issues related to the teachers’ practices, knowledge, and beliefs. Each evening, after the observation session, I reviewed the video-recorded lesson at home, and discussed with the teacher the following day the events that needed further clarification. Likewise, while reviewing and analysing the data in Canada, after having finished the process of data collection, I contacted the participating teachers by email and asked them to discuss the points that deserved further elaboration. The participants were allowed to write as much as they wanted to answer each email question.

Lesson plans and teachers’ reflections on the classes observed, elicited during post-observation interviews, were also employed to explore the factors that informed the teaching behaviours of the participants. Raw data collected from the lesson plans and teachers’ reflection took the form of 1) a third-person narrative (i.e. I wrote a summary of teachers’ reflection); 2) a first-person narrative (i.e. I recorded my thoughts, impressions, and tentative interpretations. My notes were written in the form of an interpretive narrative and contained several quotes from the lesson plans and teachers’ reflection to illustrate the interpretation. I used a lesson plan/post-lesson evaluation form to analyse the information on the research questions obtained by each lesson plan and post-lesson evaluation discussions (see Appendices 15 and 18).

¹³⁾ Stimulated recall is defined as “audio or video recording of an event followed by replay with the participants to recollect information or evoke emotions for purposes of future understanding” (Matthews and Kostelis, 2011:119).

4.3.2.4 Language used in the present bilingual research project

In recent years, the number of bilingual/multilingual research projects has increased considerably as a natural result of the internationalisation of higher education (Magyar and Robinson-Pant 2011; Rizvi, 2011; Holmes et al., 2013). Researchers involved in bilingual/multilingual research projects work with data in both English and the research participants' L1. The use of more than one language in research projects has attracted attention of a number of education researchers, and a number of studies have emphasised the challenges multilingual researchers face. Halai (2007) voices the immense workload connected to full translations. For Pavlenko (2011), the researcher's limited knowledge of the participants' L1 might represent a potential drawback for multilingual/bilingual research projects. Shkларov (2007:530) argues that "the researcher's attitude toward translation can influence the choice of research design". As multilingual researchers mediate between different linguistic worlds, they are likely to develop their own levels of ethical sensitivity that do not necessarily conform to established institutional practices education (Magyar and Robinson-Pant, 2011). This is particularly true when universities in Anglophone countries "impose standard ethics procedures and academic writing conventions on research that is to be conducted and read in a different cultural context" (Magyar and Robinson-Pant, 2011:674). Holmes et al. (2013) also acknowledge that the choices researchers make to prioritise one language over another in interviewing and reporting might cause an imbalance in power relationships between the researcher and the participants. Lastly, a number of scholars (Given, 2005; Hays and Singh, 2012) encourage qualitative researchers to carefully consider the influence of translation (i.e. the translation choices researchers make when they translate before the analysis) on the research data and the resulting analysis.

In the present bilingual research study, Albanian language was used as the main correspondence and interview language to 1) help the participating teachers express themselves easily. This choice was made because English is an L2 for the participants and their level of proficiency in English might have represented a potential drawback for this research projects; 2) neutralise the inequities of power between the researcher and the researched in that the researcher possesses academic and professional English teaching qualifications issued from British universities, while the research participants possess academic and teaching qualifications issued by local universities. Because British universities enjoy a reputation for excellence and Albanian universities continually reside at the very bottom of the lists of academic ranking of world universities (for more detail see www.arwu.org and www.topuniversities.com), the researcher was likely to be seen as "an expert" by the research participants. The use of English as the main interviewing language, one might argue, would have

acknowledged the unequal relations of power between the researcher and the participating teachers. Therefore, Albanian language was used as a means of neutralising the power.

To avoid the risk of influencing the meaning of raw data, in the present study, I recorded and transcribed the data in L1, and used Albanian language to do the thinking through the data analysis process. Once key categories were created, I translated the concepts from Albanian to English. In addition, I also translated from L1 to L2 the participating teachers' speech/words that provided some explanation to support the concepts. To establish trustworthiness in interpretation and translation, whenever I was not sure, I consulted with the research participants during the translation process. In addition, during the participant debriefing process, the participants were given electronic copies of the transcripts of all the conversations and emails they and their colleagues had with me (all of them in L1), as well as electronic copies of the translations of the transcripts and emails included in the present study as evidence to support the key concepts.

4.3.2.5 Summary of qualitative research methods used in the present study

A summary of the types, the content, and order of communications, for one of the four case studies (Miss Evis) is provided in Table 4.1.

Type of communication	Content
<p>Five-question email questionnaire Raw data collected from the five-question interview took the form of a first-person narrative (i.e. the original text written by the participant formed the data set to be analysed).</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher profile 2. Textbook-related issues
<p>Questionnaire on teachers' beliefs Raw data collected from the email questionnaire took the form of numerical codes. Bar charts were used to convert the raw data in quantitative form for analysis (see appendix 27).</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher's belief on L2 learning and teaching
<p>Four observation sessions Each observation session lasted for 45 minutes. The first three lessons were observed in September-October 2012, and the fourth lesson was observed in November 2013. The data took the form of 1) numerical codes. Tables were used to convert the raw data in quantitative form for analysis (see Table 5.1 in section 5.2.2 for an example); 2) a first-person narrative (i.e. notes and reflections I wrote during the session or after viewing the observation (see Figure 6.1 in section 6.3.2.5 for an example).</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Teacher's use of communication-based textbooks
<p>Four semi-formal post-observation interviews. Each post observation interview lasted an average of 12 minutes. The data took the form of: 1) two-way dialogues (the interviews were recorded and transcribed); 2) a first-person narrative (i.e. notes I wrote after viewing/reading the interviews). See Appendix 35 for the transcript of one</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Influence of teacher's book on planning and delivery 2. Influence of other factors on planning and delivery 3. Feedback-related issues, e.g. what the teacher thought about the observed lesson overall, and about the different parts of the lesson; whether she believed the lesson objectives were met or not (why); how her students responded; whether she would make any change if she were to teach the same lesson again, and so on.

of the post-observation interviews	
<p>Informal interviews with the teacher. I engaged in 52 informal interviews (i.e. brief corridor exchanges and other types of chats that took place in the classroom/teachers' room) with the teacher during the six days I spent at the school where she taught. The data took the form of :</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) participants' quotes (when I wrote down what the participants said word by word); 2) two-way dialogues (as in the case of the interviews that were recorded and transcribed); 3) a third-person narrative (as in the case of the summary of the informal interviews that were neither recorded nor written word by word); 4) a first-person narrative (i.e. notes I wrote after viewing/reading the interviews). 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Issues related to the teacher's learning experiences, such as for how long the teacher had been studying English; how she felt as an EFL student; her favourite teacher (why); her least favourite EFL teacher (why); memories associated with her favourite EFL teacher; teaching behaviours she associated with her favourite/least favourite EFL teacher; if the participant has been influenced by her favourite/least favourite teacher and how, relationship she had with her teachers, relationship she had with her peers, a description of her favourite/least favourite teacher's practices and interactions, and so on. 2. Issues related to the teacher's training experience, such as why, where, and for how long she attended the British Council "train the trainer" programme; what she expected to learn, what she learned, and how this event has helped her to become a better teacher; how this event compares to her undergraduate course; how this event changed her ideas about teaching/classroom practices, and so on. 3. Issues related to the teacher's planning habits, such as what factors she takes in consideration when she writes the lesson plan; whether she uses the teacher's book or not when she plans the lessons, and what ideas/suggestions she most often follows; whether she sticks to the lesson plan or not; whether she reflects when she finishes a class or not; whether she changes anything in her lesson plan during the delivery stage and why/why not, and so on. 4. School-related issues, such as colleagues' view on teaching and learning, headmaster's expectations, working condition, curriculum, relationship she has with her colleagues, headmaster, and so on. 5. Student-related issues, such as students' view on L2 learning, students' motivation, needs, parents' support, relationship she has with her students, and so on. 6. Further discussion on the teacher's beliefs about L2 teaching and learning. 7. Other observation-related issues that required further clarifications
<p>Interviews with other teachers. The researcher engaged in 12 informal interviews (i.e. brief exchanges that took place mainly in the teachers' room) with</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. School-related issues 2. Student-related issues

<p>Miss Evis' colleagues. The data took the form of :</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) participants' quotes (when I wrote down what the participants said word by word); 2) two-way dialogues (as in the case of the interviews that were recorded and transcribed); 3) a third-person narrative (as in the case of the summary of the informal interviews that were neither recorded nor written word by word); 4) a first-person narrative (i.e. notes I wrote after viewing/reading the interviews). 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 3. Their descriptions of "a good textbook" 4. Their description of "a good teacher"
<p>Interviews with the headmaster. The researcher engaged in 2 informal interviews (that took place in his office) with the dean of the department where Miss Evis worked. The data took the form of :</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) participants' quotes (when I wrote down what the participants said word by word); 2) two-way dialogues (as in the case of the interviews that were recorded and transcribed); 3) a third-person narrative (as in the case of the summary of the informal interviews that were neither recorded nor written word by word); 4) a first-person narrative (i.e. notes I wrote after viewing/reading the interviews). 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Department-related issues, such as university reputation, performance on national exams, working condition, curriculum, and so on. 2. Student-related issues, such as students' motivation, needs, community support, discipline, and so on. 3. His descriptions of "a good textbook" 4. His description of "a good teacher"
<p>Follow-up emails Three follow-up emails were sent to Miss Evis to clarify teaching behaviours, and other issues related to Miss Evis' practices, knowledge, and beliefs. Raw data collected from the e-mail interviews took the form of participants' quotes (i.e. I copied and pasted Miss Evis' emails)</p>	
<p>Follow-up email 1</p>	<p><i>In one of our conversations you said: "... through the years, I have gained valuable experience that (pause) has taught me how to deal with undisciplined students". Can you please tell me</i></p>

	<i>a bit more about this? How did you deal with undisciplined students before and how are you dealing with them now? Has “experience” also helped you become a better teacher? If yes, how? Can you give me a practical example, please?</i>
Follow-up email 2	<i>Can you please describe one of your favourite students in terms of learning style, personality and motivation? How do your teaching practices relate to his/her learning style, personality and motivation?</i>
Follow-up email 3	<i>Can you compare your observed lesson Nr.1 to any of your unobserved lessons? In what ways are these lessons the same/different? Can you compare your preparation for planning each lesson?</i>

Table 4.1: A summary of the research methods used in one of the four case studies

The types, the content, and order of communications for three case studies were the same. For one case study, three lessons were observed and three semi-formal post-observation interviews were conducted. The four case studies also differ from each other in 1) the number of days spent at the school where the participant taught; 2) the number of the informal discussions the researcher engaged with each participating teacher and their colleagues; 3) the number of email interviews. The differences between the four case studies are included in the final dataset provided in Table 4.2.

	5-question questionnaire	Questionnaire on beliefs	Nr. of lessons observed	Nr. of post-lesson interviews	Nr. of informal interviews with the teacher	Nr. of informal interviews with the T's colleagues	Nr. of informal interviews with the headmaster	Nr. of teacher's reflection on the lesson discussions	Nr. of lesson plans collected	Nr. of follow-up emails
Case Study One	1	1	3	3	34	11	4	3	3	4
Case Study Two	1	1	4	4	49	8	4	4	4	6
Case Study Three	1	1	4	4	52	12	2	4	4	3
Case Study Four	1	1	4	4	32	5	4	3	4	3

Table 4.2: A final dataset of the research methods used in all the four case studies

The summary of the research methods and the final dataset, along with the other information provided in this section, will help the readers understand the data collection methods employed in the present study and how they were employed.

4.4 Understanding the notions of value and integrity

This study was my first qualitative inquiry. Beforehand, I had conducted several quantitative inquiries, and was very familiar with the positivist concepts of “reliability” and “validity”. Consequently, the first challenge I encountered during the preparatory phase of the present study was that of comprehending why “reliability” and “validity” are not transferable in the same sense as in experimental studies to qualitative research projects. My understanding of this fundamental concern is shown in the following paragraphs.

By definition, “reliability is a measure of consistence over time and over similar samples” (Cohen et al., 2007:146). This concept, while being of great importance in all quantitative studies because it validates the consistency of the measurements, is viewed as irrelevant in projects that study human behaviours because “human behaviour is never statistic” (Merriam, 2009:221). That is to say, the same participant interviewed at a different time or place most likely will not give the same answers because what emerges in an interview largely depends on the researcher’s approach and the specific interviewer-participant relationship and context (Finlay and Evans, 2009). Yet, this is not a limitation since qualitative methods aim to comprehend specific human behaviours by understanding how humans behave, and what they say at a specific time, place, and context.

In quantitative research, there are two types of validity: internal and external. A study is believed to have internal validity if the answer to the following question is affirmative “Do scientific researchers actually observe what they think they are observing or measuring?” (LeCompte and Goetz, 1982 in Newman and Benz, 1998:34). Maximising the internal validity is of utmost importance in quantitative inquiries. This is because, to be able to say that the research results accurately reflect the observations of the phenomenon observed, researchers need to demonstrate that consistent results will be obtained if the same research project is repeated a number of times under the same methodological conditions (Joppe, 2000). However, in the domain of the qualitative tradition, this concept seems to be inapplicable for the following two chief reasons. Firstly, much qualitative research is based on a social-constructivist standpoint, and social-constructivists view human behaviours as shared subjective realities (Hutchison, 2012) rather than singular objective realities. Secondly, quantitative studies emphasise explanation and verification of facts. By contrast, qualitative research is more about interpretation and understanding of somebody’s reality. It, therefore, inevitably involves subjective stories of thoughts and actions, as understood by the people participating in the study (also known as “emic”), as well as the researcher’s subjectivised interpretation of meanings. It follows that the meaning of “internal validity”, as defined by traditional researchers, is largely irrelevant in qualitative studies.

External validity primarily answers the question “How far can the results of a study be generalisable?” The definitions of the word “generalisability” are varied and complex. Nevertheless, the term is commonly used in quantitative studies to refer to “the extent to which the results or findings of a study can be extrapolated to a wider context than that used in the implementation of the research design” (Blanche et al., 2006: 165). Central factors to the generalisability of quantitative accounts are population and ecological validity. Population validity includes the use of standardised research methods, the application of these methods to a large, representative

sampling, and the degree to which the sample groups are representative to the entire population. Ecological validity refers to “the extent to which findings from a study can be generalized across different settings, particularly more naturalistic, real-world settings” (Davis and Buskist, 2008:60). Again, these two factors are of little significance in qualitative inquiries, since qualitative researchers do not employ formulas or rules, but develop data-gathering techniques that best suit the specifics of a research project. Moreover, qualitative methods are not rigid, and can be modified during the research process to accommodate the project needs. Lastly, unlike traditional studies that aim to draw conclusions by measuring quantitatively a small amount of information on a large number of participants, qualitative researchers tend to study a small number of participants, and to obtain a large amount of information by taking a holistic view of an informant’s life (Brown, 1997). Therefore, the use of a “large, representative sampling” is another factor that clearly distinguishes qualitative and quantitative research approaches.

The issues of “reliability”, and “internal and external validity” are addressed differently within the qualitative tradition. “Credibility” – a term often associated with the value and integrity of qualitative research - can be roughly considered the equivalent of quantitative research’s internal validity as it is best measured by answering the question: “Does the research truthfully represent the realities revealed by the participants?” To assess whether or not the data correctly interpret the participant’s perspectives, researchers need to gain feedback from the participants by performing a member-checking assessment – “a process whereby data, analytic categories, interpretations, and conclusions are tested with members of those stakeholding groups from whom the data were originally collected” (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:314). In addition to researcher bias, a second threat to the credibility of qualitative studies can be the participant’s subjectivity. To address this issue, the researcher should engage in numerous exchanges with the participants, and spend in the field the time needed to identify salient features and observe the repetition of behaviours, patterns, and trends. Moreover, the combination of several qualitative and quantitative methods is another common technique used to sharpen understandings of participants’ bias, as well as to make the process of qualitative analysis as a whole more objective and less subjectivised. Lodico, et al. (2010:165) also propose the use of the following four questions to examine the credibility of participants’ stories:

- Did the researcher conduct multiple interviews with the participants and did these interviews probe their experience in depth?
- Is it likely that the participants were honest in describing their feelings and experiences?
- Is the story told by the participant authentic?

- Is the description too selective, omitting difficult or embarrassing incidents and ending with an overly optimistic tone?

Comparable to the positivist term of “reliability”, “dependability” is another concept often used in qualitative inquiries. It focuses on whether the qualitative study findings are consistent with the data collected (Patton, 2002). Said in other words, since qualitative researchers neither employ precise formulas to gather field data, nor use scientific methods to analyse the data collected, the whole research process might be labelled as a study that reports “merely subjective assertions” (Ballinger and Wiles, 2006:235) if a qualitative study does not provide detailed explanations of how the data were collected and analysed. Therefore, to support dependability, researchers need to describe in detail how they selected the participants, how they structured the interviews and observations, how they changed their design study (if any changes occurred), how they nurtured the relationship with the participants, how they approached the process of data analyses (i.e. they need to provide documents to support the evolution of emergent themes, as well as formation of categories, and so on). Stringer and Genat (2004) claim that the use of an “inquiry audit” – a process “whereby details of the research process, including the processes for defining the research question, collecting and analysing data, and constructing reports are made available to participants and other audiences for examination” (ibid, 2004:59) – can be another useful strategy to support the credibility of qualitative inquiries.

“Transferability” and “confirmability” are two other standards for assessing the overall quality of the processes of data collection, and data analysis in qualitative studies. The former is parallel to the concept of “external validity” in quantitative research. However, as noted previously, qualitative studies are not carried out for the purpose of extrapolating their findings. They do not claim to be generalisable since they do not benefit from random selection and large representative sampling methods. Yet, qualitative researchers “might make connections between their findings and those from other studies” (Freeman et al., 2007:29). In addition, researchers can carefully compare the research participants and the research context to other people and settings to highlight features that might have relevance if applied to a broader group of people that share a similar context. This comparison is conceptually similar to the attempt to maintain objectivity in quantitative studies. Yet, unlike quantitative studies that measure potential for congruence between two or more independent raters through the performance of an inter-rater reliability assessment, qualitative researchers need to be able to clearly show how research findings are linked to the data sources, and are not the result of their own previous assumptions. In addition, performing an inter-coder

check on the coding of the interviews might help to support the confirmability of a qualitative inquiry.

“Credibility”, “transferability”, “dependability”, and “confirmability” often fall under the general umbrella term of “trustworthiness”. Trustworthiness is the standard for assessing the overall quality of qualitative studies (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011). The trustworthiness of the present study is discussed in the following section.

4.5 Trustworthiness of the present study

To enhance the trustworthiness of the present study the following techniques were employed: 1) efforts were made to treat the research participants ethically; 2) I spent four to six days at the school where each participating teacher taught; 3) time and energy were invested to build trust between the researcher and the research participants; 4) information and findings were complemented from different sources; 5) I provide detailed explanations of how the data were collected, and the eight stages that the present research project followed; 6) a detailed description of the changes in the original research design and methodology is also provided for readers; 7) two types of debriefing were used; and 8) a thick description of the context within which the present study occurred is given in chapter 3 to help readers make judgements about the probability that the present study findings have meaning in other similar contexts.

How these techniques were applied in the present study is outlined and explained in the following paragraphs.

4.5.1 Selection of participants

In October 2011, an invitation letter (see Appendix 20) that briefly informed EFL teachers of the project, and invited them to participate in the study was mailed to 52 public schools in the capital city, a southern city, and a northern town. It was estimated that more than 100 EFL instructors would be reached by this method.

Three teachers from the major southern city, two from the major central city, and one from the northern town expressed their willingness to participate in the project. However, after receiving further information about the research (see Appendix 21), five of them decided not to take part, and only one teacher signed the consent form. The first teacher recruited for this study was Miss Landa - a

very experienced teacher with more than twenty years of ELT teaching who worked in a secondary school in a major southern city of Albania.

There are grounds to believe that the potential participants withdrew because they were intimidated by the fact that their teaching would be video-recorded. During the communist decades, recording devices were mainly used in the country to record people's complaints about the regime while talking with their friends or families. Those everyday concerns (e.g. *there is not enough to eat, there are not many jobs*, and so on) were then used as proof to condemn people who expressed their unhappiness. Therefore, the word "recording" in the Albanian context does bear negative connotations.

Three strategies were considered to tackle the problem of the video recording in this research: 1) networking; 2) face-to-face research explanations; and 3) running an ad in a national newspaper to reach a wider audience. These strategies proved to be successful, and the following three teachers were recruited in September 2012: Miss Elona, a novice/early career who worked in a high school situated in a southern village; Miss Ada, a more experienced teacher with hands-on CLT teaching experience, who worked in a secondary school in a central major city; and Miss Evis, a mid-career teacher, and teacher-trainer with strong CLT knowledge, who taught EFL classes in a university in the same major central city.

The four teachers participating in the present study can be portrayed as representing four broader groups of Albanian EFL teachers since they possess four different levels of teaching and training experiences.

4.5.2 Research ethics

The ethical treatment of research participants is important in qualitative studies as it plays a prominent role in judging qualitative research (Locke et al., 2007; Sutter, 2011). In the present study, a number of actions were taken to treat the participating teachers ethically. Before beginning the process of data collection, the participating teachers were asked to sign a consent form (see Appendix 21) that invited them to participate in the study, gave the participants a clear statement of the purpose of the research, described the research procedure, and took into consideration the participant's confidentiality and other voluntary issues. In addition, the consent form gave participants sufficient contact information where they could reach my supervisor and me for answers to questions regarding the research. Following this agreement, no teacher's actual name appears in this study and pseudonyms have been used throughout. In addition, prior to the observation and

interview sessions, teachers were asked to complete a consent to video-record/transcribe form (see Appendix 22). The form asked teachers to give their written consent to record or to transcribe the observations and interviews, and gave them essential information about the interviews. Lastly, an application to conduct research studies on the school premises (see Appendix 23) was submitted to the school administration where each teacher worked. The ethics protocols employed in the present study were also reviewed and approved by the Aston University Language and Social Studies Research Ethics Committee in November 2012.

4.5.3 Engagement in the field

The four observations, the post-lesson interviews and informal discussions, as well as the post-lesson reflections and lesson plans were conducted and collected over a five-day period, in January 2012, for one teacher (Miss Landa), as I had to construct a case study and submit a qualifying, preliminary report to the university in August 2012. For the other three participating teachers, the data were collected over a one-year period. In September-October 2012, I spent four days at the school where each participant taught, and observed three classes. In November 2013, I spent two other days at the school where each teacher worked, and observed another lesson. Miss Elona was observed teaching only three classes in October 2012 as she was absent from work due to a pregnancy-related condition in November 2013.

Engagement in the field ensures validity in qualitative research (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011).

4.5.4 Researcher-participant relation-building strategies

Another way of ensuring the trustworthiness of the research is by developing appropriate relationships with participants (De Laine, 2000; Cohen et al., 2011; Hatch, 2012). It was understood during the early stages of the present project that the participating teachers may become hesitant to share their true practices and beliefs if the relationship between the researcher and the participants is not equal. Firstly, the researcher's background and education might intimidate non-native English teachers. As shown in the field observation note below, Miss Landa, who was the first teacher I observed, minimised her L2 use in the classroom during the first two observation sessions. During our informal conversations, the teacher continuously emphasised that her English

suffered in terms of pronunciation and speaking habits *because she had never had the opportunity to practise her English with a native speaker.*

Observation Summary Form	
Name of Teacher:	Miss Landa
Observation Nr.:	1
Date:	9.01.2012
Other notes to describe the context of informal discussion:	
1. Summarise (and, if possible, code) the main issues or themes that struck you during this observation: Field Note: Teacher uses mainly body language, while minimising her L2 use in the classroom. Students are confused (the teacher often has to repeat the same gesture twice, so that they can “get it”), and amused in the same time. Is it the first time the teacher is using this approach with these kids?	
Analytic memo: The teacher seems to have changed her usual way of conducting lessons. She might have done that because she might not feel confident with her English language use. Possible! I, too, tried to avoid my native English-speaking colleagues when I first started to teach in Canada, because I believed that the less I spoke, the less I could show the other teachers that my English was not perfect. The teacher might have felt the same. Yet, why would she point out to the text and mime the word “reading”? Wasn’t she able to use some simple English, like: “Please, read the text”? Hmm! Was the teacher trying to impress me by using facial expressions and body language? Does she perceive the observation practice as a process during which her teaching is assessed? What can I do to change this?	

Figure 4.1: Field observation notes

Secondly, my position as a researcher – often perceived as “an authority and subject matter expert in the Albanian context” (Kamberaj, 2011a:46) – influenced to a great degree my relationship with the participating teachers, and their colleagues in the early stages of the data collection process. To exemplify the point, whenever I walked into the teachers’ room, the teachers interrupted the conversation they were engaged in, and did their best to keep themselves occupied (so that I wouldn’t disturb them). Likewise, whenever I asked the first Miss Ada’s colleagues questions about their teaching experiences, beliefs, and knowledge, they tended to give general, “safe” replies. For example, when asked to describe one or two changes to illustrate how her teaching approach had changed in the last ten years, one of Miss Landa’s colleagues gave the following answer: *Following authorities’ directives, my teaching now is more communicative and more student-focused.* My attempts to obtain further clarifications did not achieve the expected results. Indeed, to my question, “In what ways are your classes more communicative and more student-focused, can you give an example or elaborate a bit more?”, the teacher replied:

More communicative because (pause) more communication takes place in my classes, and more student-focused because everything I do in my classes it’s for students, I mean I do it for my students’ learning [Source: IR].

To deal with the particular challenges I encountered during my first data collection experience, I first made a plan for building a relationship with the participants. As part of this plan, prior to the start of the data collection process, I sat with each participating teacher, and explained in words that were easily understood what the aim of the research was, what the role of the researcher was, what participants could do to prepare for the research, and what they were supposed to do while being observed, when they were interviewed, and when the researcher was around them. In particular, my independent role as a researcher (i.e. I was not working for the Albanian government, or any other agency related to Albanian authorities while conducting this research project) was emphasised, and participants were asked to talk about their teaching practices, knowledge, beliefs, and other research-related issues without fear of losing their job and/or losing credibility in the eyes of their headmaster. All this key information, along with explanations regarding the role of other teachers/headmaster, was written down and handed out to the participating teacher's colleagues, and the headmaster. It can be argued that, after being fully informed, the participating teachers gained a clearer view about the aim of the present research, the role of the researcher, and their role in this study. Indeed, on several occasions, the teachers felt comfortable and willing to express opinions that did not fit with their headmaster/authority expectations, such as to question the need for the use of group/pair work in the Albanian context (Miss Landa), to claim that Albanian politicians and educational theorists lack knowledge and awareness of classroom practices (Miss Elona and Miss Landa), to confess that they asked their students to buy a certain EFL text-book to do a favour to an influential academic figure in the Albanian EFL world (Miss Evis), and so on. Additionally, after being fully informed, three participating teachers agreed to video-record the observation sessions and interviews.

Once a relationship was built and every actor involved in the research process had clear views about their role, I made a plan for maintaining the relationship by focusing on the following issues: 1) creating a fluid, shifted, and negotiated partnership with the participants. To achieve this, at the end of each day, I engaged the research participants in a “where this project is going” session during which I explained what was achieved during the day, how this helped the research project, and what was still to be done. The participating teachers were also encouraged to ask questions about the research, and let me know if they felt uncomfortable with any part of the research process; 2) helping the participants gain confidence in their own use of L2 and their own teaching approach. To make participants feel at ease, I shared with them my personal story described in the analytic memo in the Figure 4.1 above. All four teachers empathised with me, and one of them confessed that she was surprised because:

You know, (hesitation) you have been living for so many years abroad, you are doing a PhD with a British uni, you teach in a uni in Canada, because of all these, I never thought you (pause) would have problems like this [Source: IR].

Additionally, I revealed to the participants my own beliefs about L2 learning and teaching: any teaching that helps learning is effective, no matter whether it is labelled communicative, traditionalist or individualist. This position was reinforced through the use of questions that highlighted both the advantages and disadvantages of different teaching behaviours, e.g. “What are some good/bad things of having students work in their pairs?” In addition, I avoided the use of certain words, such as student-focused, communicative, speaking activities, and so on, that have been emphasised so often by the Albanian authorities that Albanian EFL teachers intuitively associate their use with good teaching practices. Research (Cohen, 1989; Patton, 2002; O’Hara et al., 2011) shows that when research participants feel that they are being judged, they change their behaviours in response to the presence of the observer.

The consistency of the participants’ behaviours was also tested by other triangulation techniques discussed in the next section.

4.5.5 Triangulation

The present study features various forms of triangulation, including in time (the study was conducted during a one-year period), research tools (i.e. observations, observation discussions, face-to-face interviews, email interviews, post-lesson evaluation discussions), and different sources (four teachers provided data for this study). Triangulation is defined as “the use of more than one approach to the investigation of a research question” (Lewis-Beck et al., 2004:1142). The use of different approaches compensates for their individual limitations, and exploits their respective benefits (Brewer and Hunter, 1989). Therefore, three various forms of triangulation in the present study enhanced confidence in ensuing the findings.

4.5.6 Changes in research design and methodology

This section is devoted to the research implementation, describing three fundamental changes in the original research design and methodology of the present research study.

In January 2012, I piloted the research design, requested feedback from the participating teacher (Miss Landa) and processed, analysed, and drew conclusions for one case study. This hands-on

qualitative research experience revealed that three changes were needed. Firstly, this project was originally situated in the field of teacher cognition. It was, however, realised during the process of data analysis that teachers' decisions are not always rational. When teachers make decisions in their classes, they select one alternative among many choices. As indicated in chapter 2, the alternative selected can be a motivated selection, based on what the teacher thinks, knows or believes, or an unconscious selection. Teacher cognition research highlights the complex nature of classroom decision making, but only focuses on teachers' active thinking and acting (Borg, 2006). Teachers' passive thinking and acting is largely ignored in this discipline. To investigate all teachers' thinking (i.e. both active and passive thinking), I reviewed a new literature that examines the factors that influence both teacher passive and active thinking.

Secondly, six case studies were originally planned to be observed. However, in the light of the first round data collection experience, it was decided to have four case studies instead of six. This decision was made for three main reasons. Firstly, because the four teachers selected to participate in this study featured four different levels of teaching experience, qualitative samples generated from them would be sufficiently rounded to assure that the perceptions of four different groups of Albanian EFL teachers were uncovered. If more teachers were invited to participate in this study, they would be categorised as either "inexperienced", or "mid-career", or "experience", or "expert" teachers. Since this study already featured one representative for each group, inviting a second participant for a given group would not necessarily lead to more information as "one occurrence of a piece of data, or a code, is all that is necessary to ensure that it becomes part of the analysis framework" (Mason, 2010:3). Secondly, the present study used more than one method of data collection and multiple, in-depth interviews with the same participants. Lee et al. (2002) argue that studies that use more than one data collection method, and use multiple interviews with the same participant achieve saturation more quickly. Therefore, they do not require many participants. Saturation refers to "the repetition of discovered information and confirmation of previously collected data", (Morse 1994 in Speziale et al., 2011:30).

Thirdly, data covering one teacher generated five hours and 23 minutes of video recording, and 46 transcribed pages. Covering six teachers would generate massive amounts of data that would be difficult to manage and analyse, and would not necessarily add further insights.

Lastly, the original research questions were:

- 1) How communicatively do Albanian EFL teacher use communicative teaching resources?
- 2) What shapes the way Albanian EFL teachers use communicative teaching resources in their classes?
 - What role do teachers' cognitions play in the use of communicative teaching resources?
 - What role does the use of a teacher's book play in the use of communicative teaching resources?
 - Are there any external/internal factors that impede/foster the CLT development of Albanian teachers?

After the baseline study, these questions were refined to indicate precisely what the study intended to find out, and how it intended to do it. Firstly, the word "teaching resources" in question 1 was replaced by the word "textbook" to make the question clearer. Likewise, the word "communicative" in question 1 was deleted after the realisation that the majority of commercial courses are stuck in the behaviourist Presentation-Practice-Production approach (Burns and Hill, 2013). Additionally, two bullet point questions belonging to question 2 were omitted because it was felt that the new research question (i.e. "What shapes Albanian EFL teachers' decisions on how to use text-books in their classes?") was more adequately defined, and had a broader range which included the two omitted questions (i.e. "What role do teachers' cognitions play in the use of communicative teaching resources?" and "Are there any external/internal factors that impede/foster the CLT development of Albanian teachers?")

The final research questions that guided the framework of this inquiry are:

- 1) How communicatively do Albanian EFL teachers use communication-based text-books?
- 2) What shapes Albanian EFL teachers' decisions on how to use text-books in their classes?
 - What role does a Teacher's book play in the use of text-books?

The detailed description of the changes in the original research design and methodology provided in this section will enable readers to develop a thorough understanding of the methods employed in the present research study, as well as to assess their effectiveness.

4.5.7 Research field work phases

Fieldwork for this project started in January 2012 and ended in June 2014. Data were collected in three rounds, and in two main interaction modes: face-to-face and distance. The participant-debriefing activity, which concluded the data collection process, was conducted in June 2014. A detailed description of the eight stages that the present research project followed is provided in Table 4.3.

Phase	Time	Description
I	October 2011- September 2012	<p>Title: Recruiting and selecting research participants</p> <p>Aims: To recruit research participants To provide further information about the research project to potential research participants To gather information about participants' education, teaching background, textbooks they had used, as well as their perception of "good textbooks". To shed lights on participants' beliefs about L2 teaching and learning.</p> <p>Procedure: An invitation letter (see Appendix 20) that briefly informed EFL teachers of the project, and invited them to participate in the study was mailed to more than 100 EFL instructors teaching in public schools in the capital city, a southern city, and a northern town. Teachers interested in this project were sent by email further information about the project, and were asked to sign the consent form. To reach a wider audience, an ad in a national newspaper was also run. In addition, networking, and face-to-face research explanations were used as strategies to recruit participants. Participants were also asked to complete a five question email interview, as well as an email questionnaire on teachers' beliefs.</p>
II	January 2012	<p>Title: Data collection (Round One)</p> <p>Aims: To pilot one-on-one interviews and the COLT Scheme To collect the data for the Qualifying Report, and the final project</p> <p>Procedure: One teacher was observed four 45-minute EFL classes at the institution where she worked. The teacher attended four one-on-one 10-15 minute post-observation interviews. The observations were video-recorded. The date and the time for the observations were mutually arranged between the teacher and the researcher. I spent five days at the institution where the instructor worked, and had 41 informal discussions with Miss Landa, her colleagues, and the school headmaster. These exchanges took place during the participants' idle time. 16 of these informal exchanges were video-recorded, while a note-taking approach was used for the bulk of the work.</p> <p>The participant was asked to self-evaluate in written her observed lessons, but the teacher never submitted any self-evaluation form as she <i>never had time for that</i> – as the teacher put that. Consequently, a change was made in the research plan, and the teacher was asked to give oral evaluations for the last two lessons observed. The last two oral post evaluations were video-recorded. In addition, I photocopied and collected the following documents: the lesson plans, the pages of</p>

		the textbook containing the lesson(s) observed, and the teacher's book page(s) giving guidance for each lesson observed.
III	February-March 2012	<p>Title: Enriching and clarifying the data collected (Round One)</p> <p>Aims: To clarify ideas and concepts not fully elaborated during the data collection process.</p> <p>Procedure: The teacher answered 8 additional questions regarding her teaching practices, and her teaching views in three follow-up emails.</p>
IV	September 2012 - October 2012	<p>Title: Data collection (Round Two)</p> <p>Aims: To collect the data for the research project</p> <p>Procedure: Three teachers were observed three 45-minute EFL classes at the institution where each of them worked. Each of the teachers attended three one-on-one 10-15 minute post-observation interviews. For two teachers, the observation sessions and the post-lesson interviews were recorder. For one teacher, handwritten notes were taken during the observation sessions and post-lesson interviews because the participant did not sign the video-recording consent form.</p> <p>I spent four days at the institution where each instructor worked, and had 156 short discussions with the three teachers, their colleagues and school headmaster. 49 of these informal exchanges were video-recorded, while a note-taking approach was used for the bulk of the work. Depending on the length of the exchanges, I either wrote word by word what the interlocutor(s) said, or used my own words to paraphrase and/or summarise the conversations. These exchanges took place during the participants' idle time.</p> <p>As part of the informal discussions, all three participants gave oral evaluations for the lessons observed. In addition, I photocopied and collected the following documents: the lesson plans, the pages of the textbook containing the lesson(s) observed, and the teacher's book page(s) giving guidance for each lesson observed.</p>
V	November 2012- April 2013	<p>Title: Enriching and clarifying the data collected (Round Two)</p> <p>Aims: To clarify ideas and concepts not fully elaborated during the data collection process.</p> <p>Procedure: A total of 7 follow-up emails were exchanged with the three teachers. The emails contained 10 clarifying questions.</p>

VI	November 2013	<p>Title: Data collection (Round Three)</p> <p>Aims: To collect the data for the research project</p> <p>Procedure: Two teachers were observed one 45-minute EFL class at the institution where each of them worked. Each of the teachers attended one one-on-one 10-15 minute post-observation interviews. Both observation sessions were video-recorded. I spent two days at the institution where each instructor worked, and had 20 short discussions with the participants, their colleagues and school headmaster. Seven of these informal exchanges were video-recorded, while a note-taking approach was used for the bulk of the work. Depending on the length of the exchanges, I either wrote word by word what the interlocutor(s) said, or used my own words to paraphrase and/or summarise the conversations. These exchanges took place during the participants' idle time.</p> <p>As part of the informal discussions, both participants gave oral evaluations for the lesson observed. In addition, I photocopied and collected the following documents: the lesson plan, the pages of the textbook containing the lesson(s) observed, and the teacher's book page(s) giving guidance for each lesson observed.</p>
VII	December 2013 – March 2014	<p>Title: Enriching and clarifying the data collected (Round Three)</p> <p>Aims: To clarify ideas and concepts not fully elaborated during the data collection process.</p> <p>Procedure: A total of six follow-up emails were exchanged with the three teachers. The emails contained eight clarifying questions.</p>
VIII	June 2014	<p>Title: Participant debriefing</p> <p>Procedure: The four participating teachers were given an electronic copy of the study. Participants were also given electronic copies of :</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1) - the recordings of their observation sessions 2) - the recordings, and the transcripts of formal, and informal conversations they and their colleagues had with me 3) - the email exchanges between the participant and the researcher 4) – the translation of the excerpts that appear in the study

Table 4.3: A description of the eight stages that the present research project followed

The importance of providing detailed explanations of how data were collected in a qualitative study was highlighted in section 4.4. The detailed information about the eight stages that the present research project followed provided in this section will help readers assess the dependability of the study.

4.5.8 Reviewing and assessing the findings of the study

Once the data and the findings were available for the first case study, to avoid researcher bias or over-estimation/under-estimation of analysis, arrangements were made with a former colleague (Dr. Kamberaj) to act as a critical peer debriefer. Dr. Kamberaj holds a doctorate in education, and has extensive experience in teacher education and supervising doctoral students. Dr. Kamberaj agreed that there were no major concerns about the validity and credibility of the findings of the present study.

Another type of debriefing that was used in this study is “participants’ debriefing” (Given, 2008:200). At the beginning of July 2014, the participants were emailed a copy of the completed study to thank them for their contribution to the study, as well as to let them know which part of their own words would appear in the study. Participants were also emailed copies of the transcripts of the conversations and emails they and their colleagues had had with me to meet the criteria of “member checking” (Lincoln and Guba, 1985:229), as well as the translation of the excerpts that appear in the study to establish trustworthiness in interpretation and translation. Two weeks after the email was sent to the four teachers (the time given to the participating teachers to become familiar with the study), I met the participants individually at local public libraries. During the peer-debriefing, which lasted between 22 and 28 minutes, I informed the participating teachers about the benefits of the present study to them, and to the field of TESOL in general. In an informal chat format, I asked each participant to comment on the preliminary findings of the study, discussed with each teacher the accuracy of the data translated from Albanian to English, encouraged the participating teachers to give their own feedback on the interpretation of their own words that appeared in the study, tried to alleviate any discomfort the teachers were experiencing, and asked whether they were glad they had participated in this study or wished they had not participated. Participants were also assured that their identities, and any confidential information they had given would not be disclosed for any reason. In addition, they were assured that the research data were stored in a safe place.

At the end of the participant debriefing meeting, all four participants confirmed that the interpretations of the data were accurate. Moreover, all four teachers claimed that they enjoyed participating in this research.

4.5.9 Transferability of the present study

In order to make it possible for readers to decide whether similar phenomena can be at work in other communities, this study provided a thick description of the context within which the present study occurred in chapter 3. Where appropriate, commonalities and differences in the education systems, schools, resources, policies, and cultures of East-European ex-communist countries were mentioned. All this information will help the reader make judgements about the probability that the present study findings have meaning in other similar contexts.

4.5.10 Summary

This section summarised the strategies employed in the present project to support the trustworthiness of this qualitative study. It provided sufficient details of 1) the preliminary considerations that I thought through before beginning the study; 2) the processes I engaged in during the conduct of the project; and 3) the overall research approach of the current project to allow readers to be able to evaluate the trustworthiness of the present study.

4.6 Understanding the processes of analysing and interpreting qualitative data

Trustworthiness of qualitative studies also depends on the credibility of the researcher since he/she is the only person who is the major instrument of data collection and analysis (Patton, 1990). To promote credibility, I described in detail in section 4.4 my understanding of several important concepts related to the process of data collection. What follows is a description of my interpretation of several important concepts related to the process of data analysis in qualitative studies.

4.6.1 Content analysis

Qualitative content analysis is a data analysis strategy that is often used in many disciplines, most commonly in linguistics, political science, business, psychology, history, and education (Waltz et al., 2010). The method is defined by Mayring (2000:2) as “an approach of empirical, methodological

controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analysis rules and step by step models”. However, because there are a number of theoretical traditions and methods in the field of qualitative research, many experts (Yardley, 2000; Patton, 2002; Morse and Richards, 2002; Bradley et al., 2007) believe that there are no singularly appropriate rules and models to conduct qualitative data analysis. Patton (2002) claims that it is the responsibility of the researcher to choose the right tool for the right job.

4.6.2 Preparation and organisation of the data

The process of analysis starts with the preparation of the data for analysis - what Esterberg (2002) calls “housekeeping”. At the very beginning, the researcher transcribes video/audio tapes, and reviews all field notes to make sure they are legible and complete. Poland (2002) notes that a researcher needs to make sure he/she has sufficient quality data, and not just sufficient qualitative data for examination. According to Poland, researchers have good quality data when they 1) make effective use (i.e. they use clear voice and at a measured pace) of good quality recording devices; 2) are aware of the immediate context of what is being said (i.e. pay attention to the non-verbal communication, laughter, pauses, sighs, and voice intonation, volume, and pitch), as well as the wider context of the interview (i.e. where and when the interview is taking place); 3) reproduce in the transcriptions the ‘actual’ talk (i.e. with pauses and other grammatical errors) rather than a tidied-up version.

After transcribing the data, the research needs to consider how to organise the data. There are no precise rules on how to organise the data and researchers might make piles of research field notes and transcriptions in their offices (Lodico et al., 2010; Hatch, 2012). However, Esterberg (2002) argues that research data can be more manageable if a researcher develops a cataloguing system.

- 1) Organising the data by the data forms. That is to say, all data related to field interviews are stored together in a separate place (e.g. drawer), as are data related to observation sessions, questionnaires, and so on. Within the interview drawer, there can be many folders – each folder containing the transcript of one interview, as well as any other information pertinent to that particular interview.
- 2) Organising the data by topic/emerging themes. That is to say, all data related to a particular theme are stored together in the same place/drawer. To sort and separate the data within

each theme folder, researchers might use chronological identifiers (e.g. lesson observed on (date here)).

- 3) Organising the data by day/date. That is to say, all field data collected on a particular day and dates are stored in the same place/folder.
- 4) Organising the data by research site. That is to say, all field data collected in a particular place are stored in the same place/folder.

List adapted from Esterberg (2002:153-157)

Cohen et al. (2011) encourage researchers to transfer all transcriptions and notes to an electronic format, and save multiple copies.

4.6.3 Writing initial thoughts

While transcribing recorded interviews and transferring notes and summaries to an electronic format, researchers need to underline the text that strikes them. This can be a word, an action, a quote, a passage, anything that captures their interest (Saldaña, 2009). The process of noting the text worthy of attention, also known as pre-coding (Layder, 1998), is important for two main reasons. Firstly, the text can become key pieces of evidence to support the research findings (Lofland et al., 2006; Creswell, 2007). Secondly, by reading the raw data, and searching for rich or significant content, researchers start an early conversation with themselves about the data (Clarke, 2005). During this stage, it is recommended that researchers write their initial thoughts (called “memos”) in the margins of transcripts. Researchers’ preliminary jottings do not have to be accurate at this point, “just ideas for analytic consideration while the study progresses” (Saldaña, 2009:17). However, researchers’ early thoughts should be recorded in such a way that they are easily distinguished from the body of data. Liamputtong and Ezzy (2005) recommend capitalizing, italicizing, or bolding the initial thoughts.

4.6.4 The designation of the unit of analysis

The process continues with the second step: the designation of the unit of analysis. At this point, the researcher faces three main dilemmas: 1) how much data to examine; 2) into how many segments of text to break the data; and 3) which coding method to use. Talking about the quantity of information the researcher has to examine, Lofland et al. (2006) claim that anything and everything collected

merits examination, while Seidman (2006) supports the view that, in many cases, coding half of the record (i.e. the most salient proportion of the data collected) can provide sufficient data for analysis. Agar (1991) goes even further and suggests that examining intensively only a small bit of data and thinking intensively about that data can also be a productive and useful strategy.

According to Saldaña, (2009), the main qualitative entity analysed can be words, themes, characters, items, and space-and-time allocations. The choice depends on the research task(s). Minichiello et al. (1990) note that text of any length (i.e. a word, a sentence, a paragraph, as well as an entire document) can be used as the unit of analysis for narratives. However, Basit (2010) points out that the researcher may lose sight of the fuller picture if a too narrow unit of analysis (e.g. a word) is selected. Likewise, choosing large units of analysis that contain complex ideas can question the reliability of a study. In the same vein, Graneheim and Lundman (2004) show how different coders can divide the same content differently using the same unit of analysis that consists of more than one sentence.

