

**REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING DEPARTMENT**

**UTILIZING REFLECTIVE PRACTICE AS A TOOL TO EXPLORE
COURSEBOOK BELIEFS AND EXPLOITATION: A CASE STUDY**

Stefan RATHERT

PHD DISSERTATION

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PHD DISSERTATION

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Stefan RATHERT

ÖZET

DERS KİTABI KULLANIMINA İLİŞKİN İNANIŞLARIN VE NASIL YARARLANILDIĞININ ARAŞTIRILMASINDA YANSITMACI YAKLAŞIM: BİR VAKA ÇALIŞMASI ÖRNEĞİ

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Danışman: Doç. Dr. Neşe CABAROĞLU

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Bu nitel çalışmada, Türkiye’de bir devlet üniversitesinde hazırlık programında yabancı dil olarak İngilizce’nin öğretiminde görevli anadili İngilizce olmayan iki öğretmen, kullanılan ders kitabına ilişkin görüşlerinin belirlenmesi amacıyla yansıtıcı uygulamaya katılmışlardır. Küresel bir İngilizce öğretim kitabı kullanılmış ve özdeş içerikli dersler gözlemlenmiştir (her bir öğretmen için altı ders). Son zamanlarda yaygın yansıtıcı uygulama biçimlerine yönelik yapılan eleştirilere istinaden öğretmenler; uygulamalarını, metafor (eğretileme) çıkarma ödevleri, video destekli gözlem (uyarılmış hatırlama), yansıtıcı konuşma, sınıf içi söylem metinleri ile gözlemlenen derslerde meydana gelen durumlara ilişkin tutmuş oldukları günlüklerin incelenmesi ile bireysel yansıtma ve meslektaş ve araştırmacı ile yapılan işbirlikli yansıtmayı da içine alan çeşitli yansıtıcı araçlar kullanarak keşfettiler. Buna ek olarak, çalışmanın başında ve bitiminde katılımcılarla yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Derslerde yapılan uyarlamaları belirlemek amacıyla, ilgili alanyazın kapsamında önceden oluşturulmuş kodlama kategorilerini içeren bir çerçeve oluşturulmuştur. Yansıtıcı araçlar ve yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmelerden elde edilen veriler, açık kodlama teknikleri ile çözümlenmiş, ilk kodlar kategorileri daha sonara da temaları oluşturmuştur.

Çalışma, iki öğretmenin kitaba dair olumlu görüşlere sahip olduğunu ve küçük uyarlamalarla ders kitabını takip ettiklerini göstermiştir. Yansıtıcı uygulamanın sonucunda öğretmenler, ders kitabının güdümüne çalışmanın başında tahmin ettiklerinden daha fazla girdiklerini fark etmiştir. Genel olarak, ders kitabı ve kullanımı konusunda belirtilen görüşler, gerçekleştirilen uygulamalarla ilgili yankı uyandırmıştır. Önemli bir bulgu olarak, öğretmenlerin ders kitaplarını çoğunlukla alan eğitimi bilgisi temelinde kullanmadığı anlaşılmıştır. Buna karşılık, kurumsal kısıtlamalar ve ders

kitabının tekdüze kullanımı ile gelişigüzel hazırlanan ders planları, öğretmenleri kitaba bağlı kalmaya zorlamıştır. Yansıtıcı uygulama süresince, öğretmenler, öğretimleri ile ilgili çeşitli sorunların farkına vararak önemli olanlara yönelik çözüm geliştirmişlerdir. Ancak, iki öğretmen de öğretim uygulamalarını büyük ölçüde değiştirmemiş ve buna bağlı olarak ders kitabına aşırı bağlılıkları devam etmiştir. Öğretmenler, yansıtıcı uygulamayı mesleki gelişimleri açısından faydalı bulmuş fakat özellikle video-destekli ders gözlemi sırasında rahat hissetmediklerini ifade etmişlerdir.

Ders kitabının fiili öğretim program olarak kullanılmasının, bu bağlamda olduğu gibi, güncel İngilizce öğretimi ders kitaplarını yansıtıcı düşünme olmadan kullanması istenen öğretmenleri niteliksizleştirebileceği düşüncesinden hareketle, çalışmada, ders kitabı öncülüğündeki dil öğrenme programları yerine ders kitabı tabanlı dil öğrenme programlarının düzenlenmesine olan gereksinim vurgulanmıştır. Ders kitabı kullanımına ilişkin bağımlılığın, iyi yapılandırılmış süreçler sunan kitaplarla da teşvik edildiği görülmektedir. Dahası, öğretmenlerin kendi öğretim uygulamalarını keşfedebileceği mesleki gelişim olanaklarının sağlanması talep edilmektedir. Ancak, yöneticilerin öğretmenlere rehberlik etmeleri ve belirli yansıtıcı araçları kullanma aşamasında kendilerini rahat hissetmedikleri durumları dikkate almaları gerekebilir.

Anahtar kelimeler: Küresel ders kitabı, ders kitabı kullanımı, uyarlama, yansıtıcı uygulama, İngilizce öğretmenleri, yabancı dil olarak İngilizce

ABSTRACT**UTILIZING REFLECTIVE PRACTICE AS A TOOL TO EXPLORE
COURSEBOOK BELIEFS AND EXPLOITATION: A CASE STUDY****Ph.D. Thesis, Department of English Language Teaching****Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Neşe CABAROĞLU****May 2019, 405 pages**

In this qualitative study, two non-native teachers of English as a foreign language working in a preparatory programme at a Turkish state university engaged in a reflective practice to explore their coursebook beliefs and exploitation. A global English language teaching coursebook was used, and lessons that were identical in content (six lessons per teacher) were observed. Addressing recent criticism towards common modes of reflective practice, the teachers explored their practices using a variety of reflective tools encompassing metaphor elicitation tasks, video-supported observation (stimulated recall), reflective conversations, examination of transcripts containing classroom discourse and journal writing through which they responded to the events in the classes observed and the individual and collaborative reflection with their peer and the researcher. Additionally, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants at study beginning and end.

To identify adaptations realised in the lessons, a framework with pre-established coding categories informed by the relevant literature was developed. The data coming from the reflective tools and semi-structured interviews were initially analysed with open coding techniques, then the initial codes were assembled into coding categories and later allocated to themes.

The study revealed that the two teachers had positive beliefs about coursebooks, and they followed the coursebook by making only minor adaptations. Through the reflective practice the teachers found out that the coursebook exerted greater control over them than they had assumed at study beginning. By and large, the stated beliefs about coursebooks and coursebook exploitation resonated with realised practices. As an important outcome, the teachers' coursebook exploitations were not often grounded in

pedagogical content knowledge. Instead, cursory lesson planning along with institutional constraints and routinised coursebook exploitation forced the teachers to stick to the coursebook. Throughout the reflective practice, the teachers noticed a variety of issues concerning their teaching, and arrived at solutions to address critical aspects. However, the two teachers did not greatly modify their instructional practice; accordingly coursebook overreliance was not diminished. The teachers found the reflective practice beneficial for their professional development, but they reported discomfort, in particular related to the video-supported lesson observation.

The study emphasises the need to organise coursebook-based instead of coursebook-led language learning programmes because employing coursebooks as the de facto curriculum, as in this context, may deskill teachers as they are invited to follow the procedures in current ELT coursebooks unreflectively. Coursebook overreliance also seems to be promoted through coursebooks providing highly-structured procedures to follow. Moreover, the need to implement professional development opportunities in which teachers can explore their instructional practice is demanded. However, facilitators may need to provide guidance for teachers and cater for instances in which teachers do not feel comfortable while employing certain reflective tools.

Keywords: Global coursebook, coursebook exploitation, adaptation, reflective practice, English language teachers, English as a foreign language

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This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my father Hans-Jürgen Rathert (1933-1977).

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CEFR	Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
CLIL	Content Integrated Language Learning
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
ESL	English as a Second Language
IWB	Interactive Whiteboard
L1	First Language
MA	Master of Arts
PPP	Presentation, Practice, Production
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

There is no doubt that coursebooks play a prominent role in the daily instructional practice of English language teachers. By definition, English language teaching (ELT) coursebooks are textbooks “to be used as a foundation of a course” (McGrath 2013, p. 5) serving as a tool to initiate communicative interaction and as a resource for information about and samples of the target language so that second language acquisition (SLA) can be promoted. According to Tomlinson (2012), coursebooks, as any kind of teaching material, have five functions: They are informative as they inform learners about the target language; they are instructional as they offer learners guidance on how to practice language; they are experiential as they allow learners to experience language in use; they are eliciting as they promote learners’ language use; they are exploratory as they offer learners opportunities to make discoveries about the target language. McGrath (2013) notes that coursebooks save teachers’ time providing ready-made material for classroom use. The target language is presented through contextualised content, embedded in a course of activities and organised in a coherent programme, so that it becomes teachable and learning progress can be achieved. As Richards (2001b) notes, without a coursebook “a program may have no central core and learners may not receive a syllabus that has been systematically planned and developed” (p.1). Apart from providing accurate language input, coursebooks support teachers through methodological guidance, and they also serve as a resource for learners who can review and preview lesson content based on visible evidence for learning progress. As “a convenient administrative tool” (McGrath, 2013, p. 6), coursebooks standardise instruction ensuring that learners in different classes learn the same content at a time and can be given the same tests. What is more, coursebooks are often viewed as attractive by learners as they transmit cultural information in a visually appealing manner. Finally, coursebooks are usually accompanied by extra material such as teacher’s books, audio and video material, e-learning programmes and test CDs (McDonough, Shaw, & Masuhara, 2013; McGrath, 2013; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018).

However, coursebooks have also been criticised for several reasons. For one thing, coursebooks may emphasise linguistic or analytical aspects of language learning at the expense of involving learners in a physically, emotionally and experientially rich learning experience (Tomlinson, 2017). Tomlinson (2001a) noted that many of the coursebooks he used “needed humanising because they didn’t engage the learners (...) and (...) they didn’t manage to connect with the learners’ lives” (p.1). The perceived irrelevance of coursebooks for learners may be related to the use of inauthentic language and tasks in coursebooks, a frequently voiced criticism (cf. McGrath, 2013; Tomlinson, 2012, 2017). Additionally, global coursebooks, those produced for world-wide markets, are considered to transmit Western values and certain pedagogical approaches thus serving a kind of cultural imperialism (e.g. Phillipson, 1992; Pennycook, 1994). Finally, coursebooks may actually deskill teachers because “the teacher’s role can become reduced to that of a technician whose primary function is to present materials prepared by others” (Richard & Renandya, 2002, p. 67). The point is made that global ELT coursebooks favour standardised teaching through a delivery of activities and texts in a highly organised way, thus, promoting neoliberal attempts to regulate society in terms of accountability and functionality (Littlejohn, 2012).

Reviewing functions, advantages and drawbacks of coursebooks and considering the fact that coursebooks are used in a variety of contexts, it is not surprising that teachers conceptualise and exploit coursebooks differently. It is suggested that English language teacher views about coursebooks range in a continuum from accepting coursebooks as a guide that exerts some degree of control at the one end of the continuum to perceiving them as a resource that is controlled and exploited by the teacher at the other end, while some teachers evaluate coursebooks entirely negative as constraint (McGrath, 2006a, 2006b).

Everyday experience shows that teachers exploit coursebooks differently, i.e. they adapt them in various ways. Coursebook adaptation is regarded “an essential skill for teachers to develop” (Richards, 2001a, p. 260) because it is a necessary response to the fact that “coursebooks are written for everyone and therefore for no one (...). Adaptation is thus an attempt to tailor materials so that they are a better match for a specific learning context” (McGrath, 2013, pp. 59-60). Adaptation is either a result of planning or an ad-hoc decision while teaching (Islam & Mares, 2003), can be directed towards the language used in a coursebook (texts, exercise rubrics, examples), the procedures suggested (activities, exercises, tasks), the content through which the target

language is taught (topics, cultural references) or the level (linguistic and/or cognitive complexity), and is realised through selection, omission, addition, modification or supplementation (Charalambous, 2011; Islam & Mares, 2003; McDonough, et al., 2013; McGrath, 2013; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018). External forces (curriculum, methods and assessment), internal forces (teacher cognitions), and situated forces (expectations of school management, parents, students, colleagues and the impact of the material used) are factors driving teachers to realise instructional practice including coursebook adaptation (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018; Zheng & Davison, 2008).

Teachers may exploit coursebooks in a way that actually does not meet the expectations aroused by, for instance, curriculum designers or coursebook writers (McGrath, 2013, pp. 170-182). This may include refusing necessary adaptation to customise global coursebooks for the local needs of learners or sticking to the coursebook as the curriculum due to a lack of training in coursebook adaptation (Bosompem, 2014). It is also reported that teachers sabotage coursebooks (Maley, 1995, as cited in McGrath, 2013, p. 169) when, for example, coursebooks obviously designed for communicative language teaching are used in transmission-based practices due to institutional pressure or local teaching traditions (Abdel Latif, 2017; Sefaraj, 2014), in order to prepare learners for exams (Menkabu & Harwood, 2014) or as a response to unrequested learner behaviour (Lee & Bathmaker, 2007). Bosompem (2014) reports that some teachers participating in her study were not always aware of the fact that they were actually adapting coursebooks, and felt unsure about the school authority's views on adaptation. As a general conclusion, adaptation "must not be taken for granted. Rather, it must be addressed explicitly to raise teacher awareness, increase confidence, and help develop positive attitudes" (Bosompem, 2014, p. 118).

Studies on coursebook adaptation taking both coursebook beliefs and exploitation into consideration are currently scarce. In spite of a growing interest in coursebooks and instructional materials, research is dominated by publications that provide teachers with suggestions on how to exploit coursebooks with limited reference to actual classroom practice and underlying decisions: "the majority of previous publications focus on everything but the use of ELT materials" (Garton & Graves, 2014a, p. 654; cf. Tomlinson, 2012, p. 156). Consequently there is a lack of research providing "an evidential basis for descriptions of effective practices to be used in teacher education" (McGrath, 2013, p. 200). Elaborating upon the interrelatedness of teacher cognitions, contextual factors and coursebook exploitation, Seferaj (2014) states:

At present, little evidence is available on how experienced teachers use textbooks and teachers' books, and even less is known about the connections between teacher cognition, teaching resources, and classroom practices when textbook instructions concerning operations in the classroom do not match teachers' views about how languages are learnt/taught (p. 89).

Given the important role of coursebooks it is essential for teachers to make informed decisions on coursebook exploitation as an outcome of reflective practice. Reflective practice "is a generic term for those intellectual and affective activities in which individuals engage to explore their experiences in order to lead to new understandings and appreciations" (Boud, Keogh & Walker, 1985a, p. 19). In reflective practice, teachers explore their own cognitions and practices in order to detect discrepancies between intended and realised instructional practices, to come to a better understanding of their own professional behaviour and, potentially, to modify their teaching (Burton, 2009).

Most notably related to Dewey's (1933) notion of reflective thinking (as opposed to spontaneous routine thinking), reflection is the systematic engagement in solving a perceived problem by exploration of experience and hypotheses testing. Dewey's call for teacher engagement in reflective practice has been influential and encouraged other scholars to refine the concept of reflection as a component of teaching. Schön (1983) made the distinction between reflection-in-action (i.e. while being involved in teaching) and reflection-on-action (i.e. after teaching); additionally Killian and Todnem (1991) pointed to reflection-for-action referring to the preparation for teaching. Reflective practice can be realised by means of activities located in a continuum ranging from less to more systematic approaches in order to address areas in teaching and learning perceived as problematic or to get ongoing evaluation of issues seemingly unproblematic (Mann, 2005, p. 108). Even though "teacher reflection *in different forms* is now considered central to teacher-learner processes" (Burton, 2009, p. 302, emphasis added), it is exactly the vagueness inherent in the diversity of reflective practice(s) that has cast doubts on its effectiveness. Recently, Walsh and Mann (2015) and Mann and Walsh (2017, 2013) have criticised the current state of reflective practice in ELT arguing that even though

reflecting practice (RP) has established itself as a ubiquitous professional education and practice, its current status is not supported by detailed, systematic and data-led description of either its nature or value. There are two responses to

this. The first is to say that RP has become so bloated and so riddled with inconsistencies that it needs to be put out of this misery and left to rest in peace (RIP). The second is to take the position that it has potential value but needs to deal with some of its problems and inconsistencies” (Mann & Walsh, 2013, p. 292).

The authors identify four main problems related to the current situation of reflective practice in second language teacher education and professional development: First, reflective practice is not sufficiently based on data, and data-led research on reflective practice is underrepresented: “Put simply, we need more evidence from the perspectives of both research and professional development” (Mann & Walsh, 2013, p. 292). Second, reflective practice is too often conducted as an individual endeavour without opportunities to benefit from the advantages of dialogic reflection that allows learning from others’ experiences. Third, reflection is too often carried out in written form, so that it can degenerate to a form of “mechanical form-filling (...) [encouraging practitioners to] ‘fake’ evidence or reflections” (Mann & Walsh, 2013, p. 299) in order to satisfy mentors, tutors or researchers. Finally, there is a tendency to select inappropriate reflective tools by choosing tools either too difficult to use or not eliciting the data needed to engage in reflective practice.

Having indicated a lack of studies on language teachers’ coursebook exploitation, demands for basing coursebook exploitation on reflective decisions and the need to reconceptualise reflective practice, this study aims at addressing these concerns by examining the collaborative, data-led reflective practice of two English language teachers working at a state university in Turkey on their coursebook beliefs and exploitation. The participants made use of a variety of reflective tool and engaged in a kind of “Reciprocal peer coaching (...) defined as a configuration of activities that a dyad of teachers can undertake in the workplace with the intention of supporting each other” (Zwart, Wubbels, Bolhuis, & Bergen, 2008, p. 982). To the best of my knowledge, there is no study dealing with the exploration of ELT coursebook beliefs and exploitation through reflective practice.

Having prepared a research background providing the rationale for this study, I should not abstain from explaining my personal interest in the topic that drove me to initiate, conduct and finalise this study. As a teacher with 16 years of experience (at study beginning), I had become more and more convinced of the benefits of sharing teaching experience with colleagues. Working in a context, in which the coursebook

undoubtedly plays an important role in the instructional practice, I often received answers like ‘I finished page 16. First I did exercise 1, then I did the reading in exercise 2...’ when I asked a colleague about what he or she had done without receiving more detailed information. This may be due to a teaching which is patronised by the coursebook, a lack of reflection on side of the teacher, something else or (more likely) a combination of several reasons. I was interested in finding out what it means when a teacher ‘finishes page 16’.