4.6.5 Coding perspective

As regards the coding perspective, most experienced researchers (Mello, 2002; Patton, 2002; Dewalt and DeWalt, 2002, Saldaña, 2009) agree that each qualitative study has to employ a unique coding method to suit the unique needs of the study. This might be a rather difficult task for inexperienced researchers and Saldaña (2009) advises that they should try a combination of the following first cycle coding methods:

1. Attribute coding. This type of coding is “the notion of basic descriptive information such as the field setting, participant characteristics or demographics, data format, time frames, and other variables” (Saldaña, 2009:70). Attribute coding can be used for all data as a management technique.
2. Structural coding or holistic coding. The former applies “a content-based or conceptual phrase representing a topic of enquiry to a segment of data that relates to a specific research question used to frame the interview” (MacQueen et al., 2008:124). The latter attempts to “grasp basic themes or issues in the data by absorbing them as a whole rather than by analysing them line by line” (Dey, 1993:104). Structural and holistic coding can be used for all data as a “grand tour” overview.

3. Descriptive coding. This type of coding summarises in a word or short phrase the main topic of a passage of qualitative data. According to Saldaña (2009), descriptive code should be an identification of a topic (i.e. what is talked or written about), not an abbreviation of the content (i.e. the substance of the message). Descriptive coding can be used for field notes, documents, and artifacts as a detailed inventory of their contents.
4. In vivo coding (i.e. a method of extracting terms used by participants themselves and using them to represent a topic of enquiry to a segment of data), initial coding (i.e. a method of “breaking down qualitative data into discrete parts, closely examining them, and comparing them for similarities and difference” (Corbin and Strauss, 1998:102), and/or values coding (i.e. “the application of codes onto qualitative data that reflect a participant’s values, attitudes, and beliefs, representing his or her perspectives or worldviews” (Saldaña, 2009:110). These three coding methods can be used for interview transcripts as a method of attuning oneself to participants’ language, perspectives and worldviews.

Böhm (2004:271) believes that the use of some wh-questions (e.g. What is at issue here?; What phenomenon is being addressed?; What aspects of the phenomenon are addressed?; What actors are involved?; When and Where?; and What reasons are given or may be deduced?) can help researchers in the process of writing inductively¹⁴⁾-conceptualised codes (i.e. “tags or labels that help catalogue key concepts while preserving the context in which these concepts occur” (Miles and Huberman, 1994:56). During this first coding cycle, preserving the connections between participants’ thoughts and their context seems to be of extreme importance (Saldaña, 2009). To achieve this end, the researcher needs to re-immerses him/herself in the data through repeated reading of the text to comprehend its meaning in its entirety (Pope et al., 2000). In addition, writing notes in the text to describe any ideas relevant to the research questions, as well as to highlight links within and between ideas can be helpful. Indeed, Richards and Morse (2007:137) claim that “coding links you (the researcher) from data to the idea and from the idea to all the data pertaining to that idea”. The process of writing and re-writing memos, coding, and re-coding continues as new data are collected, and does not terminate until there is enough field evidence to fully develop concepts, including new concepts emerging from freshly-collected data.

¹⁴⁾ “Inductive analysis means that the patterns, themes, and categories of analysis come from the data; they emerge out of the data rather than being imposed on them prior to data collection and analysis” (Patton, 1980:306).

4.6.6 Generating categories

Meanwhile, codes are transcribed into a coding sheet, and patterns that bear commonalities (i.e. similar concept, frequency, order or happen in predictably different ways, appear to cause each other, or happen in relation to other activities (Hatch, 2012) are combined into broader categories. The constant comparative method (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) is often used in qualitative content analysis to generate categories because, through the development of interpretive memos and the systematic comparison of each individual theme assigned to a category with the other themes assigned to the same category, the researcher can refine dimensions of the existing codes and/or identify new ones.

To add clarity and consistency to the process of coding schemes, Lincoln and Guba (1985:349) suggest the development of categories that are internally homogenous (i.e. all themes that fit into a category must hold together in some meaningful way), and externally heterogeneous (i.e. clear and bold differences among categories). In addition, Weber (1990) recommends the use of a coding manual where category names and rules for assigning codes are clearly defined, and examples for each category are included. Lastly, coding a sample of the data at the beginning and at the end of the process can add validity and consistency to the research. This testing and re-testing approach is essential to assess the clarity of category definitions and coding rules, as well as the consistency of the coder's understanding of the categories and coding rules (Weber, 1990). The process of re-checking the validity and consistency of the coding scheme is particularly important when more than one coder is involved in the process of category formation, and when new codes and categories are added as more data is collected.

4.6.7 Second cycle coding

During the next step, the researcher typically reorganises and reconfigures the data already coded. Different second cycle coding methods can be employed at this stage, e.g. pattern coding (i.e. "a way of grouping those summaries into a smaller number of sets, themes, or constructs" (Miles and Huberman, 1994:69); focused coding (i.e. the process of choosing some of your most useful and relevant initial codes and applying them to larger chunks of data" (Gordon-Finlayson, 2010:170), axial coding (i.e. the process of extending the analytic work from initial coding by strategically relating concepts/categories to each other" (Corbin and Strauss, 2008:17); and so on. However, all of them seek to "develop a sense of categorical, thematic, conceptual and/or theoretical organization from first cycle codes" (Saldaña, 2009:145) that will permit the researcher to discover themes that run through raw data. Typically, the categories generated, or rather their unique

properties, represent the results of a qualitative study. The researcher, therefore, needs to fully understand the meaning of each category by exploring the content of its subcategories. Bradley (1993) suggests two activities that can be done at this stage: 1) identifying relationships among categories; and 2) testing categories against a full range of data.

4.6.8 Drawing conclusions

However, discovery is not always reducible to codes. Klenke (2008) points out that researchers might lose a sense of the whole if they categorise all of the codes without regard to their relation to the whole. In the same vein, Seidel (1998) shows how discovery can derive through the combination of focused attention and intensive analysis of a small part of the data. Hence, researchers need to pay attention to all evidence. Additionally, according to Agar (1991), when researchers interpret the implication of those clues for research questions, they need to use a lot of right brain functions. Agar (ibid:190) argues that “data analysis micro-level work requires looking at a few detailed passages, over and over again, doing the dialectic dance between an idea about how text is organized and a couple of examples, figuring out what I was looking at, how to look at it, and why”. This holistic way of analysing data requires a lot of right brain since it is the right hemisphere of the brain where holistic processing takes place.

Another important part of the process of drawing conclusions is focusing on the variations that are most appropriate for the study (Weber, 1990). It is often acknowledged that many interesting topics, which are not central to the research study, are likely to emerge during the whole process. However, the researchers should always keep in mind the research tasks so that they are not lost in extensive transcripts. According to Auerbach and Silverstein (2003) keeping a copy of the central research questions in front of you while coding and recoding might help in this regard.

4.6.9 Reporting the findings

Reporting the findings of the study can be challenging as “there are no detailed instructions on how to carry out this phase” (Elo and Kyngäs, 2007). Patton (2002:503) points out that this stage needs to “provide sufficient descriptions to allow the reader to understand the basis for an interpretation, and sufficient interpretation to allow the reader to understand the description”. Yet, while it can be relatively easy to provide sufficient details for some parts, such as using illustrative examples to justify conclusions, reporting why the study is worth paying attention to, describing in detail the

background and the context, and so on, it can be harder to put into words the researcher's own actions (Backman and Kyngäs, 1999) concerning the coding process and other decisions taken.

Nevertheless, the research process never finishes unless the researcher gives an in depth and well-considered explanation, grounded in the data collected, for the research tasks.

4.6.10 Summary

It was seen in this section that there are no precise rules that can guide researchers through the processes of discovering patterns, themes, categories, and ideas. Experts (Patton, 2002; Morse and Richards, 2002; Bradley et al., 2007; Saldaña, 2009) recommend a pragmatic approach whereby researchers choose the right tool for the right job. While this approach might work for experienced researchers, it can be very confusing for many investigators that are new to this field. Being a newcomer to qualitative inquiry, I found it useful to review briefly the literature on metadata activities (i.e. "the entire process and products of creating data about the data in the form of codes, analytic memos, and graphical summaries" according to Guest and MacQueen, 2008:14). Acquainting myself with the basic analytic processes before conducting analysis helped me to choose the right tool for my predominately qualitative research project. The choices I made to analyse and interpret data in the study are discussed in detail in the next section.

4.7 Data analysing and interpreting approach adopted in the present study

The data were analysed in the present study for two main purposes: 1) to investigate how communicatively Albanian EFL teachers used commercial textbooks in their classes; 2) to explore themes, patterns, understandings, and insights related to the use of the textbooks in the Albanian context.

Both quantitative and qualitative methods of analysis were employed to fulfil these aims. Details about the analysing approaches chosen in this inquiry are given in the following paragraphs.

4.7.1 Quantitative analysis

The COLT scheme was used to reduce classroom patterns to several main quantifiable categories. Firstly, for all the activities, the principal focus was marked. For example, a “listen-and-filling-in-the-gap” type of activity was coded in “combinations”, since it targets listening and writing skills. In contrast, a listen-for-pleasure song was classified as a listening in isolation activity. The start and finish times of activities were rounded to the nearest minute. The amount of classroom time dedicated to each activity was calculated by summing up the minutes spent in completing activities that belonged to the same category. Then, for the purpose of giving meaning to raw scores, the percentage of class time spent on doing each activity was calculated by using the following formula:

$$X \text{ (in \%)} = \frac{Y \times 100}{45}$$

X = Percentage of class time spent on doing a particular activity (i.e. listening); Y = minutes spent in completing activities related to the particular activity (i.e. listening) during a 45-minute class; 100 = the denominator; 45=the length of an observation session.

A similar formula was used to calculate the dynamics of the class (the actual way students completed the activity was coded as “individual”, “pair”, “group”, and “class”), and the focus of each activity (tallied as “form”, “meaning”, “use”, and “combinations”).

Depending on how the teacher instructed the students to do an activity, the teacher’s instructions were coded as “individual”, “pair”, “group”, and “class”. The teacher’s instructions were also compared to textbook/teacher’s book instructions. The ones that were similar to textbook instructions were tallied as “instructions similar to textbook”; accordingly, the other instructions were labelled as “instructions partially similar to textbook”, and “instructions different from textbook”. The

observation scheme also measured how many times the teacher shifted the focus of textbook activities by comparing the material target focus (i.e. “form”, “meaning”, and “use”) to the teacher target focus (i.e. what the teacher actually did in her classroom).

The source of the activity (i.e. textbook, other published materials, Internet, teacher-made, student-made), and the use of L1 and L2 were two other parameters targeted by the observation scheme.

Mean percentages computed for each category for each observation session, were added up and divided by four (the total number of observation sessions) to obtain overall mean percentage for each case study. Frequency distribution tables were used to present and compare the data.

Participants’ answers to research questions 3 (“Can you think of any other way/approach of doing the same activity?”), and 4 (“Where did you first see/encounter this teaching approach?”) were also analysed quantitatively. The participating teachers’ answers to question 3 were counted and expressed as a percentage of teachers’ awareness of different teaching approaches, while frequencies of various answers to question 4 were calculated in percentage using the following percentage formula:

$$\frac{\text{part}}{\text{whole}} = \frac{\%}{100}$$

The data from observation sessions and post-observation interviews were also analysed qualitatively. Qualitative analysis is described in more detail in the next session.

4.7.2 Qualitative analysis

At the end of each day, I transcribed the videotaped interviews. All transcripts were verbatim accounts of what transpired in the interview (i.e. they were not edited). I indicated pauses longer than three seconds, hesitations, laughter, and interruptions by using brackets, e.g. (pause). Underlining was used to indicate some form of stress, and speech between double brackets was given to provide additional information about the setting of the interview, facial expressions or body language, and other contextual information that I thought would help me to capture the true meaning of the participants’ words. My own additions are inserted within square brackets.

All transcripts, summaries of transcripts, e-mail correspondence, participant observation notes, journal entries, memos, and lesson plan/post-observation notes were transferred to an electronic format (i.e. Microsoft Words), and were stored in a personal computer. While transcribing recorded interviews and transferring notes and summaries to a Microsoft Word format, I created a general idea

of the type of the data my research methods had generated (i.e. how clear (or not) the participants expressed their thoughts, how lengthy (or not) their responses were, how fully (or not) they were answering to the research questions, and so on). In addition, at this early stage of analysis, I highlighted participants' quotes or passages that struck me. By so doing, I become thoroughly absorbed in the data early in the analyses (Dey, 1993).

Once I finished the process of transcribing and transferring the data to a Microsoft Words format, I started the process of data analysis. All field data collected in the same school were stored together, and I analysed the data by teacher.

In terms of analytic approach, I employed a qualitative content analysis. To keep things as simple as possible, I decided to analyse my data by hand. That is to say, I read the hard-copy printouts of the transcripts, notes, memos, and summaries one by one, and tried to break the data apart in individual, essence-capturing segments that could help me to understand and interpret the participants' teacher decisions, as well as how their beliefs, pedagogical knowledge, and teacher's book guidance were represented in their delivery styles. A middle-order holistic coding perspective, "somewhere between holistic and line-by-line" (Saldaña, 2009:118), was employed to achieve this purpose. This choice was made for two main reasons. Firstly, I already had a general idea – obtained by the review of the literature on the factors that affect EFL teaching in Albania - of how to chunk the corpus into broad thematic areas. Secondly, the present study involves the analysis of a variety of data forms, and holistic coding seems to be very appropriate for these kinds of qualitative studies (Saldaña, 2009).

More precisely, by means of a broader whole-text empirical approach, single holistic codes (either in vivo or descriptive codes) were applied to text segments of different lengths that provided clues as to why the teachers did what they did in their class. Afterwards, for more detailed analysis, the same text segments were analysed again and middle-order codes were applied where applicable (see Appendix 24 for an example). The combination of whole and middle-order approaches generated fifty-one codes (see Appendix 25).

Next, I studied the list of fifty-one codes to identify links between any of the codes. As a result of this code-to-code comparing process, similar codes were collected for closer scrutiny, some codes were subsumed by other codes, some others were dropped all together, and a coding manual with twenty five codes was generated (see Appendix 26).

The list of twenty-five codes was then applied to the raw data. Said in other words, I compared the raw data to code(s) by going back through the summaries, quotes, memos, and transcripts again, reading every single word and sentence and asking myself two main questions "What is it about?" and

“What does it mean?”. Then, I allocated each piece of data to the appropriate code (or codes) of the twenty-five code list.

Afterwards, the twenty five codes were clustered together according to similar concepts. For example, the codes “Students’ previous learning” and “Students’ needs” were grouped together into the category “Students’ needs” because the concepts and ideas students are exposed to during their previous studies (i.e. their previous learning) are key determinants of students’ present needs. As a result of this categorisation, eleven main categories that drew out preliminary concepts that identified factors that influenced teacher decision making were developed. As seen in table 4.4, each of the eleven categories contains a number of subcategories.

Category Name	Codes Emerged
Students’ Motivation	Students’ Expectations Student’s Motivation
Students’ Needs	Students’ Previous Learning Students’ Needs
Knowledge of the Community Context	Knowledge of the Community
Knowledge of the School Context	Knowledge of the School Headmaster Expectations School Facilities
Knowledge of Self	Teacher’s Values Teacher’s Extrinsic Motivation
Beliefs	Teacher’s Beliefs about L2 Learning Teacher’s Beliefs about L2 Teaching
Knowledge of Instructional Strategies	Teacher’s Undergraduate Education In-Service Teacher Training Other Teachers’ Influence Personal Development Teacher’s Previous Learning Experiences
L2 Teaching Resources	Knowledge of Curriculum Textbook Teacher’s Book

	Knowledge of How to Use the Textbook
Knowledge of the Subject	Knowledge of English Knowledge of L2 Socio/Cultural Properties Knowledge of L1 Grammar
Knowledge of Teaching Methodology	Knowledge of student-centred approaches
Heuristic Decisions	Heuristic Decisions

Table 4.4: Formation of categories

Axial Coding, which “relates categories to subcategories, specifies the properties and dimensions of a category, and reassembles the data the researcher has fractured to give coherence to emerging categories” (Charmaz, 2006:60), was used as a second cycle analytic process. More precisely, using the constant comparative technique, each piece of data belonging to a category was compared with every other piece of data belonging to the same category and other categories to identify redundancies and similarities. It was during this process, for instance, that I noticed that the three categories “knowledge of students”, “knowledge of the community context”, and “knowledge of the school” could help me clarify the meaning of the concept of the teaching context and, thus, all three categories were merged together. As a result of this process, similar categories were combined together, and eight defined categories, shown in Table 4.5, were generated initially.

Category Name	Codes Emerged
Knowledge of Students	Students’ Previous Learning Students’ Needs Students’ Expectations Student’s Motivation
Knowledge of the Community Context	Knowledge of the Community
Knowledge of the School Context	Knowledge of the School Headmaster Expectations School Facilities
Teacher Beliefs & Knowledge of selves	Teacher’s Beliefs about L2 Learning Teacher’s Beliefs about L2 Teaching Teacher’s Values Teacher’s Extrinsic Motivation

Knowledge of Instructional Strategies	Teacher's Undergraduate Education In-Service Teacher Training Other Teachers Personal Development Teacher's Previous Learning Experiences Knowledge of student-centred approaches
L2 Teaching Resources	Knowledge of Curriculum Teacher's Book Textbook
Heuristic Decisions	Heuristic Decisions
Others	Factors that do not fit the other categories

Table 4.5: Refining categories – axial coding (first round)

An analytic memo, shown in Figure 4.2, reveals the development of my thinking process about the codes and categories while relating categories to subcategories during the axial coding:

28 April 2013

Coding: Reorganising the categories

After reviewing the categories another time, I feel that Teacher Learning and Teaching Experiences should be a category on its own. It is true that Teacher Learning Previous Experiences (Subcategory) influences to a great degree Teacher Knowledge of Instructional Strategies (Category). This is clearly the case of Miss Ada: she is aware of communicative teaching approaches because, as a student, she was exposed to a communication-based teaching approach. However, Miss Evis is also aware of communicative teaching approaches because she has attended a number of CLT theory-based training events. Yet, Miss Evis – who had been exposed to traditional methods of learning as a student - teaches in a very traditional way.

When novice teachers first enter their classes, they are likely to approach the teaching in the same way as their teachers did (when we make decisions as humans we are likely to select as an outcome an alternative with which we are familiar with, and novice teachers are very familiar with their own teachers' delivery style because they have been exposed to it for 3 or 4 years). With the passing of years, novice teachers are likely to rely on the same teaching approach. It follows that Teacher Learning Previous Experiences directly influences what teachers do in their classes (rather than Teacher Knowledge of Instructional Strategies). Therefore, it should be a category on its own.

Note: Does it mean that teachers keep doing the same things during all their lives? Most likely not. Due to the influence of other factors (e.g. knowledge of students, knowledge of community, and so on) teachers are likely to add new things in their repertoire. For example, Miss Elona plays a song to motivate her students, Miss Evis replaces inappropriate reading passages with business-related reading passages, Miss Landa uses mainly English in her classes because she believes students are not often in contact with the language, and so on.

Figure 4.2: Axial Coding analytic memo

As shown in section 4.3.2.3, during the process of data collection and analysis, I continually recorded my thoughts, impressions, and tentative interpretations in the form of an interpretive narrative. These notes, as shown below, eventually helped me to define the shape of the core categories.

The process of sorting and re-sorting the data was done three times by the researcher until five axial categories (see table 4.6 below) emerged.

Category Name	Axial Codes
Knowledge of Students	Knowledge of teaching Context
Knowledge of the Community Context	
Knowledge of the School Context	
Teacher Beliefs & Knowledge of Selves	Teacher Beliefs & Knowledge
Knowledge of Instructional Strategies	
L2 Teaching Resources	Textbooks, Curriculum, and Language Policies
	Teacher Previous Learning Experiences
Heuristic Decision	Heuristic Decisions

Table 4.6: Refining categories – axial coding (third round)

Analytic memos were also used to reassemble data that were fractured during the previous stages of the qualitative analysis. More precisely, Miss Landa unknowingly did the analytic work for me when she stated the following in one of our informal interviews:

The question is (pause) “Do I always follow textbook suggestions in my classes?” Well, in all honesty, no! This is because I (pause) I (pause) am (pause) inclined to think that I will still do in my class the same things, and the same thing again, and again. Things (pause) I am comfortable with, no matter what the textbook says [Source: IR].

The analytic memo that accompanied this quote, shown in Figure 4.3, was used as the starting point in bringing codes and analytic memos to life, and helping me realize where the story of the data was going.

25 January 2012

Interview Transcription: Miss Landa Interview 5 (12.01.2012)

Question: Is the teacher suggesting that she approaches the process of teaching unconsciously? What role does routine (*things she is comfortable with?*) play in the process of teaching?

Figure 4.3: Analytic memo accompanying an interview

Two years and three months later, the diagramming process started from this note, and two core categories which integrated the axial codes at a higher level of abstraction were created: Conscious and Unconscious Decisions. The core category Conscious Decisions integrated semantically the axial codes: Knowledge of Teaching Context, Textbooks, Curriculum and Language Policies, Teacher Beliefs and Knowledge, and Teacher Learning and Teaching Experiences. All the teaching behaviours grouped in the axial code Conscious Decisions share similar properties: they represent conscious instructional decisions. The degree of consciousness, however, might vary from clearly motivated selections (as in the case of playing a song in the classroom to motivate students) to unconscious decisions (as in the case of teacher decision influenced by teacher belief and knowledge systems). With the passing of time, through means of repetition, these teaching behaviours are likely to become part of the teachers' delivery routine. As seen in chapter 2.2.2, frequently occurring events are easy to recall and decision makers tend to think of situations or occurrences easily brought to mind as more important than instances of less frequent classes. As a result, teachers – to simplify the process of choosing among alternatives - might use heuristics based on their previous teaching and learning experiences. It follows that decisions influenced by Knowledge of Teaching Context, Textbooks, Curriculum, and Language Policies, Teacher Belief and Knowledge, and Teacher Learning and Teaching Experiences are likely to turn into heuristics if teachers incorporate the teaching practices influenced by those factors into their daily routines.

The other core category, i.e. Unconscious Decision, includes all the heuristics used by teachers in making instructional decisions.

A simple dimensions and properties diagram derived from Axial Coding is shown in Figure 4.4.

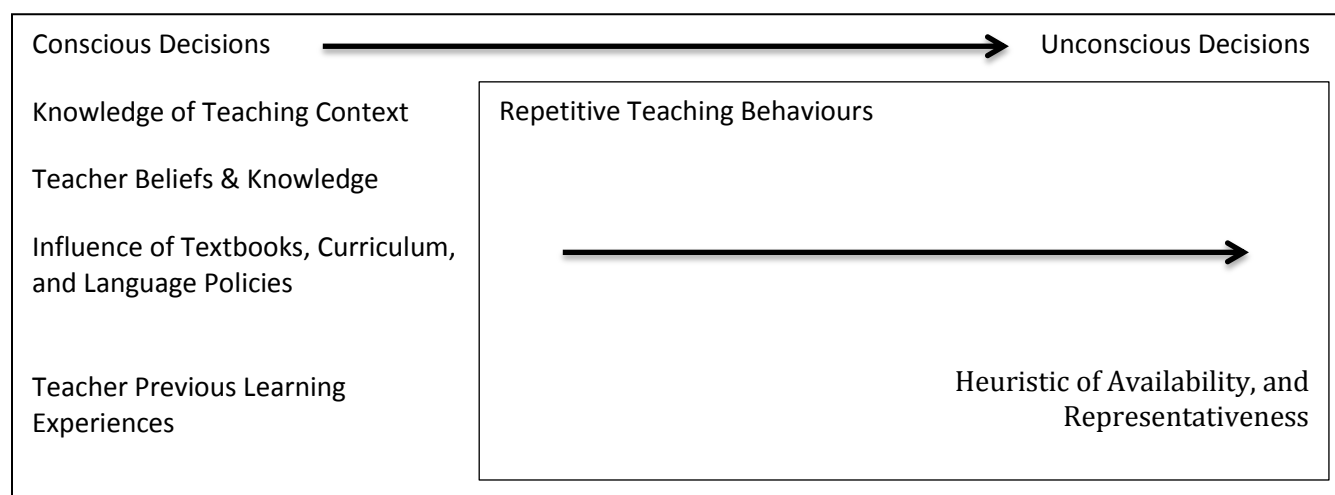


Figure 4.4: Dimensions and properties table derived from Axial Coding

The two main categories emerged from the axial coding process, i.e. “conscious decisions” and “unconscious decisions”, helped me to understand and explain how and why Albanian teachers use Western-published textbooks in their EFL classes.

4.8 Summary

The purpose of the present study was to explore how communicatively Albanian teachers use textbooks in their classrooms. The following questions guided the study:

- 1) How communicatively do Albanian EFL teachers use text-books?
- 2) What shapes Albanian EFL teachers’ decisions on how to use text-books in their classes?
 - What role does a Teacher’s book play in the use of text-books?

Four high school teachers volunteered to participate in the study. The four teachers have very different teaching experiences and backgrounds: one of them is an example of a novice teacher, another represents a more experienced teacher with hand-on CLT teaching experience, another is a mid-career teacher and teacher-trainer with a strong CLT knowledge, and the last teacher is a very experienced practitioner with more than twenty years of EFL teaching.

Four case studies were constructed to fulfil the aims of the present study. Data were obtained through a variety of sources: observations, post-observation interviews, informal discussions with the participating teachers, their colleagues and their principals, post-lesson evaluation discussions, and a questionnaire on teachers’ beliefs on L2 teaching and learning. In addition, photocopies of textbook materials, teacher book pages, and lesson plans were collected. The data were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. An observation grid was used for quantitative purposes, and a qualitative content approach was employed to analyse the data qualitatively.

The findings from each individual case study are presented in chapter 5. A consistent sequence is used to represent the findings: firstly, an introduction and a profile of each participant is given. Following this, empirical data collected by each participant are connected to the study’s main research questions. Descriptions and quotes are used to help the reader to understand the basis for each interpretation.

Chapter 5

FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the answers to the research questions. It does so by discussing the findings from each case study separately. Each case study discussion begins with a profile of the participating teacher. The profile presents information about the teacher, including academic education, professional training, and teaching experiences. Additionally, a brief description of the school where each teacher worked is included so that teachers' decisions are fully portrayed within the context in which they took place. To create the profile, data were extracted from the following sources: 1) Participants' answers to the five-item email questionnaire (shown in Appendix 13); 2) Participants' completion of the questionnaire on teachers' beliefs (shown in Appendix 14); 3) Formal and informal oral and email interviews with the participants and their colleagues; and 4) Post-observation interviews. The form used to summarise the information on each research question obtained by interviews is shown in Appendix 15.

Next, each case study discussion answers the first research question, "How communicatively do Albanian EFL teachers use textbooks?", by presenting the findings from the observation sessions for each participant. As explained in chapter 4, an adapted version of COLT was used to answer this question.

Lastly, each case study discussion answers the second research question, "What shapes Albanian EFL teachers' decisions on how to use text-books in their classes?", and its sub-question on the role of the teacher's book in the use of text-books. It does so by revealing the main overarching themes that emerged from each participant's answers to the five-item email questionnaire - from now on referred to as EQ; participant's completion of the questionnaire on teachers' beliefs - from now on referred to as QTB; formal and informal oral and email interviews with the participants and their colleagues - from now on referred to as IR; post-observation interviews - from now on referred to as POI; teachers' lesson plans - from now on referred to as LP; teachers' post-lesson self-evaluations - from now on referred to as LE. The form used to summarise the information on each research question obtained by lesson plans and post-lesson self-evaluations is shown in Appendix 18; researcher's journal - from now on referred to as RJ. The form used to summarise and analyse analytic notes is shown in Appendix 19; and the qualitative analysis of observation sessions - from now on referred to as QAOS. The form used to analyse observation sessions qualitatively is shown in Appendix 12.

Findings from all four case studies are compared and contrasted for a final cross-case analysis in section 5.6.

5.2 Case study 1: Miss Elona

For this case study, three 45-minute classes were observed in October 2012. Miss Elona also attended three one-on-one 10-15 minute post-observation interviews, gave three oral feedbacks, and engaged in 34 informal discussions with me. In addition, I collected three lesson plans, exchanged four post-observation emails with the teacher, and photocopied the pages of the textbook containing the lessons observed, and the teacher's book pages giving guidance for the lessons observed. I also had 15 informal conversations with Miss Elona's colleagues and headmaster. I spent four days at the school where Miss Elona taught.

Miss Elona did not consent to the use of recording devices in her classroom. Consequently, a note-taking approach and the observation grids were used as the main means of collecting data in this case study.

This case study only contains three observed lessons because Miss Elona was absent from work in November 2013.

5.2.1 Miss Elona's profile

Miss Elona lives in a major southern city, and works as an EFL teacher in a high school in a nearby village. She commutes by public transportation and spends about two hours travelling on a daily basis. Yet, she says she enjoys working in this school. For the time being, she is not considering an opportunity to find a school nearer or in her hometown, because she genuinely cares for her students, and feels that *there is a place and a need for somebody like me* [i.e. a young teacher who shares similar interests with the students] *in this school* [Source: IR]. What she likes most about the school where she works are her students whom she describes as:

Most of them are (pause) not at all interested in studying English. (Laughter) Don't get me wrong, I mean proper English, like grammatically correct, using good words (pause) I mean, all what they want to do is recycling a couple of basic words, like "What's your name?" and "What's up, bro?" And this is because (pause) the majority of my students do not have any interest in going abroad or anything, like, I mean, continuing their studies after the completion of the high school. On top of that, (pause) they have little time to study because they have to help their parents with household chores. And, believe me (laughter), there are a many, I mean lot of chores when you live in a farm [Source: IR].

Yet, Miss Elona believes that there are still certain things that pique her students' interest:

They play "Candy Crush", by the way I hate that game. Such a silly game (laughter), they listen to pop music in English, they skype, so skype, and (pause) chat with their cousins in America, and some of them want to emigrate to go like to the UK, or America because their cousins or friends are there. So, (pause) they still are kind of interested in learning some English, but not real English; you know, (pause) more things like translating a slang they listen to in a movie, translating a song, translating sentences from Albanian because they want to use some long sentences when they chat online with other teenagers, and so on [Source: IR].

Miss Elona successfully completed the BA programme in English teaching and translation at the University of Vlora, and was given the right to work as a high school teacher¹⁵⁾ and translator in 2008 [Source: EQ]. After looking for a job for two years, a difficult period in her life, which she describes *as a nightmare of knocking on many office doors and pulling a lot of strings* [Source: IR], she was finally offered the opportunity to teach in this southern village school in September 2010. Miss Elona has not attended any teacher development course because:

These events are so rare, and we [teachers] are not informed properly. Like, there was this workshop or conference for English teachers in Berat [a nearby city] some time ago, but I missed it because I didn't know anything about it, nothing at all, you know. A friend of mine who attended it, she was actually, was the one who told me about it, found it very helpful [Source: IR].

"Blockbuster" - a four-level course book published by Express Publishing (see section 3.3.5 for more details) - is the only textbook she has used during her short teaching career [Source: EQ]. When she started teaching at this institution, she was asked to use that textbook because *it is like a school tradition, you know, that is the only course book English teachers use here* [Source: IR]. Miss Elona received some training (a two-hour session) in the use of the textbook "Blockbuster" from the local representatives of the publishing house.

Miss Elona claims she uses the teacher's book on a regular basis. The teacher finds "Blockbuster2" an easy textbook to teach because:

It has everything, like reading, grammar, vocab, speaking, listening, everything, and plenty of activities. So, you, you just have to teach it and don't have to think too much (laughter) [Source: IR].

The only criticism Miss Elona has about this textbook is the listening, which she finds inappropriate for her learners. In her view, *the speakers seem to have a heavy British accent. So, it is often difficult for students to understand most of the recordings* [Source: IR].

¹⁵⁾ In Albania, teachers do not need any specific certificate to work in the country's publicly funded schools. Upon successful completion of a BA programme in education, graduates are granted the right to teach in any school in the country.

Examples of the pages she used in one of her classes are shown in Appendix 28.

In terms of personality, Miss Elona puts stability and security above everything else. She describes herself as:

I am the type of girl who (pause) likes to (pause) have the situation under control. I mean like really, absolutely under control. (Pause) Like, if I am prepared about something, even if life throws lemons at me, I would know how to react [Source: IR].

Miss Elona believes that this personal disposition has affected the way she learned English as a foreign language, and the way she speaks English now as an EFL teacher. She explains how:

As a student, I remember, I spoke English when I was at home alone, I liked the way it sounded, and I still do (laughter). But I rarely spoke English in the classroom because, I remember, I was (pause) scared, yes, scared is the right word, to say something that might sound silly, nonsense in English. With the passing of years, I (pause) have gained confidence, of course, a lot of confidence (laughter) I use it alright in my classes, with my students, but, anyway, I, I avoid speaking English with people who can spot my mistakes, like colleagues or native speakers (laughter). This might be because I am aware that my English is not perfect. Nobody is perfect (laughter), right? [Source: IR].

After presenting a brief teacher profile that helps to situate Miss Elona's instructional decisions within the context in which they were taken, the discussion that follows in the next two sections answers the two main research questions for Miss Elona's case study.

5.2.2 How communicatively Miss Elona used the textbook

Miss Elona used the textbook to serve two main functions. Firstly, "Blockbuster2" was used as the primary curricular resource to organise and deliver instruction in her classes. Miss Elona used it as an exercise resource, structuring 85% of the 135-minute total classroom time around it. More details about the activities Miss Elona used in the classes observed are given below.

The teacher spent the remaining 15% of classroom time dealing with class management and discipline issues, as well as writing additional grammar rules on the blackboard to supplement the textbook materials. She justifies the latter as follows:

I know that English grammar concepts can be difficult to grasp for Albanian students (pause). My high school teacher, I remember, Miss Niqi, I remember, gave us a lot of grammar rules we could apply in our writing and speaking, and I remember, those rules helped us a lot [Source: IR]

From the above quote, Miss Elona's learning experience as an L2 learner starts to emerge as a factor that can influence teachers' behaviours.

The teacher also got her students to listen for 4 to 5 minutes to a song simply for the pleasure of listening. As regards the rationale behind playing hits in her classes, Miss Elona elaborates:

This is kind of a deal between them [the students] and me (pause). I play them one of the latest hits, translate parts of it, if they ask, and they, in return, (pause) they have to do some learning at home in return, kind of completing the homework or any other project [Source: IR].

This quote captures the important role the factor “knowledge of students” plays in shaping a number of instructional decisions Miss Elona made in her classes. The theme “knowledge of students” is discussed in detail in section 5.2.3.2.

Secondly, the textbook was the only standard instructional resource that guided the implementation of the course. Miss Elona’s stated intentions in working with the students were *covering the main grammar points, reading passages and vocab items that are in the textbook* [Source: IR]. There was a consistency between Miss Elona’s perception of the textbook as a curriculum guide to help her organise the planned content, and what she actually did during the observed lessons. Miss Elona planned and executed her daily lessons in accordance with the pre-planned, sequential, and structured learning order presented in the textbook, i.e. she started each lesson with a pre-listening/reading activity, continued with the reading/listening activity, and asked her students to complete focus-on-accuracy activities followed by focus-on-use tasks. For example, in one of the classes observed, Miss Elona asked her students to look at the picture (see exercise 6, Appendix 28, page 1), and guess the story before listening to the tape. Following the listening activity, the teacher explained the language used to express surprise/sympathy in English, and asked the students to complete individually exercise 8 to drill the new language. Exercise 9 was set as homework. Therefore, one can claim that the textbook was used in Miss Elona’s classes as a map to set the sequence of learning.

The use of the textbook as a map was also reinforced by the assessment tools Miss Elona used in her classes. In order to assess her students’ learning performance, Miss Elona continually used written or oral exercises from the book for two main purposes. Firstly, the teacher used True/False exercises to get students to identify a writer’s view or information in a text. For example, to check her students’ listening comprehension (exercise 6, Appendix 28, page 1), the teacher used the closed-ended question: *How many people died in the accident?* Secondly, the teacher used fill-in-the-gap and true/false activities to check for *competence indicators and help students to improve their English* [Source: POI]. Miss Elona defined as “competence indicators” *all the linguistic items students should have covered during their EFL studies* [Source: IR]. She elaborates further her notion of “competence indicators”:

I believe that students are good in English when they have mastered, or at least know how to use, even though not always correctly, all the grammatical items, like simple past, present perfect, passive, and so on, so everything they have seen, and should have learned during the previous years. Since I did not teach these students last year, to find information about the language they were exposed to [last year], I (pause) had a look at the “Blockbuster 1” table of contents [Source: IR].

The use of the textbook as a point of reference to judge individual and overall class learning outcomes is another indication of the use of materials as the *de facto* curriculum.

Miss Elona, however, rarely followed the student-student(s) interaction patterns recommended by the textbook and the teacher’s book. Instead of asking student to complete proficiency-based speaking activities in their pairs/groups, she continually led teacher-fronted speaking activities. Likewise, on three occasions, instead of asking students to compare the answers with each other after completing an exercise (teacher’s book recommendation), Miss Elona either collected her students’ work to check at a later time *how well each student is prepared for the lesson*, or provided on-the-spot whole-class feedback by asking her students to read one sentence each. She explains the why in the following paragraph:

(Hesitation) I don’t really get this. (Pause) Like why I have to ask my students, which means to waste time, to check the answers with each other when we still have to do it as a whole class to see what the right answers are? I mean, it does not make much sense, right? And students know that. And they don’t like it. I remember I asked them once to check the answers with each other, and you know what happened? They were saying to each other things like “No, my answer is right!”, “No, my answer is right and yours is wrong!” One of them got even offended, and said to her partner something like “Shut up!” or “Idiot” [Source: POI].

The percentage distribution of the total classroom time spent on each of the four main interaction patterns, i.e. individual, pairs, groups, and whole class, is shown in Table 5.1 (see section 4.7.1 for an explanation of how percentages were calculated).

Individual (S)	Pairs (S-s)	Group (Ss-S)	Class (T-Ss)
10%	4%	0%	86%

Table 5.1: Miss Elona’s classroom interaction patterns (Percentage distribution of total time)

Miss Elona’s classes were centred on the teacher (86% of total time). She continually told her students what needed to be done, and closely monitored how they completed their task. Only on six occasions (4% of total time), she asked two of her students to act out short listening scripts, after

listening to the tape, in front of other students *because students need to memorise some ready-to-use language to be communicative in English*. She believes this is an approach that works since this is the way she learned English herself. When asked whether she was aware of any other approach of doing the same activity, Miss Elona replied: *Well, as a matter of fact, apart from the way suggested in the textbook [teacher's book], I cannot think of anything else right now* [Source: POI].

The teacher's book also had little influence on the amount of time Miss Elona allocated to different textbook activities. More precisely, Miss Elona did not always respect the teacher's book recommendations regarding the time allocated to each activity, putting emphasis on rote learning and covering in less depth fluency development tasks. On two occasions, she did not do the free speaking activities at all in her classes *because of time constraints*.

The percentage distribution of the total time Miss Elona spent on classroom activities associated with traditional teaching methods (i.e. passive listening, reading, writing, and speaking, as well as teaching grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation rules), communicative teaching approaches (i.e. teaching skills in combinations, and activities that involve interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning), and issues related to class management is shown in Table 5.2.

Activity	Percentage
Non-communicative activities (i.e. passive listening, e.g. listening to a song; passive reading, e.g. reading aloud; passive writing, e.g. grammar and vocabulary drills; passive speaking, e.g. grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation drills; teaching grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation rules)	82%
Communicative tasks (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing activities that involve students in interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning)	10%
Other (e.g. class management, discipline issues, etc.)	8%

Table 5.2: Miss Elona's classroom activity patterns (Percentage distribution of total time)

Eighty-two percent of the total class time, Miss Elona's students were engaged in activities that focused on knowledge about the language. As illustrated in Excerpt 5.1, Miss Elona engaged students in activities that aim to analyse the use of the target language in a text (see Lines 1, 6, 7, 9, 18, and 20). In addition, she created many opportunities for her students to drill the target language (see Lines 2, 4, 11, and 16).

Excerpt 5.1. Miss Elona's classroom observation Nr. 3.

(After writing on the board the rules for the use of "used to" in English, getting students to listen to the pronunciation of "used to" (i.e. exercise 6 - see Appendix 28, page 2), and completing a focus on form (exercise 7), the teacher is working with a freer speaking exercise (exercise 8).

- L1 Miss Elona: *Ok, let's do this exercise together (pause). Remember, you need to use "used to" to complete this exercise because we are talking about things that happen regularly in the past but do not happen anymore now (The teacher repeats in Albanian the grammar rule)*
- L2 Miss Elona: *Ok, so, Gerti, did you use to have a toy when you were a child?*
- L3 Gerti: *Yes, soldiers.*
- L4 Miss Elona: *Ok, but give me the full answer. I used to (interruption)*
- L5 Gerti: *I used to have solders.*
- L6 Miss Elona: *Why did Gerti use "used to"?*
[None of the students answer]
- L7 Miss Elona: *Is Gerti talking about present or past, what do you think? (Repeats in Albanian: Present or past?)*
- L8 A student: *Past (in Albanian)*
- L9 Miss Elona: *Excellent! Does Gerti still have the soldiers, does he still play with soldiers, what [do] you think?*
- L10 A student: *No.*
- L11 Miss Elona: *Very good! Let's continue with the next sentence. Sokol, where did you use to spend your holidays?*
- L13 Sokol: *What?*
- L14 Miss Elona: *Holidays, where did you spend your holidays when you were a child (interruption)?*
- L15 Sokol: *What holidays? No holidays in farm! Work only... (laughter)*
- L16 Miss Elona: *It doesn't matter! Just say: I didn't use to have holidays.*
- L17 Sokol: *I didn't used to have holidays*
- L18 Miss Elona: *used?*
- L19 Sokol: *Yeah.*
- L20 Miss Elona: *No, we say "didn't use" not "didn't used".*

Communicative tasks, consisting mainly of listening for comprehension activities, and teacher-student genuine communication acts, occupied 10% of total class time. Miss Elona emphasised that she would like to:

Use more genuine conversations with her students, like talking about their actual problems and future plans in English. Anyway, because they have never studied the language properly, they (pause) lack the words and the grammar to keep the conversation going [Source: IR].

To help students expand their vocabulary, Miss Elona uses the following strategy:

I continually ask my students to bring an English-Albanian dictionary in the classroom so they can consult it any time they want (pause). This is a very effective way of learning new words in English. That's how I extended my vocabulary as a student [Source: IR].

Emerging data indicate that Miss Elona's experiences as an L2 learner are likely to have become an important information source on which the teacher draws. The factor "teachers'

previous learning experiences” is also identified in previous research (see Lortie, 1975; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Johnstson, 1999; Darling-Hammond et al., 2002; Bullock, 2012) as one of the factors that shapes teachers’ delivery practices.

Miss Elona designed her lessons based on the textbook, planning to do the activities and tasks the textbook contained, in the sequence they were presented in the textbook, and following the teacher’s book guidance regarding the stages of the plan (i.e. activity description, the type of interaction, and the timing) [Source: LP]. Miss Elona explained this behaviour as follows:

I do not have enough teaching knowledge and classroom experience (laughter) to prepare effective lessons for my student (pause) you know, the teacher’s book tells you all the steps you need to follow, like ask this question to your students, show this picture to your students and ask this question, and so on. The instructions are very clear, the authors have already selected the activities for you, as well as the exercises and the tests you need to use in your class [Source: POI].

However, in most cases, the materials did not seem to have a major influence on the way Miss Elona actually implemented the textbook content in her classes. In all the three lesson plans collected, Miss Elona planned to follow textbook/teacher’s book recommendations regarding the type of classroom interaction. However, in the classes observed, Miss Elona provided few opportunities for her students to acquire English with the help of each other through participation in pair/group work activities. Therefore, there seems to be a gap between Miss Elona’s planning and implementation.

The discrepancy between Miss Elona’s planning and implementation can be attributed to the lesson plan requirements set out by authorities in Albania. As discussed in section 3.3.4, the preparation of a new student-centred lesson plan that includes timing, interaction, stage, procedure, and rationale is an official requirement. To meet this requirement, Miss Elona claims that she has to base her daily plans on the textbook and teacher’s book recommendations because *the school headmaster collects and checks the lesson plans on a regular basis, kind of once in a fortnight* [Source: IR].

In concluding, the textbook and the teacher’s book influenced to a great degree how Miss Elona went about planning the lesson, the content of the lesson, as well as the order of the activities in her classes. However, in most cases, the materials did not seem to have a major influence on the way Miss Elona actually implemented the textbook content in her classes. As seen above, Miss Elona displayed a number of traditional teaching patterns in her teaching, such as focusing on the language learning process, rather than on the use of language; analysing grammar to develop students’ ability to make and exchange meaning, rather than inviting learners to discover new

lexical, grammatical, sociolinguistic, and discourse features with the ultimate goal of increasing their meaning-based communicative competence; assuming the role of the “knower” – the one who directs the teaching process, and defines and transmits the knowledge to be learned; and providing few opportunities for her students to acquire English with the help of each other through participation in pair/group work activities

The potential factors that might have influenced Miss Elona’s decisions regarding omissions, time allocations, and instructional approaches are discussed in the next section.

5.2.3 Factors influencing Miss Elona’s instructional decisions on how to use the textbook

This section answers the second research question of this project (i.e. What shapes Albanian EFL teachers’ decision on how to use text-books in their classes?) by examining heuristic cues, teachers’ belief and knowledge systems, as well as a number of other contextual factors, identified in section 2.6., that are likely to affect teachers’ implementation of new teaching approaches, especially as a result of government reform. The main themes that emerged from Miss Elona’s data are discussed below.

5.2.3.1 Lack of awareness of communicative teaching approaches

One of the ideas brought up in the literature review chapter (section 2.6) was teachers’ resistance to change when they lack the capability, knowledge, skills, or resources to embrace new policies (Butler, 2004; Hu, 2005b; Ahn, 2011). This seems to be the case of Miss Elona too.

Miss Elona, in 60%¹⁶⁾ of the cases, was unable to think of alternative communicative teaching behaviours to the teaching approach she demonstrated in her classes when she was asked the question “Can you think of any other way/approach of doing the same activity?” (POI question Nr.3). An example of how Miss Elona answered to one post observation interview question N. 3 is given below.

¹⁶⁾ This figure presents the percentage from the negative answers recorded for question Nr. 3. See section 4.7.1 for an explanation of how percentages were calculated.

Excerpt 5.2. Miss Elona's post-observation interview 3.