Additionally, in the coursework I received as a PhD student, I became more and more interested in professional development. Convinced of the benefits of reflective practice to promote the professional development of English language teachers, I then decided to connect these two topics to become the subject of my PhD thesis. A further incentive was to contribute the development of professionalism and collegiality in my institution. Since, unfortunately, professional development in my teaching context has only been organised by teachers who are involved in MA or PhD programmes, the study may inspire the current or future management of my school to institutionalise forms of professional development that utilise the knowledge base and reflections of the participants involved as an addition to expert opinions from outside.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

In many contexts, coursebooks are the main material in foreign language instruction. Studies and anecdotal evidence suggest that actual coursebook exploitation may not meet expectations aroused by, for example, coursebook authors or curriculum designers, and teachers may depart from their own intuition rather than from insights gained in reflection. Additionally, there is currently a scarce body of research directed to English teachers’ coursebook exploitation and how this interrelates to beliefs about coursebooks (Garton & Graves, 2014a; Li & Harfitt, 2017; Seferaj, 2014; Tomlinson, 2012). Most studies are based on self-reports or questionnaires eliciting teachers’ coursebook beliefs, evaluations of specific coursebooks or coursebook adaptation, while the number of studies based on evidence for coursebook exploitation coming from classrooms is rather limited (Yılmaz & Aydın, 2015).

Reflective practice as a powerful tool in second language teacher education and professional development is considered to help “teachers make appropriate adjustments to their methodology, *adapt and supplement materials and create as ideal as possible*

an experience for language learners” (Mann & Walsh, 2015, p. 17, emphasis added). However, recent criticism claims that reflective practice needs to utilise more collaborative and data-led approaches in which teachers can explore own beliefs and practices using a variety of tools (Mann & Walsh, 2013). The current study therefore addresses both the identified shortage of literature on coursebook use and the need to document and evaluate a data-driven and collaborative form of reflective practice.

1.3. Aim of the Study

Adapting formative intervention methodology as a research form that gives agency to participants in researching their own workplace (Engeström, Sannino & Virkkunen, 2014), this case study focused on two Turkish EFL (English as a foreign language) teachers’ coursebook beliefs and exploitations, and their engagement in reflective practice directed towards coursebook exploitation. Regarding coursebook beliefs and exploitation, the study aimed to

- elicit English language teachers’ stated coursebook beliefs;
- document their coursebook exploitations;
- investigate the reasons behind realised exploitations;
- detect, if any, discrepancy between stated beliefs and practices, and, if so, to identify reasons for this;
- have teachers investigate and evaluate outcomes of coursebook exploitation by comparing lessons.

Regarding reflective practice, the study aimed to

- provide English language teachers with an opportunity to engage in data-led and collaborative reflective practice;
- examine how the reflective practice contributed to the teachers exploration of their coursebook exploitation;
- investigate if the participants perceive the reflective practice as beneficial for their professional development.

1.4. Research Questions

The study set out to answer the following research questions (the term *the teachers* refers to the English language teachers who participated in the study):

1. What beliefs do the teachers hold about English as foreign language coursebooks and their own coursebook exploitation?
2. How do the teachers exploit the coursebook?
 - a. What reasons do they provide for their exploitation?
 - b. Do stated beliefs about coursebooks and coursebook exploitation resonate with realised practices?
3. How does the reflecting practice promote the exploration of the teachers' beliefs and practices?
4. How do the teachers perceive reflective practice for their own professional development?

1.5. Key Terms

The following key terms are used throughout the study according to the operational definitions given.

Adaptation: Adaptation refers to any kind of manipulation of coursebook language, procedures, content or level (in terms of linguistic or cognitive difficulty) through omission, addition, modification or supplementation as an outcome of either planned or spontaneous decision-making. Minor adaptation does not change the objectives or procedures inherent in coursebook components, while major adaptation does not follow the guidance offered by the coursebook but employs it as a resource.

Coursebook: A coursebook in foreign language teaching is a textbook “to be used as a foundation of a course” (McGrath 2013, p. 5) serving as a tool to initiate communicative interaction and a resource for information about and samples of the target language.

Coursebook beliefs: Coursebook beliefs refer to the views teachers hold about the functions, advantages and disadvantages of coursebooks for teaching and learning a foreign language.

Coursebook exploitation: In this study, coursebook exploitation denotes teachers' coursebook use which can be realised in a continuum ranging from

using the coursebook without any modification at one end to making changes to the coursebook material through minor or major adaptation at the other end.

Professional development: Professional development refers to the advancement of a professional's knowledge base, understanding of practice and skilfulness in practice as a career-long endeavour encompassing formal and informal pre-service and in-service learning through a variety of activities ranging from knowledge-transmission in which professionals are informed by others to explorative forms in which the professional actively investigates the own professional context.

Reflective practice: Reflective practice refers to evidence-based activities in which practitioners explore own cognitions and/or practices so that they come to a deeper understanding of own behaviour and are enabled to modify it.

Reflective tools: Reflective tools encompass instruments that generate data practitioners can reflective on and activities practitioners can engage in to realise reflection.

1.6. Assumptions Underlying the Study

In the current study, two English language teachers explored their coursebook exploitations through reflective practice. The study was driven by the following assumptions about coursebook use in ELT:

1. Coursebooks play a central role in the teaching of English in formal instruction.
2. When using a coursebook in a specific context, potential mismatches between the coursebook and the teaching/learning context comprising learners with their beliefs, attitudes, needs and expectations, teachers with their beliefs, attitudes, knowledge and preferences, the wider context in terms of cultural, social and political conditions and the more immediate school context in terms of programmes, goals, administrative frameworks and school facilities need to be addressed.
3. Coursebook exploitation including adaptation is a process that is influenced by factors inherent in the wider school and immediate course context, by factors associated with the learners and teachers and by the material itself.

4. Teachers may not be aware of the factors that influence their coursebook exploitation, but an informed approach to coursebook exploitation is likely to improve teaching.

The following assumptions concerning reflective practice guided the current study:

1. Reflective practice is a systematic form of professional development through which teachers can examine their own cognitions and practices.
2. Reflective practice by teachers needs to be data-led and conducted in the local workplace, and an examination of instructional practice is of crucial importance if it is intended to gain insights about teaching and learning. Reflective practice conducted collaboratively is preferable.
3. Through data-led, collaborative reflective practice, teachers can notice aspects about their teaching (concerning cognitions and practices), critically examine the aspects noticed, and potentially modify their teaching or other areas of their occupational context.

Putting the assumptions concerning coursebook exploitation and reflective practice together, the assumption underlying this study is that English language teachers can explore their coursebook beliefs and exploitation through reflective practice. The relationship between coursebook exploitation and reflective practice is shown in Figure 1.

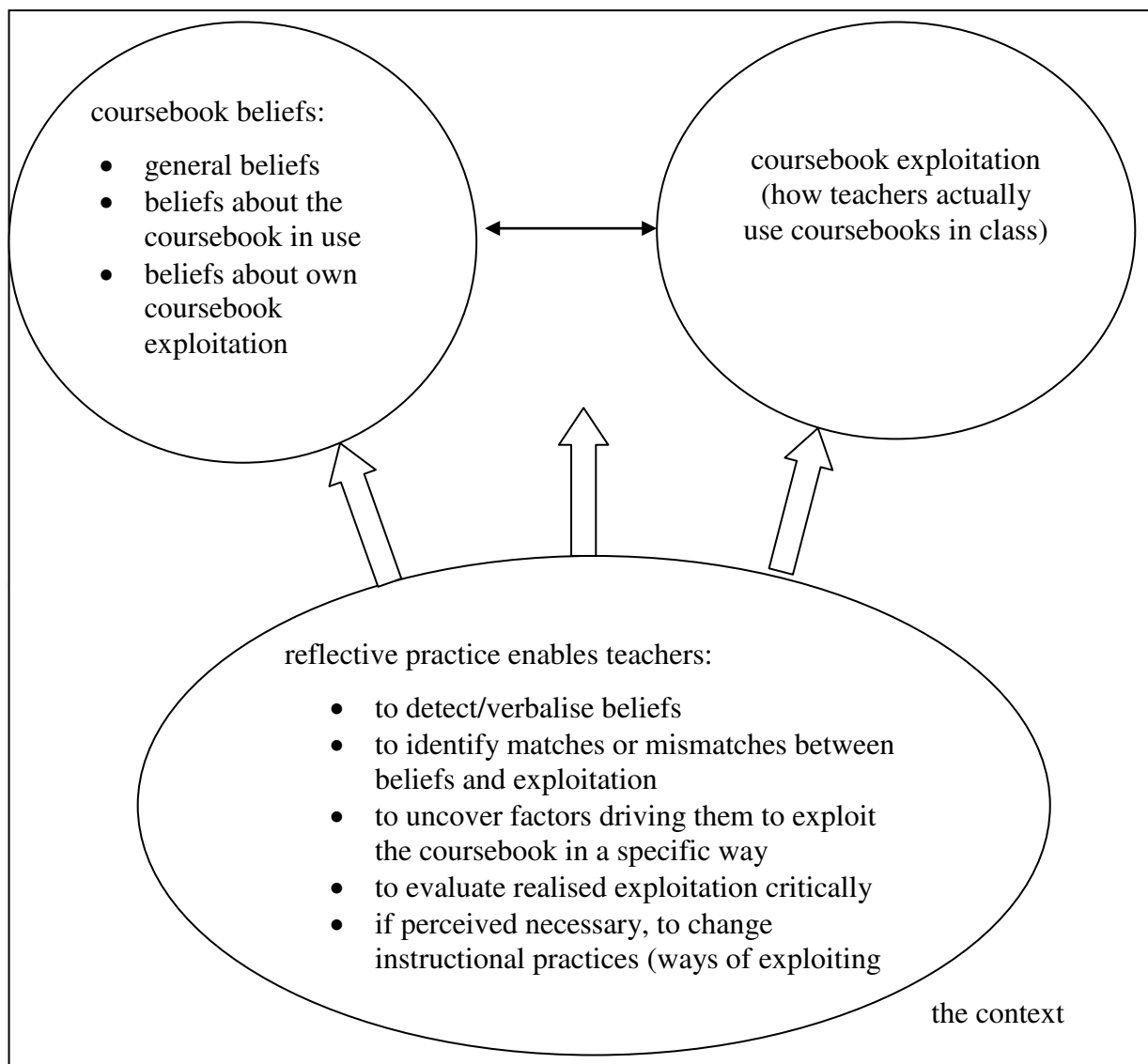


Figure 1. Assumed impact of reflective practice on exploration of teacher coursebook beliefs and exploitations

Figure 1 indicates that actual coursebook exploitation (as any kind of instructional practice) is informed by beliefs and influences beliefs (Borg, 2003; Kubaniyova and Feryok, 2015). Beliefs and practices emerge in a context shaped by teacher experience and the mediate and immediate environment (Borg, 2003; McGrath, 2013; Zheng & Davison, 2008). Reflective practice, directed to both the underlying teacher beliefs and the coursebook practice is assumed to be a means to verbalise beliefs about coursebooks and own coursebook exploitation, to describe coursebook exploitation, to detect factors shaping coursebook exploitation, to evaluate it critically and possibly to modify it.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter reviews the literature related to the study. The study covered two main areas: It investigated (i) the beliefs two English language teachers held about coursebooks and their actual coursebook exploitation in class and (ii) the two teachers' engagement in a form of data-led, collaborative reflective practice that aimed at an exploration of their beliefs about and use of coursebooks. In other words, the two areas are connected as the first research interest was examined (to great extent) through the participants' engagement in reflective practice, the second study object. This means, the study provided the teachers with an opportunity to develop professionally by making an inquiry into a central part of their own instructional practice.

Following this outline, there are three main sections in the literature review: the role and use of coursebooks in English language teaching and learning, reflective practice as a form of teacher learning utilised in the professional development of English language teachers, and, because the study was designed as a form of teacher learning at the workplace, a learning theoretical framework that serves as the underlying rationale. This study is based on constructivist learning theories, more specifically on Vygotsky's sociocultural theory of learning and activity theory advanced by Engeström. Notably, constructivism also provides a rationale for learning by benefitting from instructional materials such as coursebooks. As constructivism builds the theoretical framework of the study, I will start with this aspect, then continue with a review of the literature on ELT coursebooks and finalise the chapter with sections on reflective practice.

2.2. The Theoretical Framework

According to a classical definition, learning is “*any process that in living organisms leads to permanent capacity change and which is not solely due to biological maturation or ageing*” (Illeris, 2017, p. 3, emphasis in the original). This process involves mental procedures referring to internal psychological operations in an individual and interactions between individuals or between individuals and objects (conceptualisations, materials) in a given context; both processes lead to learning

outcomes evidencing capacity change as a result of the integration of new information into existing schemata. Illeris (2018, pp. 2-3) remarks that many learning theories proposed tend to study either internal or external learning processes due to the complexity of learning as influenced by and influencing internal dispositions (in the learner) and external dispositions (in the environment learning takes place). However accurate those theories are, they represent only a part of the area of learning, and, because they put emphasis on specific aspects of learning, they do not devalue other theories putting emphasis on other aspects. This remark should be considered when constructivism is introduced here as the underlying theoretical framework of the study. The account will summarise key points in cognitive constructivism (Piaget), sociocultural theory (Vygotsky) and Engeström's theory of expansive learning as a reconceptualisation of activity theory.

2.2.1. Constructivism

Constructivism is an umbrella term that refers to a number of distinct theories belonging to "the constructivist movement. The emphasis that these theories place on the role of knowledge construction is central to constructivism" (Schunk, 2012, p. 229). Notably associated with the Swiss developmental psychologist Jean Piaget (cf. von Glaserfeld, 1995), cognitive constructivism departs from the key assumption that there is no knowledge that represents an objective reality but knowledge is acquired in an adaptive process in which new information is processed so that it fits into learners' existing schemata, and existing schemata are modified to integrate new information: Through these cognitive processes of assimilation and accommodation, knowledge is constructed, and the gained knowledge is an individually shaped approximation of the external world (Kaufmann, 2004; Piaget, 1972; William & Burden, 1997). Schunk (2012) points to a significant aspect of constructivism as a theory that conceptualises learning as "situated cognition" (p. 233) with learners as active participants so that "Challenging, open-ended investigations in realistic, meaningful contexts need to be offered which allow learners to explore and generate many possibilities, both affirming and contradictory" (Fosnot & Perry, 1995, p. 34).

The situatedness of learning is particularly emphasised in the sociocultural theory proposed by the Russian psychologist Lev Semeonovich Vygotsky. Sociocultural theory, as the name suggests, highlights the significance of interpersonal activity in a

community (thus *socio*) and utilisation of cultural-historical artefacts (thus *cultural*) as key components of learning (Vygotsky, 1978): Adopting the term “mediating activity” (p. 54) from Hegel, learning is realised in social interaction by utilising mediating tools. Those tools, created by humans, are objects, signs and symbols, with language as the most important tool. the tools carry cultural knowledge and “establish an indirect, or *mediated*, relationship between ourselves and the world” (Lantolf, 2000, p. 1, emphasis in the original). Throughout a developmental process, that, according to Vygotsky (1978), is initially interpersonal, concepts are acquired so that they are eventually mentally represented. In other words, social interaction launches an intrapersonal process through which concepts are internalised. Vygotsky emphasised the significance of language that serves as the main tool when concepts are learned from others (e.g. parents, teachers or peers) and later internalised through private speech that enables humans to self-regulate their learning. According to Vygotsky, this transformation of interpersonal (or interpsychological) processes into intrapersonal (or intrapsychological) processes is the key point in the development of higher mental processes.

As an educational implication, Vygotsky proposed the concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD) denoting the distance between a learner’s actual developmental level that allows problem-solving with the help of a capable person and the capacity to solve a problem without guidance (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 84-91): “Cognitive change occurs in the ZPD as a teacher and a learner share cultural tools, and this culturally mediated interaction produces cognitive change when it is internalized in the learner” (Schunk, 2012, p. 244). Notably, learning can also occur without social interaction with others: Humans can acquire concepts independently through interaction with cultural artefacts serving as mediating tools. This learning still counts as *socially* mediated because these tools have been generated in a process of negotiation among members in the cultural context (Schunk, 2012, p. 252). Previewing what will be said about coursebooks in Section 2.3.2., coursebooks play a significant role as mediating tools in formal instruction because they intentionally carry the cultural content to be transferred from generation to generation (Brown, 2009; Wertsch, 1998).

The contribution of Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory cannot be underestimated because it has led to or is mirrored in a variety of applications and conceptualisations that were not explicitly part of Vygotsky’s theory but are in line with key aspects (Daniels, 2007; Schunk, 2012, p. 247), namely scaffolding encompassing guidance provided to learners by, for example, teachers or deployment of mediating tools or

specific forms of instruction (Hmelmo-Silver, Duncan & Chinn, 2007; Pea, 2004; Puntambekar & Hübscher, 2005), conceptualisations of motivation informed from constructivist perspectives (Dörniyei & Ushioda, 2011, pp. 33-34), self-regulation (Bronson, 2000), cooperative behaviour (Ratner, 2013) encompassing forms of peer assisted learning such as peer tutoring or cooperative learning (Schunk, 2012, pp. 269-271; cf. Richards & Farrell, 2005), second language acquisition (SLA) (Lantolf, Thorne & Poehner, 2015; Saville-Troike, 2006) or teacher education and development (Johnson, 2009a; Roberts, 1998). Common for all these applications and conceptualisations is the understanding of learning as an actively realised co-construction of knowledge inseparably linked to the social context it is situated in (Kozulin, 2003).

2.2.2. Activity Theory

Stemming from Vygotsky's sociocultural theory, established by Alexei Leont'ev and notably developed and reconceptualised by James P. Lantolf and Yrjö Engeström, activity theory is based on the assumption that human functioning cannot be explained by analysing the environment or the individual actor separately but an account needs to focus on the actions humans perform while employing mediational tools (Wertsch, 1991). Human agency comprising understanding and action are "mediated by, and constrained by, symbolic and material artifacts that carry with them historically sedimented patterns of usage" (Thorne & Lantolf, 2015, p. 188), i.e. the symbolic and mediating tools provide humans with "transformative capacity" (Lantolf, 2005, p. 347.) and shape the activities humans engage in. Tracing the developments in the conceptualisation of activity theory, Engeström (2018) informs us that the theory has gradually been refined as the focus shifted from individually performed actions by means of mediating tools over accounts of collaborative activity towards the establishment of an activity system that denotes the dynamic and interacting components influencing the learning of individuals or groups. According to the most recent version of activity theory, the subject, an individual or a group, for example members of an organisation, works towards an object, defined as an objective with an intended outcome in a given context; the subject, while deploying tools to achieve an objective, is influenced by implicit or explicit rules, the community, which is established through shared aims, and the position that the individual members in an

organisation hold in terms of, for example, work load, power or status, (denoted as *division of labour*) (Engeström, 2018, pp. 48-50). Taylor, Klein, Munakata, Trabona, Rahman and McManus (2018) recently offered the following exemplification:

[I]f we considered a teacher (subject) in a school setting, the tools would be the teacher's instructional resources and the teacher's objective could be focused on developing an innovative constructivist-based unit. (...) [T]he teacher must mediate between resources available to her, be mindful of the district curriculum (rules), recognize the influence and demands of the school community with regard to the appropriateness and support of developing the unit, and finally, decide the unit of being developed with grade- or department-level colleagues (division of labor). Rules, community and division of labor are the social basis of the activity, which provide the context, influence the subject and shape the activity (pp. 5-6).