(The teacher asked her students to complete two accuracy-based exercises on their own, and collected their work afterwards)

- L1 Interviewer: *Why did you collect their [students'] copybooks?*
L2 Miss Elona: *(Hesitation) Eeee, to check how well each student did.*
L3 Interviewer: *In what ways was your approach similar or different to the guidance given in the teacher's book?*
L4 Miss Elona: *Well, I am not sure, but (pause) I guess (pause) there was nothing in the teacher's book about exercises 6 & 7, was there?*
L5 Interviewer: *Can you think of any other approach of checking how well the students did?*
L6 Miss Elona: *Well (pause) yeah, I can (pause) give them a short test, or I can (pause) ask them to say the rules orally; (pause) (laughter) and since I know you will ask me why (laughter) I can say that, well, my students don't know and [do not] care about the rules. So, I don't ask them the rules. Yet, if I continually correct their written mistakes, say a student writes "writed" instead of "wrote", and I correct his mistakes for a couple of times, the third time he will get it right, hopefully, he is likely to say "wrote". So, students can learn the rule by reflecting on their mistakes.*

It is clear from this excerpt that Miss Elona possesses limited knowledge of instructional models other than the deductive teaching approach. Indeed, all the alternative approaches the teacher is offering in this excerpt are traditional teaching behaviours that seek to assess her students' assimilation and application of knowledge of L2 rules. As claimed above, this was the case in the 60% of the teaching behaviours the teachers demonstrated in her classes.

There is also evidence to support the view that significant gaps in Miss Elona's knowledge about student-centred teaching approaches resulted in misconceptions about communicative language teaching practices. To illustrate the point, on one occasion, Miss Elona used her own understanding of teaching reading and checking students' reading abilities, based on deductive teaching approaches, to interpret the teacher's book instructions (i.e. "ask students to read the text" and "check students' understanding of the text"). Instead of asking students to read the text on their own and complete the reading comprehension activity that followed the reading passage (presumably, the way many CLT teachers would interpret the above teacher's book recommendations), the teacher called out students' names to read aloud one sentence each from the reading passage, corrected their pronunciation, and asked students to translate the sentences that contained difficult lexis. To the POI question, "In what ways were your instructions/your approach similar/different to the guidance given in the teacher's book?", Miss Elona gave the following reply:

Well, actually, I do not think they are different, are they? I mean the instructions say “ask students to read the passage” (pause) and, that’s what I did. The instructions say check students’ understanding of the text, and that’s what I did. Anyway, (pause) instead of using the true and false exercise provided in the text, I used the sentences from the passage – so that students could understand it better [Source: POI].

Likewise, Miss Elona did not offer her students any preparation time to complete textbook activities. She asked them to complete exercises on the spot by reading a sentence aloud when she called out their name. Miss Elona was aware that this teaching approach was different from the teacher’s book suggestion “to give students two-to-three minutes to complete the task on their own”. She justified her decision as follows:

In real life, you do not have time to think of the right grammar form or vocabulary you have to use; you just have to think fast on your feet. So, giving students time to think does not necessarily help them to become communicative in English. On the contrary, asking them to complete the exercise on the spot can (pause) develop their fast-thinking skills. So, they can be better communicators [Source: POI].

Miss Elona’s belief that developing students’ fast-thinking skills will improve their communicative competence in English seems to be another misconception. As seen in section 2.8.1, L2 learners improve their communicative competence through language use in L2 classrooms and through applying strategies that worked in the past to their current learning situation, rather than through developing their fast-thinking skills.

Miss Elona is aware that she *does not have enough knowledge of communicative teaching approaches*. She wants to attend conference presentations, and other teacher training events, because she has interest in implementing teacher-student approaches in her classes. In particular, Miss Elona would be very much interested in:

Practical ideas that work with students who are not very much interested in learning proper English. You know, (pause) activities like getting students to do the things they like in the classroom, like (pause) listening to a song, but not asking them to listen for nothing, but (pause) asking them to do something that can help them improve their English [Source: IR].

Overall, the data gathered by interviews, emails, and post-lesson reflections, and supported by Miss Elona’s classroom observations, indicate that lack of knowledge related to student-centred teaching approaches can influence to a great degree teachers’ decisions on how to use the communication-based textbooks in their classes. As explained in section 2.3, teachers take into consideration a variety of teaching approaches when they make instructional decisions in their classes. When teachers are unaware of certain teaching approaches (CLT teaching approaches in the case of Miss

Elona), they limit their choices to the teaching approaches they are familiar with (deductive approaches in the case of Miss Elona). Therefore, one can conclude that, since Miss Elona did not know how to use textbook activities communicatively, she used the textbook in a particular way that reflected her own understanding of communicativeness in ELT classes.

This finding seems to contradict previous research claims, discussed in chapter 1 and chapter 2, that the textbook with the teacher's book can act as an agent of change and/or as a medium of initial teacher training (Richards, 1993; Hutchinson and Torres, 1994; Ball and Cohen, 1996). I discuss this in more detail in chapter 6.

5.2.3.2 Knowledge of students and the use of heuristics

It was indicated in chapter 2 that behind the complex process of teacher decision making, there are the systems of teachers' personal beliefs and knowledge (Weinstein, 1990; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Kagan, 1992; Borg, 1998a; da Silva, 2005). In addition, it was shown in section 2.3.1 how the teacher decision-making process might include analysis, interpretation, intuition, and inductive and deductive reasoning (Kansanen, 2008).

In this section, I have grouped the themes "knowledge of students" and "the use of heuristics" together to acknowledge the very complex process of teacher decision making. By describing Miss Elona's motives for acting as she does, I am at the same time explaining her behaviour as due to the influence of teacher's knowledge of students. Nevertheless, since the process of teacher decision underlies a number of independent and interdependent thinking processes, the same teaching behaviour (i.e. avoidance of pair/group interaction patterns) can be seen as an example of misunderstanding of CLT, and/or might represent the teacher's use of heuristics. Therefore, to acknowledge the fact that teacher decision making can be explained by a few mental processes, in this thesis, I describe and explain the participants' behaviours by grouping potential influencing factors together.

As argued above, Miss Elona is likely to have used a traditional approach to teach a communication-based textbook because she was unaware of communicative teaching approaches. However, this was not always the case. Miss Elona was aware of the use of pair/group work activities in ELT which she defined them as *an alternative way of doing the speaking, the writing, the reading, and so on. It is like students do everything and teachers do little, just tells students what to do* [Source: IR].

Nevertheless, she never selected the use of pair/group work activities as an alternative for her instructional decisions. When asked, Miss Elona justified her choice as follows:

(Hesitation) *I am not sure how (pause) I can control all my students at the same time when they do the activities in their groups. I mean, (pause) there is always a student who makes a mistake and needs to be corrected, another one who needs to be encouraged to utter a sentence in English, another one who is stuck because he needs a word in English, and, of course, there are those who love speaking Albanian. As a teacher (pause), I am not sure how a teacher can do all those things simultaneously when students work in their pairs* [Source: IR].

By this explanation, Miss Elona's avoidance of pair/group interaction patterns in her classes seems to be an example of misunderstanding of CLT (since teachers are not supposed to check students mistakes in communication-based classes). However, Miss Elona elaborated this topic further after the second observation session:

You saw with your own eyes how difficult it is for me to keep my students focused, right? (Pause) They are interested in teasing each other, joking, laughing, everything but studying. So, you can imagine what they would do in their groups, if I offered them the opportunity to work on their own. (Pause) Well, as a matter of fact, I have tried it a couple of times, but up to a certain point. You know, when I see that students start speaking in Albanian, and before it is too late, I take the situation under control, and proceed with the normal teacher-controlled practices [Source: IR].

From this elaboration, two new themes that help to explain why Miss Elona used the communication-based textbook in a particular way emerged. The first theme is "knowledge of students". QAOS notes show that, even when Miss Elona used a teacher-centred teaching approach, her students manifested a number of behaviour problems (i.e. lack of attention, teasing each other, speaking in their own L1, and so on) because most of them *are not at all interested in studying English* [Source: IR]. Knowing her students well, Miss Elona fears that her students will not behave appropriately in the classroom if they are given the opportunity to work together under limited teacher supervision. Consequently, Miss Elona tried to avoid the use of pair/group work in her classes. "Knowledge of students" seems to have shaped a number of other instructional decisions Miss Elona made in her classes, such as playing a hit song in her classes to motivate her students, teaching backwards (i.e. *re-explaining essential grammar rules students should have learned in previous years* [Source: IR]) and forwards (i.e. *covering the main grammar points and vocab items that are in the textbook* [Source: IR]), and using simple English in her classes so that her students *who have many gaps in knowledge from previous years* can understand her.

This finding closely relates to a number of other studies carried out in similar EFL context, reviewed in section 2.6, that show how student-related behaviours can mediate teachers' use of communication-based textbooks, and hinder the implementation of new teaching approaches.

The other theme, "use of heuristics", can also offer an explanation for the avoidance of certain teaching behaviours (such as the use of pair/group work). As seen in section 2.2.2, the view that individuals approach the decision-making process heuristically by drawing on their own experience, hunches, and emotions is widely accepted among researchers (Sayegh et al., 2004; Djamasbi, 2007). From this standpoint, decision makers scan their memory for similar events or situations (Dane and Pratt, 2007) before they select a choice. If a given alternative is associated with unpleasant memories from the past, decision makers are less likely to select that alternative as a decision choice to minimise the likelihood of negative outcomes. In the case of Miss Elona, one might argue that, because the teacher associated the use of pair/group work with unpleasant memories from the past (i.e. *I have tried it a couple of times, but up to a certain point*), she avoided the selection of that alternative as an interaction mode.

The role heuristics play in the process of instructional teacher decisions can also explain why Miss Elona relied heavily on the teaching model to which she was exposed to as an EFL student. Seventy-two percent¹⁷⁾ of Miss Elona's teaching behaviours seem to have been influenced by Miss Niqi's (Miss Elona's high school EFL teacher) practices. During the post observation interviews, Miss Elona claimed that she first saw a great number of teaching behaviours she currently uses, such as writing additional grammar rules on the blackboard to supplement the textbook materials, getting the students to memorise some ready-to-use language to be communicative in English, asking the students to read aloud one sentence each from a reading passage, keeping the students focused on the target language while completing free speaking activities, and asking students to bring an English-Albanian dictionary in the classroom to extend their vocabulary, in Miss Niqi's classes.

During her life as student, Miss Elona was exposed to those teaching patterns on a weekly basis. Therefore, Miss Elona is very familiar with those teaching practices. As argued in section 2.2.2, frequently occurring events are easy to recall and decision makers tend to think of occurrences

¹⁷⁾ This figure presents the participating teacher's answers to the post-interview question 3. See section 4.7.1 for an explanation of how percentages were calculated.

easily brought to mind as more important than instances of less frequent occurrences. It follows than teachers' past learning and teaching experiences are likely to turn into a cognitive bias (i.e. readily available choices) since teachers are very familiar with these frequently occurring events. As a result, teachers might accept these choices as viable without second-guessing them.

5.2.3.3 Belief and knowledge systems

In Miss Elona's view, none of the 16 teaching and learning behaviours listed in the teacher belief questionnaire is "not at all important" or "extremely important" (see Appendix 27 for questionnaire findings). She marked nine teaching practices as "very important", and the rest "fairly important". The data show that Miss Elona is aware of a number of non-traditional teaching behaviours, i.e. she thinks that *it is fairly important to do activities that integrate different skills, to use L2 in the class, to engage learners in pair/group activities, and is very important to practise the speaking, to engage students in pre-reading/listening skills, to supplement the textbook with other activities responsive to students' interest, and to teach students how to use English in situations that they are likely to face in their real life.*

Some of these themes were identified in Miss Elona's speech too. For example, as seen above, Miss Elona talked about the importance of supplementing the textbook with (listening) activities to maintain her students' interest, the desire to use genuine conversations with her students to help them become better communicators in L2, and the necessity to ask students to complete exercises on the spot to help them develop their fast-thinking, and integrate their grammar and vocabulary in context. Other non-traditional beliefs were justified during our informal and formal discussions as follows:

Engaging students in pre-reading/listening activities: *Well, I guess, it is a good thing to do. You know, always, when you prepare for something you can do it better. The same is true for students, when you prepare them for what they are about to hear/read, they are likely to find the text easier* [Source: POI].

Using L2 in the class: *There are times when L1 should be used, like when you (pause) teach a difficult grammar point, for example. I think it is better to use Albanian in this case because the students can grasp the concept faster (pause) and there are times when you have to use L2, like when you chat with your students, or when they complete an exercise. Well, (laughter) I mean, you cannot complete the exercise in Albanian, can you?*

Teaching students how to use English in real life situations: *It is a shame but Facebook and chat rooms and things like these, you know, these are the only places where my students will ever use English. I mean, none of them will go to study in an American or British university, and none of them is going for holiday in Australia (laughter). Well, at least not*

this summer (laughter). So, all the grammar and the vocab I teach them, at the end of the day, does not make sense if I do not teach them the words and the expressions they need to use in a chat room.

Miss Elona also expressed a number of strong traditional beliefs about L2 teaching and learning. For example, the teacher believes that *it is very important for learners to study grammar rules, to focus on teaching isolated skills, to participate in whole-class, teacher-directed instruction, and it is important to participate in rote learning activities*. As seen in section 5.2.2, Miss Elona displayed mainly traditional teaching behaviours in the classes observed.

The literature reviewed in section 2.3.1.2 points to the important role the ideas about teaching and learning teachers form during their formative years, and once they engage in the act of teaching, play in the formation of belief and knowledge systems. Likewise, the disciplinary background knowledge teachers possess, i.e. teachers' understanding of facts, concepts, principles, topics, structures, and explanatory frameworks, their awareness of how new knowledge in the field is created, seems to have a great influence on teachers' belief and knowledge systems. Miss Elona is a novice teacher exposed to a traditional teaching approach as a learner who entered her class without adequate training. Therefore, it is likely that many beliefs manifested in her teaching are rooted in her own learning experience. Official educational policies in Albania, on the other hand, might have triggered the formation of the beliefs that were less evident in Miss Elona's classes.

A number of reforms, discussed in section 3.3.4, have been implemented in Albania since communism was overthrown in the early 1990s. All the official policies are based on three main concepts that represent the major emphases of the reforms: "student-centred teaching", "communicative language teaching", and "collaborative work" (source: MASH annual report 2007/2008). To create the conditions for reform sustainability, authorities in Albania are piloting new learner-centred approaches throughout the country, have published and handed out a four-page instructional guide for teachers, and require Albanian teachers to prepare a new student-centred lesson.

Miss Elona has never participated in an official teacher training workshop. However, she bases her daily plans on the textbook, following the official lesson plan format. In addition, the teacher claims that she has read several times the official instructional guide, which provides information on how to use L2 as a vehicle for L2 learning, how to use language activities that integrate the four skills, how to use collaborative learning methods, and how to embrace a new non-traditional teacher role. Miss Elona has found this guide *very informative*.

These data indicate that Miss Elona is aware of key reform concepts. In addition, this case study provides evidence to support the view that Miss Elona's non-traditional teaching and learning beliefs, likely to be formed as a result of the influence of educational reforms, do not necessarily translate into reform-oriented teaching. That is to say, although Miss Elona is aware of a number of communicative, student-centred teaching approaches mentioned above, she selected mainly traditional teaching patterns as instructional approaches in her classes.

5.3 Case study 2: Miss Ada

For this case study, three 45-minute classes were observed in October 2012, and one class was observed in November 2013. Miss Ada also attended four one-on-one 10-15 minute post-observation interviews, gave four oral feedbacks, and engaged in 49 informal discussions with me. In addition, I collected four lesson plans, exchanged six post-observation emails with the teacher, and photocopied the pages of the textbook containing the lessons observed, and the teacher's book pages giving guidance for the lessons observed. I also had 12 informal conversations with Miss Ada's colleagues and headmaster. I spent six days at the school where Miss Ada taught.

All four classes observed were video recorded. Some interviews and formal discussions with Miss Ada were video recorded and some others were recorded by taking written notes. Depending on the length of the exchanges, I either wrote word by word what Miss Ada said, or used my own words to paraphrase and/or summarise the conversations.

5.3.1 Miss Ada's profile

Miss Ada is in the same age group as Miss Elona. Both teachers share many similarities with each other. They grew up in the same neighbourhood, attended the same primary school, secondary school, and university, and graduated in the same year. They have been friends for as long as they remember. However, they seem to have very different personalities. Miss Elona values security, while Miss Ada sees herself as *a free soul who loves exploring and embracing new experiences* [Source: IR]. She moved from the southern city where she grew up to the central city where she teaches now [Source: EQ] *because of my constant desire for change* [Source: IR], she claims.

Another important difference between the two teachers relates to their learning experiences. From the age of eight, Miss Ada attended a private EFL school for three hours a week for ten years. She

claims that she has been influenced significantly, both professionally and personally, by this learning experience. She explains as follows:

Learning there was very different from learning English at school. There we felt free (laughter) (pause). If we wanted to interrupt the teacher, we were allowed to; we wanted to have fun, we just asked the teacher for a fun activity; we preferred to stand rather than sit during the class we could do that. The only thing we were not allowed to do was: using Albanian. If there was a word we didn't know [in English] we could mime it, or draw it. This was much fun for us as children (laughter). The teacher, called Elca, was awesome. (Pause) She was working for herself, and had more than 80 students attending her course. She had finished a teaching course in England, and knew how to help us improve our English, and have fun at the same time. She was a great person too. At a certain point, when I was 16, my father lost his job, and my family could not afford the tuition fees any longer. I desperately wanted to continue the English course with Miss Elca. So, what I did, embarrassed as I was, (pause) I, I asked if she could allow me to take her classes for free. I promised [her] that after graduating as an English teacher (pause) by that time I had made up my mind that that was what I wanted to do for the rest of my life (laughter) I would work for her for free for two years, you know, to pay off for the tuition fees I was not paying as a student. She accepted with a smile, never made me feel bad about attending her classes without paying the fees; and, actually (pause), offered me a paid part-time job after I graduated, although I insisted that I should keep my promise [Source: IR].

As will be seen below, Miss Ada's experiences as a learner in this school are often observed in her delivery approach.

At present, Miss Ada teaches full-time in a state high school, and part-time (three hours every afternoon/evening) in a local language school. Both schools are located in a central city. The institution where she works full time is a first through ninth grade school that serves more than 600 students, and employs 38 teachers [Source: EQ&IR]. Miss Ada explains that *most teachers claim to employ student-centred methods because this is an official requirement* [Source: IR].

Miss Ada feels committed to her students. She interacts with them on a daily basis, and *goes out of her way* to help them because:

I know how influential teachers' support can be to students' life. As a student, I was lucky enough to have a teacher who supported and mentored me. As a teacher, I want to give back the (pause) love, education, warmth (pause) I cannot find the exact word, I received. (Pause) My goal is to be a strong teacher who provides guidance, mentoring, and support, and not only in English language [Source: IR].

To achieve this goal, Miss Ada tries to improve her level of confidence in English speaking and English teaching by using English on a daily basis, telephoning her guru (Miss Elca) whenever she needs support, and attending any teacher training events she hears of. She has participated in several short teacher training workshops in Albania, which she has found *very useful*. In summer 2012, Miss Ada

applied to, and was accepted in a short English education course delivered by the Institute of Education (University of London). However, she was unable to attend the programme as she was not granted a UK visa. Currently, Miss Ada is looking for an online course in the methodology of English teaching with any British or American university because she feels she does not have adequate knowledge in this area [Source: IR].

Miss Ada has used a number of books as an EFL student and teacher, such as “Headway”, “Opportunities”, “Cutting Edge”, “Click On”, “Blockbuster”, and “Access”. Among all of them, she believes that:

The good, old “Headway” has served me very well in studying the language myself, and teaching my students English. Students love it (pause). Great topics, enough grammar exercises, plenty of speaking and writing activities. The book itself also looks good. I mean [pause] is not very heavy, not very large, good quality of paper. Things like these are important for students. And, actually, not only for them. (Pause) In all honesty, [there are] a lot of days when I feel that way about my work too! I think pretty trivial stuff (pause) the way the book looks, its weight and size, whether I like the quality of paper (pause) all these have an impact on the way I feel and the choices I make in my class [Source: IR].

Miss Ada uses the “Headway” textbook with her students at the private language school where she works part time. However, with her high school students, she uses the textbook “Access3”. A decision taken by the department of foreign language of the school, she explains.

Examples of the pages she used in one of her classes are shown in Appendix 29.

Miss Ada says she uses the teacher’s book any time she feels the need to do so, *although not regularly*, she adds.

It [the teacher’s book] repeats the same things, like use pictures to activate the student’s previous knowledge, ask [the] students to get the gist before doing reading comprehension exercises, and so on. So, sometimes I feel like it is telling me nothing new [Source: IR].

After presenting a brief teacher profile that helps readers to better understand Miss Ada’s instructional decisions within the context in which they were taken, the discussion that follows in the next two sections answers the two main research questions for Miss Ada’s case study.

5.3.2 How communicatively Miss Ada used the textbook

The textbook was used in three dominant ways in Miss Ada's classes:

- 1) As a teaching guide that states the learning objectives for every single class, as well as a curriculum guide that establishes the main course objective. The learning objectives of all four lessons observed were identical to the unit's learning goals and objectives [Source: LP], and Miss Ada defined the main course objectives for this year as:

Finishing the second part of the textbook. The students started to use "Access 3" last year, and they did the first five modules last year. This year, we have to finish the book [Source: IR].

Miss Ada has never seen the official ELT curriculum, and she is not sure whether she needs it for her teaching. *If that was important, she explains, the headmistress would have given it to me; like she gave me the lesson plan format I have to follow* [Source: IR].

The use of the textbook as a guide that states the educational purposes of the course indicates that Miss Ada used the textbook as the *de facto* curriculum. Further evidence that supports the theme "use of textbook as the *de facto* curriculum" is provided below.

- 2) As a source for classroom activities. Miss Ada followed the stated order of the textbook, starting her classes with activities that aim to activate learners' schemata and finishing with freer speaking practice. She followed the textbook sequence of activities because:

I guess that's the best way to teach language in a classroom. I mean, there is a reason why they [textbook authors] have sequenced the activities in that order, and I think they know what they are doing [Source: IR].

Ninety-four percent of the 180-minute total classroom time was structured around the textbook in Miss Ada's classes. Only the following two activities outside of the textbook, which occupied 6% of the total class time, were noted in the four classes observed: 1) short talks at the beginning of the class. During these brief exchanges, the teacher asked different questions (e.g. 'Are you cold?', 'How has your day gone so far?', 'Have you had any test today?', and so on) that were not directly related to the target language students had seen previously or were about to encounter. The teacher used these activities *simply to warm* [the] *students up* [Source: IR]; 2) a group discussion on the use of present perfect in English and Albanian. The teacher compared the use of present perfect in English and in Albanian because:

In the past, I have seen students struggling with the use of present perfect (pause), and that's because we use "have + past participle" to express activities finished in the past in

Albanian. I have noticed that clarifying the differences between the use of present perfect in English and in Albanian can help students understand the use of present perfect in English [Source: POI].

Miss Ada's teaching procedures, as will be seen below, were very similar to the textbook/teacher's book recommendations: pair/group work and communicative tasks occupied 52% and 72%, respectively, of the total class time (see Tables 5.3 and 5.4, and read the discussion below for more details).

As seen in section 2.5, according to Richards et al. (1992), typically, it is the curriculum that provides the means, i.e. the content and the teaching procedures, of involving students in learning experiences that are used to achieve the educational purposes. In Miss Ada's classes, this function, in addition to that of stating the overall rationale for the programme, was fulfilled by the textbook. Therefore, evidence from different sources suggests that the textbook was used as the *de facto* curriculum in Miss Ada's classes.

3) as a mediator of learning. In Miss Ada's classes, the textbook played a dominant role in providing learning opportunities for the students by prompting the use of the target language. An example of the personalisation of textbook activities in the classroom is given in the Excerpt 5.3.

Excerpt 5.3. Miss Ada's classroom observation Nr. 4.

(After asking her students to complete in their pairs two focus-on-accuracy activities to reinforce the use of comparative and superlative forms (i.e. exercises 6 and 7 - see Appendix 29, page 2), the teacher gave students 5 minutes to write four sentences to compare members of their families or friends (exercise 8 page 71), the teacher is now asking some of her students to read out the sentences).

L1 Miss Ada: *So, let's have some fun, (pause) who reads the first sentence? And remember: it is OK to exaggerate, you do not need to tell the truth* (The teacher had already emphasised this when she asked the students to write the sentence)

(Three students raise their hands. Miss Ada asks one of them to read the sentence)

L2 Student 1: *My granny is the tallest in my family.*

L3 Miss Ada: *Is she really?*

L4 Student 1: *Yes, she is 2 meters.*

L5 Miss Ada: *2 meters?*

(laughter)

One student: *"Lair! I know nene Mira [grandma Mira] (interruption)*

L6 Student 1: *No, no, she is very long and thin, not lying.*

L7 Miss Ada: *Is she taller than your father, Aldo (student's first name)?*

L8 Student 1: *Yes, (pause) this long taller (using his fingers to indicate the degree)*

L9 Miss Ada: *Do you mean "this much taller?"*

L10 Student 1: *Yes, this much taller.*

L11 Miss Ada: *Do you want to be as tall as her?*

L12 Student 1: *Eeeee, not really*

(Miss Ada raises her eye brows to indicate surprise and prompt further explanation)

L13 Student 1: *Eeeee, the bed is too small for her, and her (pause) foots are always*

out of the bed

(Some students laugh)

L14 Miss Ada: *Too small for her feet. Funny! Thanks, Aldo! Who reads another sentence?*

(Nine students raise their hands. Miss Ada asks another one to read the sentence)

L15 Student 2: *My sister is fat, fat, fat.*

L16 Miss Ada: *Is she the fattest in your family?*

L17 Student 2: *Oh, yes. She loves eating.*

(Laughter)

L18 Miss Ada: *What's the food she can't live without?*

L19 Student 2: (Pause) *What?*

L20 Miss Ada: *Can't live without (pause) she (pause) loves very much, she is crazy for.*

What food?

L21 Student 2: *Pasticcio (an Albanian traditional dish)*

(More laughs)

This is one of 11 examples when activities were personalised in Miss Ada's classes. By prompting students to use the target language in a personalised way, an active relationship was created between the materials and the learners in the classrooms observed. This was followed by the creation of a number of unintended learning opportunities. For example, students were exposed to the expressions "this much" [L8] and "can't live without" [L18], as well as to the use of "too" before an adjective to express that the amount of something is more than necessary [L13], and to the use of "love" + "-ing" to talk about likes and dislikes [L17]. Teacher Ada played four main roles in this learning environment. She facilitated the connection between the textbook and the students' life [L3, L16], provided potential learning opportunities for students [L9, L11, L20], provided corrective feedback [L9, L14], and encouraged the students to go beyond the textbook [L1, L5, L11, L18].

Unintended opportunities for language learning can also be found in students' meaningful use of L2. For example, Student 1 introduced the use of the expression "this much taller" [L9] and contextualised the use of "too" before an adjective to express that the amount of something is more than necessary [L13]. Both of these expressions are potential examples of language learning affordances emerged from the relationship among materials, the learners, and the teacher.

Miss Ada used to a great extent (52% of total class time) pair work and group work in her classes. The teacher asked the students to work in pairs or groups of three/four to complete awareness-raising activities, exercises that checked students' understanding of the material, as well as oral/written tasks that gave students an opportunity to apply in context what they had just learned. In most cases, Miss Ada's instructional choices regarding the method of classroom interactions were similar to the interaction approach suggested by "Access 3". There were, however, some cases when the teachers' instructional methods differed from textbook suggestions. For example, the textbook instructions for exercise 3 (page 65.) were: *Ask students to answer the questions first. Then,*

explain the words in bold in the passage. Yet, Miss Ada asked her students to ask, answer, and explain the words in bold in their groups of three, rather than using a teacher-led approach to complete this activity. On another occasion, Miss Ada did not follow textbook suggestion, i.e. *Work in groups. Collect information about water safety. Present it to the class.* Instead, she asked the students to complete this activity individually. When asked to provide a rationale for this teaching behaviour Miss Ada explained:

Well (hesitation), students can work individually for a variety of reasons; like (pause) when you want to test their knowledge, or when you don't want them to make a lot of noise. Well, (pause) actually, I don't think noise is a problem in my classes, and I didn't do this exercise to test their knowledge. So (pause), I guess, I simply wanted them to have some good practice, and (pause) I guess (pause) I could have asked them to complete the exercise in their groups as well [Source: POI].

Miss Ada's classroom interaction patterns are shown in table 5.3.

Individual (S)	Pairs (S-s)	Group (Ss-S)	Class (T-Ss)
28%	30%	22%	20%

Table 5.3: Miss Ada's classroom interaction patterns (Percentage distribution of total time)

Twenty eight percent of Miss Ada's total class time was spent on individual work, and 20% was spent on teacher-lead activities, such as grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation explanations and drills (16%), and dealing with class management and discipline issues (4%).

The percentage distribution of the total time Miss Ada spent on classroom activities associated with traditional approaches, communicative teaching methods, and issues related to class management is shown in Table 5.4.

Activity	Percentage
Non-communicative activities (i.e. passive listening, e.g. listening to a song; passive reading, e.g. reading aloud; passive writing, e.g. grammar/vocabulary drills; passive speaking, e.g. grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation drills; teaching grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation rules)	24%
Communicative tasks (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing activities that involve students in interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning)	72%
Other (e.g. class management, discipline issues, etc.)	4%

Table 5.4: Miss Ada's classroom activity patterns (Percentage distribution of total time)

The majority of Miss Ada's class time (72%) was spent on teaching and practising skills in combination, although Miss Ada believes *that there should be a balance of language-focused learning and meaning-focused learning in every lesson*. She elaborated this topic further:

It is difficult to see how students can achieve fluency in a foreign language just by practising language use intensively. I mean (pause), if you live in a country where the language is spoken, yes, it is possible to speak the language without being able to read it. There is no need to recognise sounds and words in English, because you have heard those words so many times (pause). The situation is completely different in a country like Albania, though. Very often, the only input source for the students is the text. So, as a teacher, I need to (pause) teach students rules to help them recognise written forms, (pause) connect the written words with their spoken forms, (pause) grammar rules to help them understand the structure, (pause) and so on [Source: POI].

Twenty-four percent of Miss Ada's class time was spent on completing non-communicative activities, such as written grammar/vocabulary drills and teaching rules. Miss Ada referred to these activities as *the old way of teaching*. She continued:

Nothing wrong with that! On the contrary, these activities can be very helpful for students as they foster conscious learning. Yes, they can be a bit boring. As a student, I would rather be in a class that is more active, more fun. But learning is not only about having fun [Source: IR].

Miss Ada did not always follow the techniques suggested by the textbook regarding grammar teaching. For example, exercise 7 (unit 6a) asked students to read the sentences and translate them in their own language. Instead, Miss Ada asked her students to do this activity as follows: *Please work in your pairs. Choose a sentence you wish, not necessarily in order, and describe that to your friend, using your own words. You can even draw it, if you wish to do so. Your partner, then, has to find which sentence you were talking about. You can take turns to do the same thing [Source: POI].*

She explained the rationale behind this decision:

Oh (laughter) that's because I do not want my students to use Albanian in the classroom. I want to offer them as many possibilities as they can to use their English. And, of course, because the students come from different learning paths (pause) some of them can easily use words in English, and others cannot (pause). Those who lack the vocab can still draw what they want to say [Source: POI].

She first saw this approach when she was a child, attending an after-school English language course.

To conclude, Miss Ada adapted a large number of classroom behaviours that are consistent with CLT practices identified in section 2.8.1. The teacher used language activities that integrate different skills, focused mainly on developing students' ability to use effective strategies in the

process of transmitting and receiving information, and continually asked her students to work in pairs/groups. There were occasions when her instructional decisions were the same with the suggested teaching approach provided in textbook Miss Ada was using (e.g. asking her students to work individually or in their pairs/groups), and there were other occasions when her instructional decisions did not match the teacher's books suggestions (e.g. leading a grammar discussion or asking students to describe a sentence in L2 in their own words instead of translating it). The potential factors that might have influenced Miss Ada's instructional decisions on how to use a communication-based textbook in her classes are discussed in the next section.

5.3.3 Factors influencing Miss Ada's instructional decisions on how to use the textbook

This section answers the second research question of this project (i.e. What shapes Albanian EFL teachers' decision on how to use text-books in their classes?) by examining heuristic cues, teachers' belief and knowledge systems, as well as a number of other contextual factors, identified in section 2.6., that are likely to affect teachers' implementation of new teaching approaches, especially as a result of government reform. The main themes that emerged from Miss Ada's data are discussed below.

5.3.3.1 Conceptual understanding of successful L2 teaching

As seen in the previous section, on many occasions, Miss Ada's instructional decisions regarding the method of classroom interactions were similar to the interaction approach suggested by the textbook. Therefore, based on the evidence gathered during the observation sessions, one might argue that textbooks have the power to influence classroom interaction patterns.

This claim, however, is not supported by other sources of data. From Miss Ada's point of view, expressed in informal interviews, it is apparent that the teacher only consults the teacher's book for *ideas on how to elicit students' attention* [Source: IR]. This is because Miss Ada believes that the teacher's book *tells* [her] *nothing new*. Post observation interview data also suggest that Miss Ada's instructional decisions regarding the use of the textbook in her classes are barely influenced by the suggestions provided in the teacher's book and/or in the textbook. One example to illustrate this claim is provided below:

Exercise Nr.5 (see Appendix 6) asks students to put the words in the correct order first and then to answer the questions. Instead of following these instructions, Miss Ada asked her students to write:

1) the time when they usually wake up on Saturdays (just the time, not sentences); 2) how their cousin who lives in Italy or Greece, or Tirana goes to school; and 3) the job that their aunt or uncle does. Afterwards, the students, in their pairs, had to ask three questions each for each category (i.e. waking up time, means of transportation, and profession) to guess the answer, e.g. *Do you usually wake up at 9.30 on Saturday and Sunday?* The student would get one point for every answer he/she guessed correctly. In the following post observation interview, when asked to explain why she did not follow the textbook suggestions for the above-mentioned textbook activity, Miss Ada had a look at the textbook to see what the textbook suggestions were (see Line 2 in Excerpt 5.4). This action might support Miss Ada's informal interview claim that she does not usually read the textbook and teacher's book suggestions on how to do activities in her classes. Miss Ada explained her reasons for changing the teaching approach suggested by the textbook as follows:

Excerpt 5.4. Miss Ada's post-observation interview Nr. 1.

- L1 Researcher: *Why did you not follow the textbook suggestions for this exercise?*
- L2 Miss Ada: *(Hesitation) Eeee, just a minute (pause). Let me have a look (opens the textbook and reads the instructions). Well, I (pause) I might have asked my students to put the words in the correct order as well. In their pairs, nothing wrong with that, I guess (pause). Anyway, I guess, it's more creative this way, and students always like it when there are guessing and points involved.*
- L3 Researcher: *It is an interesting approach indeed! Where did you first see this jigsaw approach?*
- L4 Miss Ada: *(Hesitation) Jigsaw, what do you mean by jigsaw?*
- L5 Researcher: *Oh, yeah (laughter). You know (pause), students sharing info, like (pause) I have the answer and you have to guess it – this approach (interruption).*
- L6 Miss Ada: *Oh yeah, yeah. In Miss Elca's classes we played a lot of those fun activities.*
- L7 Researcher: *Can you think of any other approach of doing the same exercise?*
- L8 Miss Ada: *This one (Pause) Yes (pause) the one recommended by the book is fine, I guess, students first putting the words in order, then asking each other the questions. It's a reinforcement exercise, right? So (pause) to get the student to reinforce the [use of] present simple, I can ask them (pause) let me see (pause) like to write a short essay about their daily routine. Well, I will actually make it more fun, something they can enjoy, something like (pause) yeah (exclamation) Harry Potter's daily routines. Then (pause) I can get them to compare what they have in their pairs, something like: Does Harry Potter have an egg for breakfast in your story? They can find three similarities or differences between their stories.*
- L9 Researcher: *How interesting! Have you done it before in your classes?*
- L10 Miss Ada: *No, I mean, we have talked about Harry Potter, but never done a Harry-Potter-daily-routine activity (pause). It sounds fun, though. I will do it for sure.*
- L11 Researcher: *You bet! Now, back to the approach you selected for this exercise, I am kind of curious (pause) why did you select that approach? (Pause) How many approaches you thought of before going for that?*
- L12 Miss Ada: *Well, I know for sure that it is fun, cause I use this approach a lot in my classes (pause) and students like it, and (pause) it is good for them because it involves some speaking. I usually ask my students to ask for*

- questions they do not know the answer beforehand. Like, in this exercise, I did not ask them to ask each other about the time when they wake up during the week because that would have been very easy, you know, all of them wake up around seven to come to school. Instead, during the weekend they have different sleeping habits, so it is a bit more difficult to guess the answer, I guess (interruption)
- L13 Researcher: And of how many different alternatives did you think of before choosing this approach?
- L14 Miss Ada: Well, let me see (hesitation) It is funny (laughter) but I don't exactly remember. Well (pause) if you see, there are only grammar-based exercises on this page, right? So, I might have felt that students needed some speaking and some fun, and I might have simply gone for it.
- L15 Researcher: How often do you use the approach recommended by the textbook (pause), you know, the put-the-word-in-order and then ask each other questions, and how often do you use the share-information-in-your-pair approach in your classes?
- L16 Miss Ada: Well (hesitation) I wouldn't know; it depends (pause) like I said (pause) if I feel that students need speaking, I would use the other approach, if I feel that students need more focus on grammar, I would ask them to drill the sentences, as suggested by the textbook.
- L17 Researcher: Would you be able to quantify the occurrences, something like 60% and 40%, or 20 and 80?
- L18 Miss Ada: (Hesitation) I don't think I can quantify them because I have never paid particular attention to them. Anyway, I prefer the share-genuine-information approach because the approach suggested by the textbook has some questions that I do not think are fun for students, like this question 'Do you like football?' Everybody likes football in Albania (laughter)

Miss Ada was not always able to describe the thinking process that accompanied her decision making when asked to talk about the different alternatives she took into consideration before choosing a particular instructional approach. Her inability to remember and/or describe the thinking process that accompanied her decision-making process might indicate that Miss Ada made a number of instructional decisions subconsciously.

The claim that the choice of the approach to follow during the planning and/or interactive stage might have not necessarily required much conscious thought is also supported by the linguistic analysis of the answers Miss Ada provided to the question 'How many different alternatives did you think of before choosing this approach?' Interestingly, instead of using action verbs to describe thoughts that occurred during the decision-making process, the teacher used mainly modals to express degrees of possibility in the past (see Line 14 in the Excerpt above for an example). Miss Ada's tendency to use auxiliary verbs, such as *should*, *might*, or *may*, to convey possibilities in the past when she described her thinking during the decision-making process became a theme due to the numerous occurrences both within each of the post observation interview and across the four interviews.

Only on eight occasions the teacher used sentences that described an action (where the main verb was in simple past) that took place during the decision-making process (rather than using modals to express her beliefs and attitudes of what might have taken place). An example is given below:

I first thought to do this activity as a class because it would have been quick, and I was kind of afraid I would run out of time when I planned the lesson. Anyway (pause) the activities and exercises ran smoothly in the classroom, and I realized that I had enough time to turn this into a pair activity, so that students could have some fun, and that's what I did [Source: POI].

In Miss Ada's case, the choice of the approach to follow during the planning and/or interactive stage, rather than conditioned by the textbook methodology and the suggestions provided in the teacher's book, seems to have been affected by the teachers' previous teaching experiences. As seen in the previous section, in the classes observed, Miss Ada displayed a habitual way of acting in the classroom, starting her lessons with a brief chat, continuing with activities that aimed to activate students' prior knowledge and generate their interest, and finishing with free speaking activities. She first saw this approach in Miss Elca's classes. Miss Ada also claimed that she has *done things this way* for ages. Mayer (1985:127) might offer an explanation for Miss Ada's habitual way of acting in the classroom: "A great deal of competent human performance can be attributed to almost automatic, often unconscious human behaviours". According to Mayer, once a routine is learned, the automatic response process takes over, and people no longer have to think about performing the task.

The view that Miss Ada's choice of approach to follow during the planning and/or interactive stage is influenced to a limited extent by the textbook methodology and the suggestions provided in the teacher's book is further reinforced by the in-depth interview data. While describing her conception of a successful L2 class (see Excerpt 5.5 below), Miss Ada identified a number of behaviours that, according to her, lead to successful L2 learning.

Excerpt 5.5. Miss Ada's informal interview Nr.18.

- L1 Researcher: *How would you describe a successful L2 learning class or experience? I mean what should the teacher do in a successful class?*
- L2 Miss Ada: *Well (pause) I believe the teacher has to do many things, not just one thing. Firstly, you (pause) need to get students interested in the learning process. You need to (pause) generate interest by asking students an interesting question (pause), something like "What are the most interesting three things teenagers can do in Paris?", and (pause) you talk briefly about this with your students; and then you play the tape or give them a reading text where they read what they [teenagers] can actually do in Paris or whatever topic discussed in the text; and (pause) then (pause) an exercise to check their understanding of the text, (pause) if there are difficult vocab items you can do the exercise with the whole class as well; and (pause) then you go ahead with grammar explanations, of course, like*

you give the grammar rules or ask your students to read the explanations given in the textbook, and talk briefly about them if needed. After this some grammar reinforcement exercises (pause) it's better if you do this as a whole-class activity, so you can see if there is any misconception or misunderstanding of the grammar point, then (pause) some free speaking activities so that students can have some fun practising the grammar point. And then (pause). Yeah, so, more or less, these are some of the many actions the teacher can do to create a successful learning experience for students.

All those teaching behaviours were easily identified in the four classes observed. As seen in section 5.3.2, in the classes observed, Miss Ada started her class with a chat, continued with activities that aimed to activate students' prior knowledge and generate their interest, and finished with free speaking activities. Therefore, the data from observation sessions and in-depth interviews seem to indicate that Miss Ada's decisions on how to use the textbook in her classes, rather than shaped by the textbook methodology, are likely to be influenced by a "cognitive map" of teaching behaviours a teacher should display in a successful L2 learning class that Miss Ada possesses.

Miss Ada's conceptual understanding of successful L2 teaching behaviours seems to have been influenced to a great extent by the teaching approach Miss Ada was exposed to as an L2 learner. The influence of Miss Ada's previous learning experiences is discussed in detail in the next section.

5.3.3.2 Previous learning and teaching experiences and the role of the textbook

In the previous section, it was argued that Miss Ada's teaching practices can be viewed as a routinized activity. In this section, I discuss together two internal factors, i.e. teacher's previous learning and teaching experiences and the role of the textbook, that are likely to have affected Miss Ada's conceptual understanding of successful L2 teaching behaviours.

As seen in section 5.3.3.1, Miss Ada's teaching practices consist of a predominant routine that reflects the teacher's conceptual understanding of successful L2 teaching. The habitual thoughts, which predominate in Miss Ada's mind, are likely to have influenced the form of interaction the teacher employed in her classes too. More precisely, as seen in Excerpt 5.5, Miss Ada thinks that the teacher should discuss briefly with the students about the reading/listening topic, students should complete the reading/listening comprehension activity on their own, unless there are difficult vocabulary items in the text, grammar rules should be given by the teacher or the textbook, controlled practice exercises are best done as a whole-class, and then speaking activities during which students should talk in their pairs (It is not clear from the Excerpt 5.5. above the pattern interaction for the freer speaking activities. Nevertheless, on many other occasions, the teacher

expressed her strong belief that pair and group work should be used *as much as possible in the class to maximise students' speaking time* [Source: IR]).

Miss Ada's selection of classroom interaction patterns seem to be identical with her habitual thoughts regarding the form of classroom interactions expressed in the above Excerpt. More precisely, in the classes observed, the teacher led two whole-class brief discussions about the topic students were about to encounter, used twice pair-work interactions to check students' reading comprehension activity, and led a grammar-based class discussion. On another occasion, the teacher asked students to read the grammar explanations given in the textbook. Additionally, in Miss Ada's classes, students routinely completed the reading/listening activities and controlled practice exercises on their own, checked their answers as a whole class, and completed freer speaking activities in their pairs.

Therefore, data gathered through various methods seem to be consistent and indicate that Miss Ada's habitual way of acting in the classroom is influenced to a great degree by her own learning experiences as an L2 learner. During the post observation interviews, Miss Ada claimed that she first saw 88% of the teaching behaviours she demonstrated in her classes (i.e. pair-group work, role playing, discussions, problem-solving, jigsaws, and reading and listening for meaning) when she was a student in Miss Elca's classes. On many other occasions, during the informal discussions, Miss Ada provided conforming evidence concerning the influence of her previous learning experiences on her delivery practices by linking her current teaching practices to her L2 learning experiences.

As emphasised in section 2.2.2, people commonly approach the individual decision-making process heuristically by drawing on their own experiences. They scan their memory for similar events or situations, and retrieve memory fragments without any use of formal reasoning. This might be the case of Miss Ada as well. The teacher has practised and reinforced the same classroom procedures, first seen in Miss Elca's classes, for many years, to the point these teaching practices have become frequently occurring teaching patterns. Kahneman and Tversky (2000) argue that decision makers tend to make their decisions on the information that is readily available rather than examining the alternatives. Consequently, frequently occurring events, rooted on Miss Ada's learning experiences, are likely to have turned into a cognitive bias.

This finding is in line with previous research – reviewed in section 2.3.1.2 – suggesting that the ideas L2 teachers form during their formative years are likely to become an important information source on which teachers draw.

The use of communicative materials might have also played a dominant role in shaping Miss Ada's thinking and classroom practices. As seen in section 5.3.2, Miss Ada has used several communication-based textbooks in her classes. Despite differences among the textbooks, as argued in section 2.9, the majority of commercial course books are largely stuck in the Presentation-Practice-Production way of working. That means that many Western-published textbooks impose the same teaching patterns in those who use them: present the language to the learners first, practise the new language in controlled written/spoken drills, and give learners the possibility to internalise the language just seen by using it in context-based, freer speaking activities. By continually being asked to follow the same teaching patterns in their classes, teachers are likely to build a teaching routine centred around the procedures suggested by the teaching materials. This seems to be the case of Miss Ada. As seen above, clear teaching patterns were easily identified in both Miss Ada's thinking, and her instructional practices.

Concluding, in Miss Ada's case, the textbook, which reinforces practices that are already embedded through her experience as a learner, might have played a role in the teaching approach the teacher demonstrated in the classes observed. Miss Ada never mentioned the textbook as a potential source of influence. However, as seen in section 2.3.1.1, the tacit component, i.e. the influence of textbooks to build teaching and thinking routines through repetition, while playing a key role in the process of decision making, is often not noticed and remains unarticulated.

5.3.3.3 Influence of colleagues, and support given by the authorities

External influences and internal laissez-faire – two factors identified in section 2.6 as potential influences capable of mediating the teachers' use of communication-based textbooks - seem to have played a limited role in shaping Miss Ada's thinking and delivery practices. Miss Ada claimed that the pressure from the school authorities to conform to student-centred teaching approaches has not had any direct approach in her teaching. She explains why in the following paragraph:

Yes, it is true that I now follow a new model of lesson plan, but (pause) that does not mean that I stick to my lesson plan in my classes. I mean (pause) what I plan to do in my classes is not definitive, is conditional. I can change my lesson plan for many reasons, such as students not responding or (pause) simply me being very tired at the end of the day to do a teacher-led activity (pause) and so on [Source: POI].