As Engeström (2018, pp. 49-50) emphasises, activity systems are not only complex due to the several components exerting their impacts but also because of the multiple voices of the participants involved with their distinct experiences, beliefs and interests; moreover, activity systems are shaped over a long time, i.e. they have their own history, and as they are open systems, new elements (e.g. a new methodological approach) may cause tensions (so-called contradictions) that have the potential to become the starting points to "expansive transformations in activity systems" (Engeström, 2018, p. 50). Accordingly, school has been conceptualised as a practice-based context that symbolises the mutually negotiated understandings of the participants (learners, teachers, authorities, parents), is potentially changeable and displays continuity as a setting with history (Kansanen, Tirri, Meri, Krokfors, Husu & Jyrhämä, 2000, p. 41). In that sense, activity theory explains learning as an attempt of participants in a community to come to an understanding of contradictions and to develop alternatives to address them. This learning is not individually realisable but needs to be carried out collaboratively with other participants in the community, and it is expansive because it is directed towards "the entire activity system in which the learners are engaged. Expansive learning activity produces culturally new patterns of activity" (Engeström, 2018, p. 51).

Engeström (2018) particularly proposes his advancement of activity theory as a framework to explain learning in workplaces. Activity theory does not only serve as a theoretical framework for the current study because the study is concerned with an opportunity for teachers to engage in professional development in their workplace, but it

is also the fundament for formative intervention methodology (Engeström & Sannino, 2010; Engeström, et al., 2014; Kramer, 2018; Penuel, 2014), which is a significant component of the research design. Formative intervention methodology is explicated in Section 3.2.2.

2.3. Coursebooks

The following sections deal with the coursebook as “the main aid to learning a second or foreign language since language classes began” (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 3). As Harwood (2014, p. 2) argues, research on coursebooks can and actually should be conducted regarding coursebook content (the topics through which the language is presented, the linguistic areas covered, the underlying pedagogy and its methodological implications), consumption (how learners, teachers, and other stakeholders involved, e.g. school managers, utilise coursebooks in their educational context), and production (including the establishment of principles and rationales the coursebook is based on, the actual writing, piloting and distribution). Even though this study is concerned with coursebook consumption as it investigates English language teachers’ beliefs about and exploitation of coursebooks, it is obviously advisable to cover key points addressing coursebook content and production to analyse, evaluate and interpret the documented coursebook exploitation accurately. Therefore, the review of the literature attempts to come to an understanding of the term *coursebook* by examining the coursebook’s place among other forms of materials and introducing basic distinctions related to materials in language teaching. This positioning prepares for a closer investigation of the role of coursebooks specifically including key issues in development and consumption, which are often subjects of controversies surrounding the values of coursebooks and considered as reasons for adaptation. Accounts of studies on how coursebooks are perceived by language teachers and how they are actually exploited conclude these sections.

2.3.1. Coursebooks and Materials: Definitions and Basic Distinctions

The coursebook for teaching a language to speakers of other languages is a type of material that is used primarily in formal instruction to facilitate SLA. The classification of the coursebook as a type of material is a recognition that there are other resources (such as videos, worksheets, PowerPoint presentations, cartoons, songs, photos,

virtually all kinds of realia) which can function as materials in foreign language teaching (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 2) as long as they are “deliberately used to increase the learner’s knowledge and/or experience of the language” (Tomlinson, 2011, p. 2). Notably, this definition is broader than, for example, Harwood’s (2010) definition of materials as “a term to encompass both texts and language-learning tasks: texts presented to the learner in the paper-based, audio or visual form, and/or exercises and activities built around such texts” (p. 3) or Brown’s (1995) definition of materials

as any systematic description of the techniques and exercises to be used in classroom teaching. Such a definition is broad enough to encompass lesson plans and yet can accommodate books, packets of audiovisual aids, games or any of the other myriad types of activities that go on in the classroom (p. 139).

Tomlinson and Masuhara’s (2018) conception of materials mirrors a shift from an understanding of materials as deliberately designed to be used for the purpose of teaching towards an understanding of materials as not necessarily produced for teaching/learning purposes but exploited to promote language learning in the target group. Formulating a radical definition, materials in language teaching and learning then “include *anything* which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language. They can be linguistic, visual, auditory, and they can be presented in print, through live performance, or on cassette, CD-ROM, DVD or the internet” (Tomlinson, 2001b, p. 66, emphasis added; cf. Bonsignori, 2018; Garton & Graves, 2014a, p. 654; Sercu, 2004, p. 394-395).

Further distinctions, partly implied in the explanation above, accentuate the diversity of materials. For one thing, McGrath (2013, p. 4-5) distinguishes between materials-as-content and materials-as-language. Materials-as-content encompass non-verbal materials such as realia to determine or clarify the meanings of words, prepare for language reception or production. For example, a coin and a banknote used to introduce vocabulary related to *money* or pictures to trigger spoken language production fall into the category of material-as-content. Materials-as-language are all materials that contain spoken or written text, thus expose learners to the target language. Second, it can be distinguished between published materials produced by commercial publishers or provided by non-profit organizations (e.g. a ministry of education), teacher-provided materials and learner-generated materials. Coursebooks, dictionaries or e-learning materials, for instance, belong to the first group of materials. Materials provided by teachers are those materials that are either developed by teachers (e.g. worksheets, tests,

PowerPoint presentations, activities) or retrieved from other sources (e.g. YouTube videos, downloaded worksheets, newspaper articles) (Gray, 2016). Stories written by one group of learners for another one would be an example for learner-generated material (McGrath, 2013; Saraceni, 2003; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018). Moreover, it can be distinguished between materials that are designed to be used worldwide and those addressing a local audience by taking regional, national or cultural peculiarities of the learners into account (Gray, 2010, pp. 35-36). Additionally, as a consequence of an ongoing diversification of English language teaching, materials are now tailored for the specific needs of language learners, for example, of young learners or those preparing for international exams; furthermore, there are coursebooks published catering specific domains such as English for specific purposes (ESP), English for academic purposes (EAP) or content and language integrated learning (CLIL) (McDonough et al., 2013, pp. 3-4; Richards, 2014, p. 20).

Apparently, materials are “sources of language input” (Tomlinson, 2011, p. 2) which receive their validity as means to facilitate language learning through a pedagogical intention attached (Mishan & Timmis, 2015, p. 3). To contribute to language learning, materials are considered to serve five functions: (i) they are informative as they inform learners about the target language; (ii) they are instructional as they offer learners guidance on how to practice language; (iii) they are experiential as they allow learners to experience language in use; (iv) they are eliciting as they promote learners’ language use; (v) they are exploratory as they offer learners opportunities to make discoveries about the target language (Tomlinson, 2012).

The next section will specifically examine the role of coursebooks in foreign language teaching. This includes a review of functions and a discussion of key aspects significant for coursebook content, consumption and development. Admittedly, part of the key aspects examined also refers to materials other than coursebooks. However, as the focus of the current study is on coursebooks, more precisely on current global ELT coursebooks (López-Barrios & Villanueva de Debat, 2014; Richards, 2014), primary reference is given to this kind of material.

2.3.2. ELT Coursebooks: Definitions and Typology

Coursebooks, also called textbooks, commonly understood as a set of printed pages containing content to be taught in formal instruction, have been used since the 16th

century in Europe and became the predominant medium in school contexts in the 19th century as aids to transmitting canonised knowledge (Sammler, 2018). This means coursebooks are tools to put curricula into effect and providers of information relevant to a subject.

As “curriculum artifact” (Brown, 2009, p. 18; Ilieva, 2018, p. 2), they have a mediating function as they contain kinds of knowledge (e.g. concepts, conventions, rules, values, practices) and guide teachers and learners in instructional practice by presenting content in a sequenced way so that curriculum can be enacted. Drawing upon Vygotsky (1978) and Wertsch’s (1991, 1998) notions of *mediated activity*, Brown (2009) points to the feature of coursebooks (and any other form of curriculum materials) as having the capacity to activate learners (e.g. by involving them in using a foreign or second language) within a set of affordances and constraints so that ideally the process of language learning is initiated. Since coursebooks “are inert objects that come alive only through interpretation and use” (Brown, 2009, p. 17), it is obvious that some kind of interaction is required between coursebooks and the participants in the specific educational setting so that coursebooks unfold their effect (Cohen & Ball, 1999). Teachers with their beliefs, knowledge, experiences and abilities interpret the curriculum artefacts (coursebooks, any kind of material, objectives, content and pedagogy), decide on how to enact the curriculum, and while enacting the curriculum materials (the coursebook), the learners as the third participant react to the material and to the exploitation realised by the teacher (Remillard, 2005). Both teachers and learners are agents in this process and the “*use of material objects as cultural tools results in changes in the agent*” (Wertsch, 1998, p. 31, emphasis added).

The quotation from Wertsch above, who does not explicitly refer to coursebooks but to any kind of artefacts serving as mediational means used in any context to facilitate some kind of learning, directs us to the second feature of the coursebook, its value-loadedness as a cultural artefact based on “the assumption that the curriculum is not neutral and TBs [textbooks] are the curriculum artifact which plays a major role in defining whose culture and knowledge are taught in English language classrooms” (Ilieva, 2018, p. 5). In other words, coursebooks are outcomes and representations of worldviews prevailing in the socio-historical context they were developed in; this is immediately visible in the selection of topics through which the language is presented but is also apparent in the methodology adopted: For instance coursebooks subscribing to the audio-lingual approach offer text types, language and activities distinctly different

from coursebooks subscribing to communicative approaches, as they rest on different views of language and language acquisition, follow different teaching objectives and syllabi, and ascribe different roles to learners, teachers and the material itself (Gray, 2010; Littlejohn, 2012; Maley, 2016; Nunan, 2015; Thornbury, 2011).

In the previous section on coursebooks and materials, it was pointed out that materials are developed for specific contexts often depending on learner age (e.g. primary, secondary or tertiary education) or specific needs (e.g. for certain professional groups). Another, established, typology of coursebooks refers to the location of the target group: The distinction between coursebooks produced for international markets or those for national or local markets has gained relevance in the last years. Taking this distinction into consideration, López-Barrios and Villanueva de Debat (2014, p. 38) classify ELT coursebooks into three different types:

- global coursebooks are developed for use irrespective of the location of the learner; they are designed for heterogeneous and homogeneous learner groups in institutions with official curricula, language schools and tertiary education;
- localised coursebooks, i.e. adapted global coursebooks, address a specific target group of learners in a specific location receiving instruction within the framework of a national curriculum; they are designed for rather homogeneous learner groups in institutions with official curricula;
- local coursebooks are also designed for a specific target group in a specific location receiving instruction within the framework of a national curriculum; they are developed for homogeneous learner groups in institutions with official curricula.

Global and localised ELT coursebooks are produced by internationally operating, mainly British and American publishers, while local coursebooks are produced by both international and national publishers. To capture the dimensions of coursebooks in more detail, the specific functions of current ELT coursebooks as organisers of programmes in formal instruction, as tools teachers benefit from to realise language teaching and as resources supporting learners are reviewed below.

2.3.3. ELT Coursebooks: Functions

ELT coursebooks fulfil specific functions as curriculum organisers for school administrators, for teachers, and for learners. I will deal with these aspects in turn.

Contemporary ELT coursebooks which claim to consider the implications of communicative language teaching (McDonough et al.; 2013, pp. 32-33; cf. Howatt & Widdowson, 2004, Littlejohn, 2012) typically present contextualised samples of and information about the target language embedded in a course of activities to initiate communicative interaction. The topics are organised in a coherent programme, so that the language becomes teachable and learning progress can be achieved. Usually consisting of several volumes covering distinct language proficiency levels, coursebooks are designed “to be used as a foundation of a course” (McGrath 2013, p. 5; cf. Sheldon, 1987) and are in many contexts actually the base on which administrators develop curricula “to gain face validity for their courses” (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 26; cf. Maley, 2016) – for that reason they are labelled *coursebooks* (Gray, 2016). Unlike curricula or objectives, which, for example, may be explicitly stated in a school programme, coursebooks are present in the daily practice of teachers and learners, and, consequently, exert a stronger force as organiser of a programme (Ball & Cohen, 1996). As “a convenient administrative tool” (McGrath, 2013, p. 6), coursebooks standardise instruction ensuring that learners in different classes learn the same content at a time and can be given the same tests. To fulfil this function, current coursebooks are usually offered in packages including tests along with other resources (e.g. photocopiable worksheets, audio and video material, access to online resources).

Apart from these advantages, coursebooks serve teachers particularly in the following regards. For one thing, coursebooks supply teachers with accurate language input (texts, exercises, activities) that addresses the proficiency levels of the learners, and as this input is presented in a sequenced way, teachers are guided methodologically, usually with the help of accompanied teacher’s books (McGrath, 2013; Ur, 1999, pp. 79-80). This guidance can be arranged through procedural supports informing teachers on how to implement particular components into instructional practice or educative supports informing teachers about learning goals, standards according to which the coursebook is designed, conceptions and knowledge learners probably have access to or content knowledge covered in the materials (Roblin, Schunn & McKenney, 2018). In line with these features, coursebooks compensate for teachers’ potential lack of expertise in generating suitable texts and activities and give them space to focus on the daily instructional practice (Allwright, 1981). For this reason, coursebooks save teacher time that otherwise would be needed for preparation and, additionally, they serve inexperienced teachers as a form of professional development (Richards, 2001a, p. 251).

The coursebook works also as a compensation for non-native teachers' limited L2 proficiency, which may prevent them from improvisational and spontaneous teaching, as they can rely on the coursebook to greater extent (Richards, 2017). Native speaker teachers, on the other hand, are more likely to prepare their own materials instead, benefitting from their advantage in terms of English-language competence and more profound knowledge of the target culture (Arva & Medgyes, 2000). Extending these advantages and drawing on Hutchinson and Torres' (1994) characterisation of the coursebook as disseminator of methodological innovation, Ur (2015) makes the point that

Few teachers read curricula or theoretical guidelines published by an authority; even fewer have the time or energy to work out how to implement these in their classrooms on their own. The changes will be implemented in classrooms simply because the teachers are using the course books which apply them, and for this reason only (p. 7).

However, as Brown (2009, p. 18) remarks, there should be some caution in arguing that coursebooks and other materials, as a matter of fact, serve as transmitter of instructional reform, especially if the material does not meet the needs of the specific instructional context (Farooqui, 2008) or if coursebooks and/or the methodological novelties introduced by them do not resonate with the beliefs teachers hold, are not perceived as reasonable or are not welcomed by learners (Andrewes, 2008; Bolitho, 1990; Collopy, 2003; Humphries, 2014; Rinvulcri, 2007).

In spite of dissident voices, which will be discussed in more detail in the next section, the reasons presented so far along with the facts that coursebooks are professionally designed, authored by experts, piloted to be launched to the markets and reviewed for later editions by established publishers (cf. Amrani, 2011; McGrath, 2013, pp. 29-42; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, pp. 148-167 for detailed accounts), put forward convincing arguments that coursebook provide teachers with security as they are perceived as reliable tools for teaching (Garton & Graves, 2014b, p. 3).

Apparently, it is the actual exploitation of coursebooks (which depends to great extent on the teacher) that has an impact on how effectively the coursebook is used in instructional practice (Cunningsworth, 1995; Hadley, 2014; Harwood, 2014). This is basically concerned with adaptation, which is dealt with in the Sections 2.3.6.1. and 2.3.6.2. Suffice it here to say that the coursebook has been criticised for deskilling teachers because it is exactly its advantage of serving teachers in many aspects of their

teaching that may tempt them to uncritically follow it as the script (Swan, 1992; cf. McGrath, 2013, p. 77) or accept it as the authoritative medium (Richards, 1998, p. 131) without considering in how far its use fits to the complexity of instructional practice and contributes to language learning in a specific context (Littlejohn, 2011, p. 179), eventually leading to an “under-involvement of the learner” (O’Neill, 1982, p. 104).

As a resource for learners, coursebooks offer opportunities to review and preview lesson content based on visible evidence for learning progress, and this evidence is also provided for “parents of young learners who are keen to know what their children are doing and to offer their help if it is needed” (McGrath, 2013, p. 5). As Garton and Graves (2014b, p. 3) note, coursebooks foster learner autonomy because they can be used as a reference outside classroom instruction. Moreover, coursebooks are often viewed as attractive by learners as they transmit cultural information in a visually appealing manner; surely, their attractiveness is enhanced by a wealth of extra materials accompanied in form of audio and video material, e-learning programmes and DVD-ROMs (cf. Charalambous, 2011; Harmer, 2007, p. 181; McGrath, 2013; Richards & Renandya, 2002; Tomlinson, 2012). Through their information and communication technology components, current coursebook packages additionally contribute to the development of learners’ digital literacy (i.e. the skills needed to use digital media), allow learners and teachers to track learning progress, and offer teachers a starting point to the implementation of digital tools in their classrooms, most notably through interactive whiteboards (IWB) as an aid assisting teachers in coursebook exploitation in class (Motteram, 2011; Dudeney, Hockly & Pegrum, 2014). Finally, as Ur (1999, p. 79) notes, given the amount of material conveniently offered in packages, coursebooks are reasonably priced.

The account so far has indicated a variety of functions the coursebook performs in formal instruction providing a framework for administrators, teachers and learners because they convey “a sense of structure and progress” (Ur, 1999, p. 79). More than two decades ago, Hutchinson and Torres (1994) somehow summarised the coursebook functions reviewed noting that coursebooks diminish the potentially threatening unpredictability of classroom interaction, provide input for negotiation as a prerequisite to initiate learning, meet demands for accountability by providing evidence for content taught and methods applied in the classroom to stakeholders (e.g. parents, school principals, educational authorities at government level), and structure the teaching and learning of a foreign language by providing orientation for teachers and learners.