Miss Ada also acknowledged that the headmaster reminds the teachers from time to time that they have to follow a student-centred approach. Nevertheless, in Miss Ada's opinion, constant reminders are not enough to shape teachers' knowledge of new teaching approaches. *We all know that we have*

to follow a student-centred approach, Miss Ada continues, and we all claim that we follow a student-centred teaching approach in our classes. Otherwise (laughs), we risk our job. Yet, we all teach very differently [Source: IR]. One way Miss Ada's teaching differs from her colleagues is:

Well, many colleagues of mine complain that their students do not like pair work. I do not necessarily agree with this view (pause). Actually, students like it because it is fun to talk to your peers. I mean (pause), it is not the same like talking to your teacher; you, as a student, fell less tense [Source: POI].

Miss Ada claimed that she occasionally discusses with her colleagues about different teaching issues and, although their opinions vary considerably, they respect each other's point of view. The findings from the informal interviews with Miss Ada's colleagues confirm the view that there is little collaboration among teachers in the institution where Miss Ada works. According to one of Miss Ada's colleagues, many teachers are isolated in their classrooms because:

There are no longer teacher leaders. When I was a novice teacher (pause) and that was in another life, ages ago (laughter) there was always the experienced teacher from whom you could learn a lot, plenty of tricks about classroom teaching. Nowadays, experienced teachers like me are simply called "old-fashion". We cannot be the teacher model any longer, since they [the authorities] are trying to change the way we do things (pause). Young teachers cannot do it either because, even if they have the knowledge of the new approaches, they lack the experience. So, there is nobody from whom we can really learn something [Source: IR].

Therefore, evidence from several sources seems to indicate a minimal influence of external influences and internal laissez-faire factors on the teaching approaches of the participating teacher.

5.3.3.4 Knowledge of students

Another theme that was prevalent throughout the data that helped me understand why Miss Ada used the textbook in the way she did in her class is that of students' knowledge. As seen in section 5.3.1, Miss Ada's mission is *to provide guidance, mentoring, and support, and not only in English language* [Source: IR]. Miss Ada claims she takes into consideration students' needs and motivation when she plans her lessons. However, rather than using textbook recommendations on the teaching approach and on the time allocated for an activity, she uses her knowledge of students' needs.

This student-based approach in planning her lessons is consistent with Miss Ada's classroom practices. During the interactive stage, as seen in section 5.3.2, the teacher made a number of decisions to promote students' learning: 1) to meet her students' needs, the teacher skipped two focus-on-accuracy activities and asked students to complete freer speaking activities in the

classroom *because they rarely practise English outside of the classroom* [Source: IR]; 2) to increase the motivational level of her students, Miss Ada engaged her students in genuine speaking exchanges by asking them to ask each other(s) questions which answers they did not know in advance; 3) the teacher changed a textbook activity so that her students did not use any translation but have some L2 speaking practice instead.

Therefore, the data seem to indicate that Miss Ada's perception of her students' knowledge, motivation, and needs affected to a great degree her instructional decisions. This finding is in line with previous research, reviewed in section 2.6, suggesting that knowledge of students' needs and motivation is a common factor that mediates teachers' use of communication-based textbooks.

Miss Ada, however, did not always take into consideration the learning expectations and preferences of her students. As emphasised in section 3.4, when it comes to the use of pair/group interactions in the classroom, Albanian students seem to share traditional beliefs about learning. Miss Ada is aware of this. During our formal and informal conversations, on several occasions, the teacher talked about her colleagues who claim that pair work does not meet the learning styles and preferences of local students. One of these extracts is shown in section 5.3.3.3 (see Miss Ada's POI on page 160).

Despite being aware of the traditional learning habits Albanian learners feature, Miss also believes that her students actually like pair and group work, and that collaborative work is useful for them. As argued in section 2.3.1.1, inconsistency between beliefs is not unusual. Teachers may believe in something, but they may also believe in something else that pulls in a different direction. When there is tension among beliefs, important beliefs seem to dominate (Phipps and Borg, 2009). However, little is known as yet about the information processing factors that favour an "important" belief or prevent a "not important" belief from being selected as a decision outcome.

Miss Ada's practices might help us to understand how teachers' brain and behaviours work together. To the question "How appropriate is group work for your students?" Miss Ada gave the following answer:

You are a teacher yourself (pause) and you know perfectly that the students do in the classroom exactly what the teacher says. If you (pause) continually say "work in your pairs", students easily get used to it. To the point that, even if I forget to say "pair work", they will still work in their pairs, without me spelling it out (laughter) [Source: POI].

From the words Miss Ada used (i.e. *continually say "work in your pairs"; the students do in the classroom exactly what the teacher says; they will still work in their pairs, without me spelling it out*),

it can be easily identified Miss Ada's view of teaching as a routine activity. As argued in section 5.3.3.1, the data from observation sessions and in-depth interviews confirm this view as the teacher, in the classes observed, repeated a number of behaviours that coincided with her "cognitive map" of teaching behaviours a teacher should display in a successful L2 class. Miss Ada's teaching behaviours, including the use of pair work, seem to have been influenced to great degree by her previous learning experiences. As the teacher continually reported, she was exposed to a great number of pair and group activities as a student in Miss Elca's classes. The teacher also claimed on several occasions that she has used pair/group work in her classes for so many years. As argued in section 2.2.2, according to the ability heuristic, frequently occurring events are easily brought to mind, and can trigger automatic responses during the decision-making process since habitual thinking processes can easily turn into a learned routine. Therefore, one might argue that Miss Ada's decisions regarding the interaction patterns to follow in her classes are motivated by her own learning experiences as an L2 learner, and are likely to be classified as automatic decision-making processes.

Concluding, it might be the case that Miss Ada's learning experiences as a student in Miss Elca's classes have influenced to a great degree Miss Ada's decisions regarding the interaction patterns to use in her classes.

5.4 Case study 3: Miss Evis

For this case study, three 45-minute classes were observed in September-October 2012, and one class was observed in November 2013. Miss Evis also attended four one-on-one 10-15 minute post-observation interviews, gave four oral feedbacks, and engaged in 52 chats with me. In addition, I collected four lesson plans, exchanged three clarification emails with the teacher, photocopied the curriculum Miss Evis had developed, photocopied pages of the textbook containing the lessons observed, and the teacher's book pages giving guidance for the lessons observed. I also had 14 informal conversations with Miss Evis' colleagues and the headmaster. I spent six days at the school where Miss Evis taught.

5.4.1 Miss Evis' profile

Miss Evis is the only instructor who teaches English to undergraduate students. Her students attend business and engineering courses in a state university in a major central city. The teacher meets her students twice a week, and each class lasts for three hours. There is an average of 50 students in her classes. *Having 50-60 students in EFL classes is common in many Albanian universities*, Miss Evis explains.

She describes her students as *rather passive and dependent learners*. She elaborates further on this topic:

When students come to my class (pause) they bring with themselves few transferable skills from the secondary school, a limited number of learning strategies, and (pause) a low level of autonomy. They are (pause) reluctant to change because they see English language at university as an exam to pass, rather than as a class where they can improve their English [Source: IR].

Before starting this position, the teacher taught English in both state and private language schools. Currently, she also tutors student privately at her home, mainly on Saturdays and Sundays [Source: EQ & IR].

In terms of personality, Miss Evis defines herself as a *go-getter who is always active, flexible, and puts a lot of energy into life*. Because of this positive enthusiasm, she continues, *I have achieved many things in life and will never stop learning* [Source: IR].

Miss Evis speaks English, Italian, and Greek. She has travelled for short periods of time in the countries where those languages are spoken but has never lived there. She says she speaks all three languages fluently, and has never had any communication problems when using those languages with native speakers. From her own learning experience, Miss Evis has drawn the conclusion that students can achieve high levels of proficiency by studying a foreign language in their own country [Source: IR].

Miss Evis graduated from an Albanian university with a degree in English language teaching and translation studies in 1995, finished an MA in ELT at the same institution in 2006, and received her PhD degree in 2010 from another Albanian university after completing a 100.000-word thesis on the translation of English collocations into Albanian. She has also participated in many short teacher training events. The majority of these workshops lasted for a day or two and did not ask the participating teachers to experience CLT practices directly through observation of actual teaching sessions [Source: EQ&IR]. The only programme that lasted for over three months was the event called "The training of trainers" organised by the British Council Albania in 2008. The programme focused

on three main elements 1) trainer facilitation, mentoring, and course development skills and knowledge; 2) knowledge of L2 learning theories and communicative language teaching; and 3) professional development. The participants attended 180 hours of course work over six months, participated in an online discussion group hosted on the British Council's official website, and completed a case study to put into practice new methodologies and techniques they had learned. The programme did not involve classroom observations, i.e. observing classes taught by experienced teachers or training observations of classes taught by the participating teachers (Source: http://www.britishcouncil.org/2008-09_annual_report.pdf).

Miss Evis describes the programme as:

A very challenging and rewarding experience (pause). It was long enough to give us time to (pause) challenge and reflect on our own beliefs. It was rich enough, I mean (pause) the information came from different sources (pause), we analysed several problems from different points of views; like, what it is like to be a student in a teacher-centred class, what it is like to be a student in the 21st century, what it is like to be a teacher in the 21st century, and (pause) so on. And, (pause) above all, it was convincing enough. (Pause) I mean, our instructors never told us that we had to change our thinking about how languages are best learned and taught. All what they did was: they asked us to highlight the pros and cons of teaching English communicatively, as well as the pros and cons of rote-learning and rote-teaching, and they invited us to find the teaching approach that would best suit our 21st century students' needs [Source: IR].

She believes that this programme has particularly influenced her teaching practices because:

It made me aware of my own attitudes and beliefs. I now constantly ask the question "How communicative was my teaching?" after each lesson. The programme (pause) also helped me to acquire a competent knowledge of the main student-centred teaching approaches, including CLT and task-based learning [Source: IR].

Upon successful completion of this programme, she became one of the 15 members of the National Team of Trainers in the English language. Since then, Miss Evis has regularly delivered teacher training workshops for teachers throughout the country [Source: IR].

Miss Evis is familiar with a number of EFL textbooks, such as "Opportunities", "Essential English", "Headway", "Face2face", and "English File". She thinks that *there are many excellent textbooks out there. Basically, any textbook that approaches the teaching of English communicatively is a good one.* She uses "Opportunities" to teach her undergraduate students. She explains in the following statement that this is not a choice she made.

A dear colleague of mine, a very influential academic figure in the Albanian EFL world, is the Albanian representative of Pearson. So (laughter), many universities in Albania use this book to teach English to their students. (Pause) But it is a great choice, though [Source: EQ & IR].

Miss Evis used the textbook “Opportunities Pre-Intermediate” in the classes observed. Examples of the pages she used in one of her classes are shown in Appendix 30.

After presenting a brief teacher profile that helps readers to begin to understand Miss Evis’ instructional decisions within the context in which they were taken, the discussion that follows in the next two sections answers the two main research questions for Miss Evis’ case study.

5.4.2 How communicatively Miss Evis used the textbook

Miss Evis used teaching materials for a variety of functions. Firstly, the teacher used the table of content of “Opportunities Pre-Intermediate”, *in the form of a skeleton*, to structure the curriculum for this course. She elaborates on this topic further:

There is no official curriculum for university EFL courses and we have to prepare the course curriculum at the beginning of the academic year – which is then approved by the head of the department (pause). The starting point for the curriculum, for me, was the structure, (pause) that is to say, I kind of needed to know the relevant language, in terms of grammar, pronunciation, vocab, students at this level should be exposed to. To start off, I used the table of content (of the textbook “Opportunities Pre-Intermediate”), in the form of a skeleton to structure the “what” [Source: POI].

The grammatical patterns in the curriculum Miss Evis developed are arranged in the same order as they appear in the textbook “Opportunities Pre-Intermediate”. Likewise, the learning outcomes for this course are developed in relation to the learning objectives of the same textbook. For example, her curriculum learning outcome “By the end of the course, students should be able to use present simple to describe routines and present continuous to describe activities happening at the moment of speaking” relates to the grammar focus of the first chapter of the textbook: “Present simple and present continuous: state and action verb”, and the pronunciation learning outcome “By the end of the course, students should be able to make good use of prosodic features, e.g. placing the sentence stress on the correct word to accurately express/emphasise meaning” relates to the pronunciation focus of the third chapter of “Opportunities Pre-Intermediate”: “Pronunciation: sentence stress”. Therefore, evidence from different sources indicates that Miss Evis used the materials as a predetermined map to structure the curriculum.

Miss Evis also used the course learning outcomes as the main criteria for judging student performance on this course. She made use of test materials provided with the textbook “Opportunities Pre-Intermediate”, and *to a lesser extent the other textbook* (i.e. “New International

Business English”), *mainly for vocabulary items* [Source: IR], to prepare two classroom-level tests (one mid-term and one end-of-term test) to assess students’ learning.

Secondly, Miss Evis used the materials as the major source of L2 contact in her classes. To fulfil the curriculum learning outcomes, when the teacher plans the daily lessons, she tries *to find the best content, which means activities from the textbook or other sources that best suit my students’ needs* [Source: IR]. In the classes observed, the teacher replaced two textbook reading passages with other texts from “New International Business English” because:

My students are enrolled in an undergraduate business course. So (pause), when I see that the reading passage is about (pause), say white whales (laughter), I replace it with a topic related to business [Source: POI].

This verbatim quote, supported by classroom observation notes, illustrates Miss Evis’ capacity to respond with sensitivity to her students’ motivation and needs. By replacing textbook reading passages with other texts that better meet her students’ motivation and needs, Miss Evis seems to act in accordance with her strong belief that teachers should supplement the textbook with other activities responsive to students’ interests (for more detail see Miss Evis’ responses to the teacher belief questionnaire in Appendix 27).

The percentage distribution of the total classroom time (180 minutes) structured around the textbook activities in Miss Evis’ classes is 42%. The remaining classroom time was structured around “New International Business English” and other teacher-made handouts.

The two textbooks and the teacher-made handouts were used to provide learning opportunities for the students. More precisely, Miss Evis used three reading passages that exposed students to the new language in context; on two occasions, she read aloud textbook grammar explanations to make new grammar more accessible to the students, and continually used published materials tasks to provide controlled and freer practice for her student.

The process of knowledge production in Miss Evis’ classes is prompted by the materials (e.g. through freer speaking activities). Yet, the teacher seems to control this process strictly. As demonstrated in Excerpt 5.6 below, when the students were trying to personalise the speech [L8, L16, L19] in the classroom, Miss Evis did not allow this. Instead, the teacher readily prompted them to limit their speech to the production of the target language [L9, L11, L20, L22].

Excerpt 5.6. Miss Evis' classroom observation Nr. 2.

(After asking her students to use the textbook prompts to write sentences to reinforce the use of "how much" and "how many" (see exercise 11, Appendix 30, page 2), the teacher is doing this activity orally with the whole class).

- L1 Miss Evis: *Okay, no more time. Sokol, read the first sentence you have please.*
L2 Sokol: *Which one? I don't have any.*
L3 Miss Evis: *(Pause) Did you not write the sentences?!*
L4 Sokol: *No, but I can do it now.*
L5 Miss Evis: *No, it is okay. Please (pause), write the sentences when I ask you to do so! (Pause) Another one (pause) How about you, Shona, can you read the first question you have, that one with fast food?*
L6 Shona: *How much fast food do you eat?*
L7 Miss Evis: *Klara (calling a student's name), can you give the answer?*
L8 Klara: *Yes, like once a week, maybe.*
L9 Miss Evis: *Is that too much, too little?*
L10 Klara: *Not too much.*
L11 Miss Evis: *Then, the right answer is: I (The teacher prompts the student to complete the sentence by using her hand)*
L12 Klara: *I eat not too much fast food*
L13 Miss Evis: *Eat not too much? (Interruption)*
L14 Klara: *Don't eat, sorry.*
L15 Miss Evis: *Yes! I don't eat too much fast food. That's right, Klara! (Pause) Gerti (calling a student's name), can you read the next one?*
L16 Gerti: *Question to Alesia "How many boyfriends you have?" (Many students laugh. A young woman – should be Alesia – looks at Gerti and gives him the "loser" hand gesture)*
L17 Miss Evis: *Guys, guys, let's stick with the textbook, Gerti use only the words given here, please, do not add anything! Nothing at all!*
L18 Gerti: *Okay, okay. Alesia, how many (pause) (laughter) friends do you have?*
L19 Alesia: *(In a mocking voice) Not your business!*
L20 Miss Evis: *Alesia, please, do you have many friends, yes or not?*
L21 Alesia: *Yeah*
L22 Miss Evis: *Then just say "I have many friends"*
L23 Alesia: *(In a mocking voice again) I have many friends.*

This excerpt demonstrates a theme that appears throughout the data: Miss Evis' tendency to use her authority to control and limit the role materials play in learning by not allowing students to make connections between the materials and their own lives. Miss Evis is aware of this behaviour and explains:

It is virtually impossible to give students freedom to use the prompts in the way they want when you have 50 students in a class; well, 50 very young men and women who are easily distracted by the use of certain words, such as "love", "sex", (laughter) "boyfriend/girlfriend", "easy money", "drugs", and (pause). To avoid discipline problems in my classes, I ask them to stick with the textbook prompts, which very often are very neutral, and do not trigger students' overreaction [Source: POI].

For the same reason (i.e. to avoid discipline issues), Miss Evis made a limited use of pair work in her classes (only 8%). She justified this decision as follows:

I am very much aware of the necessity of using pair work in my classes, and (pause) I have tried this approach a couple of times but it (pause) it simply does not seem to work. I mean, again, it is a class of 50-60 students, and there is no way that I can monitor so many students at the same time. On top of that (pause), students are not used to this way of doing things, and they expect me to tell them what to do. They are not trained to work with each other. So, using pair work in my classes would not really make any difference because they (pause) wouldn't respond, I guess [Source: POI].

Miss Evis engaged her students in individual seat work for almost one third of the total class time. She believes this is the right approach because:

Students need to be given some individual time, particularly when they complete gap-filling drills, to reflect on the knowledge they have been exposed to. It is like time for digestion. (Pause) If you ask your students to complete knowledge reinforcement exercises like this in their pairs, I guess, they would get confused by each other's mistakes. So, it is normal to do some activities on their own [Source: POI].

The percentage distribution of the total classroom time spent on each of the four main interaction patterns is shown in Table 5.5.

Individual (S)	Pairs (S-s)	Group (Ss-S)	Class (T-Ss)
34%	0%	8%	58%

Table 5.5: Miss Evis' classroom interaction patterns (Percentage distribution of total time)

On one occasion, Miss Evis had her students work in their groups of four to revise the use of some idioms in English. Miss Evis closely monitored the groups *to make sure they were doing what they were supposed to do* [Source: POI]. On another occasion, Miss Evis had six students ask a question they had prepared beforehand by using the textbook clues to their classmates. Eight percent of total class time was spent on group work interactions.

The students in Miss Evis' classes spent the majority of their time (58%) watching, listening, and working together as a class by participating in teacher-led activities, such as instructions, feedback on students' work, practice drills, and discussions.

The percentage distribution of the total time Miss Evis spent on classroom activities associated with tradition teaching methods, communicative teaching approaches, and issues related to class management is shown in Table 5.6.

Activity	Percentage
Non-communicative activities (i.e. passive listening, e.g. listening to a song; passive reading, e.g. reading aloud; passive writing, e.g. grammar and vocabulary drills; passive speaking, e.g. grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation drills; teaching grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation rules)	60%
Communicative tasks (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing activities that involve students in interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning)	38%
Other (e.g. class management, discipline issues, etc.)	2%

Table 5.6: Miss Evis' classroom activity patterns (Percentage distribution of total time)

Non-communicative activities occupied 60% of Miss Evis' overall class time, with focus-on-accuracy activities and grammar/vocabulary explanations occupying 38% and 18% of the time, respectively. Miss Evis explained the rationale behind this approach as follows:

I believe that there is a place for grammar-based activities in language teaching. I mean (pause), if you teach grammar the way my teacher used to teach, like asking your students to learn by heart all the rules, this is probably not very communicative. But (pause) if you ask a student to fill in the gap in a sentence like "I have never seen the snow", and you ask him a question like "Has your sister ever seen the snow?", I guess, you are teaching grammar communicatively because you are engaging your students in a conversation where they have to drill the grammar form in context, rather than asking them to repeat "I have seen, You have seen, She has seen" and so on [Source: POI].

Speaking, reading, and writing activities that involve students in interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning occupied 38% of Miss Evis' total class time. Instead of engaging students in productive speaking activities, Miss Evis continually asked them to use their language communicatively by writing about a given topic related to the reading passage because:

It is difficult to give each student a chance to use the language communicatively in spoken activities (pause) when there are 50 students in a class. On top of that, my students (pause), once they graduate, they will (pause) most likely use their English to write emails to foreign companies, rather than to talk on the phone with other foreign businesses. I mean, email is the most used means of communication among businesses nowadays. So, I have to prepare my students to be able to write in English fluently [Source: POI].

Students were never asked to listen to a recording in Miss Evis' class because:

Well (pause), it's funny, but I have never used tapes in my classes (laughter). That might be because when I started teaching there were no electronic devices (laughter) that I could use in the classroom to get my students to hear to the recording. Well (pause) actually, the first book I used in my classes, which was (pause) "Essential English", the book did not even have

a tape that accompanied the course-book, (pause) if my memory does not betray me. So, I used to check my students' pronunciation skills by asking them to read aloud the text. (Pause) Nowadays, I am doing the same thing, but in a more communicative way, I guess. I am checking my students' pronunciation skills by engaging them in conversations with myself [Source: IR].

To summarise, through participation in teacher training events and academic studies, Miss Evis has expanded her teaching knowledge, and the knowledge of communicative language teaching in particular. As a result, Miss Evis felt sufficiently sure of herself to develop the curriculum and select learning activities from different sources to accomplish the curriculum learning outcomes. However, data from this case study suggest that only a small number of communicative principles and practices have been absorbed into Miss Evis' pedagogical approach. These are tailoring the teaching materials and the teaching approach to meet her students' needs and expectations, teaching and practising grammar in context, checking her students' pronunciation skills by engaging them in oral productive activities, and asking her students to complete written fluency-based activities.

On many occasions, Miss Evis played the role of the knower, gave students limited time to practise their spoken English with real interaction among the interlocutors, implemented few pair or group interactions, and put much emphasis on structure.

The potential factors that might have influenced Miss Evis' instructional decisions on how to use communication-based textbooks in her classes are discussed in the next section.

5.4.3 Factors influencing Miss Evis' instructional decisions on how to use the textbook

This section answers the second research question of this project by examining heuristic cues, teachers' belief and knowledge systems, as well as a number of other contextual factors, identified in section 2.6., that are likely to affect teachers' implementation of new teaching approaches, especially as a result of government reform. The main themes that emerged from Miss Evis' data are discussed below.

5.4.3.1 Belief and knowledge systems and contextual factors

Through her academic studies and participation in communication-based teacher training events, Miss Evis, who had been exposed to traditional teaching approaches as a learner, seems to have enriched her belief systems. Miss Evis' responses to the teacher belief questionnaire indicate that the teacher holds constructivist views about English language learning and teaching. The teacher believes that *it is extremely important for learners to practise their speaking skills; to complete activities that integrate multiple skills; to experiment with L2; to engage in pair/group activities; and to use mainly L2 in the classroom*. She reinforces these constructivist views by expressing the belief that focus-on-accuracy activities, such as teaching isolated grammar rules, focusing on isolated repetition drills, translation exercises, memorising lists of L2 words, correcting students' mistakes, and teacher-centred activities, should not be attended to in EFL classrooms [Source: QTB]. During one of our informal interviews, the teacher added the following on this topic:

There is much research to suggest that languages should be taught communicatively (pause). Most of the teachers in Albania still use a rote-learning approach to teach English (pause) and (pause) we all know that the authorities would (pause) frown if a teacher used things like translation exercises, or grammar drills, or if you mainly lectured in your classes. I mean, you can still do these things, but in moderation. There should be plenty of room in your classes for communication (pause) because this is how languages are learned [Source: IR].

The research data indicate that Miss Evis, through her academic studies and participation in communication-based teacher training events, has developed her knowledge systems. More precisely, the teacher seems to have enriched her:

- 1) Content knowledge. As seen in section 2.3.1.2, this type of knowledge refers to teachers' understanding of facts, concepts, principles, topics, structures, and explanatory frameworks in a given subject (Shulman, 1986). There is evidence in this case study to suggest that the teacher is aware of the existence of different teaching approaches. When asked during the post observation interviews whether she could think of any other approach of teaching/doing the same thing/activity, Miss Evis mentioned several teacher-led, individual work, and collaborative teaching approaches for every single instructional decision she made in her classes. In addition, on several occasions during the informal oral interviews, Miss Evis talked about *the old way of teaching* and *student-centred approaches*. Likewise, she was also able to describe the main differences between CLT and the deductive approach. More precisely, the teacher talked about the difference between:

Asking students to learn by heart all the rules and teaching grammar communicatively in the class;

Checking students' pronunciation skills by asking them to read aloud the text and checking students' pronunciation skills by engaging them in conversations;

Providing opportunities for learners to master their L2 by constructing meaning and lecturing in the class.

This evidence indicates that the teacher is aware of the rationale behind traditional and student-centred teaching approaches and methods.

- 2) Syntactic knowledge. Miss Evis showed that she is aware of the major debates and disagreements in the field of how L2 teaching has developed, and of who has contributed the most in this development. As seen in section 2.3.1.1, this type of knowledge is defined by Shulman (1986) as “syntactic knowledge”. Miss Evis used a number of expressions to indicate that she possesses deep syntactic knowledge:

There is much research to suggest that languages should be taught communicatively (pause) [Source: IR].

I am very much aware of the necessity of using pair work in my classes [Source: POI].

I believe that there is a place for grammar-based activities in language teaching [Source: POI].

I have come to realise the very important role the idioms play in every day conversation [Source: IR].

I (pause) am not sure how L2 knowledge is constructed and, I guess, (pause) nobody knows this [Source: IR].

Miss Evis is likely to have acquired this type of knowledge after attending academic programmes in higher education institutions, participating in teacher development events, and reading research articles and how-to-teach manuals [Source: IR]. One teaching behaviour observed in Miss Evis' classes that can be related to the knowledge the teacher has required as the result of her PhD research is the replacement of two free-production textbook tasks with teacher-made tasks on idiomatic expressions. The teacher gave the following justification for these decisions:

To improve my students' speaking skills, I also dedicate some time to the teaching of idioms during each class. (Pause) By researching this topic, I (pause) I have come to realise the very important role the idioms play in every day conversation. By teaching some idioms every day, I want to prepare my students for real life conversations they can have in the future [Source: IR].

Nevertheless, the knowledge Miss Evis has acquired through reading professional journals and books, and through participation in teacher training programmes that show participants how to implement CLT approaches but do not involve a teaching practicum, does not seem to bring a change in Miss Evis' classroom practices. As seen in section 5.4.2, Miss Evis used a rather traditional delivery approach in the classes observed.

To summarise, Miss Evis seems to have constructed a number of constructivist views about English language learning and teaching after participating in a number of how-to-teach training events, and attending postgraduate programmes in TEFL. In addition, there is enough empirical evidence to support the view that Miss Evis possesses a good understanding of facts, concepts, principles, and explanatory frameworks related to CLT and TEFL. Yet, despite consciously thinking and believing that *languages should be taught communicatively*, observation data show that the teacher used mainly a traditional approach in her classes. Therefore, one can conclude that Miss Evis did not consistently employ in her classes teaching practices which directly reflect the new belief and knowledge systems she possesses.

Rather, what Miss Evis did in her classes seems to have been particularly influenced by the knowledge of the teaching context she possesses. Miss Evis demonstrated on a number of occasions that she is familiar with local expectations regarding the role of teachers and learners. For example, she claimed:

My students are (pause) reluctant to change because they see English language at university as an exam to pass, rather than as a class where they can improve their English [Source: IR].

Students are not used to this way of doing things, and they expect me to tell them what to do. They are not trained to work with each other [Source: POI].

It is difficult to give each student a chance to use the language communicatively in spoken activities (pause) when there are 50 students in a class [Source: POI].

It is virtually impossible to give students freedom to use the prompts in the way they want when you have 50 students in a class [Source: POI].

To avoid discipline problems in my classes, I ask them to stick with the textbook prompts, which very often are very neutral, and do not trigger students' overreaction [Source: POI].

Miss Evis claimed that she took into consideration her students' needs and abilities when she planned her lessons. The basis of this interview theme was supported and expanded by the evidence gathered during the observation sessions. For example, due the large size of the class and the age of her students, Miss Evis did not always allow her students to make personal connections with the materials. In addition, to prepare her students to be

communicative in English, rather than asking them to use English communicatively by participating in oral activities, Miss Evis continually asked the students to use their language communicatively in written activities because *the students, once they graduate, will most likely use their English to write emails to foreign companies* [Source: POI].

The data suggest that the teaching approach Miss Evis adopted in the classes observed reflected a number of contextual factors, such as the large size of the class and the age of the students. As seen in section 2.6, issues related to students' behaviours are likely to inhibit EFL teachers' enthusiasm for implementing communicative approaches in their classes (Kim, 2008; Humphries, 2014). Therefore, this study's findings on the influence of the contextual factors on teachers' delivery seem to provide support for previous research findings showing how teachers' knowledge of learners inform their teaching practices, including the way they use global textbooks in their classes (Taguchi, 2005; Dello-Iacovo, 2009).

Yet, as indicated in sections 2.3.1.1 and 2.3.1.2, the different types of knowledge a practitioner possesses are interrelated and affect each other. This means that the knowledge of the teaching context Miss Evis possesses does not act in isolation from the other types of knowledge and beliefs she maintains. This further means that there should be a reason why Miss Evis' teaching practices were influenced to a great degree by the knowledge of the context she possesses but were barely affected by the other types of the new knowledge and beliefs she has recently acquired.

Following this line of argument, in the next section, I discuss the influence of the teaching practices Miss Evis has built up over the course of her career on her teaching approach. This discussion might offer an explanation of why Miss Evis' teaching approach was influenced to a great degree by a number of contextual factors and why Miss Evis did not consistently employ in her classes teaching practices which directly reflect the new belief and knowledge systems she has acquired.

5.4.3.2 Old teaching habits

The views Miss Evis expressed in formal and formal interviews were in accordance with the findings provided by the teacher self-evaluation data. Indeed, the overall impressions the teacher gave during the teacher self-evaluation sessions were very accurate. That is to say, she was aware that her classes were not very communicative. During the self-evaluation sessions, the teacher also

said that she was not satisfied with how the lessons went because there *was something missing* [Source: LE]. Although it was hard for the teacher to verbalise the intuitive gut feeling that was telling her that her classes were not very communicative, the manifestation of this thought indicates that Miss Evis is feeling and facing uncertainty. To support this claim, the teacher claimed that she knows what she should do, but she does not know *what to do exactly in her classes to bring about more learning* [Source: IR]. She explains what she means below:

There are (pause) many reasons to believe that teaching languages communicative is the appropriate thing to do. I mean (pause), students talk to each other, they practise their speaking more, and yes (pause), this is why they learn a foreign language, at the end of the day, to speak it, rather than to speak about it in the classroom. Yet (pause), I cannot say students do not need grammar rules, and grammar drills. That's how I learned English myself and it worked out okay for me (pause). So, in plain English, I (pause) am not sure how L2 knowledge is best constructed and, I guess, (pause) nobody knows this. And, because what I know about L2 knowledge construction is not exactly clear to me, I, at times, find it hard to transfer this imprecise knowledge to exact classroom instructions [Source: IR].

As seen in section 2.6, EFL teachers' uncertainty with reference to how to conduct CLT-oriented classes can be the consequence of the lack of confidence in their own capacity to teach English communicatively. Teachers who move away from traditional teacher-centred models of teaching to constructive student-centred teaching approaches often experience self-doubt about how to proceed with their new roles (Sakui, 2004; Berry, 2007).

In Miss Evis' case, the teacher is likely to see the teaching through a different mindset as the result of the different types of knowledge the teacher has acquired after being exposed to new ways of thinking. Yet, the old way of teaching and thinking does not automatically go away (White, 2000). Miss Evis, on a number of occasions, during the post-observation interviews, informal discussions, and oral self-evaluation sessions, offered a number of post-hoc justifications for her instructional decisions that seem to indicate that the teacher is left "dangling in the thrones of uncertainty" (Larrivee, 2000:304). Some of these quotes are shown below:

I am very much aware of the necessity of using pair work in my classes [Source: POI].
Using pair work in my classes would not really make any difference because they (pause) wouldn't respond, I guess [Source: POI].
I find it easier to use individual work [Source: IR].
There is much research to suggest that languages should be taught communicatively (pause) [Source: IR].
It is normal [to ask students] to reinforce their knowledge of grammar rules [Source: IR].
I cannot say students do not need grammar rules, and grammar drills. That's how I learned English myself and it worked out okay for me [Source: IR].

Miss Evis used the expression *I have taught like this for ages* to explain the majority (68%) of her teaching behaviours when she was asked during the post observation interview the question “Where did you first see/encounter this teaching behaviour?” Post observation interview data, in addition to the above mentioned post-hoc assertions provided by the teacher, seem to indicate that, in Miss Evis’ case, old teaching habits or routines might have also played an important role in the process of instructional decision making. Another example of the influence of old teaching habit on what Miss Evis did in her classes is shown below:

Well (pause), it’s funny, but I have never used tapes in my classes (laughter). That might be because when I started teaching there were no electronic devices (laughter) that I could use in the classroom to get my students to hear to the recording [Source: IR].

Miss Evis is *very much aware of the necessity of using pair work* [Source: POI]. Yet, the teacher finds it hard *to transfer this imprecise knowledge to exact classroom instructions* [Source: IR]. She seems to know the rationale behind the use of communicative approaches, but does she know how to put into practice the knowledge that she has acquired? After all, Miss Evis has only participated into a “how to teach communicatively” online discussion group hosted on the British Council’s official website, and completed a case study to put into practice new methodologies and techniques she had learned. She had never observed communication-based classroom techniques in a live classroom. Under these circumstances, Miss Evis might have decided to keep closely to her old teaching habits to avoid feelings of uncertainty. As seen in section 2.6, when new teaching approaches bring feelings of insecurity, teachers are likely to maintain a very traditional way of teaching (Sakui, 2004; Hiramatsu, 2005).

As a student, Miss Evis was exposed to a deductive L2 teaching model. As a teacher, she has used the same teaching approach for years. The teaching practices Miss Evis has built up over the course of her career are likely to have been challenged by the new knowledge and beliefs the teacher has recently acquired. Miss Evis claimed that she would love to do new things in her classes but she cannot teach communicatively because she needs to accommodate the needs and abilities of her students who are used to traditional learning methods. Miss Evis’ reasoning, however, raises a number of questions:

- 1) Is the teacher capable of teaching the communicative activities she refers to? As seen above, Miss Evis experienced insecurity about her teaching because she lacks practical knowledge of new teaching approaches. According to Golembek (1998), teachers acquire new teaching behaviours only after they shape and reshape the new practices through experiences inside

the classroom. As shown above, Miss Evis has little experience observing and/or teaching communicative teaching classes.

- 2) Could it be that Miss Evis is using the knowledge of the context she possesses to justify her old teaching approach? If a teacher changed her teaching style to accommodate his/her students' needs and abilities, this can be taken as a direct influence of contextual factors on the instructional approach. However, when a teacher claims that he/she wishes to change her/his teaching approach but cannot do that because of the contextual factors, this is not necessarily a demonstration of the influence of contextual factors on the teaching delivery. After all, the teacher is still doing the same things he/she has done for ages in the classroom. This seems to be the case of Miss Evis.
- 3) Miss Evis and Miss Ada looked at the same teaching context, i.e. the Albanian EFL context, in two different ways. Miss Ada claimed that [Albanian EFL] *students do in the classroom exactly what the teacher says. If you [pause] continuously say "work in your pairs", students easily get used to it.* Miss Evis, on the other hand, maintained that she found it difficult to use pair work in her classes because her [Albanian EFL] *students are not trained to work with each other* [Source: POI]. The data seem to indicate that the two teachers, who were exposed to different teaching approaches as L2 learner, saw the same teaching context in two different ways. Could it be that, rather than being affected by the context in which the teaching takes place, teachers are simply influenced by the way they see and interpret the teaching context? As claimed in section 2.2.2, the way decision makers look at a problem is framed by how they contextualize the problem in the light of their prior experiences, understanding, and expectations. This perspective might explain why Miss Evis and Miss Ada interpreted the same teaching context in two different ways.

More research is needed to provide the evidence needed to answer the questions Miss Evis' thinking raises.

5.5 Case study 4: Miss Landa

For this case study, four 45-minute classes were observed in January 2012. Miss Landa also attended four one-on-one 10-15 minute post-observation interviews, gave two oral feedbacks, and engaged in 32 chats with me. In addition, I collected four lesson plans, exchange three clarification emails with the teacher, photocopied pages of the textbook containing the lessons observed, and

the teacher's book pages giving guidance for the lessons observed. I also had nine informal conversations with Miss Landa's colleagues and the headmaster. I spent five days at the school where Miss Landa taught.

5.5.1 Miss Landa profile

The school where Miss Landa works is located in the outskirts of a southern city. The neighbourhoods, which feature townhomes and recently-built inexpensive condominiums and rentals, are home to a mixture of middle-class and low-income Albanian migrants. Both working-class and middle-class parents, according to Miss Landa, place deep value on education. *If they have the financial means, they do support outside of the classroom learning by enrolling their children in private language schools.* She elaborates further on this topic:

The parents are not often in the school environment. Some of them attend afternoon teacher-parent meetings, (pause) usually held once a month, and that's it. Either because they do not speak English themselves, or because they work long hours, they can provide little help to their children at home with the schoolwork. This means that they turn all the responsibility of teaching to us [Source: IR].

Miss Landa teaches English to grade seven and nine students, aged 13 and 15 respectively. She meets her students three times a week, and each class lasts for 45 minutes. There are between 30 and 36 students in her classes. Some of the students take private classes and others do not. Hence, Miss Landa usually teaches mixed level classes. Most of her students are extrinsically motivated, Miss Landa believes, because they *aim to score a good mark by the end of the year* [Source: IR].

Since she was awarded a BA in ELT and translation from the University of Tirana in 1979, Miss Landa has been teaching English to high school students. In addition, like the majority of Albanian EFL teachers, Miss Landa offers afternoon classes in her home to supplement her inadequately remunerated state job [Source: EQ & IR].

Miss Landa has participated in a two-day teacher training seminar offered by the British Council in Albania. She describes this teacher development experience as follows:

There were loads of new things said and done during that weekend. I guess the teaching tips were practical but we were overloaded with information, and (pause) were not able to digest all of what was said. (Pause) One thing I learned from that course, though, which I often use in my classes, is: using my fingers to emphasise that there is a missing words in a student's sentence [Source: IR].

Rather than talking about her personality as a teacher, Miss Landa describes how she believes her students view her.

They are likely to see a middle-age woman who knows many things but is always eager to learn new things (laughter). You often find my students lecturing me about issues related to the use of computers, like how to turn a Words document into a PDF – this was the last thing I learned from them. The message I want to transmit to my student is: learning is not something that ends when you leave the class. It is something that you do as long as you live. I also believe in good manners. That’s why I continually make eye contact with my students, call them by their names, and make sure to have a neat appearance in the classroom. I also (pause) believe (pause) that the teacher must have a command of the subject she teaches, that’s why I always try to prepare myself thoroughly before each class [Source: IR].

During her career, Miss Landa has used several English course books, including “English for you”, “Headway”, “New Headway”, “Inside Out”, “Blockbusters”, and “Access”. They all seem the same to her. She argues: *I have rarely seen my teenage students get really excited when they use any of these books, and that is because the authors [of these textbooks] clearly have no idea what Albanian students want. In her view, “English for you” is the best textbook she has ever used because it translates difficult vocabulary in Albanian, it presents grammar explicitly – which is what Albanian students expect – and, above all, it contains topics that are about Albania and the Albanian reality [Source: EQ&IR]. At present, she is using the course-book “Access” because it is the cheapest.*

As regards the use of the teacher’s book while planning the lesson, Miss Landa adds the following:

I belong to that category of teachers who used “English for you” [an EFL textbook made in Albania during the communism epoch] for so many years; and, guess what? (Pause) (Laughter) There was no teacher book for that textbook. So, we did things in our way. Nowadays, each modern textbook has its own teacher’s book. I guess (pause) consulting the teacher’s book does not harm. On the contrary, it helps you to understand the steps you need to follow. (Pause) The textbook is particularly useful if you want to do something new in your classes, like teaching reading or teaching grammar, differently from the way you have done it up to now. In short, I have to admit that I like having the teacher’s book on my desk when I plan a lesson [Source: IR].

She elaborates on this topic further:

The question is “Do I always follow textbook suggestions in my classes?” Well (pause), in all honesty, no! (Laughter) This is because I am inclined to think that I will still do in my class the same things. Things I am comfortable with (pause), no matter what the textbook says. I know when I am doing good teaching, and that has very little to do with the textbook [Source: IR].

Miss Landa used the textbook “Access 3” in the classes observed. Examples of the pages she used in one of her classes are shown in Appendix 31.

After presenting a brief teacher profile that helps readers to situate Miss Landa's instructional decisions within the context in which they were taken, the discussion that follows in the next two sections answers the two main research questions for Miss Landa's case study.

5.5.2 How communicatively Miss Landa used the textbook

The percentage distribution of the total classroom time (180 minutes) structured around the textbook activities in Miss Landa's classes is 86%. The remaining time (14%) was used to deal with class management and discipline issues, as well as to explain and reinforce grammar rules. Miss Landa, on two occasions, supplemented the textbook with accuracy-based activities. In one of her classes, she explained the grammar item by writing extra rules on how to use possessive pronouns on the blackboard. In another class, she revised the grammar by asking each student to read a sentence completion exercise and explain why he/she used the simple present or present continuous in that sentence. The rationale behind these actions was: *I simply felt my students needed more grammar explanations and reinforcement* [Source: POI].

Miss Landa would like to supplement the textbook with drills and additional grammar and translation exercises because:

At the end of their study, students take a national exam that is designed to assess their knowledge of grammar. So, teaching and practising grammar is a must-do thing [Source: IR].

However, environmental factors seemed to have affected what Miss Landa did in her classes. She felt that the whole issue of not teaching enough grammar is *a matter of time and money*. She elaborated as follows:

Lack of time because (pause) the textbook provides so many activities, and I simply do not have much time to do other activities. Lack of resources because writing grammar exercises on the blackboard is very much time consuming, and (pause) handing out photocopies to students is out of the question because I would have to use my own money to photocopy handouts as there is no photocopier on the school premises [Source: IR].

The teacher used the textbook and workbook for support in teaching listening, pronunciation, grammar, reading, writing, vocabulary, and speaking. The textbook was used in the classes observed to:

- 1) engage learners in the learning process. Miss Landa thinks *the textbook is neither too difficult nor too easy for students, so, generally speaking, they engage well with material* [Source: IR]. In addition, according to Miss Landa, the textbook is beneficial to language

learning process because *it provides lots of opportunities for students to reinforce newly learned concepts and demonstrated what they have learned* [Source: IR].

In the classes observed, the teacher used one pre-listening and two pre-reading activities to prepare students for what they were going to listen/read about, although she believes that:

Doing pre-reading exercises can be a hindrance, particularly for low-level students who read at the limits of their abilities. Their comprehension of the text can be easily influenced by other students' guessing. (Pause) As you saw this morning, Gladjol [one of the students] was misdirected by his friend's wrong guess; you know, when I asked the class to predict, (pause) there was this one student who said that the woman in the picture was a banker because she was wearing a suit and carrying a briefcase. I did not correct his guess because I did not want to give the students the right answer. Anyway, Gladjol's comprehension was pretty much influenced by this answer, because he circled banker as the right answer in the listening comprehension exercise [Source: LE].

However, Miss Landa also believes that pre-listening/reading exercises can be very useful for students when the activity provided in the textbook fails to provide a sense of relevance to fully engage the students [Source: IR]. She adds the following on this topic:

There are some topics, like holidays abroad, or I don't know (pause) things like renewable energy or (pause) vegetarian meals, these topics are thousand miles away from the world where my students live. Some of them [students] are vegetarians because their families cannot afford to buy meat. So (pause), when they read a passage which talks about people who refuse to eat animal flesh, they might find it difficult to understand the text. (Pause) And that's not because the text is in English, I guess they would have difficulties understanding the text even if it was in Albanian. Obviously, doing some preparatory work, like discussing with the students briefly the reasons why people might refuse to consume meat, might be helpful [Source: LE].

In the classes observed, Miss Landa did not omit any pre-reading/listening activity. She explains the why in the following passage:

This does not mean that I found all of them useful. If it was for me, I wouldn't ask my students to complete the pre-listening activity today, and (pause) perhaps the pre-reading activity we did yesterday. You know, the one about professions. However, I asked them to complete the all the textbook activities because this shows the students that (pause) that they have to take learning seriously; they cannot neglect any part of the material. You know, I have realised that, when you [the teacher] skip an exercise or any other part of the book, students will do the same and they will particularly skip homework exercises [Source: POI].

The consistent use of pre-listening/reading activities to active students' schemata seems to be a direct influence of the use of communication-based textbooks on Miss Landa's delivery approach.

Miss Landa also used textbook listening and reading passages, grammar explanations, focus-on-accuracy exercises, and freer speaking and writing activities to provide learning affordances for her students. There were cases when the textbook was arguably used in a way that authors intended, such as the use of pre-listening/reading exercises designed to activate the knowledge students bring to the classroom, and the use of accuracy-based exercises. The latter, most likely, are intended to prompt students' use of separate sentences and phrases. As illustrated in the Excerpt 5.7, students did react to these exercises with a practised language (see Lines 2 and 6).

Excerpt 5.7. Miss Landa's classroom observation Nr. 3.

(After asking her students to use the textbook prompts to write sentences to reinforce the use of "has gone" and "has been" (see exercise 4, Appendix 31, page 2), the teacher is doing the activity orally with the whole class).

- L1 Miss Landa: Bledi, are you ready? (Pause) Read the first sentence!
L2 Bledi: John isn't here. He has gone on holiday.
L3 Miss Landa: Excellent! Why not "has been"?
L4 Bledi: Because John is there now.
L5 Miss Landa: Very good! (Pause) Tela, read the next please!
L6 Tela: She has been to Hong Kong twice.
L7 Miss Landa: Has been, well done! [Pause] Is she in Hong Kong now?
L8 Tela: No.

However, there were also cases when the textbook was arguably used in a different way than intended by the authors. The teacher turned two textbook reading activities and five speaking tasks – arguably designed to engage learners in interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning - into oral focus-on-accuracy drills or reading aloud. To give an example, in one of her classes, after activating students' previous knowledge by asking them to look at the pictures, read the title, and to write down three questions about each place (see exercise 1 – Appendix 5, page 1), Miss Landa called out students' names and asked them to read aloud one sentence each from the reading passages. The teacher corrected their pronunciation promptly, and asked students to translate sentences that contained difficult lexis.

As seen in section 2.9, commercial CLT-based textbooks tend to integrate reading and listening passages to provide an opportunity for learners to discover new language in context with the ultimate goal of increasing their meaning-based communicative competence. Consequently, one could argue that using listening and reading texts to get students to analyse the L2, as Miss Landa did, is a misinterpretation of the textbook intended affordances.

Another possible misinterpretation of the textbook intended affordances observed in Miss Landa's classes is shown in the classroom Excerpt 5.8.

Excerpt 5.8. Miss Landa's classroom observation Nr. 4.

(After asking students to read the grammar rules, complete a consciousness-raising exercise (i.e. *Put the verbs in bracket into the past simple or the past continuous*), and a controlled practice exercise (i.e. *The pictures on the top right were taken at 6 o'clock yesterday evening. Use the clues – e.g. Laura/read a newspaper/6 o'clock - to ask and answer questions*), students are now working on a freer speaking exercise. The textbook gives some prompts (7.00 am; 12.30 pm; 2.30 pm; 5.00 pm; 9.00 am), and students are supposed to ask and answer questions about what they were doing last Saturday at the times given. Miss Landa asked students to write sentences about themselves, and is now checking their sentences as a class)

- L1 Miss Landa: *Well, (pause) let's see the answers together. Linda, what were you doing last Saturday at 7.00 am?*
- L2 Linda: *I was playing with a friend at 7.00 o'clock.*
- L3 Miss Landa: *Well done, Linda! (Interruption)*
- L4 A student: *Playing? 7.00 in the morning?*
- L5 Miss Landa: *It's OK, Tani (student's name)! What she was actually doing doesn't make any difference (pause). Important is that you use the right form. Why past continuous here? Are we talking about a single moment in the past or have we stopped the time in the past?*
- L6 (three or four student simultaneously): *Stopped the time.*
- L7 Miss Landa: *Yes, stopped the time! (Pause) Okay, Tani. What were you doing last Saturday at 12.30 pm, afternoon – right?*
- L8 Tani : *I was eating lunch with family.*
- L9 Miss Landa: *Family?!*
- L10 Tani: *Yes, family, not friends.*
- L11 Miss Landa: *No, no, (pause) I mean, do we say "with family" or "with my family"?*
- L12 Tani: *Oh, with my family.*
- L13 Miss Landa: *Okay, so repeat the full answer.*
- L12 Tani: *I was eating lunch with my family last Saturday at 12.30 pm o'clock.*

In completing the above exercise, which is arguably conceptualised as a freer-speaking activity by textbook designers to provide possibilities for learners to produce the target language in unplanned, albeit controlled discourse, Miss Landa stuck with what she believed the intended affordances of the task were (i.e. *to reinforce the use of simple past and past continuous* [Source: IR]). The teacher did not allow her students to deviate from the grammar focus of the exercise. She claimed that she was doing her best to keep her students focused on the use of the grammar form, so that *the rules get stuck in their heads*. Miss Landa has used this approach to teach speaking for as long as she remembers. She stated that she was first exposed to this teaching approach when she attended Mr Dhimiter's (her secondary school English teacher) classes. From these data, the theme "teachers' previous learning experience" starts to emerge as a potential influence on Miss Landa's instructional approach.

When asked whether she believed the students were using English communicatively or not in this exercise, Miss Landa replied:

Certainly! They were using English, we were communicating in English (pause) they were using the target grammar. So, yes, the students were using English communicatively [Source: POI].

Miss Landa's reply to this question indicates that Miss Landa used the textbook in a particular way that reflected her understanding of communicativeness in ELT classes. The same theme was identified in Miss Elona's case study.

- 2) assess students' performance. Miss Landa used a number of expressions (i.e. *You should know how to use the past tense in English; We have already seen this; You need to reinforce the use of –"ing"*; and so on) to inform her students about the details of their progress. Miss Landa's choice of words might indicate that the teacher based her assessment of students' progress on the textbook input (i.e. what she taught in her classes, following the textbook content) rather than on the learning outcome (i.e. what her students had learned). The use of the textbook to assess students' performance is also a theme identified in classroom observations. As seen above, Miss Landa used a number of focus-on-accuracy exercises, reading passages, and freer speaking and writing activities to assess her students' knowledge of the linguistic items they were being exposed to, as well as their prior knowledge of L2 grammar.

In the classes observed, Miss Landa directed the content of the teaching sessions, made limited use of pair/group interaction patterns, and spent a considerable amount of class time on activities that pushed the students to process language more deeply. These teaching behaviours are discussed in more detail below.

The percentage distribution of the total classroom time spent on each of the four main interaction patterns is shown in Table 5.7.

Individual (S)	Pairs (S-s)	Group (Ss-S)	Class (T-Ss)
29%	0%	0%	71%

Table 5.7: Miss Landa's classroom interaction patterns (Percentage distribution of total time)

Seventy-one per cent of Miss Landa's classes were organised around teacher-led activities. This interaction pattern clearly reflects Miss Landa's teaching belief that:

Classroom learning should be provided by the one who has the knowledge and understanding of the subject. Obviously, students come to school, and parents send their offspring to school, to be instructed by someone who has the skills and ability to teach, not by a pair who lacks a thorough understanding of English himself [Source: IR].

Individual seat work accounted for 29% of the total time. Miss Landa used traditional exercises to provide space for students to consolidate their learning, as well as to meet her students' needs. For example, on one occasion, the teacher asked the students to write down their answers, instead of getting students to pair with the person beside them and complete the task¹⁸⁾ orally, because:

Most of them have neither been abroad nor witnessed any accident. So, (pause) if I don't give them some time to think about what they are going to say, and what linguistic forms to use, for sure, they will repeat the same scenario they read in the reading passage [Source: POI].

Pair/group work was hardly used as an interaction pattern in the classes observed. Miss Landa never followed textbook directions when it came to the use of pair/group-work in the classroom. She explained her decision:

Pair work is something new for Albanian students and, (pause) obviously, they need to be shown how to work in pairs. As a teacher, (pause) I have little time to train my students to work in their pairs during the class time [Source: IR].

On the subject of pair work, Miss Landa added the following:

We keep hearing 'pair work' and 'group work' (laughter) (pause). However (pause), any experienced teacher knows that this idea, (pause) along with other initiatives that successive governments have tried to foist on secondary schools, simply does not work. Our students don't come to school to study only English. They study (pause) mathematics, geography, history, and (pause) they never do any pair work or things like that in other classes. (Pause) Are they expected to be taught by each other just in one subject, English? (Laughter) That's unrealistic, and I am not surprised, because these ideas originate from either politicians or educational theorists who are largely ignorant of classroom practice [Source: IR].

The theme "the influence of internal laissez-faire", emerged from this informal discussion with the teacher and raised many time during my discussions with Miss Landa, is discussed in detail in section 5.5.3.2.

¹⁸⁾ The task was: "Use the prompts to make true sentences about yourself". Textbook prompts: While you were abroad on holidays, you witnessed a car accident. Tell your friend: Where and when the accident took place, who was involved, and so on.

The percentage distribution of the total time Miss Landa spent on classroom activities associated with traditional teaching methods, communicative teaching approaches, and issues related to class management is shown in Table 5.8.

Activity	Percentage
Non-communicative activities (i.e. passive listening, e.g. listening to a song; passive reading, e.g. reading aloud; passive writing, e.g. grammar and vocabulary drills; passive speaking, e.g. grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation drills; teaching grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation rules)	60%
Communicative tasks (i.e. listening, speaking, reading and writing activities that involve students in interpretation, expression and negotiation of meaning)	29%
Other (e.g. class management, discipline issues, etc.)	11%

Table 5.8: Miss Landa's classroom activity patterns (Percentage distribution of total time)

Activities like greeting students, keeping records of class attendance and discipline-related issues occupied 11% of the class time. Miss Landa believes that the time spent on disciplinary issues is time well spent for the following two reasons:

Firstly (pause), *if you speak English to your students while dealing with these issues, they improve their listening skills, and extend their vocab.* *Secondly*, and most importantly (pause), *students should be taught how to be respectful members of the society at school, in English, geography, math classes. This is one of the main missions of schools* [Source: LE].

Miss Landa, in the classes observed, treated L2 mainly as a system by focusing students' attention on particular linguistic features. As seen in Table 5.8, the teacher spent a considerable amount of class time (60%) on activities that pushed the students to process language more deeply, such as speaking, reading and writing in isolation, explanations of grammar rules, correction of grammar/pronunciation errors, and pronunciation drills. *If students do not work on discrete language items*, Miss Landa claims, *they will either not say the right word or not use the right form in a certain situation.*

Nevertheless, on 26 occasions, the teacher also used the language in short dialogs with students to make meaning. The majority of those oral interactions developed through a teacher question/student answer type of exchange, following the typical initiation, response, follow-up (IRF) pattern of classroom discourse (Sinclair and Coulthard, 1975 in Fishman and Garcia, 2011).

One of the many examples of IRF exchanges observed in Miss Landa's classes is shown in Excerpt 5.9 below:

Excerpt 5.9. Miss Landa's classroom observation Nr. 2.

- L1 Miss Landa: *Klara, what does this proverb [Better be born lucky than rich] mean?*
L2 Klara: *It means (pause) is better be born lucky than rich.*
L3 Miss Landa: *Can you say it in your own words? How do you understand it?*
L4 Klara: *It means (pause) I prefer more lucky than rich.*
L5 Miss Landa: *Why?*
L6 Klara: *Because when I am lucky I am also rich.*
L7 Miss Landa: *Always?*
L8 Klara: *Yes.*

Integration with equal emphasis on meaning/use, form/use, and form/meaning comprised 29% of the content in the observed classes. As seen above, the teacher, on several occasions, engaged the students in short meaning-based dialogues. In addition, despite putting more emphasis on the mechanisms of the language (i.e. grammar rules), Miss Landa also showed her students how, why, and where they had to use the language under investigation. For example, as illustrated in Excerpt 5.9 above, the students know that they have to use the past continuous in English when they give background information about an action in the past. To help her students understand the use of past continuous in English, Miss Landa used the distinction between *last week* (which, in her view, *describes a single action in the past*) and *this time last week* (which *stops the time and gives background information about the action in the past* [Source: QAOS]). Additionally, in the classes observed, students were also asked to drill the new language in their contexts.

To summarise, Miss Landa used the textbook as a learning resource that provided her with engagement, content, explanation, drill, and assessment tools in her classes. Dictated to by the textbook in her choice of activities, she exhibited a number of CLT features in her teaching, such as focusing both on meaning and system, activating her learners' schemata before listening/reading activities, and relating different exercises with each other with an emphasis on the links across different modes and channels. However, she carried out a number of adaptations to make her students consciously learn/reinforce items of language in isolation and implemented most activities in a traditional, teacher-led way.

The potential factors that might have influenced Miss Landa's decisions regarding omissions, time allocations, and instructional approaches are discussed in the next section.

5.5.3 Factors influencing Miss Landa's instructional decisions on how to use the textbook

This section answers the second research question of this project by examining heuristic cues, teachers' belief and knowledge systems, as well as a number of other contextual factors, identified in section 2.6., that are likely to affect teachers' implementation of new teaching approaches, especially as a result of government reform. The main themes that emerged from Miss Landa's data are discussed below.

5.5.3.1 Lack of awareness of communicative teaching approaches

When asked during the post observation interview whether she could think of any other instructional approaches for the teaching behaviours she displayed in her classes, in 55% of the cases, Miss Landa provided several traditional patterns of teaching without mentioning any communicative teaching alternatives. This might indicate that Miss Landa lacks knowledge of CLT approaches. The theme "teacher's lack of awareness of communicative teaching approaches" is also supported by classroom observation data. In the classes observed, Miss Landa turned many textbook reading and speaking activities into oral/written focus-on-accuracy activities. The teacher labelled these activities that sought to provide guided drills on a variety of isolated grammar items as *communicative* since *the students were communicating in English* [Source: IR]. As seen in section 2.8.1, communicative language teaching involves more than just using English in the classroom. To be labelled as communicative, the teaching should be content-based, whole-language based, learner-centred, and cooperative. Therefore, one can conclude that lack of communicative teaching awareness led Miss Landa to interpret "communicativeness" in language teaching in accordance with what she believes communicativeness in ELT means.

Miss Landa is aware that *there are gaps in her knowledge of student-centred teaching practices* [Source: IR]. On several occasions, the teacher reported that she is not entirely sure of when, how, and why she should use student-centred approaches in her classes.

According to Miss Landa, textbooks, headmasters, and government agencies can do a lot more to help teachers in these areas. As regards the role of textbooks as agents of change, Miss Ada believes:

We (pause) are asked to use student-centred textbooks, so that we can modernise our teaching. But the question is "How much are textbooks helping us to change?" In my view, not very much (laughter). So, in short, textbooks tell us (pause) what to do and, sometimes, (pause) how to do it, but they do not tell us why we have to teach in the way they predict. For example, new textbooks suggest that we ask the students to encounter, (pause) say, the simple past in a passage, before we even explain what the simple past is. In my view, we

should give the rules first, so that students use their grammar to improve their reading comprehension. Textbooks say “do this” and “do that” but they do not explain why we have to teach in that particular way. They are largely (pause) silent on the rationale behind their teaching approach and if they showed us the reasons why they are following a certain approach we might understand the approach better, I guess (pause), and follow it eventually [Source: IR].

As the above quote suggests, the ability of textbooks to enable teachers to “fully understand and routinize change” (Hutchinson and Torres, 1994:323) can be questioned when textbook instructions concerning operations in the classroom do not match the teachers’ view on how languages are learned and taught. This finding resonates with a recent study on the use of innovative textbooks as agent of change in a context where teachers received no training on how to help them adapt (Humphries, 2014).

5.5.3.2 Textbooks, and internal/external agents

It was shown in section 2.2.2 that there are a number of factors that impinge simultaneously on teacher decisions, including incomplete knowledge, time constraints, external influences, as well as heuristic influences. In this section, I situate Miss Landa’s instructional decisions within the context in which they were made by discussing the simultaneous influence of a number of factors, such as textbooks as an agent of change, internal laissez-faire, and external agents.

On a number of occasions, during our formal and informal discussions, Miss Landa pointed out that, because all the headmistresses and headmasters she has had during the last 20 years have been appointed by political parties rather than by the teachers and the community, they have only known how to be directive, but not supportive. She elaborates further on this point:

As a teacher, I have had several headmasters, and (pause) none of them has been able to offer me a piece of advice on how to teach student-centred classes. This is mainly because (pause) they do not know much about these new approaches themselves. I mean, most of them are appointed as headmasters not because they are educational experts or have any particular training, but merely because they have supported the political party which is in power right now. So (pause), they are unable to bring me, or my colleagues, abreast with the new developments in teaching. And, because (pause) they do not possess the knowledge, qualities, and resourcefulness needed to guide us, they simply carry out the directives of the government, and continually tell us what we are expected to do [Source: IR].

Miss Landa’s colleagues seem to agree with her on this. The majority of them felt that they have been given a minimum professional support by the school authorities during the transition period. One of Miss Landa’s colleagues told the story of a headmaster who walked into her

classroom and demanded to know why the students – who were standing up and talking to each other to complete a getting-to-know-you activity - were not sitting properly and quietly in their desks. *Because of that activity*, the teacher claimed, *I put myself in a position of being critiqued in front of other teachers* [Source: IR].

Miss Landa's headmaster, however, while admitting that he has not been specifically trained as a headmaster, also claimed that he is trying really hard to be known by his staff not only as a headmaster by appointment, but also as *the guy who takes an intelligent interest in what his teachers, students, and parents do* [Source: IR]. The headmaster added the following on the discussion of teacher support:

Everything is changing nowadays in Albania, and (pause) *I am aware of the fact that teachers, at times, feel at a loss because they are not given the official support, in the form of appropriate training or other social events to give professional advice and guidance to teachers, (pause) to help them to cope with the shift. Unfortunately, (pause) things are as they are for a reason. We all know that Albania is a poor country, and there are not enough funds to provide an ongoing support for teachers throughout the country* [Source: IR].

The theme "limited support provided by government agencies" was also identified in Miss Landa' speech. In her view, the educational reforms are not being very successful in the country because:

They [authorities] never allowed the teachers to direct reform efforts. They only know how to be directive, (pause) like do this, do that. We [teachers] do not actually have a good reason why to change. (Pause) I mean, they say the new teaching approach is better, but for whom, for me as a teacher, for my students, or simply for them [authorities]? To make me change things I have been doing for ages in my classes, I guess I would need to know a bit more than "authorities ask you to change your teaching approach" [Source: LE].

As mentioned in section 3.3.4, there are currently no existing national schemes that observe the degree to which Albanian EFL teachers comply in their classes with educational government initiatives, and the teaching of EFL teachers in the country is mainly evaluated through national tests (such as the National Maturity Exam of English) designed to assess the students' knowledge of grammatical competence, reading comprehension, and writing skills.

Concluding, different sources of data (i.e. Miss Landa, her colleagues, and her headmaster) and different methods of data gathering (i.e. formal and informal interviews, observations, and self-teacher evaluations) indicate that lack of awareness of communicative teaching approaches, as well as lack of support from external sources, such as school headmasters or government agencies, influenced to a great degree the way Miss Landa used a communication-based

textbook in her classes. These findings supports previous research findings (Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004; Humphries, 2014) that emphasise the important role school management and government policies play in supporting teachers as they attempt to modernise their knowledge and teaching practices.

5.5.3.3 Belief and knowledge systems

Miss Landa's beliefs on English language teaching and learning are inclined toward the traditional concept of education as the transmission of knowledge (see Appendix 27). The teacher expressed strong beliefs about the importance of teaching grammar rules, involving students in rote learning activities, teaching isolated structures, and involving students in whole class and individual work. She marked as either 4 (very important) or 5 (extremely important) all the above-mentioned teaching behaviours. However, questionnaire findings also indicate an appreciation of student-centred approaches, as Miss Landa marked as 3 (fairly important) the following teaching practices: *getting students to practise their speaking, supplementing textbook with activities responsive to students' interests, and preparing students for situations they might encounter in their real life* [Source: QTB].

In addition to the appreciation of student-centred approaches, in Miss Landa's speech, there is a clear recognition of new knowledge. The teacher, on eight occasions, talked about *new times* and *things that are changing*. During one of our informal discussions, after being asked to explain what she meant by *new times*, Miss Landa said the following:

Twenty five years ago, we were isolated in Albania, you remember, right? And there was no internet, so there was no real need to practise the spoken English. Nowadays (pause), many students go abroad to study, work, or immigrate. So, we (pause) need to prepare them for the real speaking that takes place out there, in the real world [Source: IR].

As seen in section 2.3.1.1, people form new ideas (i.e. beliefs and knowledge) as they engage in interactions with other people, and the environment around them (Lackey, 2007). This seems to be the case for Miss Landa too. Although the teacher is not completely sure how she has developed the ideas about *the new times* and the appreciation of student-centred approaches, Miss Landa believes that her everyday personal experiences, in terms of daily exchanges with students, peers, families, media, and even stories included in textbooks, might have played a role.

Despite being aware of *the new times*, Miss Landa, however, claims that her instructional approach has changed very little in some ways. She provides more details below:

What I do in my classes right now is (pause) not entirely different from what I did, say (pause), ten or twelve years ago. I mean, yes, time and circumstances have changed, and, (pause) because of this, I now speak mainly English in my classes, and give some more speaking practice to my students. Yet, I (pause) cannot say that I have greatly modified my teaching approach over the years. I still teach grammar and ask my students to reinforce their grammar knowledge by completing oral and written exercises; I still ask my students to (pause) to memorise L2 words and to use them in their own sentences so that they do not forget them; likewise, for the same purposes, I still ask my students to read and translate L2 texts, or to do substitution drills, and I (pause) I still give them homework. And, all this is because I strongly believe that by doing these things my students will improve their L2 knowledge [Source: IR].

In the next section, I provide an explanation of why Miss Landa's teaching behaviour was influenced to a limited extent by the appreciation of student-centred approaches, and the new knowledge the teacher has acquired. To achieve this, I discuss the influence of Miss Landa's previous learning and teaching experience on her actual teaching style.

5.5.3.4 Previous learning and teaching experiences, and the use of heuristics

As seen in section 5.5.2, asking display questions, getting students to explain grammar rules they follow, analysing words in a text, focusing on accuracy-based activities are some of the main activities carried out in the classes observed. While answering POI question Nr.4, Miss Landa used a number of different terms (i.e. *I have taught this way for ages; This was one of Mr. Dhimiter's* (her secondary school English teacher) *favourite techniques; I have been teaching reading like this for so long that I do not remember any longer where I first saw this teaching behaviour*) that indicate that she repeatedly uses the same instructional routines in her classes. Miss Landa knows how and when to use these activities because she has been using them *for ages*.

By contrast, as seen above, Miss Landa is not very aware of many student-centred approaches, the principles behind them, and the procedure to apply them in her classes. Therefore, to avoid uncertainty, the teacher seems to rely on a limited number of instructional routines that are deeply rooted in the traditional learning experiences the teacher herself was exposed to as an EFL student in Mr. Dhimiter's classes. As argued in section 2.2.2, frequently occurring events are easy to recall and decision makers tend to think of situations or occurrences easily brought to mind as more important than instances of less frequent classes. Therefore, by relying on the instructional approaches she is familiar with, Miss Landa is arguably using heuristic cues during the teacher decision-making process (Bounded Rationality).

The view that Miss Landa approached the decision-making process heuristically by drawing on her own previous teaching experiences is also reinforced by the teacher's statement that she has *tried* [to use pair speaking activities] *once or twice, just to see how it actually works, without success*. As argued in section 2.2.2 and illustrated in section 5.2.3.2, when teachers associate an alternative with unpleasant past teaching experiences, they are likely to avoid unconsciously the selection of that alternative as an outcome. Therefore, Miss Landa's instructional decisions on how to use the textbook in her classes also seem to have been framed by the teacher's teaching experiences (Prospect Theory).

5.6 A cross-case analysis of the four case studies

After presenting first the findings of each individual case study, in this section, I examine themes, similarities and differences across the four cases, and offer an interpretation of how and why the participating teachers used textbooks in a certain way. The cross-case analysis of the four case studies offered me the opportunity "to see the process and outcomes across many cases, to understand how they are qualified by local conditions, and thus to develop more sophisticated descriptions and more powerful explanations" (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 172).

The following procedure was used to undertake the cross-case analysis: Firstly, the four cases were compared against the pre-defined categories to determine the areas where the four cases were similar, different, and where they conflicted. Secondly, data were compared across sources (i.e. observation sessions, informal discussions, post-lesson interviews, lesson plans, and teachers' self-evaluations). Thirdly, the context of each individual case (i.e. participating teacher's previous learning and teaching experiences, their participation in professional development events, the school and community where each teacher worked, and teachers' selves) was analysed to consider the potential factors that might help to explain the similarities and differences in the styles of classroom delivery of the participating teachers. Cross-case findings, grouped in seven main themes, are shown below:

5.6.1 Official student-based planning requirements and their influence on teachers' delivery

Three teachers followed closely the teacher's book recommendations when they planned their lessons. Miss Elona, Miss Ada, and Miss Landa generally planned to do the activities and tasks the

textbook contained, in the sequence they were presented in the textbook, and followed the teacher's book guidance regarding the stages of the plan. One possible explanation for this similar approach to writing lesson plans may pertain to the lesson plan requirements set out by the authorities in Albania to encourage new learner-centered approaches in the country. As seen in the previous sections, Miss Elona, Miss Ada and Miss Landa talked about the communication-based lesson plan model they were officially required to follow when planning their daily lessons. Additionally, one of the teachers (Miss Elona) mentioned that the school principal collected and checked the lesson plans on a regular basis. Previous research (Carless, 2001) shows that institutional support can promote teacher professional development only when it is combined with other conditions (i.e. teachers' willingness to consider alternative views, and their high level of L2 proficiency and professional training). In the present study, although collecting and checking lesson plans may be considered as a form of support, the participating teachers' willingness to consider alternative views seems to be hindered by the limited professional training they have received.

Consequently, although the three aforementioned teachers covered topics and activities in their classes in the same order as they were presented in the textbook, they substantially modified the lesson plan during the delivery phase. Research in this area (Richards, 1990; Farrell, 2005) suggests that teachers rarely stick to the lesson plan. Bailey (1996:38) cites the following six reasons why teachers might not strictly follow what is expressed in the lesson plan: 1) when one student raises an issue that the teacher perceives to be relevant for the other student; 2) when an unplanned issue comes up and the teacher thinks that it is timely for the class; 3) when the teacher feels a procedural change can promote the progress of the lesson; 4) when the teacher feels that the original plan did not properly accommodate students' learning styles; 5) when the teacher sees that the students are not responding; 6) when the teacher feels that some students are dominating the class time and some others are very inactive. Miss Elona and Miss Landa both claimed that they deviated from the lesson plan to better accommodate their students' learning styles, since group work is not an appropriate mode of interaction for Albanian students who are used to traditional methods of learning.

5.6.2 Use of CLT-oriented textbooks in EFL classrooms

Three teachers, Miss Elona, Miss Ada, and Miss Landa, used the textbook as the major vehicle to organise and deliver instructions in their classes, while Miss Evis made use of multiple sources, including two textbooks and teacher-made handouts. This is in line with previous research suggesting that most teachers rely on textbooks as the main instrument of instruction (Woodward and Elliott, 1990; Hutchinson and Torres, 1994; Kauffman, 2002). Cortez (2008:37) talks about EFL teachers in particular and claims that non-native English teachers are likely to rely heavily on the textbook because “it is typically viewed as representing a factual, objective source of information” especially when EFL teachers have not been immersed in an English speaking country, and when their only exposure to English has been through textbooks.

Additionally, all four teachers used the materials as the *de facto* curriculum. As seen in the previous sections, Miss Landa based the assessment of her students’ progress on the textbook input; Miss Evis used the materials as a predetermined map to structure the curriculum; Miss Ada defined the main course objectives for the course she was teaching as *finishing the second part of the textbook* [Source: IR]; and Miss Elona’s description of “competence indicators” was based on *all the linguistic items students should have covered during their EFL studies* [Source: IR]. In addition, the participating teachers measured their students’ progress in terms of predetermined behavioural objectives for each lesson as they linked the progress of their learners to the completion of textbook chapters. In Miss Ada’s classes, the textbook also determined to a great degree what was or what was not a good use of classroom time since the teacher believes that the best way to learn English effectively is to use a textbook in the classroom because *they* [the authors] *know what they are doing* [Source: IR]. These findings confirm previous researchers’ claims (Guerrettaz and Johnston, 2013) that the use of textbooks as *de facto* curriculum gives the textbook a status as “arbiter of validity”, and links progress and success to the completion of chapters, quizzes, and tests provided by the textbook.

Moreover, all four teachers used the textbook as a tool to provide learning affordances. In all the classes observed, the textbook was arguably used in a way that authors intended when students completed pre-listening/reading and controlled-practice tasks. While completing these activities, as argued in the previous sections, students’ discourse was prompted by the clues given by the textbook, and reinforced by the teachers. There were, however, many other examples of materials providing unintended affordances in the classes observed. Unintended affordances were caused by a) the participating teachers’ misunderstanding and/or misinterpretation of the intended

affordances of the textbook. This was the case of Miss Elona and Miss Landa who turned fluency-based activities into form-based drills; b) the influence of external factors. This was the case of Miss Evis who, in order to avoid discipline issues in her classes, limited the role materials play in learning by not allowing students to make connections between the materials and their own lives; c) the emergent relationship among materials, the learners, and the teacher, as in the case of Miss Ada who had small talks with the students at the beginning of the class, and Miss Landa and Miss Evis who, on several occasions, used L2 in short dialogs with their students to make meaning. These findings are consistent with, and extend previous research by emphasising the important role teachers play in the way materials interact with learners. As seen in section 2.5, Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) studied how textbooks function to mediate learning in EFL classes, and concluded that the way textbooks are used in the classroom depends on the type of interaction between the materials and the learners themselves. The findings of the present study emphasise the mediating role of teachers in prompting/discouraging students to make connections between the materials and their own lives. By so doing, they can be seen as an extension of Guerrettaz and Johnston's research.

5.6.3 Influence of heuristics on teachers' decisions

All four teachers' decisions on how to use communication-based textbooks in their classes are likely to have been framed by the availability heuristic. Firstly, as argued in cross-case finding Nr. 6, the participating teachers taught in accordance with the teaching model they were exposed to during their formative years. It is argued in the following paragraphs that teachers' practices based on their own learning experience have the potential to turn into a cognitive bias.

It was indicated in section 3.3.3 that the majority of Albanian EFL teachers enter their classrooms without adequate academic and teaching preparation. This seems to be the case of the teachers participating in this study too. Indeed, Miss Elona reported that she *did not have clear ideas and criteria for judging "good teaching"* [Source: IR] when she first became a teacher. Miss Evis made the same claim. Without adequate preparation to tackle the profession of teaching, the participating teachers in this research were left with only their own experiences as L2 learners. Therefore, when they first entered their classrooms, they most likely approached the teaching in the same way their L2 teachers did. With the passing of years, as the participants were given limited opportunities to participate in teacher development events that can challenge their teaching models based on their learning experiences, the four teachers are likely to have practised continually in their classes the

same teaching behaviours rooted in their L2 learning experiences. Therefore, the teaching behaviours the teachers were exposed to as learners, with the passing of years, after being used continually in the classroom, are likely to have become frequently occurring teaching patterns for the four participants.

As seen in section 2.2.2, frequently occurring events are likely to turn into a cognitive bias because decision makers tend to think of situations or occurrences easily brought to mind as more important than instances of less frequent classes. Consequently, the teaching events the participating teachers are familiar with, which are largely based on teachers' learning experiences, are likely to become automatic decisions made without any formal reasoning.

Nevertheless, since there is no single theory that explains how intuition and reasoning interface with each other, and what determines the dominance of either rational or non-conscious systems, the above interpretation should be treated as a potential description, awaiting replication, of how the complex process of teacher decision making works.

Decisions on how to use communication-based textbooks in their classes seem also to have been framed by the representativeness heuristic. As seen above, Miss Elona maintained that she focused on accuracy rather than on fluency in her classes because:

- 1) [The students] *have never studied the language properly, they (pause) lack the words and the grammar to keep the conversation going* [Source: IR];
- 2) *Students need to memorise some ready-to-use language to be communicative in English.* She believes this is an approach that works since this is the way she learned English herself.

Miss Landa followed a teacher-centred approach that sought to help students *get the rules stuck in their heads* [Source: IR] because:

Classroom learning should be provided by the one who has the knowledge and understanding of the subject.

Miss Landa stated that she was first exposed to this teaching approach when she attended Mr Dhimiter's (her secondary school English teacher) classes.

Both teachers seem to be using a teaching approach that helped them to learn English, assuming that the probabilities that this teaching approach will be successful with their students are similar. This is a typical example of the representativeness heuristic (Khaneman and Tversky, 1986). As seen in section 2.2.2, deciding on how likely something is by evaluating the degree to which an

event or object is similar to its parent population can be misleading because, as Miss Landa explains in the following extract, L2 learners have changed with the passing of years.

Twenty five years ago, we were isolated in Albania, you remember, right? And there was no internet, so there was no real need to practise the spoken English. Nowadays (pause), many students go abroad to study, work, or immigrate. So, we (pause) need to prepare them for the real speaking that takes place out there, in the real world [Source: IR].

Therefore, it can be concluded that the knowledge the two teachers possess about their students is influenced to a great degree by the assumptions the teachers hold about how students learn. As a result, teachers' decisions on how to use the textbook in their classes are likely to have been framed by the teachers' tendency to edit the number of choices available to them to accommodate their own understanding and experiences (Khaneman and Tversky, 1986).

Lastly, three teachers (Miss Elona, Miss Evis, and Miss Landa) who avoided or made little use of pair/group work in their classes claimed that they had already tried this approach in their classes, and had found it problematic for different reasons. By contrast, Miss Ada who used pair/group interaction to a great extent in her classes never talked about having had bad experiences with this approach during any stage of her teaching career. One explanation for the avoidance of certain teaching behaviours (in this case the use of pair/group work) might be offered by Kahneman's (2000; 2011) Intuition in Decision-making Theory. The theory claims that most decisions are based on the impressions, intentions, and feelings of decision makers. If the three teachers associated the use of pair/group work with unpleasant memories from the past, they would be less likely to select this interaction mode as a decision choice to minimise the likelihood of negative outcomes.

In concluding, there is enough empirical evidence to suggest that availability and representativeness, as well as teachers' impressions, intentions, and feelings, can frame the teacher-decision making process.

5.6.4 Teachers' beliefs, feelings of uncertainty, and classroom delivery

Miss Landa and Miss Evis, the two experienced teachers, had very stable beliefs. The former possessed more traditional beliefs based on cognitive and behavioural models. The latter has modified her traditional beliefs, and has adopted more constructivist-oriented beliefs about ELT through participating in teacher training events, professional programmes, and her academic studies. Peacock (2001) studied 146 student-teachers in Hong Kong and found that the beliefs of non-native EFL teachers, who have been English language learners themselves, do not shift over

time as a result of teacher training courses. Miss Landa clearly fits into this category whereas Miss Evis does not. Miss Evis seems to have updated her belief and knowledge systems through participation in CLT-based training programmes. The high amount of reading and research she has carried out in the area of ELT teaching might have also had an impact on Miss Evis' beliefs.

However, Miss Landa's and Miss Evis' beliefs were not always consistent with their classroom delivery practices. Miss Landa followed the textbook steps for teaching language as a whole, although she is not sure whether L2 students can *get the L2 by just integrating language skills and focusing on L2 speaking*. In this case, inconsistencies between the teacher's traditional teaching beliefs and her delivery practices can be attributed to the influence of external factors. As seen above, Miss Landa has raised her awareness of the existence of *new times* by engaging in interactions with other people, and the environment around her. As a result, she now gives more speaking practice to her students [Source: IR]. Additionally, Miss Landa's tendency to follow the textbook steps for teaching language as a whole can also be seen as a direct influence of the use of communication-based textbooks on her delivery approach because the teacher seems to do her best not to *skip an exercise or any other part of the book* [Source: POI]. As the teachers claimed, even when she finds textbooks activities not very useful, she still asks her students to complete them to indicate that *the students have to take learning seriously, and cannot neglect any part of the material* [Source: POI].

Miss Evis, on the other hand, spent more than half of her class time doing accuracy-focused, teacher-directed activities, although she believes that classroom teaching should involve mainly language exchange, use, and collaboration. In Miss Evis' case, inconsistencies between beliefs and delivery practices can be attributed to the feelings of uncertainty the teachers might have experienced. Miss Evis knows that *languages should be taught communicatively* [Source: IR]. Yet, she finds it hard to *transfer this imprecise knowledge to exact classroom instructions* [Source: IR]. The teacher is very much aware of the necessity of *using pair work in L2 classrooms* [Source: POI]. Yet, she claimed that she did not do pair/group activities in her classes because her students *are not used to this way of doing things* [Source: POI]. Additionally, she is not sure she will be able to *give each student a chance to use the language communicatively in spoken activities when there are 50 students in a class* [Source: POI]. All this evidence seems to indicate that Miss Evis experienced many feelings of uncertainty. As seen in section 2.6, uncertainty, student issues, and external influences have been identified by previous research (see Sakui, 2004; Taguchi, 2005; Lackey, 2007) as potential factors that mediate teachers' use of communication-based textbooks.

5.6.5 Influence of teachers' previous learning on their decisions on how to use CLT-based textbooks

Three teachers omitted some textbook activities. Miss Elona and Miss Landa, because there was not enough time to teach all the activities that the textbook contained, omitted three and seven fluency-based activities, respectively. For the same reason, Miss Ada, during each class observed, assigned one or two focus-on-accuracy exercises as homework. Teachers' decisions on the activities to omit, rather than influenced by the sequence of the textbook activities, seemed to have been influenced by their previous learning experiences. Said in other words, Miss Ada, who had been exposed to a communicative language teaching approach as a language learner, omitted focus-on-accuracy activities. Had she followed the textbook task sequence, she should have asked her students to complete focus-on-accuracy exercises before free practice activities. The other two teachers, who had been exposed to traditional teaching approaches that emphasised conscious learning as students, gave their students limited time to practise their spoken English, and put much more emphasis on structure. Additionally, Miss Elona and Miss Landa dedicated a considerable amount of time to introduce and discuss linguistic structures in the context of reading passages. On a number of occasions, the two teachers asked their students to read out aloud one sentence each, and discussed as a class almost each sentence. Miss Evis, who had also been exposed to a deductive teaching approach as students, approached her teaching in a similar way.

The quantitative data reinforces the qualitative findings by establishing teachers' previous learning experiences as a statistically significant factor that influences the decisions teachers make in their classes. Participants' responses to question four of the post-observation interview show that a high percentage of their teaching behaviours are practices the teachers have been following for ages (72% of Miss Elona's; 88% of Miss Ada's; 68% of Miss Evis'; and 82% of Miss Landa's). Therefore, these quantitative data seem to indicate that the routine practices that the four teachers followed in their classes are likely to have been motivated by their learning experiences as L2 learners.

These findings are in line with previous research (Wong and Van Patten, 2003; Katz and Blyth, 2007) that has found that L2 teachers who have learned the L2 by performing drills and listening to their teachers lecturing about the language are inclined to use drills and rules as effective ways to teach languages.

5.6.6 Influence of CLT awareness/lack of CLT awareness on teachers' practices

Miss Elona and Miss Landa, who felt they had a limited knowledge of student-centred approaches, on many occasions, employed traditional approaches to complete textbook activities because they had little awareness of CLT procedures. These two case studies shed light on the importance of gaining knowledge of communicative language approaches in combination with practice and experience. At the very least, data from this study suggest that if teachers are not helped to construct alternative images and schemes for classroom practices through teacher education, they will rely on the traditional teaching approaches they are familiar with. This finding is in line with previous work (Butler, 2004; Sullivan, 2000; Hiramatsu, 2005; Smith, 2005; Kim, 2008; Savignon, 2010; Ahn, 2011) that has found that teachers who are required to implement new teaching approaches, especially as a result of government reforms, can be resistant to change when the proposed changes do not reflect the beliefs they hold about learning, and when teachers lack the capability, knowledge, skills, or resources to embrace new policies.

Miss Evis possessed a thorough knowledge of CLT, enriched through participation in teacher training events. Miss Landa, on the other hand, demonstrated well developed traditional beliefs and limited knowledge of communicative teaching approaches. Despite talking about teaching in two different ways, both teachers approached the teaching in very similar styles. Lamb's research (1995) in this area concluded that teachers can construct alternative images and schemes for classroom practices through participation in teacher training programmes. However, these new constructions do not necessarily bring a change in teachers' classroom practices as the new knowledge is likely to be mediated by teachers' existing beliefs. The data in Miss Evis' case study support these findings and suggest that guiding teachers to elaborate, understand, and review their own knowledge and beliefs, without asking them to put their hands on CLT practices through observation of actual teaching sessions and reinforcement through observed practices, does not necessarily help teachers deliver their classes more communicatively.

By contrast, Miss Ada, who had gained practical awareness of student-centred approaches and strategies through experiences as a language learner in a previous educational life, used the textbook much more communicatively than Miss Evis. The data in Miss Ada's case study suggest that the long-term involvement of practitioner teachers in the observation of CLT classes can enable teachers to approach L2 teaching more communicatively.

5.6.7 Influence of local, institutional and contextual factors on teachers' decisions

The participating teachers also made a number of implicit decisions that were shaped by institutional, contextual or social factors. For example, influenced by her students' interest, Miss Elona often played a hit song in her classes. To meet their students' needs, Miss Landa taught grammar because *students have to take a test at the end of their studies* [Source: IR], and Miss Evis replaced textbook passages with texts more appropriate for her business students. Because their students were not used to collaborative interactions, Miss Evis and Miss Landa did not do pair/group activities in their classes. Miss Evis' decision on the use of pair work seems also to have been influenced by the age of the students, as well as the large class size. As seen in section 2.6, it is well documented that external influences – such as class size, discipline issues, students' motivation, and the need to prepare students for an external exam – can mediate the teachers' use of communication-based textbooks (see Taguchi, 2005; Humphries, 2014).

The participating teachers also spoke of the limited opportunities offered to them to attend teacher training events organised by the authorities in the country. Miss Landa went even further and talked about the inability of the headmasters she has worked with to offer her advice on how to implement student-centred approaches in her classes. Her claim was seconded by other research participants, such as Miss Landa's and Miss Ada's colleagues, who talked about teacher being isolated in their classrooms because there are no longer teacher leaders from whom teachers can learn something, or showed how the headmaster impeded the implementation of new approaches due to the limited knowledge of student-centred approaches which he presumably possessed. These findings could be related to previous work emphasising the crucial role schools need to play in supporting the teachers to change their teaching approach (see Sato and Kleinsasser, 2004).

To ease appreciation of cross case findings, in Table 5.9, I have simplified the data and arranged the findings in four main factors: knowledge of teaching context, teachers' belief and knowledge system, influence of textbooks, curriculum, and language policies, and use of heuristics. These four main factors represented the main axial categories discussed in section 4.7.2.

Knowledge of teaching context	<ol style="list-style-type: none">1) Institutional support can influence the way teachers plan their lessons (see sections 5.6.1, and 5.6.2)2) Students' needs, motivation, and interests can play a dominant role in the way teachers plan and modify their lesson plans (see sections 5.6.1 and 5.6.7)3) The limited professional training teachers receive can hinder their willingness to consider alternative teaching views (see sections 5.6.1, and 5.6.2)4) Contextual factors, such as class size and learners' age, can mediate the
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	use of communication-based textbooks (see section 5.6.7)
Teachers' beliefs and knowledge	<p>1) Experienced teachers hold many stable beliefs about English language learning and teaching. Experienced teachers' beliefs, however, can shift over time (see section 5.6.4)</p> <p>3) Experienced teachers' beliefs are not always consistent with their classroom delivery practices (see section 5.6.4)</p> <p>4) Theoretical knowledge of student-centred approaches and strategies does not necessarily lead to a communicative language teaching approach (see section 5.6.6).</p> <p>5) Practical knowledge of student-centred approaches and strategies might lead to a communicative language teaching approach (see section 5.6.6).</p> <p>6) Lack of knowledge of CLT approaches can force teachers to use traditional approaches in their classes (see section 5.6.6).</p>
Influence of Textbooks, Curriculum, and Language policies	<p>1) Teachers can use textbooks as the major vehicle to organise and deliver instructions in their classes (see section 5.6.2).</p> <p>2) Teachers can use textbooks as the <i>de facto</i> curriculum (see section 5.6.2)</p> <p>3) The textbook can be used as a tool to provide learning affordances. However, the way textbooks are used in the classroom depends on whether teachers prompt or discourage students to make connections between the materials and their own lives (see section 5.6.2).</p> <p>4) Awareness of official rules and requirements can impact the way teachers plan their lessons (see section 5.6.1).</p> <p>5) Awareness of official rules and requirements does not necessarily affect what teachers do in their classes, once they close their classroom door (see sections 5.6.1, 5.6.5 and 5.6.7).</p>
Teachers' previous Learning and Teaching Experiences	<p>1) Teachers' own experiences as learners can influence teachers' decisions on the textbook activities they omit (see section 5.6.5).</p> <p>2) Teachers are likely to use a great number of instructional routines in their classes. Teachers' routines, which are motivated by their own learning and teaching experiences, are likely to become automatic decisions made without any formal reasoning (see section 5.6.3).</p> <p>3) Teachers' decisions on how to use textbooks in their classes are likely to be framed by teachers' tendency to accommodate their own understanding and experiences (see sections 5.6.3 and 5.6.4).</p> <p>3) Teachers previous learning and teaching experiences can affect the way teachers implement pair/group work in their classes (see sections 5.6.3 and 5.6.5).</p>

Table 5.9: Factors' influencing teachers' use of textbooks (Cross-case findings)

The aforementioned research findings are synthesised and discussed in more depth in the next chapter.

5.7 Summary

The descriptions and interpretations of the four case studies were presented in this chapter. The data indicated that all four participants in this study demonstrated a number of communicative teaching behaviours. Yet, three teachers do not seem to have altered their practices significantly as a result of the use of a Western-published textbook.

The data also suggested that:

1. Teachers closely followed textbook recommendations when they planned their lessons.
2. Teachers used the textbook as the main source of subject content, as well as a task resource.
3. Teachers did not always adhere to teacher's book suggestions regarding the interaction mode, and the suggested time when they deliver the textbook material.
4. Teachers consistently used pre-listening and pre-reading textbook activities.
5. Teacher's book instructions can be interpreted in different ways to accommodate their understanding of CLT practices.
6. Western-published textbooks and teachers' books need not only to dictate what teachers teach and how. They should also tell teachers why they have to follow a certain approach, and what the advantages, and disadvantages of following that approach are.
7. Authorities in Albania need to play a more active role in supporting the process of change.

The way the participating teachers used the textbook in their classes was influenced by a number of factors, such as their individual learning and teaching experiences, their beliefs and passive thinking, their knowledge of students, community, school context, as well their awareness of CLT approaches and techniques. In the following chapter, the various findings of this empirical study are sewed up into a discussion to bring together the main findings of the study.

Chapter 6

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides an in-depth discussion of the findings from chapter 5 and draws conclusions about the study's main findings. In addition to this brief introduction, it contains five other sections. In section 6.2, I discuss briefly the main conceptual and methodological concerns of the present research. This discussion will make readers aware of the limitations of this study, and will help them judge the credibility of the findings. In section 6.3, I show how the main findings of the present study have answered the research questions. The significant findings are also summarised in section 6.4. Recommendations for future research, as well as implications for EFL teacher education and development, and CLT reform implementation in Albania and other similar countries, are provided in section 6.5. The last section of this chapter, 6.6, draws together everything stated earlier in this study and concludes with some remarks.