2.3.4. ELT Coursebooks: Key Issues in Development and Consumption

Given the multi-functionality of coursebooks for course developers, teachers, learners and other stakeholders, it is unsurprising that coursebooks are widely accepted as the main medium to facilitate learning in formal instruction. The professional look of current coursebooks packages and their promotion through international publishers have furthermore strengthened their position as authoritative and credible media in classrooms around the world (Mishan & Timmis, 2015, p. 45). In foreign language teaching, they are the most frequently used kind of materials, and in many contexts teaching and learning heavily depend on coursebooks (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 25; cf. Bolitho, 1990; Garton & Graves, 2014a; Gray, 2016; Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013; Harwood, 2017).

Apart from the functions reviewed so far, a closer examination of key issues being considered significant for coursebook development and consumption will furthermore contribute to uncovering the theoretical underpinnings ELT coursebooks are based on. A review of scholarly publications on coursebooks (e. g. McDonough et al., 2013; McGrath, 2013, 2016; Mishan & Timmis, 2015; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018) reveals a variety of overlapping and interacting issues that I will organise under three topics: *authenticity* of coursebook language, text and tasks, the *content* through which language is presented, and the *methodology* defined as the organisation of learning in coursebooks. These issues have gained importance with the rise of communicative language teaching in all its manifestations as it issued the demand for creating language materials that engage learners in communicative activities to learn the foreign language for communicative purposes (Hall, 2011, pp. 93-95). In spite of attempts to formulate guiding principles (e.g. Bell & Gower, 2011; Crawford, 2002; Maley, 2016; McDonough et al., 2013; Nation, 1993; Timmis, 2014; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018), scholars and practitioners (researchers, coursebook writers and teachers) hold different views on how to address these issues in actual coursebook production and consumption. Unsurprisingly then, the value of coursebooks for foreign language teaching and learning has been questioned and the necessity to adapt coursebook materials has been emphasised (McGrath, 2013; Tomlinson, 2017; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018).

Authenticity

Denoting correspondence to or representativeness of reality in its core meaning, authenticity is a commonly used, yet problematic notion in foreign language teaching and learning because it refers to a variety of issues (Ahmed, 2017; Buendgens-Kosten, 2014; Gilmore, 2007; Mishan, 2005): It is associated with the quality of language, texts and accompanied tasks as considered to be conducive to facilitating communicative competence (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018), closeness to the English used by native speakers as the model to achieve (Cook, 2016; Widdowson, 1996), the validity of tests as evidenced by “parallelism of real-world activities and test tasks” (Fulcher, 2000, p. 484), and the purposefulness of interaction taking the specific context of formal instruction into consideration (i.e. the interactions perceived as authentic by the participants involved) (van Lier, 1996).

In coursebooks, authenticity is an evidently important factor for the selection of language, texts and tasks. It is traditionally referred to material that has not been produced but is used for pedagogical purposes (Nunan, 1989, p. 54; Wallace, 1996, p. 145; cf. Pinner, 2018, pp. 17-18). Notably, authenticity is a gradable term because its degree can be enhanced or diminished in a continuum ranging from unmodified authentic material at the one end of the continuum over modified authentic material or contrived material that has been given an authentic look to contrived material for explicitly pedagogical purposes at the other end of the continuum (Council of Europe, 2001, pp. 145-146; Cunningsworth, 1996, p. 117). Closely connected to the postulations of communicative language teaching, the point is made that authentic language and tasks used in coursebooks will prepare learners in a more effective manner for the challenges they will face as language users outside the classroom (Widdowson, 1996), and this is best realised when coursebooks contain language taken from out-of-classroom contexts or resembling usage in real communication to achieve “the rich and meaningful exposure to language in use” (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 31; cf. Carter, Hughes & McCarthy, 2011). By nature, authentic materials are linguistically richer, exposes learners to a variety of styles and encompasses a great deal of genres so that its instructional versatility is enhanced as it can be utilised for tasks simulating communication outside the classroom and introduces to cultural issues related to the target language (Berardo, 2006; Guariento & Morley, 2001; Kılıçkaya, 2004; Tamo, 2009). Due to these features, authentic language, texts and tasks are considered to exert

a significantly stronger effect on language learners' motivation, engagement, empathy and attitudes towards language learning (Gilmore, 2007; Mishan, 2005).

Studies on coursebook authenticity (defined as closeness of text typology, language and task to the world outside the classroom) have shown that coursebooks actually lack authenticity in terms of, for example, discourse features covered in coursebook dialogues (Gilmore, 2004), coursebook topics (Siegel, 2014), or exposition to text types and varieties of English (Clavel-Arroita & Fuster-Marquez, 2014). Summarising research examining the authenticity of language and task authenticity in global coursebooks, Tomlinson (2016a) states that, especially in coursebooks for lower proficiency levels, the language presented is “an idealised and simplified version of a standard variety of English” (p. 56). These findings are confirmed in other studies reporting mismatches between coursebook language and the language documented in corpora in terms of lexical phrases, grammatical structures and pragmatics leading to the conclusion coursebook publishers tend to refrain from getting informed by corpora to enhance authenticity (Burton, 2012; Harwood, 2014; Timmis, 2015; for local coursebooks used at state schools in Turkey see Peksoy & Harmaoğlu, 2017). It is then ironic, as Pinner (2018, p. 17) notes, that publishers resort to authenticity of all slogans to sell their products.

The traditional concept of authenticity and the claimed superiority of authentic material have been challenged for several reasons. First of all, it is argued that the linguistic deficiency of the learner (who is, by nature, in a state of developing language proficiency) requires exposition to carefully designed materials – prudently enriched with authentic material – to address the state of language development (Swan, 1985). As Widdowson (1996) notes, complete reliance on authentic materials, especially if it represents native-speakers' use of English, conflicts with the process of autonomous language learning because authentic language “will be *appropriate* in contexts of use” but may not serve as “language that can be *appropriated* in contexts of learning” (p. 67, emphasis in the original). Widdowson (1978, p. 80), therefore, proposed the distinction between genuineness of material in absolute terms and the authenticity of material denoting the significance it has for learners. In line with these considerations, criticism has been voiced concerning the authenticity in ELT coursebooks as evidenced in learning tasks simulating native speaker communication in the target culture, which may actually lack authenticity for learners because they are unlikely to experience such situations (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p. 188). “In a rural village of China, how is it possible to

‘authenticate’ a textbook in which people with British or American accents discuss which night club to visit?” (Pinner, 2018, p. 14; cf. Newby, 2000). Authenticity comprehended as the exposition to or imitation of language use by native speakers in monolingual native speaker contexts is likely to be “culturally alienating” (Prodromou, 1988, p. 30), perpetuates power relations as L2 and the culture of the language learner are stigmatised as inferior compared to the target language (Lowe & Pinner, 2016; Pinner, 2018) and neglects the distinct authenticity of the language classroom which is achieved when language learners can respond to materials offered and interaction among classroom participants is realised (Breen, 1985; Lee, 1995; van Lier, 1996).

Summarising current discussions, Pinner (2018) points to the paradox of authenticity because a contrived, thus in a classical definition ‘inauthentic’ material or activity may be perceived as authentic by learners or teachers, while ‘authentic’ material may be perceived inauthentic by teachers or learners when they do not recognise a purpose or value in interacting with the material. For this reason, Trabelski (2014) suggests to consider authenticity accomplished when coursebook materials trigger an appropriate learner response, display an inherent relevance by addressing learner needs and are informed by SLA research. Apparently, this shift in conceptualising authenticity has attracted interest in literature on material development: Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018, p. 33) for example do not insist on originality of materials or native speakers as producers of materials as long as they engage learners in a kind of interaction and lead to a learning outcome. Striking evidence for the emerging reconceptualisation of authenticity provides Tomlinson’s (2018) suggestion to slightly modify typical, ‘inauthentic’ coursebook activities “to engage the learners affectively and cognitively and to involve *authentic* communication” (p. 27, emphasis added).

Coursebook Content

As indicated in the review of authenticity in materials, coursebook content is a crucial issue in material development and consumption. Here, content refers to the topics dealt with in coursebook materials (e.g. *extreme sports*) and the situational context in which activities (e.g. *a role play in a café*) are introduced (cf. Siegel, 2014). The selection of content is important as it carries certain worldviews and potentially provides models for learners to achieve. Coursebook content has primarily debated with reference to global ELT coursebooks that, as it is claimed, propagate the ideology of the superiority of the Western world and neoliberalism.

According to Gray (2002), the rise of the global coursebook in the last quarter of the 20th century is connected to the globalisation as evidenced by the increasing importance of transnational corporations, world organisations and the Internet as the globalised network, which strengthened the position of English as the language for international communication. Along with these developments, ELT was identified as a profitable market because a growing number of language learners worldwide needed to be provided with teaching materials (Mishan & Timmis, 2015); it has been argued that the dominance of a handful of big publishers over the market has generated a situation in which coursebook production is guided by the intention to boost profit rather than pedagogic considerations (Burton, 2012, p. 97; Sewall, 2005). Cook (2016) remarks that “the view that native speakers based in England should write the textbooks for teaching English around the world was a godsend for many British publishers” (p. 14). This development has been interpreted as an attempt to perpetuating the dominance of the Anglo-Saxon culture through a form of post-colonialist linguistic imperialism in order to establish English as the valid currency for international communication in politics, science, popular culture and other areas of public and private life, and to devalue other languages (Canagarajah, 1999; Nault, 2006; Pennycook, 1994; Philippon, 1992; for critical responses to these views cf. Crystal, 2003, and Montgomery, 2013). Lowe and Pinner (2016) and Cook (1998), for example, show that the ELT industry perpetuates the preferred reading of the native speaker as the authority not only in terms of language proficiency but also as the carrier of Western values that English language learners need to appropriate in order to become accepted members of the group of English speakers. This coincides with an insufficient consideration of English used as a means of international communication between non-native speakers in coursebooks (Kirkpatrick & Deterding, 2011); global coursebooks rarely offer opportunities for English use in crosslingual communication as if language learners were going to use English in English-only contexts imitating communication by native speakers (Tomlinson, 2016a).

Some trends in the presentation of content in global coursebooks document that the aspects explained in the previous paragraph have been addressed. While early ELT coursebooks (from the 1960s on) indeed showed Western values and life styles as superior and desirable models to follow by language learners (Mishan & Timmis, 2015, p. 44), the 1990s saw a change in coursebook content as a response to the insight that English is most frequently used as an international language (in communication between non-native speakers or between non-native and native speakers in a variety of

contexts) (Sewell, 2013) and to enhance the acceptance of coursebooks on international markets.

Gray (2002) identifies three aspects fostering this change. For one thing, coursebooks adhere to the principle of localisation as content is presented in international locations and through (real or fictional) characters that are not exclusively native speakers. Second, coursebooks show more frequently women presented in less stereotypical roles. Third, controversial topics, which may be regarded as offensive or even unacceptable in certain cultures are avoided: The acronym PARSNIP standing for politics, alcohol, religion, sex, narcotics, isms, and pork has become the label for the policy of publishers to exclude topics having the potential to provoke discussions about inequality in or dissension within society (Arıkan, 2008; Gray, 2002, p. 159). This “kind of censorship” (Wallace, 2003, p. 67) practised in coursebooks undermines the calls of critical pedagogy to provide learners with materials that engage them in critically addressing issues referring to their immediate context (Crookes, 2013; Piosang, 2018). Gray (2002) discusses the interaction of content selection, commerce and pedagogic effect:

So while coursebooks can be seen as *feminized* for ethical reasons they are also *sanitized* for commercial purposes. The politically correct (and I use the term positively) inclusivity is undermined by a commercially motivated exclusivity which neutralizes the material and often prevents linguistic engagement with certain topics (pp. 159-160; emphasis in the original).

Expanding these considerations, Swan (1992) points to the lack of topics in which authority is called into question; instead, coursebooks limit themselves to safe topics that are likely to train language learners to become “good conformist people to say good conformist things” (Swan, 1992, p. 34). Referring to the conceptualisation of coursebooks as cultural artefacts (Ilieva, 2018; cf. Section 2.3.2.) as they mirror ideologies prevalent in the wider social and economic context, several researchers (Bori, 2018; Gray, 2002, 2010; J. Gray, 2012; Meddings & Thornbury, 2011) have made the point that global ELT coursebooks present “artifacts of a pervasive form of neoliberal globalization that erode the pedagogy (...) in outer-circle countries by isolating learners from concerns of their local context” (Hadley, 2014, p. 210).

This is evidenced through highlighting topics such as traveling, sport, career or celebrities which communicate consumerism and striving for professional success as desirable activities along with exclusion of certain social groups and foregrounding of others (Bulut & Arıkan, 2015; Copley, 2018, Grant & Wong, 2018; J. Gray, 2012; Gray

& Block, 2012; Harwood, 2014). Arıkan (2005), for example, showed that visual materials used in global coursebooks predominantly display representations of young, male members of the middle class engaged in sports or serious business. While Melliti (2013) reports a more balanced distribution of the sexes in his study, he confirms the view that activities stereotypically related to Western culture are foregrounded. As a general tendency in studies evaluating coursebook content topics and learner preferences, a mismatch has been identified so that the call for localised (sometimes also called glocalised) coursebooks has been issued (Arıkan, 2005, 2008; Melliti, 2013). Localisation would more accurately address the needs of learners of English as a second or foreign language (ESL) and the contexts they expect to use the language in (Cook, 2016).

Methodology

I will now examine the methodology of coursebooks referring to the procedures utilised by coursebook authors to initiate and facilitate second or foreign language learning. Current ELT coursebooks resonate with the influences of both the structural view of language prevailing in the 1960s and the communicative approach in language teaching introduced in the 1970s (Larsen-Freeman, 2011; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The communicative approach is based on the assumption that language teaching and learning should enable learners to communicate effectively in the second or foreign language, and this goal is best achieved through engaging learners in language learning tasks that resemble situations in which the language is used (Cook, 2008; Widdowson, 1978). However, the consideration that implementing some focus on form may be beneficial to achieving SLA has given rise to a form of eclecticism in material design leading to a combination of communication-oriented and grammar-focused components in temporary coursebooks (Hall, 2011, pp. 94-95).

McDonough et al. (2013, pp. 22-31) see six principles that inform current approaches in material development: First, grammatical structures are presented in relation to communicative functions. Second, exposition to and practice of language are realised through texts and tasks that resemble language use outside the classroom in order to enhance authenticity. Third, accuracy is not regarded as the sole indicator of achievement in SLA, and the significance of communicative competence as the ability to select linguistic choices appropriate to a specific situation is recognised. This coincides with a less strong focus on correctness of grammatical form. Fourth, since

communicative language teaching stresses the importance of language use in context, language is not presented at single-sentence level. Instead, language is taught over stretches of language paying attention to discourse features. Fifth, current approaches in materials design pay attention to the inclusion of the skills of speaking, writing, listening and reading, preferably in tasks combining two or more skills. Sixth, materials developers conceptualise language as both “to have inherent communicative as well as grammatical properties” (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 31). Consequently, part of the activities provided in coursebooks is communicative in nature, while part of the activities mirrors more traditional grammar instruction (cf. Hall, 2011, p. 94). The obvious materialisation of these guiding principles in ELT materials design is the implementation of multi-component syllabi as the structuring principle in coursebook design (McDonough et al., 2013, pp. 34-39 with examples).

In spite of these guiding principles and claims by publishers that coursebooks are based on sound methodological frameworks, “there has been very little change in the pedagogy they actually use” (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 34). There are four areas of criticism.

First, coursebooks may not suit the needs of individual learners but emphasise linguistic or analytical aspects of language learning at the expense of involving learners in a physically, emotionally and experientially rich learning experience (Tomlinson, 2017). Wright (2015) argues that it is not enough to use coursebooks as they are, but teachers need to benefit from their own and their learners’ creativity to enhance relevance of materials. In line with this, Tomlinson (2015) suggests to adapt coursebook materials by, for example, allowing learners to respond to texts in a personalised way instead of answering given comprehension questions, by modifying the procedures suggested in coursebooks (e.g. turning closed activities into open-ended activities, having learners generate their own questions), localising material or having learners create a text based on comprehension questions given to a coursebook text (cf. also Thornbury, 2013). Put simply, enhancing creativity is regarded as a way to address deficiencies of coursebooks and other curricular materials (Maley, 2015).

Another, the most radical way of humanising coursebooks is their complete exclusion from the foreign language classroom based on the conviction that “[t]eaching should be done using only the resources that teachers and students bring to the classroom – i.e. themselves – and whatever happens to be in the classroom” (Thornbury, 2000, p. 2). Conceptualised as the so-called Dogme movement (Meddings

& Thornbury, 2009), the idea is that language learning based on the contributions and needs of the participants rather than pre-established curricula and materials meets specific learner interests more fully and reduces the overreliance on materials. However promising Dogme appears to enhance the relevance of content and methods for learners, it appears to be challenging for novice and non-native teachers as it puts teachers in the role of facilitators who have to spontaneously deal with potentially unpredictable classroom situations and constantly check if learning outcomes are in line with prescribed curricula (Cowie, 2015; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018).

A second strand of criticism is directed to evidence that coursebooks heavily rely on direct transmission of linguistic information, resort to a presentation, practice, production (PPP) pattern in organising lessons (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, pp. 189-192), and are dominated by a focus on grammar presented through inauthentic language and tasks (cf. McGrath, 2013; Tomlinson, 2012). Modern communicative coursebooks are regarded to be communicative only at a surface level because they still resort to comprehension tasks in receptive skills and engage learners in speaking and writing tasks of dubious relevance (Harmer, 2003).

Third, global coursebooks appear not to develop learner autonomy because the teaching and learning process is structured to ensure a certain progression at the expense of providing strategies for self-regulated learning (Fenner, 2000; Reinders & Balçıkanlı, 2011). Global coursebooks have been criticised for not providing opportunities for learners to read content covered in coursebooks critically as their role is often restricted to reporting what has been understood from a text (Gray, 2000).

Fourth, coursebooks may actually deskill teachers because “the teacher’s role can become reduced to that of a technician whose primary function is to present materials prepared by others” (Richard & Renandya, 2002, p. 67). Akbari (2008) argues that coursebooks provide overworked teachers with elaborate guidelines on how to teach in class discouraging them to develop their own methods and, instead, encouraging them to uncritically adopt “the practical philosophy of coursebooks because the practical philosophy is more tangible and convenient for classroom applications” (p. 646). Driven by the neoliberal attempts to regulate society in terms of accountability and functionality, coursebooks are organised in a way that teachers and learners have to meet the requirements of

standardised materials (...) now routinely packaged into ‘chunks’ of two-page workplans, standardised into ostensible ‘50 minute lessons’, such that the teacher

concerned can teach from a two-page spread. These spreads are often tied together into larger entities, often known as ‘units,’ ‘modules,’ ‘blocks,’ ‘themes’ or such like, which have a recurring structure, ensuring predictability across the materials as a whole. Thus, ‘warm up’ activities may be routinely followed by some reading, which may be followed by grammar work, which may give way to written practice, before ending with some ‘freer work’ (the traditional PPP model, still being the norm) (Littlejohn, 2012, p. 291).