6.2 Research limitations

There were several limitations in this study and a number of restrictions have already been discussed in chapter 4. To overcome these limitations, as shown in section 4.5, I:

- 1) prepared theoretically for what to expect (i.e. I researched the many rules and models on conducting qualitative data analysis);
- 2) tried to learn from my mistakes (e.g. I made the mistake of allowing the research participants to see me as an expert in the field, and then prepared an action plan to build and maintain a relationship with the participants);
- 3) changed the research plans several times to accommodate new developments;
- 4) used a number of credibility improving strategies (e.g. I asked an ex-colleague to act as a critical peer debriefer, and invited the research participants to act as participant debriefers);
- 5) created and maintained a fluid, shifted, and negotiated partnership with the participants;

In the following paragraphs, I outline five other limitations that may have affected the findings of the present study. These limitations need to be taken into consideration in the discussion of the findings that follows.

Firstly, as seen in section 2.8.1, communicativeness in ELT can mean different things for different people and well-defined systematic activities clearly linked to CLT do not exist. Therefore, using a black and white distinction to categorise teaching behaviours as communicative or non-communicative is in itself a research challenge because there is disagreement in the field regarding what constitutes communicative teaching behaviours. For this particular project, in order to reduce ambiguity and increase refinement of comparison between teaching behaviours, I created and used a summary of the class activities and pedagogical principles that are central to traditional teaching approach (GT), Presentation-Practice-Production (PPP) method, and Task-based learning (TBL) (see Appendix 36). In accordance with the description of CLT provided by Brown (2001) (see section 2.8.1), teaching behaviours that stimulate the development of L2 through communication (strong version of CLT) as well as those that seek to teach language for communication (weak version of CLT) were both labelled as communicative. Other teaching behaviours that seek to assess students' assimilation and application of knowledge of L2 rules were labeled as non-communicative. Nevertheless, although this categorisation of teaching behaviours can be helpful in broadly classifying classroom teaching behaviours, it is by no means a definite categorization system. Therefore, findings generated by the use of the observation grid should be treated cautiously as suggestive.

Secondly, the theoretical framework on teacher decision making used in this study did not allow much scope to fully capture the way participating teachers view themselves in relation to the world around them. Therefore, as will be argued in section 6.6, this model needs to be further developed to fully explains teachers' thinking in doing.

Thirdly, making sense of contemplative concepts that existed, for the most part, within the participants' head is a difficult task for any researcher. To overcome this obstacle, I had numerous formal and informal discussions with the participating teachers. These exchanges offered to the participants more opportunities to explicate their knowledge about what they did, and helped me gather additional data to uncover the cognitive processes the teachers were using. Building a fluid and fair partnership with the participants also helped.

Fourthly, as with any other qualitative study that explores teacher active and passive thinking, identifying participants' attempts to rationalise their unconscious thinking was another challenge for me as a researcher. To handle this weakness, I discussed in detail the teacher decision-making process in chapter 2, and talked about the main heuristics people use when they make decisions. The information and understanding acquired by this review was used to develop a clear

operational definition for the category of tacit knowledge (see Appendix 26). In addition, the numerous formal and informal discussions I had with the participants, and the large number of analytic memos I wrote, helped me to focus on the relationship between participants' thoughts and their actions. The consistency of the participating teachers' behaviours was also tested by other triangulation techniques discussed in section 4.5.5.

Lastly, the small number of teachers participating in this project can also be seen as a limitation. However, as emphasised in section 4.2.2, for this particular study, I employed predominately an interpretivist/constructivist research approach. Qualitative research, a well-established research tradition, creates new knowledge by exploring a small number of in-depth cases (Patton, 2002). To achieve this end, in the present study, I explored four teachers' classroom behaviours and interactions, as well as their knowledge, beliefs, and thinking related to the process of teacher decision-making, and used multiple data sources to offer detailed case studies for all four teachers. Case studies, as discussed in section 4.2.3, have the power to facilitate a greater understanding of the phenomenon through experientially resonating with the readers.

6.3 Answers to research questions

This research aimed to investigate the decision-making processes that teachers go through in their teaching, and specifically to investigate the relationship between Western teaching materials, teacher decision-making, and teachers' classroom delivery. I used a mixed-method approach to investigate how and why four Albanian teachers of English use Western-published textbooks in a certain way in their classes.

In this section, I show how specifically this study's main research questions have been answered.

6.3.1 How communicatively the teachers use Western-published textbooks

In the present study, it was notable that three teachers, who had received little formal training in CLT teaching (Miss Elona, Miss Ada, and Miss Landa), used the textbook to identify topics and linguistic items to be covered in their classes. They also selected exercises from the textbooks to provide practice opportunities for their students. Their instructions matched the topics and the sequencing presented in the textbooks. That is to say, they started their lessons by activating their students' prior knowledge, and exposed their students to the language in context before explicitly teaching grammar rules. They also related different exercises with each other with an emphasis on

the links across different modes and channels. All these teaching behaviours are commonly associated with CLT. Hence, it is reasonable to speculate that, dictated by the content of the textbook, the participating teachers demonstrated a number of communicative teaching behaviours.

The practices of the participants in this research support previous research showing that textbooks and teacher's guides can be particularly useful for non-native teachers who have not attended any formal teacher training courses and/or are not proficient in English (Cunningsworth and Kusel, 1991; Richards, 1993; Gearing, 1999; Bailey, 2006). Moreover, they can raise awareness of new approaches, and act as a medium of on-going professional development for experienced teachers (Hutchison and Torres, 1994; Nunan and Lamb, 1996; Loewenberg Ball and Cohen, 1996; McGrath, 2002; Kiai, 2013). However, the extent to which textbooks achieve the latter does seem to be limited.

The participants' practices indicate that it is certainly not enough to just give teachers a textbook to change their behaviours. The four teachers, influenced by a number of factors, carried out a number of textbook adaptations with a view to assisting their students to consciously learn and/or reinforce items of language in isolation. They used teacher-student interaction instead of pair/group work, supplemented textbook grammar explanations with other rules, elaborations, and drills, and turned a number of fluency-based activities into accuracy-based activities.

Therefore, it can be concluded that the four teachers did not radically change their teaching approach while using Western-published textbooks in their classes. Rather, they adapted the textbook to their current practices. Findings from this study indicate that the teaching methodology of EFL teachers, rather than being conditioned by the methodology of the textbook and/or teacher's book suggestions, seems to be affected by a number of other factors which are discussed in the next session.

6.3.2 The factors that shaped the way the four EFL teachers used textbooks in their classes

As presented in chapter 5, the participating teachers linked their teaching behaviours to a number of influencing factors, such as knowledge of learners; local barriers (i.e. the lack of time to train students to work collaboratively, the large number of students in the class, and the limited opportunities to speak/hear English outside of the classroom); their previous learning experiences; textbooks and teacher's book; short-term professional development courses; local authorities/policies; and colleagues.

In the discussion that follows, I provide an in-depth analysis of these findings. Where possible, I also evaluate connections and relationships among the themes to make sense of the findings.

6.3.2.1 Contextual factors and teachers' beliefs and judgements

All four participants mentioned their knowledge of learners as a key factor influencing their practices. The teachers maintained that they supplemented the textbook with additional grammar rules and explanations to 1) augment students' accuracy-based learning (all four teachers); 2) accommodate students' previous learning experiences (Miss Elona, Miss Evis, and Miss Landa); and 3) improve their students' grammar skills, tested on national tests (Miss Landa). They also claimed that they replaced or adapted textbook materials to increase their students' motivation (Miss Evis, Miss Ada, and Miss Landa), and avoided the use of pair/group work in their classes to meet their students' learning expectations (Miss Elona, Miss Evis, and Miss Landa). This evidence seems to indicate that knowledge gained about learners is likely to have shaped what and how the four teachers taught.

However, as emphasised in section 5.6, the knowledge the participating teachers in this research possess, including their knowledge about learners, is influenced to a great degree by the assumptions they hold about L2 teaching and learning. To illustrate the point, as seen in the previous chapter, Miss Elona, Miss Evis, and Miss Landa claimed that they limited the use of collaborative work in their classes because, according to them, their students are not used to interacting in this mode. Miss Ada, on the other hand, made extensive use of pair work in a context where these types of interactions are not the norm. Contrary to the opinion of the other participants, Miss Ada reported that her students enjoy working in pairs because *they feel less tense* [Source: POI].

This apparent contradiction in the participants' behaviours may be explained by considering the relationship between decision outcomes and the way decision makers contextualize problems in the light of their prior experiences, understanding, and expectations. As seen in section 2.2.2, decision makers tend to dismiss alternatives that are irrelevant to their own context and focus on relevant options that best accommodate their understanding of a given problem. In the case of the teachers participating in this study, their decisions on how to use the textbook in their classes, rather than influenced by their students' learning needs, may have been framed by their own understanding and experiences, as well as by the need to accommodate their current teaching styles. This claim is reinforced and elaborated in the next paragraph.

Further evidence suggesting that the participants in this research created their own “perceived” reality of classroom situations is provided by the following observation: The same contextual factor, i.e. limited opportunities for students to practise English outside of the classroom, was interpreted in two very different ways by the participants. Miss Ada, who had been exposed to plenty of pair/group interactions as a learner, saw opportunities for pair/group work in a context where learners have limited exposure to L2 outside of the classrooms. When short of time, the teacher asked her students to complete the accuracy-based exercises at home, and made sure to give her students some time for practising free-speaking with each other in the class. *This is vital, because students do not have many opportunities to practise English outside the classroom*, she claimed [Source: IR]. The other three teachers, whose learning experiences were rooted in traditional teaching and learning approaches, saw the same contextual factor as a barrier. Based on their understandings of the situation, they decided to omit a number of textbook-based fluency activities when they were short of time, and turned some fluency-based activities into accuracy-based activities. They took those decisions, because, as Miss Landa claimed, when the students never hear/use any English outside of the classroom, they have few opportunities to reinforce linguistic items they are exposed to in the classroom. *So, as a teacher, she concludes, I have to do plenty of grammar and vocabulary drills in my classes to get my students to learn the rules and reinforce the language under investigation* [Source: IR].

Summarising, the participants in this research created their own “perceived” reality of several classroom situations, i.e. students’ previous knowledge, ability, and learning preferences, and the limited opportunities their students had to speak/hear English outside of the classroom. As a result, they used different teaching approaches and methodologies to respond to similar classroom situations. Miss Elona, Miss Evis, and Miss Landa, who were exposed to traditional teaching approaches as learners, avoided the use of pair/group work in their classes, turned fluency-based activities into accuracy-based exercises, used drills, and provided extra grammar-rules. Whereas Miss Ada, who learned English as a foreign language in a communication-oriented classroom, created a learning environment that was centred mainly around students.

The data seem to indicate that the cognitions teachers have formed about the process of learning and teaching as learners can serve as a lens through which they judge classroom realities, including what students need, like, and are capable of doing. These findings echo previous research identifying teachers’ beliefs and judgement as potential influences on teachers’ textbooks use (Schmidt et al., 1985; Cohen, 1988; Khodabakhshzadeh and Shirvan, 2011), and emphasising the

important role teachers' prior language learning experiences play in shaping teachers' thinking and their classroom practices (Johnson, 1994; Numrich, 1996; Peacock, 2001).

6.3.2.2 Teachers' previous learning experiences

The qualitative findings regarding the influence of teachers' previous learning experiences on their practices are also supported by the quantitative data. Participants' responses to question four of the post-observation interview (Where did you first see/encounter this teaching behaviour?) indicate that the majority of the participating teachers' behaviours, around two thirds, consisted of teaching patterns that the teachers first saw/encountered when they were students attending an EFL class.

A possible interpretation consistent with this finding can be: As the majority of teachers who develop a number of images of teaching and learning as learners (Weinstein, 1990; Calderhead and Robson, 1991; Sanchez, 2011), this study's research participants are likely to have formed their first conceptions of L2 teaching and learning during their formative years. When they started their career, like the majority of teachers (Hemsley, 1997; Tsui, 2003; Singh and Richards, 2006; Boyd and Harris, 2010; Canagarajah, 2011), they should have drawn on their past learning experiences to inform their practice. As indicated in chapter 3, Albanian EFL teachers are offered limited opportunities to participate in teacher development events that challenge their teaching models based on their learning experiences as L2 learners. Therefore, without many opportunities to attend in-service teacher development courses, the research participants have only been left with the constructions about teaching and learning formed during their formative years. Rehearsed on a daily basis by the practitioners, these constructions are likely to transform automatically into tacit knowledge in the form of personal values and ideologies (Verloop et al., 2001). Findings from this research suggest that these values and ideologies have the potential of influencing how the participating teachers made sense of and responded to classroom realities, including the use of communicative textbooks. This finding is supported by the availability heuristic framework, discussed in section 2.2.2, that emphasises the role the frequently occurring events play in unconscious decision making.

6.3.2.3 Teachers' awareness of communicative language teaching practices

The large number of students in Albanian L2 classes was another contextual factor that was seen from different angles from the participating teachers. Miss Elona, Miss Evis, and Miss Landa

reported that, because they were unable to monitor the large number of students, they tended to avoid the use of pair/group work in their classes. Miss Landa emphasised that she believes that classroom learning should be provided by the teacher. *A peer, she claimed, lacks a thorough understanding of English. Thus, students are unable to detect and correct each other's mistakes when they are paired up* [Source: IR]. Miss Ada, on the other hand, believes that her main responsibility as a teacher, when students do free speaking activities in her classes, is to make sure students are not using Albanian to complete the activity. *This is something I can easily do, she explains, whether there are twenty, thirty, or forty students in my class* [Source: IR].

As shown in section 6.3.2.1, it might be that the participating teachers in this research are contextualizing the large class size in the light of their prior experiences and understandings to accommodate their own teaching styles. However, the participants' lack of practical knowledge of how to implement pair/group work activities in their classes might also explain why the three teachers avoided these kinds of interactions in their classes. As seen above, Miss Ada talks about the inability to detect and correct students' mistakes when they talk in their pairs/groups. This argument seems to be a misconception about communicative language teaching practices, since, as emphasised in section 2.8.1, pair/group interactions are typically used in CLT classes to help learners acquire the language through use and exposure, rather than to offer teachers an opportunity to detect and correct students' mistakes.

As shown in chapter 5, gaps in the participating teachers' knowledge of student-centred teaching approaches can result in misconceptions about communicative language teaching practices. Miss Elona, Miss Evis, and Miss Landa, on a number of occasions, used their own understanding of CLT, based on deductive teaching approaches, to interpret the teacher's book instructions and activities. This evidence seems to suggest that if teachers are not helped to construct alternative images and schemes for classroom practices, they are likely to rely on the traditional teaching approaches they are familiar with. The importance of gaining an awareness of new language teaching practices in implementing new teaching approaches has been emphasised in a number of empirical studies, such as Butler (2004), Kim (2008), Savignon (2010), and Ahn (2011).

6.3.2.4 Participation in long-term teacher development courses

As reported in chapter 5, Miss Ada exhibited a number of communicative behaviours in her teaching. Miss Ada's use of pair/group work can be explained by looking back at her learning experiences in a communicative language learning classroom. As a learner in that class, Miss Ada participated in

many pair/group work activities. Through participation in collaborative learning experiences, Miss Ada should have acquired practical knowledge of teaching pair/group activities, including the role students and teachers play during this type of interaction. This type of knowledge, earned through continual exposure to collaborative work activities during her formative years and enriched through her day-to-day teaching experience, is likely to have influenced Miss Ada's practical actions in the classroom.

The other three participating teachers, who had participated in some short-term teacher development courses that emphasised the use of CLT strategies but did not offer participants opportunities to practise new teaching approaches and receive feedback on their teaching, rarely used pair/group work in their classes. The practices of Miss Elona, Miss Evis, and Miss Landa indicate that participation in teacher training that does not involve teaching practicum is likely to cause some limited procedural changes in teachers' approaches. This can be the case of Miss Landa who incorporated into her teaching practices a strategy that prompts students' self-correction of errors after attending a two-day teacher training workshop. Nevertheless, participation in such courses does not seem to bring about radical changes in teachers' practices. The three participating teachers in this project avoided the use of pair/group work in their classes because they might have lacked the practical knowledge that shows teachers what to do, and how to behave in specific situations. Clandinin (1986) argues that this type of knowledge can only be obtained through participation in teacher-training courses that involve practical approaches to classroom practices. However, other studies (Urmston, 2003; Richardson, 2003; Borg, 2005) show that any teacher training may have a limited effect on changing teachers' beliefs and assumptions and, therefore, on their classroom practices, even where such training involves a practicum.

Certainly, the findings from this study seem to show that changes on teacher behaviours, such as the use of pair/group work, are unlikely to take place in the absence of teachers' participation in long-term, practically-oriented development courses. This finding aligns with those of other scholars who emphasise the importance of developing teachers' practical knowledge through involvement in authentic classroom experiences in obtaining successful reform outcomes (Von Driel et al., 2001).

One possible explanation for the failure of short-term teacher development courses in particular to initiate radical changes in teacher's practices might be teachers' tendency to reinterpret the course input to accommodate their teaching beliefs (Lamb, 1995; Boyle et al., 2004). Such interpretation may not be limited to teacher training that does not involve teaching practicum, and more research is

needed to compare the effects of different types of teacher development courses on teaching behaviours.

6.3.2.5 Teachers' tacit thinking

The participating teachers made a number of on-the-spot decisions based on their thoughts, knowledge, beliefs, and their assessment of how well the lesson was proceeding. Nevertheless, the findings of this study also show that the participating teachers worked, to some extent, within their tacit knowledge. For example, Miss Elona, on a number of occasions, asked her students to complete individually accuracy and fluency-based textbook activities. By the rationale Miss Elona provided, i.e. *to reinforce her students' grammar knowledge* (see Figure 6.1), it is clear that her decision is not based on explicit thinking.

Post observation interview/Informal interview summary form	
Name of Teacher:	Miss Elona
Post-observation interview associated with observation Nr. 3	Date: 3. 10. 2012.
Other notes to describe the context of informal discussion: <i>Interview taking place in teachers' room. The observation session took place four hours ago. This is an after school hour interview, so there are only three other teachers in the room.</i>	
Summarise (and, if possible, code) the main issues or themes that struck you during this post-observation interview/informal discussion.	
Note 1: <i>The teacher asked her students to complete several accuracy-based exercises on their own during the class and collected their work afterwards (she had done the same thing during the other two classes observed). Instead of completing the exercise(s), the students were chatting in Albanian with each other (the same thing had happened in her previous classes). When asked why she followed this approach (target question prompted from Observation Session 2, dated September 27th), the teacher claimed that she wanted to reinforce her students' grammar knowledge. She added that her students do not really care about grammar rules (I noticed this during the observation session). The teacher continued and said that by correcting the mistakes students were likely to learn the rules. Nevertheless, the teacher never gave any oral feedback during the classes observed. She simply handed out the copybooks to her students who barely opened their copybooks to see the teacher's corrections. How can students learn the rules if they barely pay attention to the feedback/teacher's corrections?</i>	
Analytic memo 1: <i>Is the teacher trying to justify her decision because she does not know the rationale behind it?</i>	

Figure 6.1: Manifestation of Miss Elona's tacit thinking

As argued in the observation note above, Miss Elona's teaching behaviour can be considered as irrational because it seems very unlikely that the students will improve their grammar knowledge when they chat with each other in Albanian instead of completing the exercise, and barely open their copybooks to see the teacher's feedback. Miss Elona was aware of the fact that her students are not keen on learning grammar rules. She also knew that her students barely completed the exercise, despite her continual invitations to keep working. Yet, in all three classes observed, Miss Elona asked her students to complete written exercises. One explanation for this irrational teaching behaviour is that Miss Elona's instructional decisions can be framed by the availability heuristic. As seen in section 5.6, the teaching behaviours teachers are familiar with, which are largely based on teachers' learning experiences, can become automatic decisions made without any formal reasoning.

Another analytic memo (see Figure 6.2) helped me to explore the relationship between Miss Ada's instructional decisions, and her conscious and subconscious thoughts.

<p>Post observation interview/Informal interview summary form</p> <p>Name of Teacher: Miss Ada</p> <p>Post-observation interview associate with observation Nr. 4 Date: 6. 11. 2013.</p> <p>Other notes to describe the context of informal discussion: <i>Interview taking place in the classroom, during the lunch recces, following the observation session.</i></p>
<p>Summarise (and, if possible, code) the main issues or themes that struck you during this post-observation interview/informal discussion:</p> <p>Note 1: <i>The teacher says "I could have also asked my students to do this activity as a jigsaw puzzle".</i></p> <p>Analytic memo 1: <i>It does not seem as if the teacher has carefully considered all options of how to ask her students to complete this activity. Now that the teacher is thinking about the options, it strikes me that she is mentioning only communicative approaches, based on the jig-saw principle. Why? Can it be that the teacher consciously or subconsciously thinks that all speaking activities need to be approached communicatively? What's the role of the textbook here? How do her own learning experiences influence her thinking?</i></p>

Figure 6.2: Manifestation of Miss Ada's tacit thinking

During the post-observation interview, Miss Ada was unable to describe in detail the steps she followed when she decided on the interaction mode to use in her class. She used a modal (i.e. *could have*) to describe her thinking during the decision-making process. This might indicate that the teacher, rather than going through a rational, multi-step decision-making process that involves generating many alternatives and objectively and rationally choosing the best one (Robbins et al., 2009:124), might have chosen automatically "pair-work" as the interaction mode without too much

thought. When asked to think of other approaches, the teacher mentioned another communicative teaching approach based on the jigsaw process. Other interaction modes, such as teacher-led activities, or individual work, do not seem to be part of teachers' explicit or implicit thinking. This behaviour was important enough to attract my attention.

As seen in section 5.3, Miss Ada was exposed to many pair-work activities as a learner in a communication-based classroom. By linking Miss Ada's speech analysis, her thinking and teaching behaviours, and my reflective notes given in Figure 6.2, new information about the potential influence of teachers' previous learning experiences on their explicit and implicit thinking is gathered.

The data from the present project also suggest that there might be a relationship between the avoidance of certain teaching behaviours and teachers' negative experiences related to those teaching behaviours. Miss Elona and Miss Evis both believed that it was "fairly important"/"extremely important" to engage students in activities conducted in pairs or groups. Yet, they offered few opportunities to their students to work in pairs/groups in their classes. Both teachers revealed that they had had past negative teaching experiences with pair/group work. Miss Landa made the same assertion. Teachers' past negative teaching experiences may thus explain why the three teachers avoided the use of pair/group interaction in their classes. It can be that teachers form judgements about the teaching behaviour associated with their negative past teaching experiences. According to Pijl and Foster (2005), heuristics play an important role in selecting and integrating information into a judgement. Likewise, heuristics might play an important role in removing alternatives that are judged as "negative" outcomes during the selection process.

Therefore, this study's findings support the view that teachers do much more than act rationally in their classes. These findings are consistent with those from prior studies indicating that much of teachers' knowledge is tacit (Brown and McIntyre, 1993; Clandinin and Connelly, 1996; Putnama and Borko, 2000; Hodgen, 2011). This study's findings also lend support for a continual exploration of teachers' tacit knowledge in the field of teacher cognition.

6.4 Summary of main findings

The findings from this research seem to indicate that, for the teachers participating in this study, cognitions based on teachers' previous learning experiences are the strongest lens through which they judged classroom realities. As such, they shaped to a great degree the way the teachers used communication-based textbooks in their classes. The teachers' decisions on how to use

communicative materials were also shaped by a number of other factors, such as textbooks/teacher's book, teachers' awareness of communicative teaching practices, and, to a lesser extent, by participation in short-term teacher-development courses, and school management and government policies.

It was shown in this study that, in a context in which EFL teachers use communicative textbooks daily as a medium of instruction, the research participants who received little training in CLT teaching accommodated some communicative teaching behaviours into their teaching. Some examples of these teaching behaviours are: starting the lessons by activating students' prior knowledge; employing authentic texts to introduce and discuss linguistic structures; exposing students to the language in context before explicitly teaching grammar rules; and using a number of textbook activities that aim to develop students' receptive and productive skills. All these changes are related to *what* teachers do in their classes, and are likely to have been prompted by the content of the textbook the teachers used.

As regards changes related to *how* teachers taught, it can be claimed that the use of Western-published textbooks may have also triggered the participating teachers to use a number of teaching behaviours that seek to empower learners to construct learning themselves. Some of these behaviours evident in the classes observed were: activating students' prior knowledge, introducing and discussing linguistic structures in the context of reading/listening passages, and engaging students in authentic, meaningful exchanges in L2. However, from the data in this study, it would seem that the effects of using communicative textbooks on teaching behaviour is limited and cannot account for radical, methodological changes in teachers' practices. The participants in this research did not always stick to the methodological procedure clearly described in the textbook/teacher's book, as in the case of replacing pair/group interactions with teacher-student(s) interactions, or changing the focus of some activities from fluency to accuracy. It may be that the textbooks lead to change in behaviours that can most easily be accommodated into teachers' current practices. More research is needed in this area.

As regards the support given by the authorities, findings from this research suggest that it is not enough to require teachers to prepare student-centred lessons and to provide short-term teacher development courses that emphasised the use of CLT strategies but do not involve observations of classroom practices. Data from this study also suggest that there is a lack of "constructive alignment" (Biggs and Tang, 2011:96) between the teaching and assessment in the country. That is to say, although authorities encourage teachers to change the traditional way they approach the teaching,

national exams still assess Albanian students' knowledge of L2 in a traditional manner. Additionally, although teachers in Albania are required to comply with the changes proposed by authorities, there is no system in place in the country to measure the actual result of the reforms. Consequently, in the present study, a limited influence of school management and government policies on the delivery of the participating teachers was observed.

Based on these findings, as well as the limitations of the current project discussed in section 6.2, I provide recommendations for future research, as well as implications for EFL teacher development and CLT reform implementation in Albania and other similar countries, in the next section.

6.5 Implications

Implications drawn from the research findings are numerous and include the following three areas: 1) recommendations for future research (section 6.5.1); 2) implications for EFL teacher education and development (section 6.5.2); and 3) implications for CLT reform implementation in Albania and other similar countries (section 6.5.3).

6.5.1 Recommendations for future research

The most obvious recommendation for future research on the relationship between styles of classroom delivery and Western teaching resources is that much more research should be conducted in Albania and in other countries outside the west where Western teaching resources are used to teach English.

Firstly, more research should be conducted on the role that the use of Western-published textbooks plays in the process of EFL teacher training. The present study found that Albanian EFL teachers are likely to accommodate some CLT teaching behaviours, while not radically changing their teaching style, as the result of the use of textbooks based on CLT methodology. Nevertheless, the participating teachers in this study had been using Western-published textbooks for relatively a short period of time (5-10 years). It would be worthwhile to conduct other research with teachers who have used Western-published textbooks for longer periods of time to see whether teachers become more communicative in their approach with the passing of time during which they use communicative textbooks in their classes. Likewise, there is a need to conduct similar case studies in other settings to establish whether findings from this study can be transferred to other similar teaching contexts.

Secondly, future studies on teacher thinking should investigate both teachers' tacit and explicit knowledge. Traditionally, teacher cognition has acknowledged and explored teachers' active thinking and acting. Findings from this study and other research (Brown and McIntyre, 1993; Clandinin and Connelly, 1996; Putnama and Borko, 2000; Hodgen, 2011) suggest that teachers' tacit thinking also influence what teachers do in their classes. Therefore, teacher cognition should be understood broadly to include teachers' tacit thinking, rather than conceptualised narrowly to mean mainly rational teacher thinking.

To explicate knowledge about what teachers do in their classes, future researchers might want to follow a similar approach with that followed in the present study, i.e. developing a clear operational definition for the category of tacit knowledge, conducting numerous formal and informal discussions with the participating teachers, and using multiple methods of data collection and data sources for the purpose of strengthening the research findings.

Lastly, it would be valuable to conduct more studies in Albania and other countries to investigate the relevance of the use of CLT in these teaching contexts. The participants in this research gave very good reasons why they do not use CLT in all its forms. For example, Miss Landa and Miss Ada questioned the effectiveness of teaching mainly speaking in their classes when the national tests used in Albania assess students' knowledge of grammar and reading; Miss Landa pointed out the unrealistic expectation to use group work in English classes only, and not in mathematics or geography classes; Miss Evis emphasised the inability to use a student-centred approach in undergraduate classes with more than 50 students; and Miss Elona, Miss Ada, and Miss Landa expressed their concerns about the inadequate knowledge of CLT and other student-centred approaches they possessed. Therefore, the question, "How weak/strong should the communicative approach used in East-European countries be?" should be explored by future research studies.

6.5.2 Implications for EFL teacher education and development

Three main implications flow from the findings of the present study for EFL teacher education and development. Firstly, as the teachers who participated in this study accommodated some communicative teaching behaviours into their teaching as the result of the use of textbooks based on CLT approaches, EFL teachers in Albania may need to be encouraged to follow the content and methodological procedures described in the textbook more closely. To achieve this, teacher development can focus on training teachers to use materials. This training can take the form of on-going, in-service professional development courses on how to teach communication-based

materials in EFL classes. Teachers' guides would also offer valuable help if they were more detailed, clearly emphasising the steps teachers should follow as well as the rationale behind the approach they recommend. To reduce spending, instead of training every single teacher, authorities can train a small number of teachers for each district, and they in turn can train their colleagues on how to use new materials in their classrooms. Publishers can also be required to provide in-service sessions for the teachers who use their textbooks.

Secondly, undergraduate teacher education programmes in the country should use as many student-centred teaching methods as possible. If university lectures model student-centred teaching behaviours by employing a problem-solving, inquiry-based, reflective teaching approach, students will be exposed to new learning experiences and methods on which they can draw when they first enter their classes. Additionally, exposing undergraduate students to student-centred learning and assessment approaches has the benefit of overcoming the strong effect of their traditional L2 experiences.

Thirdly, the findings of this research imply that authorities in Albania, rather than requiring teachers to follow top-down directives, such as the requirement to write a student-centred lesson plan, need to enable teacher to become reflective practitioners. This can be done in several ways, such as 1) through providing more opportunities for teachers to attend professional development programmes that involve exposure to student-centred learning theories, observation and observed classroom teaching. These programmes, similar to the one Miss Evis attended, should make participants aware of their own teaching practices, and challenge participants' beliefs about L2 teaching and learning. Classroom observations, observed classroom teaching practice, and face-to-face feedback should also be parts of these programmes. As argued in section 6.2.3.4, training that involves a practicum and constructive feedback might help teachers to acquire practical approaches to classroom practices (Clandinin, 1986).

If the lack of financial means and/or lack of trained staff is a concern, authorities in Albania might want to rely on emerging, low-cost, internet-based applications. That is to say, Albanian teachers can be encouraged to partner with other experienced L2 teachers who reside in other countries. Teachers can record one of their lessons, send the recording through email to their teaching partner, and have a Skype feedback session afterwards. Engaging Albanian practitioners in classroom observation practices followed by feedback sessions can have the benefit of providing teachers with practical approaches learned from observing communicative classrooms in action. Additionally, if teachers receive feedback on their teaching decisions and behaviours, this would give them a chance to see

their own teaching practices from someone else's perspective. Therefore, they will certainly increase the awareness of their own teaching styles.

2) authorities should encourage on-site discussions; exchanges among colleagues about effective teaching experiences; and on-site teacher observation practices in which teachers feel free to express their own points of view, discuss their beliefs, and accept, reject, and discuss new ideas. Previous research (Wiścicka, 2006) in this area suggests that an on-site supportive atmosphere can contribute considerably to the professional development of novice teachers.

6.5.3 Implications for CLT reform implementation in Albania and other similar countries

However, the crucial question here is not how to motivate EFL teachers to acquire certain communicative behaviours, but rather how to enable EFL teachers in countries such as Albania to adapt CLT in an appropriate way, in accordance with the context in which they work.

Urging teachers to incorporate into their teaching pair/group interactions and other communicative behaviours that do not necessarily fit with the local context would mean treating teachers as implementing agents who should strictly apply a set of theoretical principles in their classes. The post-method pedagogy (see Kumaravadivelu, 2003) encourages EFL practitioners to develop their own teaching methods based on their learning/teaching experiences, their pedagogic knowledge, their own beliefs, and their students' needs. This, however, does not mean that teachers' assumptions should not be challenged. As argued in section 6.5.2, teachers can become reflective practitioners only when they are aware of their own teaching practices, and challenge their assumptions about L2 teaching and learning.

It is certainly the responsibility of local educational experts to develop educational reforms that best suit the teaching/learning reality in a country. Allowing EFL teachers to have their say in educational reform-related decision-making processes might give authorities a clearer view as to why they want EFL teachers to use a communicative approach, and how possible this aim is within the teaching/learning context of the country. After all, as Miss Landa emphasised, teachers are in a better position than politicians or educational theorists to foresee unintended consequences of educational reforms, and judge what is feasible in Albanian classrooms.

In addition, local experts have to take a more active role in developing teacher training policies. Currently, teacher training services in many developing countries are inevitably provided by foreign specialists. However, as discussed in section 2.8.2, BANA (Britain, Australasia, North

America) specialists and materials might not take into account local teaching realities and, thus, their efficacy is questionable (Holliday, 1994). It is for this reason that local experts, who fully understand the linguistic, educational, and cultural needs of local EFL teachers, should be in charge of preparing teacher training materials and delivering teacher training courses for local EFL teachers.

6.6 Concluding remarks

This research investigated the connections among teacher decision making, teaching resources, and classroom practices when textbook instructions concerning operations in the classroom do not match teachers' views of how languages are learned and taught. It used a mixed-method case study to explore the processes that informed four Albanian EFL teachers' decisions on how to use Western-published textbooks when they planned and delivered their practices.

The participants in this research featured very different personal, training, and classroom experiences. Data for this study were collected through the use of several instruments, such as an observation grid, a series of email exchanges, face-to-face interviews, and informal discussions, a questionnaire, lesson plans, and teachers' post-lesson evaluations. To understand how communicatively the participating teachers used textbooks in their classes, data from the observation grids were analysed quantitatively. To examine the internal/external factors that affected the teachers' delivery of Western-published textbooks, two levels of qualitative data analysis were conducted: the four individual case studies, and the collective case study.

The quantitative findings indicate that all four participants in this study demonstrated a number of communicative teaching behaviours, although three teachers did not seem to have altered their practices significantly as a result of the use of a Western-published textbook. The qualitative findings indicate that the use of communicative textbooks might help EFL teachers, who have not had any formal training in CLT teaching, acquire some CLT teaching behaviours, such as starting the lessons by activating students' prior knowledge, exposing students to the language in context before explicitly teaching grammar rules, and using a number of textbook tasks and activities that aim to develop students' receptive and productive skills. The use of Western-published textbooks might also influence the development of constructivist beliefs/awareness in non-native EFL teachers. Yet, it does not necessarily bring radical changes in the way L2 is taught and learned in EFL classrooms in non-English speaking countries, unless teachers are involved in live CLT classroom-based teacher training courses.

Information and knowledge gained by the present research study, which formed the basis of the recommendations and implications discussed in the preceding sections, also constitutes an original contribution to three academic domains of study. Firstly, it reconsiders the place and attention given to the process of teacher decision making in the domain of teacher thinking. From late 1900s to late 1990s, a number of studies (see Stevic, 1976; Woods, 1996) focused on the idea of teachers as decision makers by exploring teachers' decisions, thoughts, and beliefs. The majority of these studies were quantitative, conceptualising teaching as an individualist, cognitive activity. With the passing of time, new empirical studies - see Elbaz's personal practical knowledge (1983), Connelly and Clandinin's narrative studies (1990), and Borg's work in the 2000s (especially Borg, 2003, 2006, 2008a) - brought a new lens through which teacher thinking could be seen, and teacher cognition started to be viewed as socially situated. To accommodate the new conceptualization of teaching, research in this domain switched from a cognitive approach to a socio-cognitive understanding of teaching and learning (Cochran-Smith and Villegas, 2015). Within this new research orientation, teaching was not seen as an individualist activity, and teachers-as-decision-maker framework was seen as a deficient framework that could not accommodate the new conceptualization of teaching and learning as processes that take place within the social context of the classroom.

The work presented in this study portrays teaching through the lens of teachers as decision makers, and proposes the teacher-as-decision-maker framework as a theoretical framework that attempts to describe teachers' mental lives. By integrating several decision-making theories and viewing teacher thinking as a social-oriented process (i.e. dynamic, social activity situated in the physical and social teaching context) within doing, this theoretical framing can offer researchers the possibility to investigate teachers' active and tacit thinking, as well as the potential influence of their past learning and teaching experiences and feelings.

The teacher-as-decision-maker framework adapted in this study, however, did not go as far as to fully explain the behaviours of the participating teachers (see a number of unanswered questions on page 177). Therefore, future research studies in this area will have to further develop the model so that it can fully capture and explain teachers' behaviours.

The present study also makes a contribution in the field of EFL teacher development. It strongly questions Hutchison and Torres' claim (1994) that textbooks can fulfill two main teacher needs: 1) helping EFL practitioners to implement curriculum changes into the classroom by providing a highly structured approach; 2) reducing teachers' feeling of insecurity by showing teachers exactly

what to do, how to do it, and when to do it. The findings of the present study seem to suggest that the use of communicative textbooks does not seem to account for radical, methodological changes in teachers' practices. Additionally, the findings of the present study bring new insights into the mediating role of teachers in prompting/discouraging students to make connections between the materials and their own lives.

The present research also extends the knowledge within the EFL teacher development domain by providing an understanding of the potential impact teachers' learning experiences can have on teachers' decisions on how to use communication-based textbooks in their classes. Additionally, it provides some understanding of the potential impact participation in short teacher-training courses that emphasise the use of CLT but do not involve practicum may have on the practices of EFL teachers.

Lastly, this research also makes a contribution in the field of EFL teaching methodology. As emphasized in chapters one and three, the EFL teaching in Albania is under-researched and there is a need to understand local knowledge and practices. The present study contributes to fulfill this gap. The study argues that, rather than adopting imported teaching models, EFL practitioners in Albania and in other non-Western countries need to develop their own teaching methods based on their learning/teaching experiences, their pedagogic knowledge, their own beliefs, their students' needs, and their teaching context. Therefore, it adds to the body of research in TESOL more widely by resonating with previous research studies that emphasise the need to adapt CLT to suit specific teaching and learning contexts (Carless, 2007; Hasanova and Shadieva, 2008; Orafi and Borg, 2009; Littlewood, 2014).

The practical implications of this research for future institutional policies in many developing countries around the world, which are currently spending large sums of money to mirror Western-style educational systems, lie in the following three arenas:

1. In devising education reforms, authorities in Albania and in other developing countries should remain aware of the local teaching realities. Rather than asking experienced EFL teachers in developing countries to follow imported communicative teaching models, the stakeholders involved in this process should have clear objectives as to how communicatively they want practitioners to approach the teaching of English, and how realistic this objective is within the particular teaching/learning context of the country.
2. In implementing education reforms, in addition to asking EFL teachers to stick with the content and methodological procedures described in communicative textbooks, authorities

in developing countries should also create opportunities for continuing long-term professional development. The encouragement of on-site discussions about successful/non-successful teaching methods and approaches might also be helpful.

3. The successful implementation of educational reforms in Albania and other similar countries, as implied in the discussion above, relies very much on teachers. Therefore, authorities in these countries should give teachers a greater voice in the decisions that affect teaching practices and student learning.

Lastly, the current study suggests the following three future directions for conducting research in the areas of non-native English language teacher development, ELT methodology, and teacher thinking:

1. More research should be conducted in Albania and other developing countries to fully understand the role that the use of Western-published textbook plays in the process of EFL teacher training.
2. More research should be conducted in Albania and countries to investigate the relevance of the use of CLT in these teaching contexts.
3. Future studies on teacher cognition should investigate both teachers' tacit and explicit knowledge as teachers do much more than just be rational in their classes.

Concluding, I conducted this research study in the fields of teacher decision making, the development of non-native English teachers, and ELT educational reforms because, as an EFL teacher who strives to improve his teaching style, I wanted to extend my knowledge about why my mind works the way it does. Among many things that I learned during this PhD learning journey, most likely, the most important one is: I need to continually reflect on my teaching by observing, talking about, and writing about teaching. After all, it seems like teachers become better practitioners when they reflect on their delivery practices, and not necessarily as a result of the use of communication-based and/or EFL educational reforms.

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Appendix 1

A graphical representation of the four Communicative Competence properties involved in natural speech (taken from Canale, 1983).



Reference:

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to language pedagogy in language and communication. In Richards, J. C. and Schmidt, R. (ed.), *Language and communication*. London: Longman, pp. 2-27.

Appendix 2

A schematic representation of the social constructivist model of the teaching/learning process.
(taken from Williams and Burden, 1997:43).



Reference:

Williams, M. and Burden, R. L. (1997). *Psychology for language teachers: A social constructivist approach*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Appendix 3

List of subjects students enrolled in the BA in TEFL programme (University of Tirana) have to take during their four-year study.



Available at:

http://www.letersia.fajtori.com/Universitet/Universiteti_i_Tiranes/Fakulteti_i_Gjuheve_te_Huaja/anglisht

Appendix 4 (Page 1) - Table of content – “Access 3”



Appendix 4 (Page 2) - Table of content – “Access 3”



Reference:

Evans, V. and Dooley, J. (2008). *Access – Student’s Book 3*. Newbury (UK): Express Publishing.

Appendix 5 (Page 1) - Units 3a and 3b – “Access 3”



Appendix 5 (Page 2) - Units 3a and 3b – “Access 3”



Reference:

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Appendix 6 - Unit 1 – “Access 3”



Reference:

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Appendix 7 - Units 3f – “Access 3”



Reference:

Evans, V. and Dooley, J. (2008). *Access – Student’s Book 3*. Newbury (UK): Express Publishing.

Appendix 8 (Page 1) COLT PART A



Illustration removed for copyright restrictions

Appendix 8 - (Page 2)



Appendix 9 – Adapted COLT grid (Version 1)

Classroom Observation Grid (Adapted from COLT)

										TIME
										ACTIVITY
									Productive	
									Receptive	
									System	
									Function	
									Other	
									T-Ss	
									S-Ss	
									S	
									S-S	
									FLUENCY	
									ACCURACY	
									OTHER	
									CONVERSATION	
									GRAMMAR	
									TEXT	
									EXERCISE	
									Instructions similar to TB	
									Instructions partially similar to TB	
									Instructions different from TB	
									Activities made by the Teacher	
									Activities made by Students	
									Photocopies from published /internet materials	
									NOTES	

Appendix 10 – Adapted COLT grid (Version 2)

								START	TIMING
								FINISH	
								DURATION	
								INDIVIDUAL	INSTRUCTIONS
								PAIR	
								GROUP	
								CLASS	ACTIVITY
								LISTENING	
								READING	
								WRITING	
								SPEAKING	
								PRONUNCIATION	
								SYSTEM	INTERACTION
								INDIVIDUAL (S)	
								PAIRS (S-S)	
								GROUP (S-Ss)	
								CLASS (T-Ss)	FOCUS
								MEANING	
								FORM	
								USE	TEXTBOOK MATERIAL
								INSTRUCTIONS SIMILAR TO TB	
								INSTRUCTIONS PARTIALLY SIMILAR TO TB	
								INSTRUCTION DIFFERENT FROM TB	OTHER SOURCES
								INTERNET/OTHER PUBLISHED BOOK	
								TEACHER-MADE HANDOUT	
								STUDENT-MADE HANDOUT	LANGUAGE USE
								MOSTLY L1	
								MOSTLY L2	
								EQUAL L1 & L2	NOTES

ADAPTED COLT VERSION II

Appendix 11 – Adapted COLT grid (Version 3 - final)

									START	TIMING
									FINISH	
									DURATION	
									INDIVIDUAL (S)	INSTRUCTION S
									PAIR (S-S)	
									GROUP (SS-S)	
									CLASS (T-Ss)	
									INSTRUCTIONS SIMILAR TO TB	IF TEXTBOOK MATERIAL
									INSTRUCTIONS PARTIALLY SIMILAR TO TB	
									INSTRUCTION DIFFERENT FROM TB	
									LISTENING	ACTIVITY
									READING	
									WRITING	
									SPEAKING	
									PRONUNCIATION	
									SYSTEM	
									OTHER (e.g. class mgmt, , discipline issues, etc.)	
									COMBINATION	
									MEANING	MATERIAL TARGET
									FORM	
									USE	TEACHER TARGET
									MEANING	
									FORM	CLASS DYNAMIC
									USE	
									INDIVIDUAL (S)	
									PAIR (S-S)	
									GROUP (SS-S)	SOURCE
									CLASS (T-Ss)	
									TEXTBOOK	
									INTERNET/OTHER PUBLISHED BOOK	
									TEACHER-MADE HANDOUT	LANGUAGE USE
									STUDENT-MADE HANDOUT	
									MOSTLY L1	
									MOSTLY L2	NOTES
									EQUAL L1 & L2	

ADAPTED COLT VERSION III

Appendix 12

Form used to analyse observation sessions qualitatively

Name of Teacher: _____
Observation Nr.: _____
Date: _____

Research Questions:

How communicatively do Albanian EFL teachers use communication-based text-books?

What shapes Albanian EFL teachers' decisions on how to use text-books in their classes?

What role does a Teacher's book play in the use of text-books?

1. Summarise (and, if possible, code) the information on each of the research questions listed above obtained (or failed to obtain) by this observation session:

2. Summarise (and, if possible, code) the main issues or themes that struck you during this observation:

3. Write possible target questions to ask during the post-observation interview?

Appendix 13

Five-item email questionnaire

Dear Colleague, please answer the questions below as fully as possible.

<p>Q1: Details about your education (please include academic and professional training)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">EDUCATION</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <p style="text-align: center;">CERTIFICATION</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>
<p>Q2: Details about your teaching experiences (please include the institution name and location, courses taught, textbooks used, age of student, etc.)</p> <p style="text-align: center;">EMPLOYMENT HISTORY:</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>
<p>Q3: What textbook are you using at the present and why?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>
<p>Q4: Which is the best textbook you have ever used? (please explain why)</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>
<p>Q5: Do you usually read the Teacher's book before writing your lesson plan? Why/why not?</p> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/> <hr/>

Appendix 14 - Questionnaire on teachers' beliefs

Please circle the number that most nearly represents your beliefs about each item's importance for ELT programmes (1 = Not at all important; 5 = Extremely important)

Not at all Important	Not very Important	Fairly Important	Very Important	Extremely Important
-------------------------	-----------------------	---------------------	-------------------	------------------------

1. It is _____ for learners to practise their speaking skills.
2. It is _____ for learners to study grammar rules.
3. It is _____ for learners to participate in rote learning activities, e.g. translation exercises, memorising lists of L2 words, memorising grammar rules, etc.
4. It is _____ to focus on teaching students isolated skills by using repetition drills.
5. It is _____ to do activities that integrate multiple subjects (reading, listening, grammar, speaking, etc.)
6. It is _____ to engage students in pre reading/listening activities.
7. It is _____ to allow students to experiment with L2.
8. It is _____ for students to work individually most of the time.
9. It is _____ for students to participate in whole-class, teacher-directed instruction.
10. It is _____ for students to engage in pair/group activities.
11. It is _____ to supplement the textbook with other activities responsive to students' interests.
12. It is _____ to teach students how to use English in situation that they are likely to face in their real life, e.g. use of English on vocations, internet chat rooms, etc.
13. It is _____ to follow a prescribed curriculum plan without being distracted by students' interests or current circumstances.
14. Correcting students' mistake is _____ for language learning to take place.
15. It is _____ for students to use L2 in the class.
16. It is _____ for teachers to use L2 in the class.

Appendix 15

Post observation interview/Informal interview summary form

Name of Teacher: _____

Post-observation interview associate with observation Nr. _____

Date/Place/Time: _____

Other notes to describe the context of informal discussion: _____

Research Questions:

How communicatively do Albanian EFL teachers use communication-based text-books?

What shapes Albanian EFL teachers' decisions on how to use text-books in their classes?

What role does a Teacher's book play in the use of text-books?

1. Summarise (and, if possible, code) the information on each of the research questions listed above obtained (or failed to obtain) by this post-observation interview/informal discussion:

2. Summarise (and, if possible, code) the main issues or themes that struck you during this post-observation interview/informal discussion:

3. Write possible target questions to ask during the next informal discussion.

Appendix 16

Interview questions

Three open-ended questions originally planned to be asked during the post-observation discussions

Question A: Why did you ask students to do X thing? (E.g. Why did you ask students to talk in their pairs?)

Question B: For how long have you been using this teaching behaviour?

Question C: Where did you first see/encounter this teaching behaviour?

Appendix 17

The revised set of post-observation interview questions

Question 1: Why did you ask students to do X thing (herein called “approach A”)? An example: Why did you ask students to talk in their pairs?

Question 2: In what ways were your instructions/your approach similar/different to the guidance given in the teacher’s book?

Question 3: Can you think of any other way/approach of doing the same activity? (herein called “approach B” or “approach C”)

Question 4: Where did you first see/encounter this teaching behaviour?

Question 5: Why did you choose approach A instead of approach B or C?

Question 6: What is the approach A and approach B ratio? Said in other words, how often do you use approach A and how often do you use approach B to do the same activity?

Appendix 18

Lesson plan/post-lesson evaluation summary form

Name of Teacher: _____

Lesson-plan associate with observation Nr. _____

Post-lesson evaluation associated with observation Nr. _____

Date/Place/Time: _____

Research Questions:

How communicatively do Albanian EFL teachers use communication-based text-books?

What shapes Albanian EFL teachers' decisions on how to use text-books in their classes?

What role does a Teacher's book play in the use of text-books?

1. Summarise (and, if possible, code) the information on each of the research questions listed above obtained (or failed to obtain) by this lesson-plan/post-lesson evaluation:

Summarise (and, if possible, code) the main issues or themes that struck you during this lesson-plan/post-lesson evaluation:

2. Write possible target questions to ask during the next informal discussion/interview.

Appendix 19

Researcher's journal/memo/note summary form
(journal/memo)

Entry: _____

Page of entry. _____

Date/Place/Time: _____

Other notes to describe the context: _____

Research Questions:

How communicatively do Albanian EFL teachers use communication-based text-books?

What shapes Albanian EFL teachers' decisions on how to use text-books in their classes?

What role does a Teacher's book play in the use of text-books?

What emergent thoughts or new questions are in the entry that I should ask in my next interview or answer in my next observation?

1. Summarise the information from the entry that relates to the research questions above:

2. Preliminary thoughts/conclusions:

3. Questions/Thoughts in the entry that should be asked/answered in the next interview/observation:

Appendix 20
Invitation to research letter

Dear English Language Teacher,

I am an English language teacher currently enrolled in a PhD in Applied Linguistics programme at the School of Languages and Social Sciences, Aston University - UK. As part of my PhD programme, I am required to conduct a research thesis and the title of my research is:

A study on the relationships between the styles of classroom delivery and Western teaching resources.

To conduct my research, I wish to observe the teaching of six Albanian EFL teachers. If you are willing to participate in this project, please answer the questions given below and either send an email to: Kristjanseferi@gmail.com, or mail this letter to the home address of the researcher:
Kristjan Seferaj. Lagja Rilindja. Pallati 1050. Kati 2. H2. Vlore. 94100.

If you are sending an email, please note that there is no need to re-write the questions in your email. Answer as in this example: 1) Kristjan 2)30-39 3)0684055250 4)12 5)YES or NO (as appropriate) 6) YES or NO (as appropriate) 7) Rilindja. 8 vjecare. Skele. Vlore.

1. Your name: _____
 2. Your age-group 25-29 /30-39 /40-49 /more than 50
 3. Email address: _____
 4. How many years have you taught English? _____ .
 5. Have you ever participated in any teacher-training events organised by British Council or USAID in Tirana? YES NO
 6. Have you ever used "Headway series" or "New Headway series" as the main textbook for teaching English as an L2? YES NO (please circle)
 7. In which school are you currently teaching (please write the full address, including the city, town or village)
-
-

Note: It is important for you to understand that it is up to you to decide whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part, I will observe four forty-five minute English classes taught by you. Additionally, there will be four after-lesson interviews (lasting between 10-15 minutes each), and informal discussions during the time I will spend at the institution where you work. I will also ask you to complete an email questionnaire on your views about L2 learning/teaching, to write four post-lesson self-evaluation forms, to see your lesson plans, as well as to write between four-to-six emails (you can use as many words as you wish to express yourself) regarding your teaching practices and your views. All information obtained by the class observation and interviews will be kept strictly confidential and your name will not appear anywhere in the study

Appendix 21

Research consent form (Page 1)

Dear Colleague,

As you recall, I am currently enrolled in a PhD in Applied Linguistics at the School of Languages and Social Sciences, Aston University - UK. As part of my PhD, programme I am required to conduct a research thesis and the title of my research is:

A study on the relationships between the styles of classroom delivery and Western teaching resources.

To conduct my research, case studies will be constructed for six Albanian EFL teachers of different backgrounds. In order to identify teachers interested in participating in this project, a questionnaire was mailed to many teachers. As you kindly sent the completed form to my home address/emailed it to me, you are probably willing to participate in this project. **You are therefore being invited to take part in this research study.**

Before you decide to participate, it is important for you to understand that it is your decision whether or not to take part. If you do decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time, and without giving a reason.

Data will be collected from you in different ways:

- classroom observations (you will be observed teaching four 45-minute classes in the institution where you teach. The observation sessions will be recorded.)
- four one-on-one interviews – lasting between 10-15 minutes each - will be conducted after each lesson observed The post-lesson interviews will be recorded.
- two email questionnaires
- follow-up emails (approximately 4-6) regarding your teaching views, and teaching practices
- four post-lesson self-evaluation forms, and four lesson plans
- several short conversations while I will spend five-to-seven days at the school where you work

The research consists of six phases.

Phase I (August-October 2011): You will be sent by email a four-item email interview, as well as a sixteen-question questionnaire.

Phase II (January-February 2012): You will be observed teaching three 45-minute EFL classes at the institution where you work, and will attend three 10-15 minute post-observation interviews. The observations will be video-recorded, and the date/the time for the observations/interviews will be mutually arranged. In addition, I will spend four-six days at the institution where you work, and there will be several short discussions between us. These exchanges will take place during your idle time, and they will be video-recorded. Moreover, you will be required to self-evaluate your observed lessons (three post-lesson observations, either in written or spoken), and I will photocopy the lesson plans, the pages of the textbook containing the lesson(s) observed, and the teacher's book page(s) giving guidance for each lesson observed.

Phase III (March 2012-May 2013): You will write three-four follow-up emails with extra details regarding your teaching practices/teaching views.

Appendix 21
Research consent form (Page 2)

Phase IV (November 2013): You will be observed teaching one 45-minute EFL class at the institution where you work, and will attend one 10-15 minute post-observation interview. The observation will be video-recorded, and the date/the time for the observation/interview will be mutually arranged. In addition, as I will spend one/two days at your school, there will be several short discussions between you, the researcher and/or your colleagues. These exchanges will take place during your idle time, and they will be video-recorded. Moreover, you will be required to self-evaluate your observed lesson (either in written or spoken), and I will photocopy the lesson plan, the pages of the textbook containing the lesson observed, and the teacher's book page(s) giving guidance for the lesson observed.

Phase V (December 2013 – March 2014): You will write one-two follow-up emails with extra details regarding your teaching practices/teaching views.

Phase VI (May 2014): You will be given electronic copies of your observation/email/face-to-face interviews, as well as the parts of your own words that will appear on the study

All information obtained by the study will be kept strictly confidential and the teacher's proper name will not appear anywhere in the study.

CONSENT FORM

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study.

I understand that my participation is voluntary, and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.

I agree to take part in the above study.

I agree to complete an email survey on teachers' beliefs about L2 learning/teaching, to complete four post-lesson self-evaluation forms, and to provide a photocopy of my lesson plans for the classes I will be observed.

I agree to my English teaching being observed.

I agree to be interviewed after the observation.

I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications .

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Contacts for further information:

Researcher: Kristjan Seferaj PhD in Applied Linguistics (candidate) seferajk@aston.ac.uk	Supervisor: Dr Anne Burns Aston University School of Languages Telephone: +44 (0) 121 2043700 E-mail: a.c.burns@aston.ac.uk
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Appendix 22

Consent forms used to video/tape-record the observation sessions, and interviews

Consent to video-record/transcribe the observation session

I, _____, hereby allow the researcher to:

tape-record

☐

transcribe or take notes during

☐

(tick as appropriate)

the observation session

Participant's signature

Date

Consent to tape-record/transcribe the interview

I, _____, hereby allow the researcher to:

tape-record

☐

transcribe or take notes during

☐

(tick as appropriate)

the interview session

This interview is designed to last approximately ten-to-fifteen minutes. However, you are encouraged to expand on the issues, and **talk as long as you wish**. Likewise, if there is any question you would rather not answer or if you wish to stop the interview, you are free to do so without having to give an explanation.

Participant's signature

Date

Appendix 23

Application to conduct research in the school “_____”

Name: Kristjan Seferaj

Date _____

Email: seferajk@aston.ac.uk

Institution: Aston University, Birmingham, UK.

Position/Role: PhD Student.

Project Description and Timeline

Title of research proposal: A study on the relationships between the styles of classroom delivery and Western teaching resources.

Preferred start date: _____

Expected end date: _____

Nature of Research: Doctoral thesis

Research Objectives:

1. to investigate how communicative Albanian EFL teachers use communicative textbooks in their classes
2. to examine the internal/external factors that affect Albanian EFL teacher's delivery of communicative textbooks
3. to make a contribution to the field of teacher thinking
4. to provide further impetus for EFL educational reform implementation in East-European ex-communist countries

Practical benefits of this research to the participants, and the education system in general:

The project aims at constructing an integrated view of internal and external determinants of EFL in the country to assess whether the delivery style used by non-native EFL teachers, and the use of Western teaching resources are interrelated, as well as to explore other factors that influence the use of communicative teaching resources in the Albanian context. It will therefore contribute to an extensive discussion on the development of communicative L2 teaching concepts and methods, teacher cognition, as well as a growing discussion on how best to make institutional reforms effective, particularly in East-European ex-communist countries, and in other Asian developing countries.

Data Collection:

Means: Four observation sessions - Each observation session will last for forty-five minutes, and involve a standardization procedure: the participating teacher will be observed by the researcher while teaching four of her EFL classes, in her own place of work. **More than ten discussions and interviews** will take place before and after the observation sessions. **Lesson plans and post-lesson evaluations** will also be collected.

How many students will directly participate: **NONE**

How many teachers will directly participate: **ONE** (Teacher's Consent Form attached)

How many other school personnel will participate: see table below

Nr. of staff	Staff Role	Activity	Time Required
Several	EFL teachers, other teachers and the headmaster	Informal discussions regarding their teaching experiences	No specific amount of time is required. Teachers can participate in the discussion only if they are willing to.

Appendix 24

An example of a partial transcript to show how the interviews were segmented and coded. Transcript conventions: T (Teacher), R (Researcher), HC (Holistic Code), MDC (middle-order code)

Raw Data	Memos	Codes
<p>R: Can you describe one of your favourite ESL teachers?</p> <p>T: ¹ It was (pause) probably (pause) this man of a <u>certain</u> age, called Dhimiter. He taught me for two or three years, (pause) if I am not wrong, when I was 12-13 years old, and attending class six and seven of secondary school. He was a gentleman, a real gentleman man. Always smiling, quiet, and very polite. He (pause) continuously said "thank you very much" – I <u>still</u> remember the way he pronounced this word, emphasising "much" in the class (laughter). And, yeah (pause), he taught us a lot of other courtesy words in English, like (pause), may I, could I, not at all. And he (pause) insisted that we used these expressions in our English class, and not only, even <u>outside</u> of the class, when we were talking with our friends and families. And this is (pause) <u>good</u> actually. Because (pause) learning is not only about learning English, or mathematics, or geography. I guess, it is something much more (pause). ² Like (pause), as students we stayed most of our daytime at school and it is there where we got our education. I mean, we learned how to speak a bit of English in his class, but we also learned how to behave with each other, how to interact politely with each other and (pause) Mr. Dhimiter was a <u>very good example</u> of all of this. He had grey hair, always wearing the same gray suit, a bit old but very neat. He spoke softly and he was very knowledgeable. Indeed, whenever we asked him for a word in English, like (pause) "How do they say "dog" in English?" He would say the word in English, Italian, Russian, and French (laughter). He spoke many languages because he was a translator before teaching at our school. Because of this, he (pause), his classes were a bit different from the other English teacher's classes. So (pause), they were not many tests, not many grammar exercises, we were more (pause) relaxed, yeah, that's the right word <u>relaxed</u>. ¹ I am not sure whether his classes were effective in terms of learning English, though. Anyway, there were fun. Well, we did learn a lot of</p>	<p>1)-Is the teacher saying that more tests and grammar exercises</p>	<p>1 (HC for the whole transcript Excerpt) Teacher's previous learning experiences</p> <p>2 (MDC) Educating students</p>

<p>new words in his classes; (pause) anyway, because he continuously asked us to pick up three words, any three words in a given dictionary page; in that time all of us used the same small, pocket-size dictionary (laughter), I don't know if you remember the red one, I guess the author was called something like Ilo Dilo, or something like that, do you? (pause) Anyway, so the teacher would ask us to select any three words, say on page 53, and make three sentences with them. ²⁾ And this was good practice, actually, because we were having kind of our own learning experiences. I remember once (laughter) I made a sentence with the word "cut". It was funny, because (laughter) the words "cut" and "although", as you know, have got the same translation in Albanian. So, basically I made a sentence with the word "cut" believing I was making a sentence with the word "though", and Mr. Dhimiter asked me to read the sentence three times before he realised that "cut" was used instead of "though" (laughter). Then, he laughed, and in a warm voice explained the difference between those two words. Obviously, I never forgot the meaning of those two words from that day. ³⁾ That was another quality of him: he never (pause) made us feel bad when we made a mistake. Like, in this other game that he often played in our classes. He called it "broken microphone", you know something similar to the "broken phone". So, what he basically did was: pretending to hold a microphone in his hand, and speaking for several minutes in English, and then he asked us to translate it. Obviously, we were unable to get what he said; we simple guessed - sometimes, silly guesses (laughter) - but it was ok. Because the game was called "broken microphone" and, thus, it was <u>never</u> our fault, you know, we could have said what we wanted and it was always the microphone's fault. And this was very good, cause, you know (pause), we (pause) enjoyed ourselves without the fear of getting it wrong. He was a great teacher, although he actually was a translator and, I guess (pause), because he <u>loved</u> translation he made us learn and translate many words in English.</p> <p>R: In what way has your teaching been influenced by Mr. Dhimiter? Can you think of any teaching practices, or teaching behaviours of yours that are similar to Mr. Dhimiter's?</p> <p>T: Hhmm (Hesitation). Let me see (pause). Well, (pause) in a way, yes. I definitely try to make my</p>	<p>means "effective learning". Expand in the next interview. If yes, how, examples.</p> <p>2) Enhancing students' learning experiences, asking students to learn on their own good is a very good teaching practice? Expand here. If yes, how does the teacher do this with her own students? Examples.</p> <p>3) - "Making students feel good" possible code? Examples of how she makes her own students feel good are needed.</p>
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<p>student feel good in my class, like he was doing. And, you know, this is something all teachers do, because, you know (pause), no matter what you do, if you don't feel good about it, you try to avoid this activity. And, definitely, this is not good. If <u>feels bad</u> when you feel that your students try to avoid you, fear you. Anyway, making students feel good, by no means, means allowing them to do what they want in your class. Like, some teachers I have seen that talk with their students about Big brother, The voice, and so on (pause), about everything that is not related with learning English because they believe that their students enjoy talking about this. This is true.</p> <p>⁴Students <u>do enjoy</u> these activities, but (pause) what's the point if you only talk about these things in your English class? This means little learning, and students will <u>feel bad</u>, very bad when they eventually see that they will <u>perform badly</u> in the-end-of the year exam, or simply when they see that (pause) that their friend's English, who is being taught by another teacher, is much better than theirs. ³So, making students feel good, in my view, means choosing things that students like, like Big Brother, and (pause) and not limiting your teaching with talking only, that most of the time is done in Albanian because students cannot say what they want in English and they need to say it, of course, because it is Big Brother! (laughter) So, going behind Big Brother discussion, helping students to learn something new in English, this is what making students feel good <u>means</u> to me. ⁴And (pause) sometimes, you know, I actually, make them feel bad on purpose. Like, when I see that a good student is not giving his best. I give him a <u>difficult</u> exercise to do, so that he won't be able to do it, and I go serious about it. And, I <u>pick on him</u>, even in front of the class, if needed. So that he will be ashamed, and study harder next time. You know, sometimes you have to be bad to be good.</p>	<p>4) - Not clear: Is the teacher saying that students need to talk about "Big Brother" and "The Voice" in maths, geography, history classes, and not only in English classes. If yes, why? Clarify next time.</p>	<p>3 (MDC) Making students feel good</p> <p>4 (MDC) Making students feel bad</p>
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Appendix 25

Initial codes:

1. Teacher's Dedication
2. Exchange of Ideas with Colleagues
3. Students' L2 Grammar Knowledge
4. Students' L2 Lack of useful Chatroom Abbreviations
5. Students' Dependence on the Teacher
6. Social/Cultural L2 Value
7. Prepare Students for the End-of-the Year Exam
8. Maturity Exam in English
9. Mixed Level Classes
10. Teacher's Limited Time to Plan
11. Teaching Load
12. Personal Development
13. Not adequate Remuneration
14. Textbook
15. Internet Help
16. Practicality of Teacher's Book
17. Teacher's Previous Learning Experiences
18. Teacher Training
19. Teacher's Beliefs about L2 Learning
20. Teacher's Beliefs about L2 Teaching
21. Educating Students
22. Experimenting New Teaching Approaches
23. Teacher's Values
24. Teacher's Knowledge of Grammar/Syntax
25. Knowledge of 2 Social/Cultural Properties
26. Enhancing students' own learning
27. Making Students Feel Good
28. Making Students Feel Bad
29. Overcrowded Classes
30. Classroom Discipline
31. Teenager's Interests
32. Teachers' Teaching Style
33. Students' Expectations
34. Teacher's Proficiency in L2
35. Teacher's Pronunciation
36. Teacher's Lack of Knowledge of student-centred teaching Practices
37. Awareness of How to Teach Speaking
38. Knowledge of the Official Curriculum
39. Knowledge of How to use the Textbook
40. Students' Learning Styles

41. Students' Previous Learning
42. Knowledge of How other (mathematics/geography) Teachers Teach
43. S-Ss Relationships
44. Teacher's Previous Teaching Experiences
45. Teacher's Own Learning Style
46. Lack of a Photocopy Machine at School
47. Lack of Constructive Dialogues between Teachers at School
48. Incompetent Headmasters
49. Lack of Teacher-parent Collaboration
50. Students' cannot Buy Novels in English
51. Heuristic Decisions

Appendix 26

The coding manual

Code Name	Operational Definition	Example
Personal Development	Teacher describes how her personal development efforts shape her teaching delivery.	<i>I guess (pause) I came across to it while searching for grammar activities. The website is called something like (pause) Azaz, or Azar grammar. I like it because it is like (pause) dictation, but a bit more communicative. So, I use dictogloss now <u>instead of</u> dictations.</i>
Students' Previous Learning	Teacher describes how students' knowledge shapes her teaching delivery.	<i>In classes where some students are quite good but others <u>struggle</u> with elementary concepts, so there is a need to teach basic things like: "I am", "You are".</i>
Students' Needs	Teacher describes how students' needs can shape her teaching delivery.	<i>Better students' perform in exams like "Maturity Exam in English", better chances they have to enrol in a good university. To this end (pause), doing some <u>exam-like exercises</u> in your class is a must.</i>
Students' Expectations	Teacher describes how students' expectation shape her teaching delivery	<i>Very often, particularly low-level students, expect you <u>to translate</u> what you just said in English into Albanian, because their understanding is not that good.</i>
Knowledge of How to Use the Textbook	Teacher describes how her knowledge of textbook (limitation) shape her teaching delivery	<i>Materials we use are prepared for an international market. They are not tailored to my students' interest. It is true, they (pause) appeal to teenagers in general. Anyway, there is still place for "<u>localisation</u>" I call it. Which means adding personal questions appropriate for my students. For</i>

		<i>example, last class we had this example of this guy from London or somewhere who went to Australia for holiday. Knowing that my students hardly leave Vlora [the city] during summer, It would <u>not be very relevant</u> to ask the questions in the text which were like “How many countries have you visited?”, “Where did you spend your last summer holiday?” and so on.</i>
Students’ Motivation	Teacher describes how making students feel good/bad shape her teaching delivery	<i>Instead, to make students interested in the topic I used hypothetical questions, like (pause) “Which countries would you like to visit during your life? Why”, (pause) “If you could choose a country to visit, which one would it be and why?” It <u>worked</u> because teenagers love having dreams.</i>
Teacher’s Extrinsic Motivation	Teacher describes how external factors (i.e. payment, teaching load, employee recognition, students’/parents’ recognition, etc.) shape her teaching delivery	<i>Because there is so much on my plate, it has happened that I did not have time to prepare a new plan for my class and I simply <u>recycled</u> the same lesson plan I had used the previous year. Not that is any bad thing with that, cause (pause) it’s still the same textbook, the same material.</i>
Teacher’s Book	Teacher describes how a teacher’s book can shape her teaching delivery	<i>A Teacher’s book helps a lot with planning. They are good because they give an idea of how to do an activity, as well as (pause) how long to go on with that activity.</i>
Other Teachers’	Teacher describes how exchanges of ideas with her colleagues and school	<i>At the very early days of my teaching I was struggling a bit with class</i>

Influence	observations have shaped her teaching delivery.	<i>discipline. You know, I was a young girl in that time (laughter) and I was teaching in a gymnasium, and I was only four or five years older than my students, so I treated my students like friends; and, (pause) eventually, they took advantage of this. They did not see me like a teacher anymore, I guess, and I was (pause) struggling with class discipline. But there was this experienced teacher, colleague of mine who taught me a very good lesson. Her philosophy was: “be friendly, but not friends with your students”, and it worked! Since the second year of my teaching, I have never shared personal info with my students, and when they know you only as “the teacher”, not as a person who has her own dreams, problems, dilemmas and wishes, they tend to respect you for <u>what you show them</u>: (pause) “the teacher”.</i>
Teacher’s Previous Learning Experiences	Teacher describes how her own previous learning experiences shape her teaching delivery	<i>Well, I guess, you don’t need to see it anywhere because this [teaching grammar rules] is something that you (pause) simply know, my teachers did in old times, I and other teachers are doing nowadays, and future teachers <u>will continue</u> to do.</i>
Teacher’s Beliefs about L2 Learning	Teacher describes how her own beliefs about L2 Learning shape her teaching delivery	<i>Well, personally, I believe that it’s <u>hard</u> to learn English just by speaking it. I mean (pause), look at my students, where on the earth will they find the English words, and grammar structures to link these words if I don’t teach this stuff in my classes?</i>

Teacher's Beliefs about L2 Teaching	Teacher describes how her own beliefs about L2 Teaching shape her teaching delivery	<i>They [the authorities] are trying to change things but teaching is still about (pause) TEACHING. You know, classes can be student-centred, students can be more active, but if there is not a teacher in the class to prepare staff for students, to tell them "do this and do that", all what students will do is <u>have fun</u>, you know.</i>
Teacher's Values	Teacher describes how her own values shape her teaching delivery	<i>Students spend most of their time with us [teachers]. This apart, their parents often lack a proper education as they themselves have been raised by not-so-much educated parents. So, in short, it is <u>my responsibility</u> as a teacher to role model positive behaviours. You know, things like, how neat I wear, how politely I speak, whether I chew gum or not in my class, and (pause) so many things like these that I carefully consider when I am in the classroom.</i>
Knowledge of English	Teacher describes how her knowledge of English (grammar/vocabulary/pronunciation, writing conventions, speaking habits) shapes her teaching delivery	<i>I am aware that my pronunciation is not very, very British (laughter). I mean is a bit more like international English pronunciation (laughter). This is not bad, I guess. However, whenever I can, I <u>get my students</u> to listen to real, authentic British or American accent, you know recordings or songs, so that they become used to it to, not only to my way of speaking.</i>
In-Service Teacher Training	Teacher describes how in-service teacher training shapes her teaching	<i>It was definitely something that I would love to do again [attending the British Council CLT workshop]. You</i>

	delivery	<i>know, it was not (pause) how can I put it (pause) what I was expecting because it was (pause) more about the perfect students, and perfect class, assuming that students have already a good knowledge of English, are willing to use it in the class, etc. and etc. It was still a <u>good experience</u>, though. Because I learned many new things, like that stuff on total body language, or physical language, whatever it is called, I liked it and I <u>do use</u> some of this stuff in my class, although not always.</i>
Knowledge of the School	Teacher describes how knowledge of the school where she works can shape her teaching delivery	<i>Well, even if I want, I kind of (pause) cannot do that. You know, my students attend other classes, like maths, geography, physics classes and so (pause), my teaching, has to be (pause) <u>similar</u> to the way other teachers delivery. I mean, I cannot ask my students to work in their pairs if they never do this activity in the other classes.</i>
Knowledge of the Community	Teacher describes how knowledge of the school community shapes her teaching delivery	<i>I know most of them cannot afford to pay cable tv and this means not many possibilities to hear English outside of the school. That's why, I have asked the headmaster if I could have a video-recorder and a tv in my class so that students can watch an English movie without the subtitles. Obviously not every class, but playing the video from time to time would be a good addition.</i>

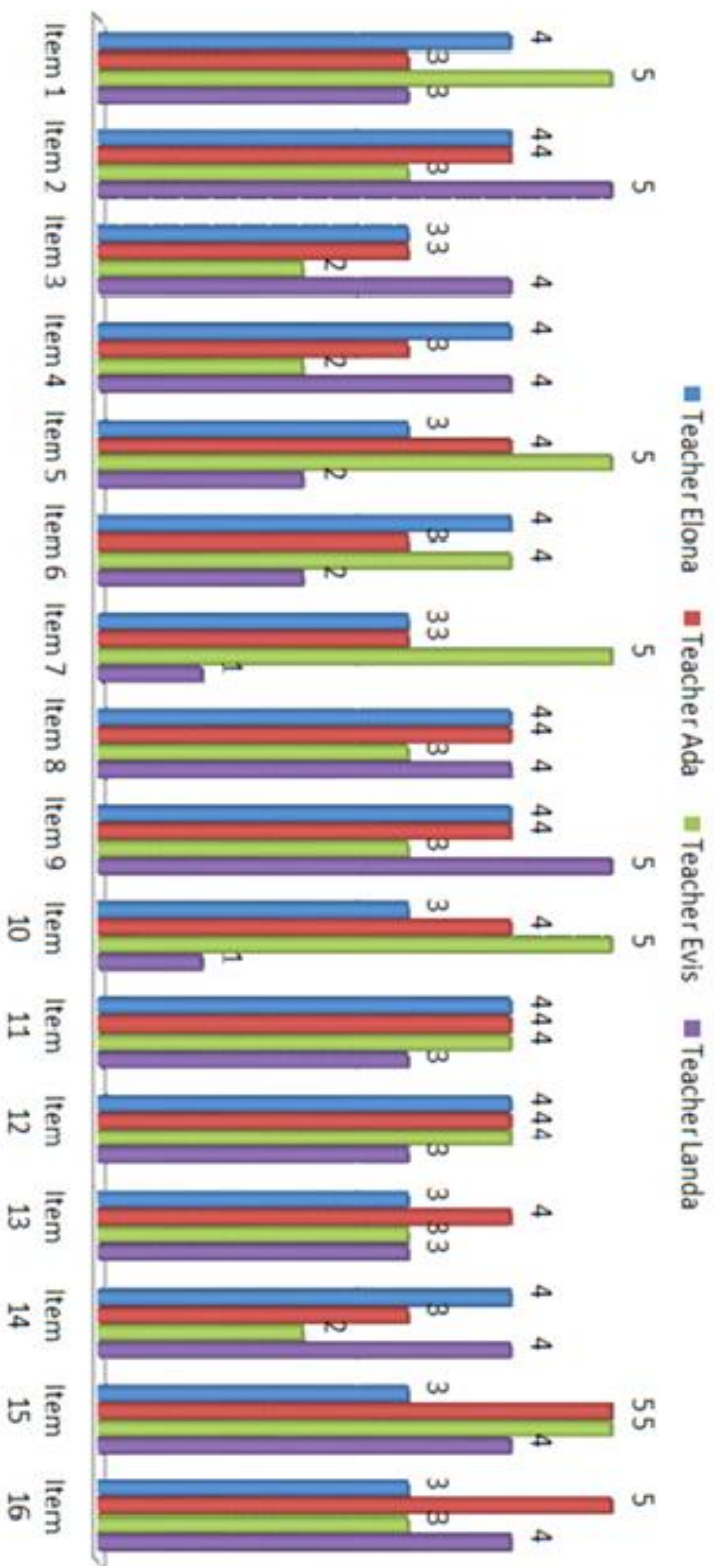
Teacher's Undergraduate Education	<p>Teacher describes how her undergraduate education programme has shaped her teaching delivery</p>	<p><i>I still remember this very-well prepared professor of mine, one of the best professors in Albania in that time, who once said that like new teachers we would have many occasions where students would ask L1/L2 translations for many words. Of course, he said, "nobody knows all the words in English, so to give yourself time, never give on-the-spot translation, even if you know the word in English. Instead, you have to say "I will give you the translation next time". By so doing, you give yourself time and do not <u>lose face</u> in front of your students". That was a very good piece of advice that I still, after thirty years, follow.</i></p>
Knowledge of Curriculum	<p>Teacher describes how her knowledge of the national curriculum can shape her teaching delivery</p>	<p><i>Many things are chaining nowadays. Like (pause) we are now required to shift the focus towards the students, and we [teachers] are encouraged to teach higher-level high skills. Anyway, frankly, I cannot really see how I can do that in my classes. There is not a good or a bad teaching model provided, all what we have been asked to do is to write new lesson plans with minimal objectives, for poor performing students, and maximal objectives, for better performing students. Yet, I am a bit unsure as to where critical thinking fits here. If I have to achieve these objectives, I have to teach my students knowledge related to these objectives, say the form and the use of conditional III, where does critical thinking exactly fit here?</i></p>

Knowledge of Student-centred approaches	Teacher describes how her knowledge of student-centred methodology shape her teaching practices	<i>I guess I am a bit old-fashion (laughter), and this is fine. I cannot see any bad things with the old way of teaching. Want it or not, teaching is always learner-centred. You (pause) teach things for your students, you (pause) give them written exercise to reinforce their knowledge, you make them drill and practise the language. So, it's <u>them, them, and them</u>. You make so many things for them, and, indeed, not so many things, but everything in a classroom is made for them. How can a teacher make the class more student-centred?</i>
Headmaster Expectations	Teacher describes how her headmaster expectations shape her teaching practices.	<i>If the headmaster passes by the classroom you are teaching in and he hears a lot of noise, he will <u>frown upon</u>.</i>
School Facilities	Teacher describes how school facilities (or lack of them) shape her teaching practices.	<i>Every time I prepare a photocopied test for my students I have to ask each of them to give 100 leke for photocopying, cause, there is <u>not</u> a machine in our school and, so (pause), I am forced to prepare the test and take it to a photocopy shop. I pay with my own money, so students have to give me the money back. I really <u>hate</u> this, but (pause) there is little I can do since there is not a photocopy machine in our school.</i>
Knowledge of L1 Grammar	Teacher describes how the knowledge of L1 grammar can shape the teaching practices.	<i>It's very straight forward actually. Like, if you know that present conditional is used for unreal situations in your own language, then</i>

		<p><i>you can easy draw your students attention to this fact by simply asking in Albanian “If you were your mother, what would you do differently”, then ask them something like “why do you use past tense in this sentence, what do we want to show?”, and then you simply draw a parallelism between the use of unreal present conditional in Albanian and English. It (pause) <u>does work</u>, and it does save you a lot of time, since students find it difficult to follow the same reasoning in English, since they are not fast thinkers in this language.</i></p>
<p>L2 Social/Cultural Properties</p>	<p>Teacher describes how her understanding of L2 social/cultural values shape her teaching practices.</p>	<p><i>This is very important. Take the example of Lady Gaga (laughter). She is an icon for teenagers all around the world, and my students are excited when I ask them to listen to one of her songs in our classes. Anyway (pause), although it is good for them, her songs are complicated to understand, even for me. And it is not a matter of understanding what she says, you know, nowadays, it’s easy to find the words of a song, it’s enough just to google the title of the song. It’s more a matter of what stays <u>behind words</u>. (pause) Like “marry the night”. I cannot really see why would someone marry the night, to turn evil probably?! So, I do not teach these songs because I do not know what they mean myself. I simply, time after time, ask my students to listen to one of her songs in the class, and this is not teaching, of course.</i></p>

Heuristic decisions	<p>1) Teacher is not able to describe in words or does not know why she took a particular decision.</p> <p>2) Teacher tries to justify her decision by talking in general (i.e. describing the cases when a certain decision can be made), rather than describing why she made that particular decision in that particular case.</p> <p>3) Teacher, on different days and occasions, gives different explanations to justify the same teaching behaviour.</p> <p>4) Teacher's decisions based on unimportant things.</p>	<p>(Hesitation) <i>I guess there are several reasons why I do that, like: students expect me to give them homework (pause) I am sure some home practice is good for them (pause) parents want teachers to give homework to their kids (pause) there are so many exercises in the textbooks and there is not enough time to cover all of them during the class time. However, even if there were fewer exercises, I would still give students homework, because <u>homework is homework</u>.</i></p> <p><i>In all honesty, there are a lot of days where I feel that way about my work too! I think pretty trivial stuff - the way the book looks (pause), its weight and size, whether I like the quality of paper – all these have an impact on the way I feel and the choices I make in my class</i></p>
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Questionnaire Findings



LEGEND:

1=Not at all important; 2=Not very important; 3=Fairly important; 4=Very important; 5=Extremely important

Appendix 28 (Page 1)

Examples of the pages Miss Elona used in one of her classes (Blockbuster 2)



Appendix 28 (Page 2)

Examples of the pages Miss Elona used in one of her classes (Blockbuster 2)



Appendix 29 (Page 1)

Examples of the pages Miss Ada used in one of her classes (Access 3)



Appendix 29 (Page 2)

Examples of the pages Miss Ada used in one of her classes (Access 3)



Appendix 30 (Page 1)

Examples of the pages Miss Evis used in one of her classes (Opportunities Pre-Intermediate)



Appendix 30 (Page 2)

Examples of the pages Miss Evis used in one of her classes (Opportunities Pre-Intermediate)



Appendix 31 (Page 1)

Examples of the pages Miss Landa used in one of her classes (Access 3)



Appendix 31 (Page 2)

Examples of the pages Miss Landa used in one of her classes (Access 3)



Appendix 32 - Lesson Plan accompanying one of the classes observed (i.e. Miss Landa's classroom observation Nr.3. See Appendix 31 for the textbook pages used during this class)

Class/Individual Profile

This is a class with a slightly mixed level. Klara, Entela, and Artan are the strongest and can dominate. They all prefer grammar-based exercises, but they do understand the need to work on all areas. Because the students have been together for a long period of time, they have already established a good rapport with each other.

Timetable Fit

Students already know the form and the use of present perfect with yet and since. During this lesson, they will reinforce their knowledge and will learn how and when to use "has been" and "has gone" in English.

Main Aims and Objectives

- to revise the use of present perfect with "yet" and "since"
- to present the differences between "has been" and "has gone"
- to learn how to write an informal email

Subsidiary Aims and Objectives

- to practise reading
- to practise listening
- to practise speaking

Personal aims

- to teach more communicatively

Assumptions

Students should be familiar with the use of present perfect
Not all students might be familiar with the concept of emails
Some of the words in the reading text might be new to them

Anticipated Problems and Solutions

Not all students might be familiar with the concept of emails	Tell them what email is beforehand
Some of the words in the reading text might be new to them	Translate the new words beforehand
Some students might not understand grammar explanations in English	Repeat the concept in Albanian

Timing	Interaction	Stage and Procedure	Rationale
5	Whole class	Feedback Teacher and students check together the homework (Exercise 5 pp 68)	To reinforce the differences between simple past and present perfect
	Whole class	Artan will be writing the homework on the blackboard. Correction as a class	To assess and mark the students' performance
5	Whole class	Feedback Teacher and students check together the homework (Exercise 6 pp 68)	To reinforce the use of "would you like" and "how about" To assess students' knowledge and use of vocabulary
2	Whole class	Lead in Teacher asks students whether they have/use emails or not and for how long	To generate interest
5	Individual Pair work Whole class	Lead in Students skim the email and answer in their pairs the questions Who is sending it? Who to? Where is Mike? (Exercise Nr. 1 Pp. 69) Feedback as a class	To prepare students for reading To practise speaking To provide feedback
5	Individual Whole class	Language presentation Students read "Learning to learn", and this is followed by a class discussion on informal styles	To present the language used in informal emails To check students' understanding To practise speaking
5	Individual	Controlled practice Students complete exercise Nr. 2 pp.	To provide further practice for students

		69.	
3	Individual	<p>Listening</p> <p>Students listen to the recording and check their answers</p>	<p>To practise listening</p> <p>To provide feedback</p>
5-7	<p>Individual</p> <p>Pair work</p>	<p>Vocabulary</p> <p>Students check the new words in the word list, and writes new words in their copybook</p> <p>In their pairs, students use three sentences to describe their last holiday</p>	<p>To extend their vocabulary</p> <p>To practise freer speaking</p>
3	<p>Whole class</p> <p>Individual</p>	<p>Language presentation</p> <p>Students and teacher read the examples provided in the textbook and talk about the difference between the two forms</p> <p>Students write down the rule</p>	To present the difference in the use of “has gone” and “has been”
5	Individual	Students complete Exercise 4 pp. 69	To check students’ understanding
	Homework	<p>Writing</p> <p>Students complete exercise 5.5 at home</p>	To practise writing

Appendix 33 – The transcript of one of the lessons observed

Miss Landa's classroom observation Nr. 3. (See Appendix 31 for the textbook pages used during this class)

- MISS LANDA: Morning everyone!
 Students: Morning Miss!
 MISS LANDA: Say hello to Mr. Kristjan too!
 Students: Hello Mr. Kristjan!
 MISS LANDA: Today Mr. Kristjan will be with us, like the other two days. ((Continues in Albanian)) Mr. Kristjan will be sitting at the back of the class and will take notes. As already said, he is not here to see how I teach or how well you prepare for the lesson, he is here to study how English language can be best learned. So, let's behave ourselves while he does his job. Well (pause) (laughter), let's say I want you to behave ... (Laughter)
 MISS LANDA: Ok, let's start! (Pause) Anybody missing today? GN
 ((No reply))
 MISS LANDA: Hmm, let's see ((Scanning the students)). Yes, it seems like everybody is here. ((Teacher sits down in her desk and writes something down for app. 1 minute))
 MISS LANDA: Ok, let's start then. Any questions? GN
 ((No reply))
 MISS LANDA: Anybody is not prepared for today's lesson because he was sick, or anything? GN
 ((No reply))
 MISS LANDA: Great! I like it when you are very properly prepared for the lesson. (Pause) Anything interesting you want to share with me before we start? (Pause) Nothing? No news, no stories, nothing? (Pause) Ok, let's talk shortly about your evening last night, what did you watch and did you enjoy it or not? GN
 ((Several students raise their hands))
 MISS LANDA: Yes, Elda, how did you spend your evening yesterday? GN
 Elda: I spend my evening yesterday watching tv (Pause) I watched Zhade.
 MISS LANDA: Oh, how interesting! What happened in the show yesterday, I did not have time to watch it.
 Elda: Zhade meets [meets] Kemal again and (pause) in a shop meet each other and (interruption)
 MISS LANDA: Was Zhade alone or with Hasan? GN
 Elda: alone, and, and (pause) she did not tell Hasan (Laughter)
 MISS LANDA: Really? Klara, what happened next? GN
 Klara: He (hesitation) ask (interruption)
 MISS LANDA: ask or asked? What tense and why? PA
 Klara: asked, simple past, and (pause) asked her to come with he [him] in his house
 MISS LANDA: He invited her to his house? Did she accept? GN
 Klara: Yes (Interruption)
 Students: ((Three or four students simultaneously)) No, no
 Klara: Yes, she did not say yes, but (interruption again) (language illegible)
 ((Some students speak in Albanian))
 MISS LANDA: Hello?! I asked you to behave, remember? So, let Klara finish her sentence. CLASS MANAGEMEN
 Klara: She did not say say yes, but (pause) her eyes say yes
 MISS LANDA: Hehe, interesting! Her eyes said yes?! I like it, the eyes also talk, I agree with Klara. (Pause) We will see what happens tonight, alright? We see if Klara is right. GN

See legend
pp. 311

STAGE I

3 MINUT

CLASS

MANAGEMEN

CLT

SPEAKING

APP. 1'

L2 1'

L1 APP. 1

(T-SS) APP. 2'

STAGE II 4 MINUTES

CLT SPEAKING / LISTENING / COMBINATION APP. 3:40'

FORM NON-CLT SPEAKING & LISTENING 20"

L2 APP. 4'

(T-SS) APP. 4'

Good (Pause) Let's start now ((Teacher looks at the lesson plan)) Artan, can you write the homework on the black board?

Student: Me or Artan Malaj? GN

MISS LANDA: Oh, yes. Sorry, forgot there are two Artans here. Yes, you, please.

((Student takes his homework and goes to the black board))

MISS LANDA: Artan, let me know when you are ready. (Pause) Ok, while Artan writes the homework, let's talk about emails. How many of you have an email already? GN
 ((Many students raise their hands))

MISS LANDA: Good! More than ten students have emails (Pause) Let's see who has had the email for the longest time? Adriana, for how long have you had the email? GN

Adriana: For two years.

MISS LANDA: Yes, two years, give me full answer. PQ

Adriana: I have the email for two years. PQ

MISS LANDA: ((Using her fingers to indicate that there is a missing word)) I had the ((interruption))

Adriana: have had for five years PQ

MISS LANDA: Right! I have had for five years. Who beats Adriana? GN
 ((Some students raise their hands))

MISS LANDA: Yes, Andi, for how long? GN

Andi: I have had an email for four years.

MISS LANDA: Well done, Andi! Full sentence and four years! More than four years? GN
 ((One student raises her hand))

MISS LANDA: Yes, Erinda, tell me. GN

Erinda: I have had an email for more than four years, five years. → GN

MISS LANDA: Anybody beats Erinda? More than five years? (Pause) Then, Erinda is the winner, she has had the email for five years. Since when has she had the email? PQ
 ((Three students raise their hands))

MISS LANDA: Yes, Bruno, can you give me the answer?

Bruno: Since five years.

MISS LANDA: Do we say "since five years" or "for five years"? PQ

Students: (Four or five shouting the answer simultaneously) for five years.

MISS LANDA: Yes, for five years. Let's see together why. Artan, are you ready?

Artan: Yes.

MISS LANDA: Then, what is the rule, when do we use for and since in English? PQ

Artan: We use for and since with present perfect in English.

MISS LANDA: Yes, that's right. But (pause) when do we use for and when do we use since for present perfect. What's the difference between them? ((Interruption)) PQ

Artan: Yes, yes, I know. For for numbers and since for (pause) number too.

MISS LANDA: Who can say the rule more accurately? (Pause) Yes, Elda! GN

Elda: We use for for period of times, and since for beginning of times.

MISS LANDA: Very well, for for period [periods] of times, and since for beginning of an action. Artan, can you please repeat the rule? PQ

Artan: For for beginning (pause) no, no, period of time, and since for beginning of (hesitation)

MISS LANDA: action.

Artan: Yes, yes, beginning of action.

MISS LANDA: Good. Let's see the exercise together. For the first sentence, Artan has used "since", can you read it aloud? PQ

Artan: They have been on holiday since last Monday.