We have seen that the impact of neoliberalism has been identified on the selection of content used in coursebooks (see this section above), and we will see that its influence has also been traced concerning current applications of reflective practice (see Section 2.4.4.).

Tomlinson’s (2008, pp. 8-9; resumed in Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018) overview of frequently expressed criticism serves as a summary of the aspects discussed in this section: Global ELT coursebooks tend to

- underestimate learners’ linguistic and cognitive abilities;
- are not compelling because language and task complexity are reduced;
- rely on the PPP approach;
- utilise unchallenging activities in which learners are asked to memorise, repeat, substitute or transform to achieve task outcomes;
- combine skill-oriented work with the teaching of language structures;
- do not invite learners to respond to material emotionally or reflectively by incorporating material that is neither aesthetically appealing nor controversial;
- do not sufficiently consider language experiences beyond the classroom through an overreliance on decontextualised language presentation and practice;
- suffer from uni-dimensionality because language processing is limited to decoding and/or encoding.

Addressing the criticisms reported above, Macalister (2016b) calls for a more systematic application of learning principles to coursebook production and consumption. This foresees a balanced inclusion of materials providing meaning-focused input and output for reading, listening, speaking and writing to promote language focused learning and fluency. In other words, language reception and

production need to be contextualised and relevant for learners, and opportunities need to be provided in which learners can notice language features, discover their functions, and process them. Also, learners need to be exposed to language containing frequently used lexical items and grammatical structure. Finally, Macalister (2016b) points to the interference principle that states that items taught in instruction needs to be sequenced in a way that interference effects are avoided: It is frequently observed in coursebook materials that vocabulary items or grammar structures that can be easily confused are given on the same page or in the same unit, which is actually counterproductive to learning.

This section on authenticity, content and methodology of global ELT coursebooks with a variety of interacting components suggest that coursebooks need to be exploited in a way that drawbacks impeding language learning are minimised. Undoubtedly, teachers are in the most prominent role to address shortcomings of coursebooks as they can adapt them in their daily instructional practice. Before I deal with coursebook adaptation, I will report on language teachers' general beliefs about coursebooks. This does not include teachers' evaluations of specific coursebooks, a related topic, yet beyond the scope of this study.

2.3.5. Teacher Beliefs about ELT Coursebooks

The beliefs teachers hold about coursebooks is one factor that influences how teachers actually use them in class. Generally speaking, teachers may welcome coursebooks for one or more of the reasons explicated in Section 2.3.2., or they may perceive them as a hindrance that deskills them or restricts their pedagogical freedom (Allwright, 1981, p. 6), and exploit them in their teaching accordingly. However, teachers' coursebook beliefs must not be evaluated in an isolated manner because other beliefs (e.g. about language learning or teaching) may have an impact whether or not methodologically validated practices (e.g. based on the principles of communicative language teaching) offered in coursebooks are realised (Bolitho, 1990). Also teachers, even though they are not convinced of the usefulness of coursebooks, may enact the script foreseen by coursebook authors when other alternatives are not available (Yuen, 1997, as cited in Allen, 2015, p. 251).

Two important studies concerning English language teachers' views of coursebooks were conducted by McGrath. The author analysed metaphors or similes for coursebooks

(elicited with a sentence stem *A coursebook is...*) and additional coming from 75 teachers in Hong Kong (McGrath, 2006a) and 221 Brazilian teachers (2006b), and categorised the data to themes. Figure 2 visualises the results of the study with the teachers in Hong Kong.

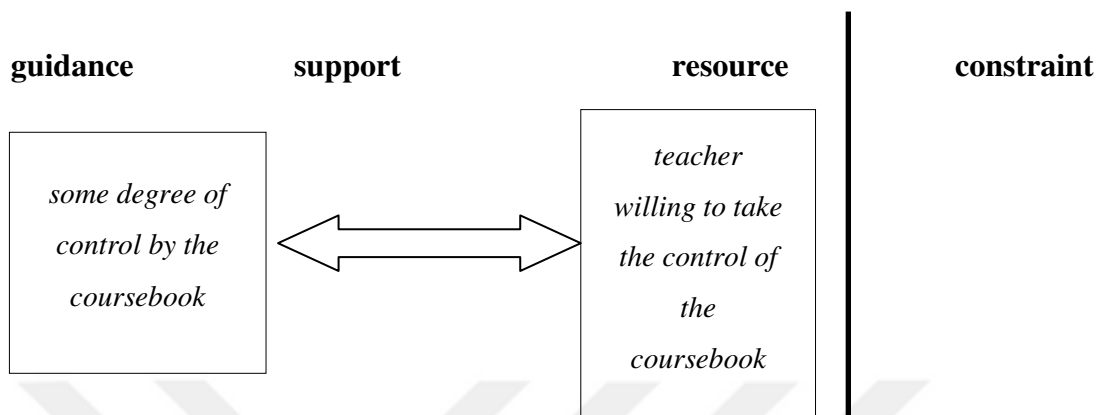


Figure 2. Thematic categorisation of teacher beliefs concerning coursebooks (based on McGrath, 2006a)

Figure 2 shows that the participants in McGrath's (2006a) study viewed coursebooks positively as guidance (using metaphors like *map*, *path* or *compass*), as support (using metaphors like *petrol*, *anchor* or *blind man's stick*), or as resource (using metaphors like *salad*, *tool* or *ingredients*); negative teacher beliefs of coursebooks were categorised as constraint based on metaphors like *road block*, *millstone* or *straitjacket*. An additional categorisation, *access*, is given in McGrath (2006b) encompassing images like *door*, *key* or *bridge*). Notably, teachers who held positive views in general pointed also to negative aspects of coursebooks, for example, when a teacher appreciated the coursebook as a map but added that the map may guide teachers into a wrong direction. Also, some teachers stuck to two or more metaphors showing that teachers' coursebook conceptualisations are complex. On the whole, positive conceptualisations outnumbered the negative ones and, in general, teachers seem to appreciate coursebooks with an awareness of shortcomings (Bolster, 2015; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007; Sampson, 2009). Arıkan (2009), for example, asked prospective teachers completing a practicum in Turkish secondary schools on their views of textbooks. Given some variety in answers, the participating student teachers agreed on the view that coursebooks were the most important kind of material with generally good quality providing visualisation of lesson content, while insufficient consideration of pair or group work and of the target culture

were criticised. Menkabu and Harwood (2014) in their study with seven English teachers at a Saudi Arabian University report negative beliefs about coursebooks for three teachers using the metaphors “straight jacket” and “sleeping pills” (p. 157), while three teachers held positive beliefs, and one teacher was unsure. In a further study (Bosompem, 2014), 10 Ghanaian EFL teachers held generally positive views of coursebooks, but also negative perceptions were expressed claiming that coursebooks may restrict teachers forcing them to follow the procedures intended by the coursebook authors.

In line with this, the metaphors reported in McGrath (2006a, 2006b) suggest that teachers exploit coursebooks in a continuum ranging from having the control over the coursebook (i.e. using it as a resource) to leaving the control to the coursebook (i.e. using it as the guidance) (see Figure 2). Even though McGrath’s studies do not deal with actual coursebook exploitation, they resonate with classifications based on observational data according to which teachers can be classified into three categories distinguishing those teachers who follow the script of the coursebook, those who adapt the coursebook and those who select coursebook components and use other materials (Kurtz, 2010; Shawer, 2010a). Given that teachers’ critical and autonomous coursebook exploitation is desirable, a remarkable number of teachers using the coursebook as guidance offers “some support for the contention that teacher criticality and autonomy cannot be taken for granted and that an evaluative stands needs to be explicitly encouraged, specifically to the adaptation and supplementation of the textbook” (McGrath, 2006b, p. 313). However, it should be noted that teachers’ beliefs about coursebook and own coursebook exploitation may not represent actual coursebook exploitation as shown by Tasseron (2017) revealing that teachers supplemented materials even though they reported sticking to the coursebook.

This section is finalised with research on teacher views on the three specific areas of coursebook type, coursebook content and the role of coursebooks in the era of digital technology. First of all, inconsistent results are seen concerning teachers’ preferences for global, localised or local coursebooks. A recent study from Iran reveals that teachers and learners prefer localised coursebooks produced by global publishers to locally produced coursebooks because they appear to be advantageous in terms of fostering language skills (Zare-ee & Hejazi, 2018). This preference contradicts the authorities’ intention to use locally-produced coursebooks as cultural values transmitted in localised coursebooks are seen critically. Similarly, Ukrainian EFL teachers (1st-11th grade

students) report supplementing local coursebooks with global coursebooks because they regard them superior to local coursebooks to teach English for communication (Mason & Payant, 2018), and a sample of 100 teachers located in Indonesia strongly believed that internationally published materials provided more authentic and accurate English, were better as transmitter of cultural background, excelled in content and appearance and contributed more effectively to the teaching of skills (Zacharias, 2005). In contrast, mixed perceptions were expressed by Turkish high school teachers who argued that ELT coursebooks prepared by Turkish authors would cater the needs of Turkish students in terms of content and methodology (Kayapınar, 2009).

Second, J. Gray (2012) interviewed 15 English language teachers from different countries about their views on the incorporation of content surrounding the life of celebrities, which, according to Gray, transmits the neoliberal ideas of consumerism and aspiration to individual success and fame as desirable aims for language learners. Given a variety of different views, some teachers “appear[ed] to regard celebrity content with a degree of equanimity” (p. 110) arguing that covering the topic of celebrities mirrored its dominance in the media, addressed learner interests and, therefore, was motivating. Gray notes that some teachers’ equanimity was due to an idea of language teaching and pedagogy as an apolitical endeavour. However, teachers also held critical views arguing that the proliferation of celebrities in ELT coursebooks was a hidden way of perpetuating neoliberal views by transporting the idea of an enjoyable and exciting Western life style and by suppressing evidence for social inequity; for that reason, according to some teachers, the content in global ELT coursebooks was inauthentic in non-western contexts and/or for learners coming from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. In spite of the critical voices, “there was no outright rejection of celebrity per se – with teachers generally taking the view that it was a question of getting the celebrities right” (J. Gray, 2012, p. 107). In another study, Gray (2000), reports that Spanish teachers using global ELT coursebooks hold critical beliefs because the content transmits stereotypical representations about the target culture or violates the learners’ value system as content referring to sexual attitudes or alcohol was included. The author concludes that coursebooks do not provide sufficient opportunities for learners to challenge values offered with values based on their own culture.

Third, through the implementation of digital technology in education, learning environments, shaped and standardised through assessment, curricula and coursebooks (Erstad, 2013, p. 37), are being transformed because subjects (like English) are taught

via digital tools and the learning of a subject (like English) is combined with the development of digital literacy (Potter & McDougall, 2017). Given the significance of the coursebook in classrooms of English and other subjects, teachers may react to digital technology with resistance by sticking to traditional print materials, by replacing the coursebook with digital learning tools, or by combining both benefitting from the advantages of either (Leander, 2009). As mentioned in Section 2.3.1., coursebook publishers have reacted to the developments of digital media in education by selling coursebook packages that contain digital components such as CD ROMs or access to online materials (McGrath, 2013, p. 7). Allen (2015) raises the question if the popularisation of digital tools has an impact on teachers' views of printed coursebooks. In his study with in-service and pre-service teachers in Sweden, who benefitted from technologically well-equipped classrooms, he found out that – somewhat surprising given the assumed proneness of younger people to technology – the pre-service teachers held more positive views on coursebooks while in-service teachers were convinced of digital tools to greater extent. However, both groups stressed the importance of the traditional coursebook, which was in particular related to the perceived significance of coursebooks offering longer reading texts to foster print literacy. In other words, the participants' views indicate that digital learning tools may not render coursebooks obsolete.

2.3.6. Coursebook Exploitation and Adaptation

The following two subsections are concerned with coursebook exploitation. The term exploitation is deliberately used to denote an “action of making use of and benefiting from resources” (Exploitation, n. d.) and follows the usage by Tomlinson (2012, p. 156) in his state-of-the-art article on materials development in foreign language teaching and learning.

Given the diversity of English language classrooms worldwide and taking everyday observation of classroom practice into account, it can be, for one thing, well assumed that there is a great variety in teachers' coursebook exploitation; Brown (2009, p. 17) appropriately compares this variety with the way how different musicians would interpret the same piece of music. It can also be well assumed that this exploitation occurs along a continuum in which teachers may follow the course of activities without any alteration or decide on changes, in an extreme case by skipping whole parts (or

even the whole coursebook), and this variation is due to constraints imposed by, for example, the exams administered in the programme a coursebook is used in (Macalister, 2016b). Moreover, teachers may realise coursebook exploitation based on consideration or subconsciously (Islam & Mares, 2003). *Adaptation* is the generally accepted term to describe any kind of modification realised toward the coursebook (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 82). The rationale behind adaptation and its realisation through specific techniques from a more theoretical perspective are discussed in Section 2.3.6.1. The practice of coursebook exploitation is then reviewed in Section 2.3.6.2 by surveying studies documenting teachers' coursebook consumption.

2.3.6.1. Theorising Coursebook Adaptation

This section examines coursebook adaptation under theoretical perspectives by reporting conceptualisations proposed in the literature. The review is, however, not only an attempt to report on coursebook adaptation but also to structure the issues constituting the notion of coursebook adaptation. As Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018, p. 88) note, in spite of numerous overviews of adaptations (e.g. Cunningsworth, 1995; Islam & Mares, 2003; McGrath, 2013, 2016; McDonough et al., 2013; Mishan & Timmis, 2015) there is still a need to systematise adaptation. This is apparent in the use of terminology: For instance, *localisation* is according to Islam & Mares (2003, p. 89) an objective, while McGrath (2013, p. 66) counts it as a principle. Most notably, there is a variety in terminology denoting *techniques* or *procedures* (McGrath, 2013, p. 63-65; Tomlinson & Masuhara's, 2018, p. 89), which is partly due to the diversity of adaptations observable and the arising difficulty to label categories consistently. The review also informs my study as it has helped me establish a framework based on which I analysed the observed data.

I will organise this section as follows: I will start with a rationale for adaptation accounting for the importance and actual need to adapt coursebook materials from general perspectives. I will then report on the agents who initialise or conduct adaptations. This is followed by an in-depth discussion of adaptation techniques including remarks on foci and scale of adaptation; notably, the review allows me to clarify the terms *coursebook exploitation* and *adaptation*. After a review of principles referring to the pedagogical underpinnings that guide teachers in their realisations of adaptations, I will report on the reasons and purposes for adaptation and introduce

suggested procedures in conducting adaptations. Finally, a framework for coursebook exploitation is proposed as an attempt to put all the factors influencing teachers' coursebook exploitations together.

Rationale

Current monographs on materials in ELT agree on the need for teachers to adapt coursebooks. For one thing, “coursebooks are written for everyone and therefore no one” (McGrath, 2013, p. 59) so that they need to be adapted to address the specific needs of the learner group and the teaching context in order to generate learning opportunities (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 145). Darici (2016) makes the point that materials developers do not only have to address the needs of learners in different school contexts or regions in the world, but also the needs of the different participants in the same school context such as learners, teachers, school administrators, sponsors and parents. Given a variety of teaching contexts characterised by a diversity of conditions, needs and expectations, Madsen and Bowen (1978), and similarly Maley (2011), appreciate adaptation as an aid to generate “congruence” (Madsen & Brown, 1978, p. ix) between materials, on the one hand, and teachers and learners with their distinct personalities, needs, expectations, teaching and learning styles, constraints imposed by educational authorities, the curriculum and the infrastructure at hand, the methodology selected and predicted use of the target language by language learners as factors interacting in the complex situation of classroom instruction on the other hand (cf. Nation & Macalister, 2011; Macalister, 2016a). This rationale for adaptation resonates with current accounts noting that adaptation is a way to “reduc[e] mismatches” (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 82) between external criteria (e.g. the learner, physical facilities of the school) and internal criteria (“what the materials offer (...) [e.g.] choice of topics, skills covered”) (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 65) by “tailor[ing] materials so that they are a better match for a specific learning context” (McGrath, 2013, p. 60).

As Tomlinson & Masuhara (2018) additionally explicate, adaptation of material offered in commercial global coursebooks is compulsory due to the fact that they are produced – to use Kachru's (1992) classification - in the inner cycle of English but most frequently used in the expanding cycle where English is not spoken as the environmental language: Because of the distance between coursebook producers and consumers mismatches regarding cultural conventions and socio-linguistic practices are

probable so that coursebooks may appear inauthentic, irrelevant and disengaging for local users (Masuhara & Tomlinson, 2010; Tomlinson, 2016b; Trabelski, 2010; cf. Section 2.3.4.). This argument for adaptation is even strengthened given the growing significance of English as an international language with language learners as prospective users of English in a variety of contexts (e.g. educational, business, social media) and with a variety of speakers in terms of mother tongue, age, socio-economic and cultural background, and so forth (Tomlinson, 2016a; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018).

Another, significant rationale for effective coursebook adaptation and adoption (cf. Macalister, 2016a) has been proposed by Cunningsworth (1995). Pointing to the danger that teachers (and learners) are patronised by the coursebook, he states:

It is generally accepted that the role of the coursebook is to be at the service of teachers and learners but not to be their masters. Its role is not to exercise a tyrannical function as the arbiter of course content and teaching methods. However, it has to be recognized that teaching materials can exert considerable influence over what teachers teach and how they do it (p. 7).

The argument expands the view that coursebook exploitation needs to benefit from adaptation to enhance the appropriateness of material by emphasising the role of teachers who must not hand over responsibility to the book (Allwright, 1981, p. 6; McGrath, 2002, p. 58). A teacher's insight into the necessity to adapt and her skilfulness in realising adaptation is a prerequisite for effective teaching (Macalister, 2016a), and a teacher's informed adaptation practices may actually be a better indicator of expertise than experience, which may not lead to reflective use of coursebook material as a matter of course (Madsen & Brown, 1978; McGrath, 2013).

Agents

It is common view that coursebook adaptation is initiated and realised by teachers, and teachers undoubtedly play the most prominent role in adaptation as they are the agents who enact the curriculum and initialise coursebook exploitation based on a more or less elaborate lesson plan (Masuhara, 2011, p. 238).