MISS LANDA: Is he right? PQ

☒ FORM (NON-CUT SPEAKING/READING/WITING/CLISTENING/PRONOUNCATION) MEANING/CUT-SPEAKING/CLISTENING/COMBINATION 2'
 7:30
 NON-CUT READING APP 2' / NON-CUT SPEAKING & LISTENING APP 5'
 NON-CUT WRITING APP 1'
 STAGE IV 11 MINUTES
 L1 APPROXIMATELY 1 MINUTE
 L2 APP 10 MINUTES
 (T-S) 10
 (S) 30

Students: ((Many students simultaneously)) Yes.
 Teacher: Yes, because (pause) what we have here: period of time or beginning of time? *pa*
 Students: Beginning of time.
 MISS LANDA: Right! Julia can you read the second sentence please? *pa*
 Julia: She has been in Brasil for two years.
 MISS LANDA: Been, long /i/, short /i/ is bin, "kosh" in Albanian. (pause) All right (pause), is Artan right or wrong here? *pa*
 Julia: Right, because for two years is period of time.
 MISS LANDA: Excellent! The next sentence, Klara, go ahead, please.
 Klara: We visited Spain two years ago not two years last. It's wrong.
 MISS LANDA: Wrong, you are right! Artan, can you correct it please? Klara, why is this sentence wrong? *pa*
 Klara: [Hesitation] Two years ago [hesitation] period of time.
 MISS LANDA: Well, two years ago, a definite moment in the past, and we use "ago", alright? Write the rule in your copybooks!
 ((Teacher repeats the rule in English and in Albanian and the students write the rule down in their notebooks))
 MISS LANDA: Ok! Let's go ahead with the next sentence. Artan, can you read it yourself out aloud, and tell me whether it is right or wrong, and why? *pa*
 Artan: She hasn't [pause] reached (interruption)
 MISS LANDA: /ri:tft/ (corrects the pronunciation of "reached")
 Artan: reached New York yet.
 MISS LANDA: Very well, why yet? *pa*
 Artan: Negative sentence.
 MISS LANDA: It is a negative sentence, you are right! We use yet in negative sentences. Very well, Artan!
 MISS LANDA: Jorgji, in the next sentence, Artan has used yet, is he right or wrong? *pa*
 Jorgji: ((Reads the sentence)) Jack isn't here. It is a negative (pause) We use "yet" in negative sentences. So, He's yet left (interruption)
 ((Many students raise their hands to correct the sentence))
 MISS LANDA: Is it a negative sentence?! (Pause) The sentence is "He's left", affirmative or negative? *pa*
 ((Many students raise their hands))
 Jorgji: Ok, Just, sorry (pause) sentence is affirmative.
 MISS LANDA: Be careful Jorgji and Artan! Two sentences in here, and the second sentence is affirmative, so yet. Correct the mistake Artan! (Pause) Ok, Julia, the next sentence (interruption)
 Student: (One student) She read one sentence. *GN*
 MISS LANDA: She did? You are right! Ok, not Julia but (pause) Berti, I haven't asked you, right? *GN*
 Berti: No, teacher.
 MISS LANDA: Read the next sentence please.
 Berit: ((Reads the sentence Artan has written on the blackboard)). We have already booked our tickets ((wrong pronunciation of tickets which is not corrected by Miss Landa)) I think it is correct.
 MISS LANDA: Why "already" Berti? *pa*
 Berti: (Hesitation) Eee
 MISS LANDA: What tense is it? (Pause) Past or present perfect? *pa*
 Students: ((three or four at the same time)) present perfect.
 MISS LANDA: Right, what do we use with present perfect Berti, already or ago? *pa*
 Berti: [Hesitation] ((looks at the sentence)) present perfect

MISS LANDA: Yes, present perfect. With what tense we use ago? Present perfect or simple past? *pa*
 Berti: Simple past
 MISS LANDA: Yes, so, already for simple present and ago for past tense, OK, Berti, be careful next time, again, present perfect ago and past tense already. (Pause) I mean already for present perfect and ago for past tense. (Pause) Ok, who has not read a sentence? *GN*
 ((many students raise their hands))
 MISS LANDA: Artemisa, go ahead.
 Artemisa: ((Reads the sentence Artan has written on the blackboard)) We left for Mexico last Monday. Answer is right.
 MISS LANDA: Yes, very appropriate use of last here. (Pause) And the last sentence (pause). Ok, Artan, read it yourself, again!
 Artan: She went swimming yesterday because is not a negative sentence so no yet.
 MISS LANDA: Ok, but, can you use yet in this sentence? I mean (pause) even if it was negative, in what tense is the verb in this sentence? *pa*
 Artan: [Hesitation] ((looks at the sentence)) Simple past.
 Teacher: Yes, can we use yet in the simple past? *pa*
 Students: ((Many students simultaneously)) No *pa*
 MISS LANDA: Right! We use yet with present perfect only, right? (Pause) Ok, Artan, you did a good job. You only had two mistakes in the exercise, and you do know when to use the simple past and when to use the past in English. I will give you an 8 for today. If you learn the rules for "yet" and "already", and have some more practice at home, you can easily get a 9 or a 10 next time. You can sit down now. *GN*

MISS LANDA: Ok, let's see the answers for the next exercise now, exercise 6. Aldo, can you read what you have for B? *GN*
 Aldo: I'd like to go swimming.
 MISS LANDA: Well done! I'd like to go swimming. Elda, the next sentence, please!
 Elda: Would you like to going to the cinema?
 MISS LANDA: To going to the cinema? *pa*
 Elda: To go to the cinema.
 MISS LANDA: Yes, but here we have going (pause) Can we use would like here? (pause) What can we use before going? *pa*
 ((No student raises the hand))
 MISS LANDA: Any answer? (pause) Klara
 Klara: (Hesitation) Would you like to go going to the cinema?
 MISS LANDA: No, no! The right answer is "how about". So, How about going to the cinema? Write it down please, we use -ing after how about. *pa*
 ((The students write the rule in their note books))
 MISS LANDA: Ok, let's continue. The next sentence, Ilir!
 Ilir: Thanks, but I don't want (interruption)
 Students: ((Two or three students simultaneously)) can't, can't
 MISS LANDA: Well, both are correct, don't want and can't (pause) Ilir is right if he has used don't want. Anybody has used anything else here? *GN*
 ((No student answers))
 MISS LANDA: Well done, so either don't or can't in this sentence. Alma, number 4, please!
 Alma: I have travelled abroad.
 MISS LANDA: Correct! The last one, Nasi?
 Nasi: That is great.
 MISS LANDA: Can we use would be great here? *pa*
 Nasi: (Hesitation) No

STAGE IV - CONTINUOUS -
 STAGE V 4 MINUTES
 HEARING 40"
 SPEAKING / LISTENING / COMBIN
 55' 20"
 5' 20"
 FOCUS ON FORM APP 3' 20"
 NON-CLT SPEAKING & LISTENING 2'
 NON-CLT WRITING 40"
 NON-CLT READING 40"

MISS LANDA: Yes, yes, would be is also correct. It's just a more polite way of saying the same thing. **STAGE V**
Ok (pause) any question for this exercise?
((No questions))

STAGE VI
CLASS MANAGEMENT
L2 10" Lr 20"
MISS LANDA: Ok, now (pause) I would like you to give your homework copybook to Albi because I am going to correct the writing you did at home. Albi, please collect the homework copy books please. ((The teacher repeats the same thing in Albanian)) ((Albi collects the note books and places them on teacher's desk)) **6N**

MISS LANDA: Ok, let's talk again about emails now. If you turn the page, there is an email on this page. As you see, there are some gaps here, and what I want you to do is read the email and complete the gaps with the words given in exercise 2. So, the weather is great, translate it in Albanian please

Students: ((Many students simultaneously translate the phrase into Albanian)) **PA**

MISS LANDA: I've been here

((Many students simultaneously translate the phrase into Albanian)) **PA**

Students: So far I've met lots of

((Many students simultaneously translate the phrase into Albanian)) **PA**

MISS LANDA: Take care

Students: ((Many students simultaneously translate the phrase into Albanian)) **PA**

MISS LANDA: Greeting from

Students: ((Many students simultaneously translate the phrase into Albanian)) **PA**

MISS LANDA: See you in

Students: ((Many students simultaneously translate the phrase into Albanian)) **PA**

MISS LANDA: Alright. So, can you complete the exercise now?

((Students work on their own and the teacher sits in her desk and starts checking students' homework - the notebooks collected a while ago))

((Students start talking to each other in Albanian))

MISS LANDA: So, you are done, right? Ok, let's see the exercise together. Who reads the first sentence? (Pause) Anri, read it please!

Anri: Hi Mike. See you in California.

MISS LANDA: Is Anri right? Who translates this sentence? **6N**

((Some students raise their hands))

MISS LANDA: Yes, Clara.

Clara: ((Translates the sentence in Albanian)) **PA**

MISS LANDA: ((In Albanian)) Does this sentence sound write? (Pause) When do we say see you, at the beginning or at the end of the letter in Albanian?

Students: ((Many students simultaneously give the answer in Albanian)) At the end.

MISS LANDA: So, Anri, what can you use here? **6N**

Anri: (Hesitation) I've been here

MISS LANDA: Any other answer? **PA**

((Few students raise their hands))

MISS LANDA: Berti, what have you used? **6N**

Berti: Greeting from California.

MISS LANDA: Well done, Berti! Why not I've been here? **PA**

Berti: Because I've been here is number two.


MISS LANDA: Yes, but why in number two and not here? **PA**

((Students look confused))

MISS LANDA: ((In Albanian)) Do we say I have been in California or I have been California?

Students: ((Many simultaneously in Albanian)) been in California

	STAGE VII	IN MINUTES	
<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> FORM/NON-CLT SPEAKING/LISTENING/WRITING/READING/PRONUNCIATION	9'30"	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/> MEANING/CLT SPEAKING/LISTENING/COMPARISON	1'30"
NON-CLT READING APP 2'	NON CLT SPEAKING/LISTENING/PRONUNCIATION 5'30"	L2 APP 5'	L1 APP 6'
NON-CLT WRITING APP 2'			

MISS LANDA: ((In Albanian)) The same thing in English ((In English)) So, I've been California is wrong, right? (Pause) Ok, Berti did number two, so (pause) who continues with number three (pause) Anisa? 

Anisa: The weather is great so I spent most morning sunbathing.

MISS LANDA: Excellent! Translate it please!

((Students translate the phrase into Albanian))

MISS LANDA: So, sunbathing in Albanian is *banjo dielli*. Write it in your vocabulary copybook, please.

((The teacher writes the spelling, the pronunciation, and the translation of the word on the blackboard. Students open the copybook and write the translation of the new word in their notebooks)).

MISS LANDA: Any other new word here? 60

Students: ((Many students simultaneously)) No.

MISS LANDA: Ok, Clara, the next sentence, please.

Klara: Unfortunately, got sunburnt two days ago. Nothing here.

MISS LANDA: Right, no gaps in this sentence. (Pause) What is sunburnt in Albanian? ((Klara translates the word into Albanian))

MISS LANDA: Well done. So ((The teacher writes on the blackboard *sunburn* /'sʌn.bɜ:n/ *diegje dielli*, i.e. the spelling, the pronunciation, and the translation of the word)). Please, write this word [in your notebooks] too.

((Students open their vocabulary copy books and write))

MISS LANDA: Klara, why sunburnt and not sunburn in this sentence? 10

Klara: Because sunburnt is the simple past of sunburn.

MISS LANDA: Excellent! Regular or irregular? 10

Klara: (Pause) Irregular.

MISS LANDA: Yes, sunburn – sunburnt – sunburnt. Elton, the next sentence.

Elton: Is it (interruption)

MISS LANDA: It is

Elton: It is getting better but I still can't go to the beach (Interruption)

MISS LANDA: cannot /'kænt/ or cannot /'kænæt/? 10

Students: ((Many students simultaneously)) /'kænɒt/.

MISS LANDA: Yes, cannot. And Elton, good, better, what is the superlative? 16

Elton: Best.

MISS LANDA: Right. Good, better, best. (Pause) Elida, the next sentence!

Elida: I haven't bought (Interruption)

MISS LANDA: bought /bɒt/ not bought /bɔʊght/

Elida: bought any souvenirs (Interruption)

MISS LANDA: /su·və'niər/ (corrects Elida's pronunciation of the word souvenir)

Elida: /su'vənər/ (Interruption)

MISS LANDA: No, no, repeat after me souvenir, souvenir, souvenir
((Elida repeats after the teacher))

MISS LANDA: All of us together souvenir, souvenir, souvenir

Students: ((All student simultaneously)) Souvenir, souvenir, souvenir

MISS LANDA: Ok, Elida, go ahead.

Elida: yet but there plenty (Interruption)

MISS LANDA: plenty /'plen·ti/

Elida: plenty of time for that.

MISS LANDA: Ok, Redi, the next one.

Redi: I have taken a lot of pictures to (Interruption)

MISS LANDA: Ok Redi, that's enough. Aldo, continue the sentence!

((The student does not seem to know which sentences to read. He seems to be asking help from his desk friend))

class management
MISS LANDA: Aldo, very, very bad! If you don't pay attention to the lesson, how will you ever learn the language? (Pause) (In Albanian) If I catch you doing the same thing again, you are going to be in real troubles young man! (Pause) (Continues in English) Redi, continue the sentence, please!

Redi: I have taken a lot of pictures to show you when I get back.

MISS LANDA: What tense is have taken? *pa*

Redi: Simple present perfect.

MISS LANDA: Simple present perfect? *pa*

Redi: Present perfect.

MISS LANDA: Right, there is not such a thing as simple present perfect. If it is perfect, it is not simple, the verb has two parts have and past participle (Pause) Ok, last two sentences, Nasi.

Nasi: See you in a week. (Hesitation) Read next (Interruption)

MISS LANDA: Yes, yes, they are very short, both of them Nasi. *GN*

Nasi: Take care. Janet.

MISS LANDA: Good. What can we say instead of take care? *pa*

Nasi: (Hesitation) Good bye.

MISS LANDA: Yet, that is correct too (Pause) The next thing we are doing is having a look at the use of have been and have gone. How do we translate them in Albanian? *pa*

Students: ((Many students simultaneously translate the words))

MISS LANDA: ((In English)) What tense are both of them? *pa*

Students: ((Many students simultaneously)) Present perfect

MISS LANDA: Very well. When do we use present perfect in English?

Students: ((Many students simultaneously)) For actions in the past.

MISS LANDA: Do we know when the action happened? *pa*

Students: ((Many students simultaneously)) No.

MISS LANDA: If we know the precise time in the past, what do we use? *pa*

Students: ((Many students simultaneously)) Simple past.

MISS LANDA: Excellent! Very well done, excellent! (Pause). Now, the difference between have been and have gone is ((The teacher writes the following two sentences on the black board He has gone to Tirana and He has been to Tirana)) Look at this two sentences. In the first one, I have used gone because the person is still in Tirana (Pause) So, where is he now in Vlore or in Tirana? *pa*

Students: ((Many students simultaneously translate the words)) Tirana

MISS LANDA: Yes, Tirana. So, when the person has not turned back from the place he or she has visited we use "have or has gone". ((The teacher repeats the same rule in Albanian)) Write the rule in your copybook

((Students write the rule in their copybooks))

MISS LANDA: In the second sentence, I have used been because I have visited the place, and now I am back in Vlore. (Pause) So, when the person went there recently but is back in Vlora now we use "has been" ((The teacher repeats the same rule in Albanian)) Write the rule in your copybook

((Students write the rule in their copybooks))

MISS LANDA: Is it clear, any questions? *GN*

Students: ((Many students simultaneously)) No

MISS LANDA: Ok, let's put this rule in practice by completing exercise number four. Use either has been or has gone to fill in the missing words.

((Teacher sits in her chair and allows students some time to complete the exercise))

((Two minutes later the bell rings))

MISS LANDA: Ok, so (pause) no time to finish it here. Can you please finish it at home, and we check it on Wednesday. Time for the recess now!

STAGE VIII 7 MINUTES

☒ FORM / NON-CLT SPEAKING/LISTENING/WRITING/READING 6'30"

☒ MEANING / SPEAKING/LISTENING/COMBINATION 30"

L2 2' L1 2'

(T-ss) 3'20 (S) 3'40

LEGEND



PRIMARY FOCUS



SECONDARY FOCUS

GN

GENUINE QUESTIONS (i.e. "questions to which teachers/students do not know the answers" Richards & Nunan, 1990:294).

PQ

PSEUDO QUESTIONS (i.e. "types of questions asked to make students display knowledge" Richards & Nunan, 1990:294).

CLT

COMMUNICATIVE FOCUS (i.e. genuine questions/activities that involve students in interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning)

NON-CLT

NON COMMUNICATIVE FOCUS (i.e. pseudo questions/activities that do not measure in any way the degree into which a student seeks to interpret and make sense of a text by matching it against a template of real world knowledge.)

Note1: Pseudonyms are used throughout the thesis.

Note2: In this study, the term "pseudo questions" – first used by Richards and Nunan (1990) – was used to mean display questions.

HSS LAND CLASSIFICATION N.B.3 / 16th January /
LEGEND ☐ PRIMARY FOCUS ☒ SECONDARY FOCUS

? TEXTBOOK / TEACHER BOOK INSTRUCTIONS
NOT CLEAR REGARDING THE INSTRUCTIONS

314

Appendix 35 – The transcript of one of the post-observation interviews (i.e. accompanying Miss Landa’s classroom observation Nr. 3. See Appendix 31 for the textbook pages used during this class)

Note: Interview taking class in the teachers’ room right after the observation.

- Researcher: So (pause) so much going on in the classroom and you were so active all the time. I kind of feel guilty (laughter) [I] am taking away your precious break (interruption)
- MISS LANDA: Oh, don’t you worry, dear! I am used to it (laughter) I am a teacher after all (laughter)
- Researcher: (Hesitation) Seriously, if you feel like you need a break, we can do this tomorrow (pause) there is no rush
- MISS LANDA: Let’s do it while my memory is still fresh (pause) and (pause) if I see that I need a break (pause) I am going to tell you
- Researcher: Thanks a lot! (Pause) So (pause) A very interesting way of starting off the lesson by talking about (pause) Zhade and Qemal (interruption)
- MISS LANDA: Kemal, Zhade and Kemal are two characters from a very popular soap opera. It seems like everybody talks about them (pause) nice plot and the actors are good
- Researcher: And did you ask your students because you really wanted to know what happened (pause) I mean, you said you couldn’t watch it yesterday or [you] did not have time to watch the show so (interruption)
- MISS LANDA: Oh no, no (laughter)! Of course I watched my favourite show (laughter). I always find time for it (laughter) Well (pause) I wanted to engage students in some small talk, and (pause) usually they come up with something interesting they heard or a difficult test or anything like this, but today it was like nothing, nothing came to their mind. So, I guess I came up with Zhade because I know they love talking about it
- Researcher: Zhade is not mentioned in your lesson plan and (pause) I am really curious (pause) did you think of Zhade while you were planning, while you were looking for ideas in the classroom, what actually happened?
- MISS LANDA: (Laughter) I always think of Zhade, it’s my favourite character! (Laughter) (pause) Kidding (pause) So, when did I think? (pause) Most likely not before, because making small talk is not something that requires planning (pause) I mean it’s not teaching grammar or writing, right? (Pause) most likely it was an idea that must have crossed my mind at that precise moment, I mean while teaching and seeing that the students were not (pause) did not have anything interesting to say
- Researcher: Do you often make small talks with your students?
- MISS LANDA: Yes, pretty much during every single class, I would say
- Researcher: So (pause) it seems like you don’t plan them but you still find some time during the class to make some small talk with your students, right?
- MISS LANDA: Exactly! (Pause) I don’t think you have to plan small talks (pause) Thinking about it, I am not sure there is an appropriate category for small talk in the lesson plan format (laughter) Anyway, I make small talk because students enjoy them and I enjoy them
- Researcher: I am sure they do! (Pause) from a teaching perspective, do you think these kinds of chats are (pause) beneficial for students, I mean, do you think they impact positively or negatively their learning of English?

MISS LANDA: (Hesitation) Well, not one of the most beneficial classroom activities but as I do [it] only for a few minutes in my classes, it doesn't really matter (Laughter) Not everything that happens in the classroom is about learning, I guess

Researcher: For how long have you been using small talks in your classes?

MISS LANDA: Eeee (Hesitation) For a couple of years I would say (Pause) Well, actually, might be more than that actually

Researcher: Do you remember where you first saw this teaching behaviour?

MISS LANDA: (Laughter) If I remembered where, I would also remember when (laughter) No, I have no clues at all (Pause) It might have been I read somewhere or (pause) I don't really remember or it might be the case that I have always done it but not paid attention at all (laughter) you know, teaching is a funny thing

Researcher: Absolutely! Very often I feel myself the same way (pause) Coming back to the lesson (pause) the next thing you did in the classroom was to ask one student to write the homework on the blackboard, I am kind of curious, is this a planned behaviour or something you decided on the spot?

MISS LANDA: Oh, no, no, no! That was planned beforehand. During every lesson, I need to assess at least a student's performance (pause) The thing is that the official requirements are that that students must get at least two oral marks and at least two test marks, you know the result of test, so, at least two must be two test marks during a mark (laughter) I mean during a term (pause) So, yeas, I have to give a mark based on their oral performance, that's why

Researcher: And how does it work? Do teachers base their assessment of a student's knowledge based on one homework exercise?

MISS LANDA: Not only. I mean, yeah, when you write an exercise on the blackboard, you know that you are being assessed. You are well aware that everything what we do in the classroom is around your performance, your completion of the exercise in this case. But, at the same time, I mean it's not only about that. I can ask you to tell me the rule you followed (pause) there are always students who cheat, they do not complete the homework on their own, but ask their classmates to give them their homework so that they can copy what they have done, and in this case, particularly when I have doubts, I mean, I know the level of each student because (pause) I work every day with them, so (pause) when I see that a low level students has completed a challenging exercise without mistakes, I get him to tell me the rules he followed. And (pause) this is not only a way of catching students out, but also a good opportunity to reinforce their knowledge of English

Researcher: And do you see this approach as communicative or not very communicative?

MISS LANDA: Well, compare it with a written test. When a student complete a test, all what he does is (pause) he writes, he doesn't speak, doesn't communicate at all. By contrast, when you get the student in front of the class, you ask him questions about the exercise, he reads the exercise, you can get him to translate words, or even use new words in his own sentences, so, he does communicate

Researcher: And (pause) do you mainly assess students' individually, I mean a student's knowledge? Have you ever assessed [the students] while talking with each other or doing a group activity, for example?

MISS LANDA: I don't think that practice is fair for students (pause) I mean, when students work together they can easily be influenced by each other mistakes. So, in a

way, it's not like you are assessing a particular student's knowledge, but rather like what the group knows (pause) so I try to avoid using that assessment mood in my classes

Researcher: Have you ever used it in your classes?

MISS LANDA: Do you mean group work to assess a particular student's knowledge

Researcher: Exactly!

MISS LANDA: No, no, I don't think I have

Researcher: Right (pause) What other methods of assessment, or in what other ways can a teacher assess a particular student's knowledge, what do you think?

MISS LANDA: There are so many (Pause) Like, I don't know, like asking them to read a passage and translate a number of sentences, getting them to make sentences with new words, asking them to retell in their own words a text they have just read, or getting them to say the grammar rules, like when we use passive in English for example (pause) so (pause) plenty, many

Researcher: Right, so many ways! Do you have any favourite way of assessing students' knowledge?

MISS LANDA: (Hesitation) I don't think so. I mean, I use all of them, much depends on the situation (interruption)

Researcher: What do you mean by situation?

MISS LANDA: Like it depends on what we are working with in the textbook. I mean, if it is a reading passage, I ask them to read and translate or to retell the text, when we are working with grammar, I ask them to complete a grammar exercise and tell me the rules, and so on

Researcher: The way you assessed the student today, Artan his name was right?

MISS LANDA: Yes, yes, Artan.

Researcher: Yes, thanks. So, I was wondering, is that the way suggested by the textbook or [the] teacher's book?

MISS LANDA: Not sure (hesitation) Let me check ((looks at the textbook)) Not saying anything, and (pause) yes, no wonder at all (pause) they are very silent when it comes to this (pause) I don't have the teacher's book right now, but I would strongly doubt that it says anything either (pause) They usually, for some reason, [they] tell teachers how to do the very first exercises like when you introduce students to a text (pause) but for some reason they do not say anything about the exercises that check students' knowledge (laughter) it might be that they take for granted that teachers know how to do this type of exercises

Researcher: When you say "they" who do you refer to?

MISS LANDA: Textbooks, I mean the guys who have written the textbooks of course

Researcher: Interesting! And how did you (pause) I mean where or when did you learn how to assess your students' performance in this way?

MISS LANDA: Well (pause) I guess you learn as you go (pause) in the classroom

Researcher: And do you remember where you first saw or read about this teaching technique? You know, asking a student to write the homework exercise on the blackboard?

MISS LANDA: (Laughter) How long have we been together dear?

Researcher: Pardon me?

MISS LANDA: It's funny (pause) last night, while I was doing the planning and everything else in my mind, and (pause) I was picturing all the things I would do in the lesson today, and (pause) I was kind of thinking why I do certain things (laughter) And this, I believe what I was doing was preparing myself for the

questions you would ask me today (laughter) After four days together, I think I know what you are looking for and what questions you ask and and (pause) I guess as a matter of curiosity

Researcher: Matter of curiosity?

MISS LANDA: I mean, I was doing the thinking last night, you know about what I do and why I do it, partly to prepare myself for your questions, and partly as a matter of curiosity (Pause) You know, all the questions you ask, in a way (pause) got me thinking, questioning my teaching style

Researcher: Glad to hear that! And sorry to hear that because of this project you are thinking about teaching even when you are at home (Laughter) I apologise for making you work so hard

MISS LANDA: No, no, no need to apologise. It is a nice thinking, nice feeling, not really like working, but more like watching yourself on a mirror (pause) don't really know how to put it in words, but I am enjoying it (laughter)

Researcher: Excellent! Glad to hear that (pause) And coming back to the blackboard assessment technique or whatever we can call it, where exactly did you first see it?

MISS LANDA: So I was kind of thinking about this assessment last night, and yes, I believe this is something I have learned from my old teacher (pause) the one I talked about yesterday or the other day, and yes (pause) Mr. Dhimiter was my favourite one, and he used to test our knowledge by asking us to read and translate, or read, I mean write the homework exercise on the black board, and yes, it is most likely in his classes when I first saw or learned this

Researcher: Over the years, while teaching in your classes, has this way of assessing students' performance changed in any way or not?

MISS LANDA: Hem (hesitation) Well, I would say now, because (pause) basically [it] is pretty much the same thing or (pause) perhaps yes, a bit, perhaps (pause) Like (pause) what I am doing might be a bit more communicative (pause) I mean maybe there is more English used in my classes (pause) and it might be a bit more (pause) interesting for students, you know, in the old time, when I was a student, we read and translated some very long and boring texts about communism and things like this

Researcher: You are very right when you say that plenty of English is used in your classes You (pause) continually used English in the lesson and so did your students (pause) When it came to the grammar rules, like the use of simple past with ago, you said it in both English and Albanian if I remember properly (interruption)

MISS LANDA: Right! I think I did and (pause) that's because I have instructed my students to write all the rules in Albanian in their copybooks. So, I have to translate the rules

Researcher: And (pause) any particular reason for that?

MISS LANDA: For what?

Researcher: I mean why should they write the rule in Albanian? What good or bad about it?

MISS LANDA: Oh, that's because they understand better the (pause) concept when they use their own language and (pause) another reason is that not all students can understand the rule in English. I mean, for some of them, reading and grasping the concept in English can be challenging as they are very low level

Researcher: Right! I am not asking you about the importance of teaching and learning grammar rules because we covered this topic in length during our previous

interview and (pause) I actually liked the way you described the whole issue of learning grammar, words, pronunciation, reading, writing, and so on (pause) Very, very interesting! You know, you said you see grammar as the skeleton or bones, words are the meat, and pronunciation, speaking, reading, and writing is like going to the gym. Fascinating, really! Really deep! And (pause) within this view of language learning (pause) so (pause) what if you, I mean a student, does not do enough going to gym (laughter), will he still be able to use English alright? If you know what I mean?

MISS LANDA: (Hesitation) Are you saying what will happen if he does not do enough reading or speaking and just learns the grammar rules and words?

Researcher: Exactly! Thanks for making my work easier!

MISS LANDA: (Laughter) Yes (pause) so in plain English nothing serious will happen. (Pause) I mean, if you go to gym you can be stronger and can run faster, but it does not mean that if you do not go to gym you cannot walk. I do not go to gym, but I have a skeleton that holds my flesh and I can walk (Laughter) Even though I am a bit heavy (Laughter) Same with English. Students who do not read, write, or speak, I think, will not speak perfectly but they will do alright if they have the grammar and the words needed to say something

Researcher: A very intriguing way of looking at the process of L2 indeed! I am sure we will have other opportunities to talk about it in the coming days (Pause) Going back to the lesson (Pause) Yes, so you checked your students' grammar knowledge mainly by asking them to repeat the rule (Pause) Oh, yes, also you used your fingers to let them know that a word was missing, right you did that too and you mentioned that you saw this method while attending a British Council teacher training course, right?

MISS LANDA: Yes, that's true. The facilitator talked a lot, and showed us many other methods (pause) but for some reason I picked up this technique

Researcher: Right, and what about the other method, you know checking students' grammar knowledge by asking them to repeat the rule they followed? Where did you first see or how did come to know about them?

MISS LANDA: (Hesitation) Didn't we talked about them already? When we talked about where I first saw the different ways of testing students' grammar knowledge, I think, I mentioned that I saw them in Mr. Dhimiter's class

Researcher: Right! (Laughter) So many things in my mind, sorry about that (pause) So, let's talk about (pause) Yes, you did not do exercises nr. 1 and nr. 3. Any reason for skipping these particular exercises?

MISS LANDA: (Has a look at the textbook) Exercise nr.1 (pause) I am sure I did not ask the students to read it but (pause) I think I covered it orally when we talked about emails as a class (pause) As regards exercise nr 3, while reading the text, you know the informal email, I asked my students to translate the new words in their copybooks and learn them at home. Once they have worked with these new vocabulary items at home, I am going to use this exercise, I mean exercise 3, to see how well they have learned the new words next time

Researcher: Any idea how you might use this exercise to see how well students are prepared?

MISS LANDA: Well, what I usually do when I want to check my students' vocabulary, is (pause) I ask them to translate the words from English into Albanian and vice versa or (pause) make sentences in English with the new words, or I can give them a fill-in the blanks exercise. (Pause) This exercise, probably I will ask them to translate the sentences

Researcher: Can you think of any other way of doing the same exercise?
MISS LANDA: (Hesitation) No, not right now
Researcher: Ok (pause) Exercise nr. 2 (pause) You did not follow (pause) I mean your instructions were different from the textbook instructions. So, you asked your students to translate the vocabulary items first (interruption)
MISS LANDA: That was because I believe all students, including low level students who very often have new vocabulary items (pause) I mean how can students complete an exercise if they do not know what the words mean? So, I did that to give an opportunity to all students, not only high level students, to complete the exercise
Researcher: That's very thoughtful! So (pause) you also did this activity as a class instead of asking your students to work in their pairs
MISS LANDA: Well (laughter) don't get me started with this pair work thing. You already know how I feel about this right? I believe that the pair work interaction does not work in the Albanian context, and I doubt its efficiency. Take this exercise, for example, the textbook says students need to complete the exercise in their pairs. To me, that simply does not make sense. I mean how can you complete an exercise like this in your pairs? When I (pause) say complete a crossword in Albanian, I like to do it on my own because I concentrate better, and you know, I first read the gap, then the explanation, and then it is the thinking process which is very personal, I mean if you interrupt my thinking process, I will never finish the crossword. Same thing happens in English. If you ask your students to complete an exercise like this in their pairs, this interaction basically distracts them rather than helps them to improve their English. So, long story short (pause) I often claim I use pair work in my classes, and I often plan several class activities as pair interaction because I don't want to lose my job but I simply do not use it in my class because I do not think it is helpful for my students
Researcher: I can clearly see the point you are making! And (pause) the last question regarding this exercise (pause) it was listening exercise but (interruption)
MISS LANDA: (Laughter) I know, I know what you will ask (laughter) Simply, I was short of time. I actually like to get my students to listen to different accents, so I often use the recordings in my classes but for this particular exercise I didn't ask them because of time constraints
Researcher: Yes (reading his notes) Let me see (pause) Well, it seems like I do not have any particular question right now (laughter) for now. I will watch the video at home tonight and if I have other questions, I will ask them tomorrow
MISS LANDA: Sounds good. And I will think about my teaching again tonight so that I am prepared for your questions tomorrow (laughter)

Appendix 36 - A summary of individual classroom activities used to categorise the participating teachers' behaviours. The pedagogical principles behind each classroom activity is also given below (adapted from Seferaj, 2010).

Class activities, techniques, behaviours	Teaching Method	Rationale
Teacher asks students to translate isolated words, whole sentences from L1 to L2 and vice-versa.	GT	Translation is the main learning outcome. Consequently, better learners are at translation exercises, more successful they are. Additionally, translation exercises are used in a GT class to improve learners' L1 knowledge and to provide opportunities for students to practise/drill and eventually memorise the target grammar point.
Teacher asks a display question (i.e. he/she knows the answer beforehand)	GT	Students are asked display questions in order to reinforce\drill the new linguistic item they have been explained. In addition, a GT teacher might use display questions to check his/her students' preparation.
Teacher (Students) use L1 to perform communicative acts.	GT	There is no need to practice listening/speaking skills in a GT class. Additionally, students can comprehend grammar rules stated in their own language better than in L2.
Teacher gets students to explain the grammar rules they follow.	GT	Language learning is regarded as an educationally valid mental discipline. Therefore, it is believed that the knowledge of grammar can be acquired through the memorization of rules.
Teacher/students analyse words in a text and find syntax or morphology similarities between L1 and L2.	GT	The process of learning is facilitated through conscious learning practices (e.g. grammar rules and similarities between L1 and L2).
Teacher-Students interaction.	GT	The teacher is 'the expert' who explains the grammar, corrects students' errors and gives them a mark. Therefore, every activity is organised around the teacher in a GT class.
Teacher explains a grammar point.	GT PPP	From the perspective of GT practitioners, grammar is at the heart of learning a foreign language. Likewise, in a PPP approach, conscious and systematic study of rules is seen as essential - as languages are seen as collections of linguistic items.
Students do an accuracy-based activity (e.g. fill-in—the-blank; discrete-item grammar/vocabulary exercises).	GT PPP	These exercises are typically used during a GT class in order to maximise learning through repetitions, as well as check learners' understanding/preparation of discrete grammar/vocabulary items. Serving the same purpose, these class activities might be used during the Practice phase of the PPP approach.
Teacher corrects	GT	As seen above, the GT operates on the belief that once

errors on the spot.	PPP	the student understands the rule, he/she is intellectually able to get the right answer immediately. Therefore, errors are barely tolerated in a GT class. Likewise, errors are readily corrected during the Practice phase (PPP) because students need to form 'the right' habits.
Students drill language forms.	PPP	Particularly during the second phase of the PPP, students might be required to drill the target language in order to make it stick onto their intralanguage.
Teacher asks a referential question (i.e. he/she doesn't know the answer beforehand).	PPP TBL	Referential\personalised questions are used to create a link between the teacher and the student, as well as to foster genuine speaking in communicative classes.
Teacher (Students) use L2 to perform communicative acts.	PPP TBL	More students use the L2, better users they become. Therefore, both approaches emphasise the use of the L2 as the main language of instruction/interaction in the class.
Students do a fluency-based communicative activity.	PPP TBL	In a TBL view, learners acquire new language mainly through communicative use. Therefore, using plenty of fluency activities during the lesson is vital. Likewise, fluency-based tasks are used as examples of real communication during the third phase of the PPP approach. Nevertheless, the PPP uses real-life speaking activities in order to help learners activate the language just learned, not as a means of scaffolding/acquiring new language.
Student- Student interaction.	TBL (PPP)	The TBL often takes the role of group work, as it operates on the belief that learners learn through use and exposure. Therefore, more students feel the target language in use and experiment with it themselves, more their L2 competency improves. Likewise, learners are engaged in Student-student interactions during the Practice phase and/or the Production phase of the PPP.
Teacher gives delayed feedback.	TBL	This is typically done to provide language input and/or delayed correction, as well as to give a closing sense to the lesson.
Students report on what they have done.	TBL	There are two reasons why students are asked to report on what they have done: To maintain students' motivation and to give a sense of task outcome.

Reference:

Seferaj, K. (2010). Investigating the degree into which CLT is implemented in twenty-three EFL classes in an East-European ex-communist country. *Asian EFL Journal*. Available at: <http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/Thesis/Thesis-Seferaj.pdf>. [accessed 19/3/2010].

Appendix 37 - Lesson plan written by one of the participating teachers

Lesson Plan accompanying one of the classes observed (i.e. Miss Elona. See Appendix 28 for the textbook pages used during this class)

Class/Individual Profile

This is a class of 32 students, but there are usually between 20-25 students in the class. Most of them are not interested in studying grammar, and have many gaps in their knowledge of English. Students have little time to study English at home because they help their parents with farm chores. Most of the students are at a low pre-intermediate/elementary level.

Timetable Fit

Students have learned the form and the use of simple past tense during their previous academic year. During the last two weeks we have been revising the use of simple past, and today we are contrasting its use with the use of past continuous.

Main Aims and Objectives

- to explore grammar (past tense vs past continuous)
- to practise listening

Subsidiary Aims and Objectives

- to practise speaking/intonation in exclamations
- to practise writing a news report
- to explore grammar (used to)

Personal aims

- to talk less and give more speaking time to the students
- to use more English in my classes

Assumptions

- Students should already be familiar with the use and the form of simple past
- Students might need more grammar input to grasp the use of "used to"
- Students might not be very keen on completing a written exercise

Anticipated Problems and Solutions

Students use simple past instead of past continuous in their exercises/speaking	Highlight the error, ask them to repeat the rules
Students might need more grammar input to grasp the use of "used to"	Ask them to read further grammar rules on page 122
Students might not be very keen on completing a written exercise	Explain what they have to do, and ask them to complete the exercise at home

Timing	Interaction	Stage and Procedure	Rationale
5-7	Individual	Students study the examples (Exercise 4)	To make students aware of the use of past continuous
	Whole class	Discussion: When we use Simple Past and when Past Continuous	To reinforce the differences between simple past and past continuous
	Individual	Further explanations if needed	To reinforce students' knowledge of the form of past continuous (i.e. Was+-ing)
		Students find more examples in the text	
3-5	Pair-work	Students join the sentences in their pairs (Exercise 5)	To reinforce the use of past continuous
2-5	Whole class	Lead in Question: Look at the picture and the prompts and guess the story	To generate interest
	Whole class	Students translate the words given in exercise 6, e.g. helicopter crash, engine roar, rescue, etc.	To teach new vocabulary items To facilitate listening
2-4	Individual	Listening Students listen to the tape (Exercise 6)	To practise listening for gist
	Pair work	Students compare the answers in their pairs	To check their listening comprehension
2	Whole class	Pronunciation focus (exercise 7) Students listen and repeat	To make students' aware of intonation in exclamations To practise intonation in exclamations
3	Pair work	Speaking In their pairs students do exercise 8	To practise intonation in exclamations To practise speaking
10-15	Individual	Writing Exercise 9. Students write a news report similar to the one on page 56.	To practise writing To revise the vocabulary related to

		50-70 words long.	news reporting To practise the use of past continuous for activities interrupting each other in the past
2	Individual	Reading/Homework Students will have to read the passage on page 58, translate new vocabulary, and write a short retelling for next time	To practise reading To extend their vocabulary To practise writing a summary
3-5	Individual Whole class Whole class	Focus on grammar: “used to” Students study the examples (Exercise 4), and match the examples to the rule Discussion: When do we “used to” in English? Further explanations if needed	To make students aware of the use of “used to”
	Homework	Writing Exercise 4b. Students find examples of “used to” in the reading text on page 58, and answer in written the question “Where could you also use past simple”?	To reinforce the differences/similarities between the use of simple past and “used to”

Ms. KLUWA CLASSROOM OBSERVATION 2 / October 10 / Page 1
 LEGEND ☒ PRIMARY FOCUS ☒ SECONDARY FOCUS ? TEXTBOOK / TEACHER'S BOOK MATERIAL CROSS NOT CLEAR

ADAPTED COLT VERSION III

TIMING	INSTRUCTION	IF TEXTBOOK MATERIAL	ACTIVITY	MATERIAL TARGET	TEACHER TARGET	CLASS DYNAMIC	SOURCE	LANGUAGE USE	NOTES
START									
FINISH									
DURATION									
INDIVIDUAL (S)									
PAIR (S-S)									
GROUP (SS-S)									
CLASS (T-Ss)									
INSTRUCTIONS SIMILAR TO TB									
INSTRUCTIONS PARTIALLY SIMILAR TO TB									
INSTRUCTION DIFFERENT FROM TB									
LISTENING									
READING									
WRITING									
SPEAKING									
PRONUNCIATION									
SYSTEM									
OTHER (e.g. class mgmt, , discipline issues, etc.)									
COMBINATION									
MEANING									
FORM									
USE									
MEANING									
FORM									
USE									
INDIVIDUAL (S)									
PAIR (S-S)									
GROUP (SS-S)									
CLASS (T-Ss)									
TEXTBOOK									
INTERNET/OTHER PUBLISHED BOOK									
TEACHER-MADE HANDOUT									
STUDENT-MADE HANDOUT									
MOSTLY L1									
MOSTLY L2									
EQUAL L1 & L2									

Task 1
 Greetings & small talk in L1 & L2
 CLASS MANAGEMENT
 T plays a song and song parts
 T-Ss come for T-Ss do it T-Ss tell the meaning the song
 (STAGE 2)
 Teacher needs 2 handbooks feedbacks Ex. 4.
 (STAGE 3)
 Nothing written in the lesson plan for this activity ASK
 In the lesson plan Pair-work
 T-Ss told L1 about the meaning
 T-Ss told L1 about the meaning

FACE

Full walk (Textbook instruction)

this observation scheme is shown in Appendix 37)

The diagram shows a sequence of tasks and states:

- Task 10 (circled) is followed by Task 55 (circled).
- Task 55 (circled) is followed by Task 9 (circled).
- Task 9 (circled) is followed by Task 55 (circled).
- Task 55 (circled) is followed by Task 2 (circled).
- Task 2 (circled) is followed by Task 55 (circled).
- Task 55 (circled) is followed by Task 10 (circled).

The tasks are connected by arrows, indicating a sequence. The tasks are labeled with their respective numbers (10, 55, 9, 55, 2, 55, 10).

not time to finish the ex. T says so to complete it here.

X	SS do not seem to be instructed in computing the

E-X. Instead, they talk with local officers in the

Appendix 39 - Lesson plan written by one of the participating teachers

Lesson Plan accompanying one of the classes observed (i.e. Miss Ada. See Appendix 29 for the textbook pages used during this class)

Class/Individual Profile

This is a mixed-level class of 36 students. Students prefer all types of activities which are not boring and difficult. However, they are willing to be challenged and can cope well even with more difficult activities. Elda and Aferdita need to be encouraged continually to speak because they are the shiest and the slowest.

Timetable Fit

Students have learned a number of adjectives used to describe physical appearance last three classes, and today they start to work on adjectives used to describe character/personality. Students have also been exposed to the comparative and superlative degrees of adjectives but have not learned how we form these degrees in English yet. They will learn the rules during this class.

Main Aims and Objectives

- to learn vocabulary items used to describe sb's character
- to expose students to comparative and superlative forms of adjectives

Subsidiary Aims and Objectives

- to practise free and controlled speaking
- to practise reading for gist and/or detail

Personal aims

- to smile more during the class

Assumptions

- Students should already know who Johnny Depp is
- Students might have a number of new items (e.g. cunning, headscarf, eventually, inventor, messy, etc.) that can lead to difficulties in understanding the text
- Students might not get the right form of the adjective when they complete exercises 6 and 7

Anticipated Problems and Solutions

Not all students know Johnny Depp	Ask one of the students to talk briefly about him (e.g. age, married or not, how many films starring, etc.)
Students have a number of new items (e.g. cunning, headscarf, eventually, inventor, messy, etc.) that can lead to difficulties in understanding the text	Translate some key words beforehand and/or ask students to work together to facilitate text understanding
Students might not get the right form of the adjective when they complete exercises 6 and 7	Smile, prompt students to correct themselves, smile, repeat the rule, and give students time to digest

Timing	Interaction	Stage and Procedure	Rationale
3	Whole class	Students look at the pictures, describe them, and talk about each movie (if they have seen them). If not, keep it short.	To warm students up To practise free speaking
3	Whole class	Ask to see if anybody knows the words in bolt. If not explain and/or translate their meaning.	To prepare students for the reading To teach new vocabulary items
4	Individual	Students read the text on their own	To practise reading for gist
3	Pair work	Students compare their answers	To check their reading comprehension
5	Pair work	Students match the words to their synonyms, make a list of positive and negative adjectives, and link the adjectives to the three characters played by JD	To expand their vocabulary To better link meaning and use of different adjectives
3	Whole class	Each pair reads their list and students compare their answers with each other	To provide feedback
3	Pair work	Students add more words to the spidergram	To extend their vocabulary
2	Whole class	Feedback as a class. Students add the words suggested by other groups to their spidergram	To provide feedback To extend their vocabulary
4	Individual Whole class	Students complete the comparative and superlative forms of the given adjectives after reading grammar explanations on page 124. How are the comparative and superlative of adjectives form in English?	To help students discover the rules for the formation of comparative and superlative forms of adjectives in English To reinforce/clarify the rule
5	Individual Whole class	Students complete exercise 7. Feedback as class	To provide controlled practice To reinforce the use of comparative and superlative forms
5	Individual Whole class	Students write four sentences to compare members of their families or friends Feedback as class	To provide freer practice

Appendix 40 - Lesson plan written by one of the participating teachers

Lesson Plan accompanying one of the classes observed (i.e. Miss Evis. See Appendix 30 for the textbook pages used during this class)

Lesson Objectives

By the end of the lesson students will have

- practised reading for gist
- practised reading for detailed understanding
- learned how to use quantifiers
- practised freer writing and speaking

Timing	What	How	Why
3	Warm-up Would you like to be a millionaire? Why or why not?	Class discussion T-Ss	To engage Ss To generate interest
10	Ss read the passage Complete the following exercise Feedback as a whole class	S S T-Ss	To practise reading for gist To practise reading for detailed understanding To check ss' reading comprehension
5	Ss match the words from the text with the correct meaning (Ex. 3)	S	To extend ss' vocabulary To check ss' answers
3	Feedback as a whole class	T-Ss	
5	Ss complete the table with the words from the text	S	To make ss aware of the use of countable and uncountable nouns
3-5	Class discussion: Which words are plural and which are singular? As a class, complete the rules (Ex 5)	T-Ss	To lead-in to the grammar rule To help ss understand when and how countable/uncountable nouns are used in English
5	Ss complete Ex 6	S	To revise the use of "some, many, little, much, and so on"
3	Feedback as a whole class	T-Ss	To reinforce ss' knowledge regarding the use of quantifiers

5	Class discussion: What is the rule? As a class, complete Ex 6 sen. a/b/c		To clarify any issue they might have with the use of quantifiers
8	Ss complete Ex 8	S	To have more controlled practice with quantifiers
6	Feedback as a class	T-Ss	To reinforce ss' knowledge regarding the use of quantifiers To explain any new vocab item ss might have
5	Ss complete Ex 9	S	To have more controlled practice with countable/uncountable nouns
5	Feedback as a class	T-Ss	To reinforce ss' knowledge regarding the use of countable and uncountable nouns To explain any new vocab item ss might have
8	Writing Ss complete Ex 10	S	To practise freer writing To practise the use of countable/uncountable nouns
4	Feedback as a class	T-Ss	To check ss' writing skills To reinforce the use of countable/uncountable nouns
5	Writing Ss complete Ex 11	S	To practise the use of countable/uncountable nouns To prepare themselves for freer speaking
5	Freer speaking	Ss ask the questions to each	To practise freer speaking To reinforce the use of countable/uncountable nouns
15	Break		