However, adaptation can also be conducted by learners. An obvious, yet indirect, way of including learners in adaptation processes is to evaluate learner responses to material as a starting point to reflect on and modify future use of the same material (Jolly & Bolitho, 2011). A more direct way is to integrate learners in decision processes

about what topics to deal with in a course or how to use the material by, for example, having them generate their own questions to a given text, inviting them to modify given material, contribute with other materials or produce their own texts as an intellectual or aesthetical response to material provided in coursebooks (Saraceni, 2003). It should be noted that these learner-based adaptations and those reported by McGrath (2013, pp. 149-152) refer to course development rather than specific aspects of coursebooks exploitation during class time and are generally initialised by teachers. Involving learners by, for example, having them generate, select or omit material undoubtedly opens up perspectives to benefitting from learners as evaluators of coursebook materials (Mishan & Timmis, 2015, p. 65).

A third participant is the school administration that plays a prominent role in coursebook selection, particularly in coursebook-led contexts in which the curriculum planned often coincides with syllabus of the coursebook selected (Shelton-Strong, 2016). The decision to omit parts of the coursebook due to time constraints would be an example of coursebook adaptation realised by the school administration.

Adaptation does not only depend on the teacher's skilfulness, flexibility and creativity but also on the flexibility of the material itself and the learners' interaction with the material or adaptations realised by the teacher (Bao, 2015; Bolster, 2015). Learners may reject adaptations by the teacher because they perceive them as an attack against the authoritative position of the coursebook earned through its professional appearance (Masuhara & Tomlinson, 2010, p. 415).

Realising Adaptation: Techniques and Foci

Common sense, everyday experience and the professional literature suggest that adaptation can basically be realised by utilising the techniques of omission, addition, and change/modification (McGrath, 2013, p. 128); substitution (which is a combination of omission and addition) can reasonably added as a further form of adaptation (Cunningsworth, 1995, pp. 136-17; according to McGrath, 2013, p. 64, *replacement* is a subcategory of *change*). Adaptation can be realised towards the language used in exercises (including rubrics) and texts, the process (procedures, task management, modality), the content (topics through which language is presented, contexts and cultural aspects) and level in terms of linguistic difficulty and cognitive complexity (Cunningsworth, 1995, pp. 136-137; McGrath, 2013, pp. 62-63). Strictly speaking, modification of linguistic and cognitive difficulty requires manipulation of language

and/or process in some way, so that level can be allocated to language or process. Systematic accounts of adaptation (e.g. Cunningsworth, 1995, pp. 136-148; McDonough et al., 2013, pp. 69-78; McGrath, 2013, p. 139-147; Richards, 2001a, p. 260) are organised around these basic techniques and foci. Table 1, extending the overview by McGrath (2013, p. 64), compares frameworks of adaptation by putting the terminology selected by different authors in relation to the four basic classifications.



Table 1

Adaptation Procedures Suggested in the Literature

	Omission	Addition	Substitution	Modification	Additional procedure
Cunningsworth (1995, p. 136)	leaving out some parts of the material	adding material	replacing material with something more suitable	changing the published material	
Harmer (2007, p. 182-183)	omit		replace (the book completely)	add, re-write, replace activities, re-order, reduce	
Islam & Mares (2003)	deleting; subtracting and abridging	adding including extending and expanding	replacing materials	simplifying reordering	
Maley (2011)	omission	addition	replacement	rewriting/ modification reduction extension reordering branching	
McDonough et al. (2013, pp. 69-78)	deleting or omitting including subtracting and abridging	adding including expanding and extending		modifying including rewriting and restructuring simplifying reordering	
McGrath (2013, pp. 139-147)	omission	addition including extemporisation, extension, exploitation	change including replacement, simplification, localisation, complexification, conversion (converting a text into a play)	reordering	selection
Richards (2001a, p. 260)	deleting content	adding content addressing omissions		modifying content modifying/ extending tasks	
Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004, as cited in McGrath, 2013, p. 64)	minus: delete, subtract, reduce	plus: add expand	zero: modify, replace, reorganize, resequence, convert		

Three aspects are worth addressing to compare the classification of adaptation techniques and to develop a framework that compensates deficiencies identified in frameworks available. (i) There is inconsistency in terminology; (ii) in terms of

allocating subcategories to main categories and defining categories, inconsistency between proposed frameworks or questionable decisions within a framework can be detected; (iii) while some frameworks use categories and related operational definitions to describe techniques encompassing types of adaptations in broad terms, which may result in vagueness, others use terms displaying a higher degree of exactness to indicate fine-graded distinctions. In sum, this situation results in “a headache-inducing variety of alternative terms and categorization” (McGrath, 2013, p. 63). I should like to explicate these issues with some examples.

As noticed in the professional literature (e.g. McGrath, 2013, p. 63; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 105), standardised terms for categories and subcategories have not been established. In some cases, this problem is easy to sort out because synonyms are used for apparently the same techniques (e.g. *leave out* – *omit* – *delete*). There are also instances where different terms are used for approximately the same techniques paying attention to finer distinctions: For instance, McGrath’s (2013; cf. also McGrath, 2002, 2016, for further explanations) exploitation, defined as “creative use of what is already there (e.g. text, visual, activity) to serve a purpose which is additional to that foreseen by the textbook writer” (p. 71, emphasis in the original) corresponds to Maley’s (2011) branching, defined as a teachers decision “to add options to the existing activity or to suggest alternative pathways through the activities” (p. 382).

Some classifications indicate a lack of consensus on the allocation of subcategories to categories or on operational definitions to describe categories. For instance, Harmer (2007) subsumes reducing under modification, which is plausible because the appearance of a text or exercise is changed when it is exposed to reduction, while McDonough et al. (2013) subsume the corresponding techniques of subtracting and abridging under omission, which is equally plausible because something is removed from the material. It is also remarkable that Harmer (2007) classifies adding as a technique to modify material. A questionable, as the authors themselves concede overlapping, distinction is drawn between modifying with the subcategories rewriting and restructuring, and simplifying and reordering by McDonough et al. (2013, p. 73-74). The classification, according to their framework, relies on the following distinctions:

- modifying is “an internal change in the approach or focus of an exercise or other piece of material” (p. 73) and has two subcategories:

- rewriting: making materials more communicative and learner-centred; the authors give the example of a teacher rewriting a reading text and delivering it orally to provide an extra listening for her learners because she has identified the need to develop the learners' listening skills and other audio material is not available. Another example is localising a story by changing the people and places' English names with names common in the culture of the learners to achieve cultural appropriateness of the material;
- restructuring: changing the modality of a text, the focus of an exercise or a classroom activity; the authors give the examples of restructuring a role play because the number of learners is very high or low, and turning a grammar explanation into an interactive exercise (resembling McGrath's, 2013, *exploitation*);
- simplifying refers to the simplification of a text in terms of sentence structure, lexical content or grammatical structure;
- reordering refers to the change in order of components, which may, for example, be necessitated by a shortage of time so that the sequence of the coursebook is changed to cover grammar items, vocabulary content or functions regarded as significant for the learners.

I would like to draw the attention to three highly problematic issues. First, *modifying* is used synonymously to *change* as a main category by other authors (e.g. McGrath, 2013). Second, as McDonough et al. (2013) concede, *rewriting* is usually not used in the restricted meaning proposed by them, but usually refers also to instances corresponding to *simplifying* (so *simplifying* could be apprehended as a subcategory to *rewriting* if referred to texts). However, while the authors refer *simplifying* to change of language as the focus of adaptation, it may also be a technique used to make an exercise less challenging, thus focusing on process (Islam & Mares, 2003). Third, the example given to illustrate rewriting (a teacher utilising a reading text for a listening activity) could be coded as *restructuring* following the authors definition according to which restructuring "refers essentially to a 'modality change'" (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 74).

The overview in Table 1 is, by nature, simplifying as it reduces the accounts given in the sources cited. Some proposed classifications are more elaborate than others due to the fact that they are presented in books specifically designated to coursebook research

(such as McGrath, 2013, or McDonough et al., 2013), while others are parts of general publications on ELT (e.g. Harmer, 2007) or papers touching upon adaptation rather than explicate it (Richards, 2001a). Taking these considerations into account, I should like to point to McGrath (2013) with additional explanations in McGrath (2016) and McDonough et al. (2013) as significant contributions to theorise the practice of adaptation because the authors attempt to classify coursebook adaptation paying attention to more subtle distinctions. Also, I should point to the convenient approach by Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004, as cited by McGrath, 2013, p. 64) who propose minus, plus and zero as perspicuous reference points for an overall categorisation of adaptation techniques. Furthermore, Islam and Mares' (2003) classification in particular informed other scholars.

To explore the more detailed accounts by McGrath (2013) and McDonough et al. (2013), the range or scale of adaptation needs to be introduced as an additional factor. Ur (2015) gives the useful distinction between “limited kinds of procedural adaptations (...) and more substantial teacher-initiated adaptations (changes, additions, deletions and re-ordering)” (p. 6). While the former ones refer to decisions small in scale to, for example, conduct an activity individually, in pair or group work, or to read a text silently or out aloud by the teacher or students, the latter ones address mismatches between material and other factors perceived as significant. Similarly, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018, pp. 106-107) dwell on minor adaptations, and McGrath (2002, revised in 2016) makes the point that enhancing appropriateness of material can be realised through spontaneous ad hoc adaptation that does not require preparation in terms of major manipulation of materials. For instance, McGrath's (2016) *extemporisation* is a plausible and convenient solution to refer to a teacher's adding of information to make language, content or process more accessible to learners as a form of instant adaptation not requiring any planning.

In order to finalise the evaluation of the frameworks presented in Table 1 and to establish a research-informed framework for my own study, I additionally address three specific points. First, McGrath (2013; 2016) argues that supplementation is not exactly a form of adaptation because new material is added without modifying the material provided in the coursebook. I would argue that supplementation, even though existing material is not manipulated, is a form of adaptation (so to speak the most radical form of addition) because it is realised typically based on a deficiency in the coursebook

materials identified by the teacher. Second, as far as I can see, McGrath (2013, 2016) is the only researcher who discusses selection in the context of adaptation:

Strictly speaking, selection is not a form of adaptation since it implies use without change. It is, however, the result of an evaluative decision. It reflects the fact that the material selected is seen to have value, to be important or useful or interesting or all of these. Logically, moreover, it also entails omission and this is a form of adaptation (McGrath, 2013, p. 139).

Third, it is apparent that attempts to systematise coursebook adaptation shall reasonably benefit from overall categories and subcategories that satisfy more distinct, however significant, differences in ways of adapting coursebook materials.

The reported lack of a widely accepted framework is not surprising given the diversity of adaptations and the difficulty in structuring this messiness, and overlaps and inconsistencies in attempts to categorise adaptation seem to be unavoidable given “all the combinations and permutations” (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 76). A framework will always be a compromise between establishing categories that are unambiguous but possibly vague and categories that denote detailed operations but may be reduced in validity because adaptations in their complexity may fit into more than one category. This observation may be an explanation for the fact that Mishan and Timmis (2015) and Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018) abstain from presenting their own frameworks.

In spite of these challenges, I will propose a framework for techniques in coursebook exploitation. I deliberately use the term *exploitation* instead of *adaptation* to indicate that teachers may actually not realise adaptation in terms of principled and informed actions to manipulate materials in instructional practice but stick to the coursebook. This decision enables me also to include selection (cf. McGrath, 2013, p. 139). The framework utilises Tomlinson and Masuhara’s (2004, as cited in McGrath, 2013, p. 64) overall classification plus (addition), minus (omission) and zero (modification) supplemented with substitution (minus and plus), and selection as an additional element not fitting in this overall classification as it is a component of coursebook exploitation. Expressed differently, coursebook exploitation encompasses selection and adaptation. The relationships between these elements is visualised in Figure 3.

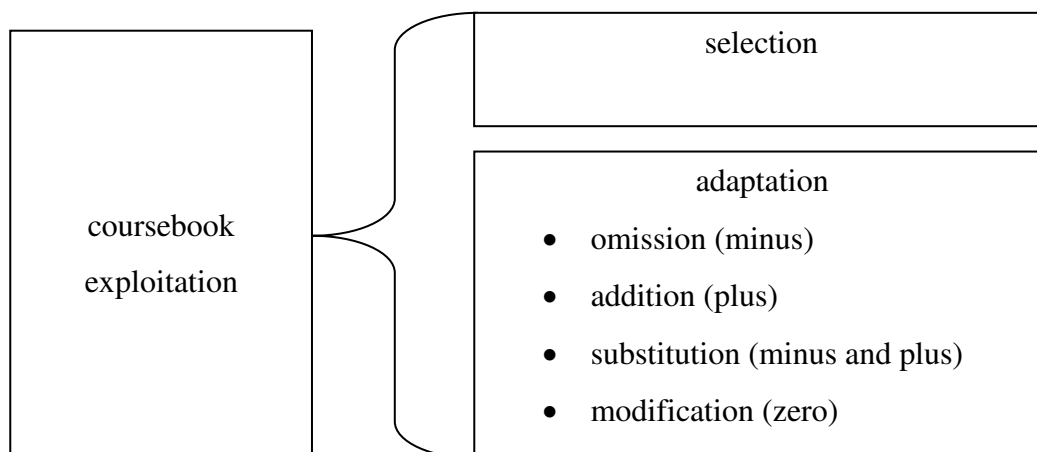


Figure 3. Components of coursebook exploitation

The compilation of techniques in coursebook exploitation presented in Table 2 is, for one thing, an outcome of the discussion of the literature; it is therefore eclectic in that I selected, combined and tailored categories in a way that seemed plausible to me. It also served me as a guideline in analysing the data of this study, and, notably, it was informed by the experience gained during the process of data analysis. For illustration purposes examples are provided, if not otherwise indicated, based on observations I have made or own teaching practice.

Table 2

Techniques in Coursebook Exploitation

main categories	subcategories	operational definition	examples (main focus indicated in parentheses)
selection (McGrath, 2013, p. 139)		a coursebook or components in a coursebook (units, texts, exercises) are deliberately selected	
	omission	reduction in length (the whole coursebook, components or parts within components)	the administration omits a unit in the coursebook due to time constraints (content, language)
			the teacher omits a text she receives culturally inappropriate for her learners (Gray, 2000) (content)
			the teacher omits the listening material in a coursebook because listening is not tested in exams or audio equipment is not available (content)
	subtracting (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 72)	reduction in length without impact on methodology (quantitative reduction)	pronunciation practice on minimal pairs learners have no difficulties with is omitted, only practice on challenging items is conducted (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 72) (language)
	abridging (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 72)	qualitative reduction with impact on methodology	discussion questions at the end of a unit are omitted (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 72) (process/content)
addition		increase in the length of material	
	extemporisation (McGrath, 2016, p. 70)	addition of information or an explanation as a response to a perceived or anticipated problem	the rubric of an exercise is paraphrased significantly by the teacher and comprehension is checked with concept questions (process) the teacher notices that students have problems in pronouncing 'th'

sound; she demonstrates how to generate the sound by adding a short exercise guiding learners in positioning the tongue to produce the sound accurately (Soulliere, 2005) (language)

extending
(McDonough et al., 2013, p. 70; McGrath, 2016, pp. 71-72)

“supply more of the same (...) within the methodological framework of the original framework”
(McDonough et al., 2013, p. 70)

other examples are added to an exercise practicing the pronunciation of minimal pairs (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 70) (language)

a matching exercise in which learners have to match pictures with words (e.g. places in the city or fruit and vegetables) is extended by adding picture-word pairs containing the same category (language)

expanding
(McDonough et al., 2013, p. 71)

adding a new component to given coursebook materials leading to a change of the methodology (e.g. by addressing a new skill)

after a gap-filling activity related to *should*, the teacher reads sentences containing problems (e.g. *I'm tired*) to elicit recommendations from the learners (*You should drink coffee*) (language)

a reading text accompanies questions testing the learners' comprehension by having them identify content explicitly or implicitly stated in the text; the teacher adds questions asking learners to infer or connect text content to own experiences (cf. Freeman, 2014, pp. 83-84) (process)

a matching exercise in which learners have to match pictures with words (e.g. equipment in the school) is extended by adding picture-word pairs containing another category (e.g. places in the city such as schools, libraries, hospitals) to preview vocabulary in the following unit of the book (language)

	exploiting (McGrath, 2016, p. 71)	use of material provided for purposes different from those intended by the coursebook authors	a picture attached to a reading text is used to prompt learners to generate their own questions to be answered in the reading text (process)
	supplementing (McGrath, 2013, p. 71)	adding a new component to the coursebook content without changing the coursebook content and without integrating the new material directly into a task in the coursebook	the teacher shows a photo (not existing in the coursebook) to introduce vocabulary related to a reading text (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 71; McGrath, 2013, p. 145) (language) the teacher reviews vocabulary introduced on the previous day (McGrath, 2013, p. 145) (language) supplementing authentic or contrived materials such as songs, newspaper articles or worksheets (McGrath, 2013, pp. 73-74) (language, process, content)
substitution		replacing a component with another component (for approximately the same purpose) (cf. Maley, 2011, p. 382)	a reading text is replaced with another reading text (language) instead of using a pre-reading activity consisting of questions (<i>What do you know about acupuncture? Have you ever received acupuncture?</i>), the teacher shows the learners a photo of a person who is receiving an acupuncture treatment (process)
modification		change of language, process or content in a coursebook (cf. McGrath, 2016, pp. 71-72)	
	restructuring	modification of texts and exercises with an impact on	the teacher turns listening texts into reading texts (using tape scripts) because listening is not tested in exams or audio

	modality and/or task administration	equipment is not available (process) an exercise or task foreseen to be administered in group work by the coursebook authors is done in pair work (process)
rewriting	modification of the language in texts or exercises (rubrics, comprehension questions related to texts) in terms of • sentence structure • lexical content • grammatical structure • cultural content	the teacher reduces the number of complex sentences in a reading text or changes passive sentences into active (McDonough et al., 2013, p. 75) (language) the teacher modifies a text by changing sentences into or adding relative clauses (language) a role play foreseen to be acted out in a pub by the coursebook authors is acted out in the context of a café (Gray, 2000) (content) the teacher changes the English names of characters in a text with local names (content)
reordering	the internal order of a text or the order of components in the coursebook is changed	the teacher changes the order of paragraphs in text (given in the correct order in the coursebook) and asks the learners to put them in the correct order (language, process) the teacher shows the different grammatical means to express the future (<i>will</i> , <i>be going to</i> , present continuous, present simple) spread over different units in a coursebook in a lesson (rearrangement of the order offered in the coursebook) (McDonough et al., 2013, pp. 75-76) (process)

Even though self-explanatory, some remarks in addition to the explanations offered above should be given on specific aspects of the framework presented in Table 2. While omission basically follows McDonough et al.'s (2013) classification, addition is a

synthesis of McGrath (2013, 2016) and McDonough et al. (2013). The four subtechniques extemporisation, extending, expanding and exploiting may be best distinguished by noticing that extending and expanding change the ‘appearance’ of the material in terms of length while extemporising and exploiting add a kind of clarification and a new purpose to the material, respectively. Supplementation in contrast to expanding does not directly affect the coursebook material or the use of a component in the coursebook. Expressed differently, when material is supplemented, the coursebook is not used. The supplemented material, however may lead into the use of material provided in the coursebook. This explanation is important because McGrath (2013) seems to exclude supplementation from adaptation claiming that “supplementation involves introducing something new” (p. 72). Somehow self-contradictory, he counts a “*presentation* activity (based on new topic – preparatory; books closed)” (p. 145, emphasis in the original) as supplementation. I would argue that such an activity, for example, supplementing a photo to pre-teach vocabulary in a reading text in the coursebook does comprise adaptation because it somehow simplifies the reading text as the learners’ cognitive load while doing the reading tasks is lowered (cf. also my comments on supplementation above). Regarding substitution, it is significant that the replaced and replacing components have the same purpose. Modification draws on the terminology used by McDonough et al. (2013), but the terms are used with distinctly different operational definitions, and the subtechniques are related differently to each other. For one thing, I do not follow their definition of rewriting because I assume that this technique entails a modification of language or content, possibly in combination. By contrast, restructuring addresses process, i.e. modality or classroom management. In particular, I do not adopt simplification as a technique because I believe it may be more accurately conceptualised as a principle (see the next subsection). Finally, as an anticipation of criticism towards my framework, coursebook *exploitation* refers to the whole process of teachers’ (and learners’) interaction with the book, while *exploiting* is a distinct subtechnique of addition.

Principles

Coursebook exploration is (or at least should be) guided by overarching objectives beyond the immediate purpose arising from a specific reason. Those objectives are predominantly of pedagogic value and provide a justification for the realisation of adaptations (McGrath, 2013, p. 66). Differently labelled as “objectives” (Islam &

Mares, 2003, p. 89), “need to” (for example, localise) (McDonough, 2013, p. 77), or “reasons for adaptation” (Mishan & Timmis, 2015, p. 69), I adopt the term *principles* (used by McDonough et al., 2013, p. 69; McGrath, 2013, p. 66; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 108) referring to “research and theory about best practices in language teaching and learning” (Macalister, 2016b, p. 44). Principles are therefore distinctly different from the concrete reasons and purposes that drive teachers to adapt coursebooks in specific situations. These are discussed in the next section.

In Table 3, I document the principles suggested by Islam & Mares (2003), McGrath (2013) and Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018), as these publications provide the most original contributions to this aspect. It should be noted that Islam and Mares’s (2013) list includes and expands a list established by McDonough & Shaw (1993) later resumed in McDonough et al. (2013).

Table 3

Principles Guiding Adaptation Offered in the Literature

Islam & Mares (2003, p. 89-90)	McGrath (2013, p. 66-70)	Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018, p. 108)
personalise	localisation	match the needs of target learners
individualise	modernisation	
localise	personalisation	match the wants of target learners
modernise	individualisation	
add a real choice	humanising	make relevant connections with learners’ lives
cater for all sensory learner styles	simplification/complexification/differentiation	stimulate affective engagement
provide for more learner autonomy	variety	stimulate cognitive engagement
encourage higher-level cognitive skills		provide achievable challenges
make the language input more accessible*		provide exposure to language in use
make the language input more engaging		provide opportunities to communicate in L2
		provide opportunities for learners to notice and make discoveries about language use
		provide enough varied recycling

Note. *Listed by the authors, but not explicated in the text.

A closer examination reveals as the most striking difference that Tomlinson & Masuhara more strongly focus on insights gained in SLA research and echo language learning principles proposed as significant for coursebook production (Macalister, 2016b). Also, their list is apparently informed by Tomlinson's (2012) account of functions of materials (cf. Section 2.3.3.). Another point, humanising is a very broad term entailing connecting materials to learners' lives and serving intellectual, aesthetical and emotional needs of learners (McGrath, 2013, p. 69). McGrath himself suggests using humanising as an umbrella term to combine principles.

In order to compare and synthesise the principle catalogues, I suggest organising the principles by identifying main foci they address. The classification I propose distinguishes between principles more strongly directed to (i) the learners with their personal dispositions (humanising), (ii) the learning process and (iii) the material itself. Following this classification, adaptation may be indicated when it caters for the learners by addressing

- their personal, needs, wants and interests through selection of relevant materials (personalising);
- their individual styles, strengths and weaknesses in language learning through selection of materials that benefit from, for example, physical or aesthetical experience and/or contribute to differentiation through, for example, simplification or complexification (individualisation);
- the geographic location of the language learners including their cultural background and (by the learner) expected forms of instructional practice (localisation).

Adaptation is informed by SLA research when it seeks to

- provide cognitively challenging and compelling materials;
- provide affectively engaging materials;
- enhance learner self-efficacy;
- provide materials exposing learners to language in use;
- foster communicative competence;
- provide materials devoted to the principles of discovery learning.

Adaptation is justified when the material needs to be

- modernised because content, the language, and/or methodological approach adopted are outdated;

- enhanced in terms of variety due to repetitiveness or lack of creativity in coursebook language or exercises/activities.

Three issues need to be addressed. First, admittedly, the principles are overlapping because, for example, the provision of affectively engaging materials is variably present in individualisation or personalisation. Second, adaptation, as a matter of course, does not need to be justified through a consideration of all principles. More realistically, one or two of the principles will be addressed in a realised case of adaptation. Third, for practical reasons, the principles can be formulated as deficiencies as Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018, p. 108) do: If, for example, a reading text about technology contains outdated content, the teacher may engage in a rewrite to modernise the coursebook material.

Reasons and Purposes

I will now deal with reasons and purposes for coursebook adaptation (rather than exploitation), in other words, the specific causes of and aims for materials manipulation. They are, as Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018) remark, “like a flip of a coin. The former focuses on what needs improving, the latter targets improving” (p. 102).

Taking an example from Table 2 as a starting point, an administration’s decision to omit a unit of the coursebook because the time available is not sufficient to cover all units of the coursebook is caused by a shortage of time (the reason) and aims, at first glance, to gain time or, on closer inspection, to enable teachers to cover coursebook content at a pace that allows facilitation of learning (the purposes). To give a second example, Menkabu and Harwood (2014) report in their study about ESP teachers of medical English on a teacher who omits a part in the coursebook because she lacks sufficient knowledge of the subject matter (the reason). Logical reasoning may lead us to assume that the teacher does not want to embarrass herself in front of the class by disguising her limited knowledge or to expose the learners to limited expertise (the purpose), but there is a good deal of speculation in this conclusion.

Recalling the definition of adaptation as a way of removing incongruence (Madsen & Bowen, 1978), the crucial point in the two examples is that the incongruence triggering some kind of adaptation is between the amount of the material (the coursebook) and the time available in the first example, and the content in the material (the coursebook) and the teacher’s knowledge in the second example. To lift these reasons to a more general level, one may suggest comprehending the reason in the first example as an institutional

constraint, and the second one as a personal constraint. Zheng and Davison (2008, p. 172), in their study about Chinese secondary school teachers' instructional practices, give the useful distinction between (i) external forces comprising the intended curriculum, assessment and the methodology prescribed by authorities, (ii) internal forces such as the teachers' belief system about language teaching and learning based on received education, teaching and life experience and shaped through meta-cognitive thinking processes, and (iii) situated forces created by the expectations of school authorities and parents, the colleagues, students and the school culture in general with their facilities and resources.

More specifically directed towards forces driving teachers to initiate some kind of adaptation, scholars have presented several classifications (e.g. Islam & Mares, 2003; McDonough et al., 2013; McGrath, 2013) putting "slightly different labels on intertwined phenomena and giv[ing] prominence to certain aspects" (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 102). The most recent and comprehensive survey, basically coinciding Hutchinson's early account (1996, as cited in Grammatosi & Harwood, p. 181), has been undertaken by Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018, pp. 102-104), who do not only review accounts in handbooks but also consider case studies on coursebook consumption. According to their explanation, five factors can reasonably be identified:

- the teaching environment within the wider national, regional, institutional or cultural framework demanding coursebook exploitation that meets constraints set by, for example the exam system, the methodology teachers are expected to stick to, cultural views on what content is appropriate or not (Gray, 2000);
- the learners with their age (cognitive development), language learning experience, preferred learning styles, interests and levels of motivation (cf. Abrar-ul-Hassan, 2014);
- the teachers with their personalities, belief systems about language teaching and learning, teaching styles, experience gained in education, instructional practice and professional development;
- the immediate course context with its specific objectives, syllabus, requested outcomes;
- the coursebook materials with their strengths and deficiencies, for example outdatedness, inaccurate presentation or explanation of language features, or lack of variety.

Importantly, as Zheng and Davison (2008) and Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018) emphasise, the factors do not exert an effect in isolation. More realistically, coursebook exploitation is driven by complex interplay of factors. Notably, because conceptualisations teachers hold might not be overt or when the factors are not examined to some extent, adaptation may be realised unconsciously (Islam & Mares, 2003), intuitively or even in “a haphazard way” (Loh & Renandya, 2016, p. 107).

Procedures

So far, coursebook exploitation with adaptation as the most significant component to enhance the effectivity of coursebook materials has been accounted for as a process in which distinct techniques based on principles are employed to remove mismatches between coursebook materials and other factors. Even though adaptation is not always realised as outcome of a reflective process, the literature suggests some procedures that make adaptations informed and therefore target-oriented. Cunningsworth (1995, p. 137), for example, suggests to check coursebook components in terms of contents/topics, methods and objectives of activities to identify areas in which coursebook materials require adaptation.

Tomlinson & Masuhara (2004, as cited in Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 104) proposed a seven-step procedure to arrive at a principled adaptation. First, a profile of the teaching context in terms of learner needs, course objectives, facilities at hand, etc. is developed. This is important to prevent adaptation based on wrong assumptions. In the second step, reasons for adaptations are identified, and, third, objectives, guided by the principles explained in this section above are generated. The actual materials adaptation (step 5) is then put into practice (step 6) and revised in the light of the experience gained while teaching. The steps 3-7 are cyclical, and teachers may not wish to go through this idealised procedure. Not devaluating the need to arrive at informed adaptations, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018) make the important point that adaptation is

an intuitive, organic, dynamic but principled creative process that is stimulated by the teachers' motivation to provide the best teaching input and approaches for specific learners in a specific context with specific learning objectives. We would discourage the prescribed use of techniques or advice as this could be counteractive or even damaging to teachers' creativity (p. 105).

To sum up, adaptation can be a proactive decision made during lesson planning as a response to an identified need for adaptation or a reactive, spontaneous intervention based on a perceived difficulty emerging during classroom interaction (Islam & Mares, 2003; Li & Harfitt, 2016; McGrath, 2013). Additionally, adaptation can be the outcome of an experience with materials, which may lead to omission, addition, substitution or modification while exploiting the same material in the parallel class or in the upcoming year (Amrani, 2011, p. 271).

In this section, I proposed the term coursebook exploitation to indicate that teachers use coursebooks in a continuum ranging from use without changing the material or minor changes at the one end of the continuum to the application of adaptation techniques with a significant change in materials at the other end. Factors in coursebook exploitation are reasons and purposes driving teachers to adapt or to select materials, and the principles guiding them. Based on the literature reviewed so far and, particularly, on Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018) as a recent summary of research on coursebook adaptation, Figure 4 illustrates coursebook exploitation taking these factors into consideration.

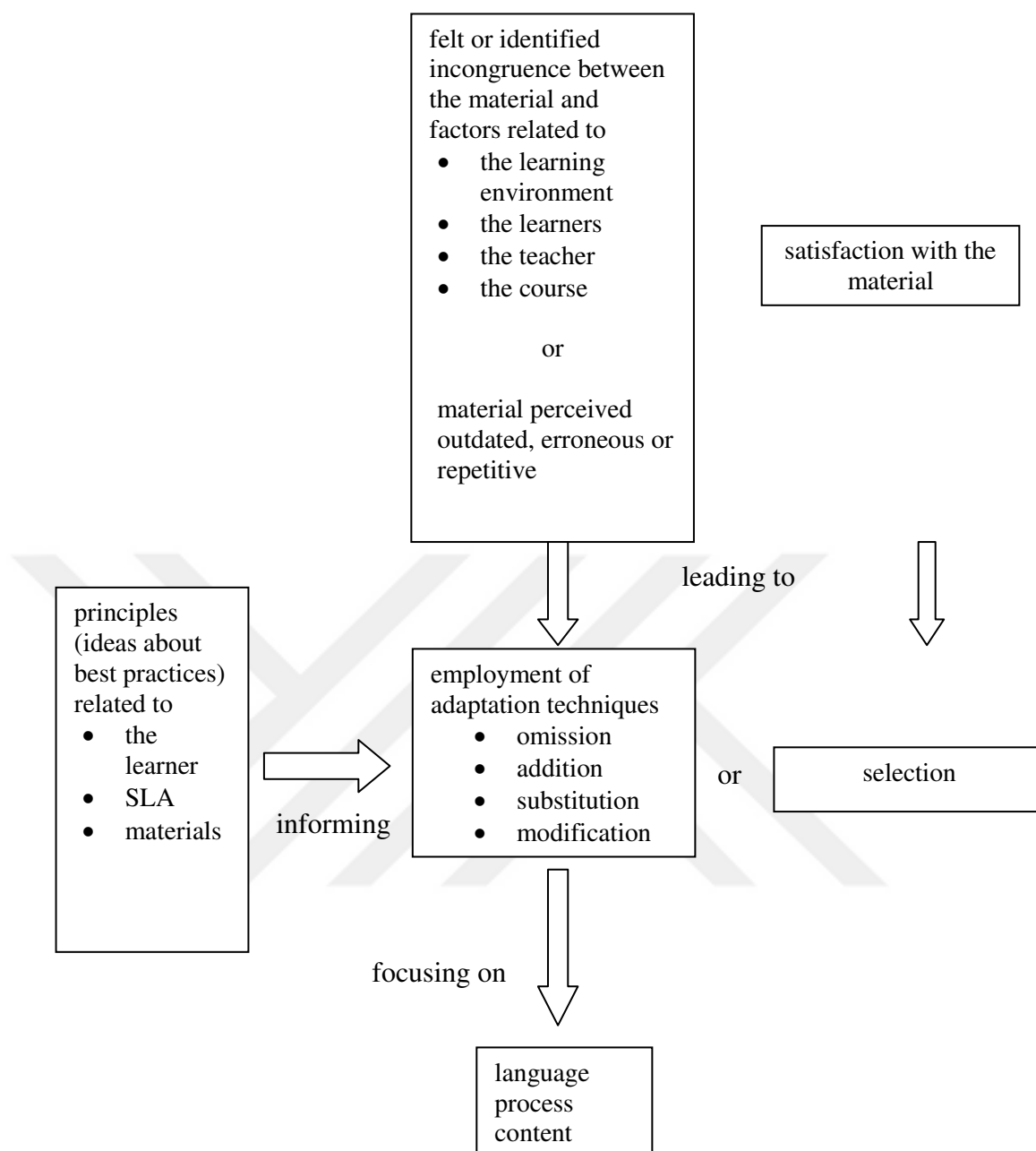


Figure 4. Factors in coursebook exploitation

So far, the survey dealt with theoretical considerations surrounding coursebook exploitation. The next section is concerned with studies examining the actual coursebook exploitation of English language teachers.

2.3.6.2. The Practice of Coursebook Exploitation in ELT

This section deals with studies about how teachers in ELT exploit coursebooks in the classroom. As stated before, studies on coursebook consumption is a field that has gained attraction recently. I will start with an overview of the studies reviewed in this section (Table 4) followed by some remarks on the methodology.

Table 4

Studies on Coursebook Exploitation Reviewed

Study	Participants and Contexts	Data Collection Procedures	Focus
Abdel Latif (2017)	12 EFL teachers in Egyptian secondary schools	interviews, lesson observations	teacher beliefs about and practices related to inductive and communicative activities
Arikan (2009)	EFL teachers in Turkish secondary schools	essays written by 12 student teachers observing classes during their practicum	coursebook exploitation
Bolster (2014, 2015)	18 teachers in university in China affiliated to British university (EAP courses)	pre-lesson questionnaire, pre-lesson teacher profile, post-lesson reflection	coursebook exploitation related to one lesson in an EAP book (double page)
Bosompem (2014)	12 EFL teachers in tertiary education in Ghana	questionnaire, interviews	coursebook exploitation
Çakır (2015)	38 EFL teachers at elementary schools in Turkey	questionnaires, lesson observations conducted by 68 student teachers using observation schemes, interviews with five randomly selected teachers by the researcher	use of extracurricular materials
Forman (2014)	eight Thai EFL teachers, one Anglo-Australian EFL teacher at Thai university	lesson observations, interviews	teacher and learner response to content in global ELT coursebooks

Grammatosi & Harwood (2014)	teacher in a UK university language centre teaching general and academic language skills to international students	lesson observations, semi-structured pre- and post-observation interviews, lesson plans	coursebook exploitation
Guerrettaz & Johnston (2013)	ESL grammar class at a university in the United States	lesson observations, semi-structured interviews, focus group interviews with students, artefacts (syllabus, attendance records, grade books, plans, tests)	agentive power of grammar book used in course
Lee & Bathmaker (2007)	23 teachers at secondary schools in Singapore	semi-structured questionnaire	coursebook exploitation
Li & Harfitt (2016)	three non-native EFL teachers, six students at Chinese University	semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, pre- and post-lesson interviews	implementation of College English textbooks designed by government appointed panel of experts
Li & Harfitt (2017)	two non-native EFL teachers, two students at Chinese University	semi-structured interviews, lesson observation, pre- and post-lesson interviews	implementation of College English textbooks designed by government appointed panel of experts
Loh & Renandya (2016)	58 EFL teachers in two primary schools in Singapore	questionnaire, lesson observations of four teachers (two of each school), artefact analyses, interviews	use of officially prepared and delivered materials
Mason & Payant (2018)	three EFL teachers (1 st -11 th grade students) in a rural Ukrainian context	semi-structured interviews, lesson observations, surveys	supplementation of local materials with global coursebooks
Menkabu & Harwood (2014)	seven teachers at a Saudi Arabian university teaching ESP to medical students	metaphor elicitation, lesson observations, interviews	coursebook conceptualisations of the textbook used and coursebook exploitation

Pouromid & Amerian (2018)	four Iranian and four Japanese EFL teachers (learners aged 11-15, private language schools)	lesson observations, stimulated recall	coursebook exploitation
Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza (2015)	six EFL teachers at university in Mexico	semi-structured interviews, lesson observations	coursebook exploitation
Sampson (2009)	41 tertiary EFL teachers at University in Hong Kong	questionnaires, interviews, lesson observations (11 teachers)	impact of learner autonomy on coursebook use
Seferaj (2014)	Albanian EFL teacher at secondary school	questionnaire, observations, lesson plans	use of communicative teaching activities
Shawer (2010a)	10 experienced native teachers in three US colleges	interviews, lesson observations, pre- and post-observation interviews, group interviews	coursebook exploitation
Tasseron (2017)	95 college teachers from various countries based in Oman	questionnaire, lesson observation (6 teachers), semi-structured interviews	coursebook exploitation

As seen in Table 4, 12 of the 20 studies were conducted in tertiary education. All studies are based on lesson observations except Bolster (2014, 2015), Bosompem (2015) and Lee & Bathmaker (2007) whose research studies rely on teacher self-reports or questionnaires. Li and Harfitt (2016, 2017) apparently report on the same study obviously with overlap in terms of data reported on. Çakır (2015), Loh and Renandya (2016) and Tasseron (2017) involve a higher number of teachers who were given questionnaires, following lesson observations with a smaller number of participants. Regarding materials used, the studies refer to global (e.g. Forman, 2014), local (Mason & Payant, 2018) or localised coursebooks (the Japanese context in Pouromid & Amerian, 2018); Lee and Bathmaker (2007), Li and Harfitt (2016, 2017) and Loh and Renandya (2016) report on the use of materials prepared for the specific context by experts. Even though all studies were concerned with “analysing ‘materials-in action’” (Littlejohn, 2011, p. 181), the foci were different as indicated in Table 4. Finally, the studies differed in the way how coursebook exploitation was examined. Grammatosi

and Harwood (2014), for instance, report how a teacher exploited specific coursebook components, while, for example, Loh and Renandya (2016) holistically inform about realised adaptations.

We recall from Section 2.3.5. that teachers conceptualise coursebooks in a continuum from taking the control of the coursebook to giving the control to the coursebook (McGrath, 2006a, 2006b). This resonates with studies on actual coursebook exploitation as they show that teaching can be realised with changing levels of coursebook dependency. Presenting a useful framework to conceptualise coursebook exploitation as curriculum enactment, I will start with Shawer's (2010a) study about the coursebook exploitation of 10 ESL teachers at three colleges in the United States. The author proposes the classification of teachers into curriculum-makers, curriculum-developers and curriculum-transmitter. I will deal with these categories in turn.

Curriculum makers are teachers who do not use coursebooks or use coursebooks scarcely. Instead, starting from a needs assessment, the teachers organise the course programme around selected topics. Curriculum-makers do not adapt coursebooks but the curriculum given in their institutional context; this means the curriculum given is the "skeleton of pedagogical topics (...) [or] activities" (Shawer, 2010a, p. 180). The materials selection is guided by concerns over exposing learners to authentic materials (i.e. not contrived materials; cf. Section 2.3.4.) and engaging them in activities that resemble activities outside the classroom. Of the three curriculum-makers in Shawer's (2010a) study, only one teacher used a coursebook, at an amount of nine per cent of the class time observed. The teachers' colleges followed a non-restricting curriculum policy.

Curriculum-developers are those teachers who do not solely depend on the coursebook because they employ macro strategies to modify, develop or expand the curriculum in order to adapt it to their context and use the coursebook accordingly as the "springboard, (...) skeleton (...) [and/or] framework of pedagogical content" (p. 178). In other words, they use the coursebooks as a resource by selecting, reordering and/or modifying coursebook components, and by adding materials. Shawer (2010a) uses the term *micro strategies* basically referring to the coursebook exploitation techniques presented in Section 2.3.6.1. It is important to note that curriculum-developers integrate the coursebook in a way that is informed by the needs of the teaching/learning context. Driving forces to adaptation are dissatisfaction with coursebook content, the wish to experiment in order to see how materials work in the

class, compensation of deficiencies identified in the coursebook (e.g. content not covered, ineffective presentation of language points, insufficient comprehension of texts provided in the book), the teachers' creativity, or the intent to enhance authenticity. In sum, curriculum-developers use a "multi-source of input strategy" (p. 179) not leading to a situation in which the coursebook is excluded but used as a resource without necessarily benefitting from the guidance offered by the book. Shawer (2010a) identified five curriculum-developers in his study using the coursebook at rates of 41 to 58 per cent of lesson time; four of them worked in a context with a restricting college curriculum policy, while one teacher's administration allowed the teachers to enact the curriculum in a flexible way.

Curriculum-transmitters follow strictly the curriculum, and the coursebook serves as the *de facto* curriculum: "They treated the textbook content through unit-by-unit, lesson-by-lesson, task-by-task, and page-by-page strategies" (Shawer, 2010a, p. 180). The two curriculum transmitters in Shawer's study scarcely made use of adaptation techniques, and they used the coursebook for approximately 90 per cent of the time. The teachers' justifications cited by Shawer indicate that they relied on the coursebook and did not question its validity as the provider of subject content and organiser of classroom practice. It should, however, be noted that Shawer was not primarily concerned with the teachers' reasons to follow curriculum implementation approaches identified. Interestingly, while one of the teachers worked in a college with restricting curriculum policy, the other one's college had a free curriculum policy; this indicates that the institutional context alone may not exert impact on how teachers exploit coursebooks in their instructional practice.

Having reviewed Shawer's (2010a) study in some detail, it is not surprising that the growing body of research on English language teachers' coursebook exploitation reveals that teachers stick to one of the three categories, and it is not unlikely to see teachers working in the same institution follow different coursebook exploitations (Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza, 2015; Sampson, 2009). Shawer's (2010a) study, along with the postulation that teachers should adapt coursebooks to enhance congruence between materials and learners (see Section 2.3.6.1.) may lead to the assumption that teachers as curriculum-makers or curriculum-developers teach effectively, while curriculum-transmitters do not. However, this equation is misleading because teachers may be expected to follow the coursebook in order to enact pedagogically validated methods (McGrath, 2013, p. 170). Some studies show exactly

this case as adapting coursebooks violates expected teacher roles (Abdel Latif, 2017; Seferaj, 2014; Tasseron, 2017). Abdel Latif (2017), for instance, shows that the teachers do not follow the communicative approach of the coursebook by scarcely using inductive grammar presentation and oral communicative activities; instead, the teachers add grammar-driven materials because they believe that grammar is best taught deductively and controlled practice is necessary to prepare learners for exams. Abdel Latif comments: “This study showed a case in which language teachers and language material designers lived in two different worlds” (p. 288). A similar case is reported by Arıkan (2009) as the teachers on the one hand stick to the coursebook with the result that the learners appear passive, on the other hand omit skills-based activities or activities benefitting from technical equipment (DVDs), and add multiple choice worksheets because tests are administered in this format. Both studies indicate that decisions to adapt or not are based on influencing factors (here teacher beliefs and exams). The studies reviewed reveal that five factors have an impact on coursebook exploitation (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018). These factors are the teaching environment, the learners and their assumed needs, the teacher with her experiences, attitudes, beliefs and practices, the immediate lesson or course context, and the qualities of the material itself.

First, the teaching environment in terms of national, cultural or institutional frameworks may exert an effect. For example, a restricting curriculum policy may encourage or discourage teachers to adapt coursebooks (Bosompem, 2014; Çakır, 2015; Grammatosi & Harwood, 2014; Li & Harfitt, 2016, 2017; Loh & Renandya, 2016). However, teacher initiative may resist against strict frameworks or teachers may abstain from adapting in spite of having the opportunity (Shawer, 2010a). The washback effect (i.e. the effect of tests and examination on instructional practice) as a factor has been reported variously (Abdel Latif, 2017; Arıkan, 2009; Çakır, 2015; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007; Menkabu & Harwood, 2014; Li & Harfitt, 2016, 2017; Loh & Renandya, 2016; Pouromid & Amerian, 2018; cf. Kılıçkaya, 2016). Furthermore, teachers report that lack of time for preparation and to realise adaptations in class force them to follow the coursebook as the script (Menkabu & Harwood, 2014; Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza, 2015; Sampson, 2009). Moreover, due to insufficient school equipment, for example access to audio systems, teachers omit coursebook components (Menkabu & Harwood, 2014). In their comparative study about coursebook exploitation of Iranian and Japanese teachers, Pouromid and Amerian (2018) revealed that, for the Iranian

teachers, following the coursebook was a sign of professionalism that signalled “compliance with the rules of the school they are working for and its principals, observers/inspectors and syllabus” (p. 17), while the Japanese teachers regarded adaptation as professionalism because it indicated that teachers took responsibility for the learning process, thus showed commitment to the teaching profession.

Second, coursebook exploitation is driven by the intention to cater for learner needs (Bolster, 2014, 2015; Bosompem, 2014; Çakır, 2015; Grammatosi & Harwood, 2014; Menkabu & Harwood, 2014; Li & Harfitt, 2016, 2017; Sampson, 2009). Notably, as Çakır (2015) shows for the Turkish context, teachers expressed the belief that adding extracurricular material to the coursebook demotivated the learners because they were difficult to understand for them, contradicted the (by the teacher) assumed learner needs for grammar-based instruction and did not cater for their future use of English. A participant said: “My students won’t go abroad. So I don’t need to focus on communicative activities that require additional materials” (p. 77). A contrary adaptation approach was seen in the curriculum-maker in Grammatosi & Harwood’s (2014) study: The teacher, who had curricular freedom to adapt the coursebook in a way he considered beneficial, evaluated the coursebook materials and created materials based on learner needs. This included the omission of assumingly irrelevant content topics, boring grammar representation, or useless vocabulary. Also, he rewrote an activity because two students had done it before or simplified coursebook components. In adapting the coursebook the teacher took the energy level of the students into consideration, a factor that is also mentioned by Menkabu and Harwood (2014) and Li and Harfitt (2016). These and other examples show that adaptation is not only driven by considerations made in the planning phase but also emerges as an ad hoc response to learner behaviour.

The third factor in coursebook exploitation is the teacher with her beliefs, attitudes, competences and experiences. I referred to Abdel Latif (2017) and Arıkan (2009) above to indicate the influence of teacher dispositions causing resistance to enacting communicative activities or adding materials. In a similar vein, a teacher in the Albanian context in which communicative teaching materials were introduced as a decision of official curriculum policy, a teacher followed the coursebook but did not use pair or group work consistently. Instead, she preferred controlled teacher-student practice. The teacher comments: “We [teachers of English] keep hearing ‘pair work, pair work’. However, any experienced teacher knows that this idea, along with other

initiatives that successive governments have tried to foist on secondary schools, simply does not work” (Seferaj, 2014, p. 99). Bosompem (2014) shows that teacher personality, creativity, experience and professional competence encourage teachers to engage in adaptation, while lack of competence or experience hinder them to adapt materials. Menkabu and Harwood (2014) report on a teacher instructing in an ESP context who has to omit coursebook components because her subject content knowledge does not allow her to cover certain topics effectively. Sampson (2009), examining the relationship between teacher autonomy levels and coursebook exploitation, shows that teacher autonomy plays an essential role in the ability to foster congruence between the coursebook material and the learning context:

Those teachers who consistently adapt, modify, omit, reorder and supplement their teaching materials are shown to be exercising more autonomy over their teaching than those who rarely or never do so. Similarly, those who engage in critical reflection in the preactive, interactive and postactive stages of a lesson are also shown to manifest more autonomy than those who do not or do so to a lesser degree (p. 211).

Teacher autonomy undoubtedly encourages teachers to adapt coursebook materials, to design own materials or to take an active and informed role in coursebook selection, but it should be noted that particularly the school context with its physical conditions and regulations may impede teachers in exploiting the coursebook in ways that they regard favourable to initiate learning (Jackson, 2018).

A further factor associated with the teacher is the extent to which the coursebook is accepted as authoritative (Shawer, 2010a). For example, Bosompem (2014) reports teachers perceive feelings of guilt when adapting because they believe they call the authority of the coursebook into question. A significant contribution to this aspect is the study by Forman (2014). Even though the participating EFL teachers in Thailand are critical of global coursebook content and presentation of grammar and they experience in class that coursebook components are obviously irrelevant or inaccessible for learners, they do not challenge the authority of the coursebook, and Forman suggests that the teachers’ position as non-native speakers discourages them from engaging in major adaptation. Notably, Forman assumes that class size, teacher workload and low pay are further factors in the case of the study. Forman’s research indicates the problematic implementation of global coursebooks if they are not adapted to enhance relevance for learners and teachers, and the crucial role teachers play in this process.

However, EFL teachers' views on global coursebook vary as they may be perceived as superior to local coursebooks (Mason & Payant, 2018). As a general outcome, teachers need professional development on adaptation to be able to respond to mismatches between materials and the learning context (Bosompem, 2014; Shawer, 2010a).

Fourth, coursebook exploitation is driven by the immediate lesson or course context. For example, the teacher in Grammatosi & Harwood's (2014) study felt that the selected coursebook was not conducive to achieving intended course outcomes and used it henceforth as a resource and added other materials to achieve a better fit for established learning goals. At lesson level, this can be described as the attempt to make a coursebook component "more viable in its implementation" (Li & Harfitt, 2016, p. 409). For example, a participant in Li & Harfitt (2017) revises the instructions of an exercise asking students to order statements from most to least important, the teacher "said she thought of the viability of the exercise and decreased its difficulty level by asking her students to select the most important statements together with their rationales" (p. 9). As this example shows, coursebook exploitations directed to the immediate course or lesson context, by nature, have a relationship to the other factors. In the example given, it is the learners' proficiency level that apparently guided the teacher.

Fifth, the material itself leads teachers towards certain decisions on how to exploit coursebook materials. As explained above, in Forman's (2014) study the material in the global ELT coursebook was perceived insufficient for the local context, but the teachers' beliefs overruled evaluations of the material. As a counterexample, EFL teachers in a rural part of Ukraine were not satisfied with the delivery of communicative language teaching in local coursebooks and organised fundraising to purchase materials published by British publishers (Mason & Payant, 2018). A recurring issue is the perceived deficiency of material to achieve SLA, irrelevance of content or lack of authenticity that guides teachers to add material (Bosompem, 2004; Grammatosi & Harwood, 2014; Li & Harfitt, 2016, 2017; Pouromid & Amerian, 2018; Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza, 2015). However, the studies also document teacher voices expressing satisfaction with the material as they are perceived as well-structured or providing appealing content so that adaptation is not regarded necessary (Bosompem, 2014; Çakır, 2015; Lee & Bathwater, 2007; Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza, 2015).

Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) provide a different perspective on materials. Their study is concerned with the question what affordances and constraints are offered by material. The study was conducted in an ESL grammar class where a grammar textbook consisting of chapters introducing grammar topics through explanations and exercises was used. The book *was* the curriculum because “*Progress and success* in the class were defined as ‘moving through the materials’” (p. 785, emphasis in the original). The book provided affordances or constraints to language learning as evidenced in classroom discourse: If the material asked the learners to give the one ‘right’ answer, then the learners exactly did this. If the material encouraged the learners to give elaborate answers, open-ended answers and/or answers through which they could connect lesson content to their lives, then the material triggered longer, and more meaningful classroom discourse – meaningful in the sense that the course participants communicated content relevant for them instead of producing language for the sake of providing correct answers. In this sense, the textbook appeared “as an actor with an agency of its own, one that can want students to do things and even make them do them” (p. 785). Excerpts in the paper provide evidence that the textbook organised classroom discourse, and the discourse was apparently not always in a way that it could be concluded that language learning took place. As Guerrettaz & Johnston (2013) note, “there is a noteworthy discrepancy between intended and unintended affordances of the book. The actual functions of the book extended much further than the intended functions, into the structure of the curriculum and of classroom interaction” (p. 792).

However insightful the study is for the understanding of how material works in foreign language classroom learning, it has to be noted that it was not conducted, as the authors admit, in a typical coursebook context (a grammar textbook was used that does not require a sequence; language is not taught via content but via grammar explanations and language that highlights the grammar item to be taught; communicative activities are not offered in the material), and the teacher apparently gave the responsibility and control to the book. Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018, p. 92) ask: “Why did the teacher let the textbook function as the grammar curriculum in his attempt to achieve the purpose of his class?” Guerrettaz and Johnston (2013) inform us that the course purpose was “to promote students’ ability to use and recognize grammatical structures” (p. 783), and the course was integrated in a programme consisting of other courses covering the teaching of skills and content. Additionally, course assessment was realised through quizzes and tests. Coming back to Tomlinson and Masuhara’s question we can

speculate that the teaching environment (programme with courses offering communicative language teaching, exams), the immediate course context (the course aims) and the material (as evidenced in the study), maybe the teacher's preferences or more likely his considerations about the course context and possibly the learners' expectations contributed to the exploitation of the textbook as it was documented (some of these issues are considered by Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013). In other words, and this can be concluded for sure from the growing body of research on language materials-in-use, the way how teachers exploit coursebooks is influenced by a variety of interacting factors: Not a single study reviewed in this section, irrespective of methodology or focus, related coursebook exploitation to an isolated factor. As a second conclusion from this review, coursebook adaptation is requested and does not necessarily imply that the material is deficient: "When teachers make adaptations to the guidelines or materials, in general, they do so because they want to optimize the learning experience of their pupils" (Loh & Renandya, 2016, p. 107). Third, not every adaptation is beneficial because it may violate curricular requirements aiming at implementing methodological innovations (McGrath, 2013). Fourth, teachers need "to consciously choose the ways they use a textbook or other materials, rather than employing them unreflectively" (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013, p. 793). This indicates the need to integrate coursebook exploitation in the education and professional development of foreign language teachers.

2.3.7. ELT Coursebook Research in the Turkish Context

As stated before, studies on coursebook consumption have just raised more interest, but it is still an area that is rather under-researched. The same holds true for the Turkish context (Aydınlı & Ortaçtepe, 2018). The need for further research on ELT teachers' coursebook exploitation is indicated in recent reviews of postgraduate theses completed at Turkish Universities. İnal, Özdemir, Kıray and Oral (2016), in their review of doctoral theses completed between 2009 and 2013, report on four theses concerned "with the analysis of materials 'as they are'" (Littlejohn, 2011, p. 181), i.e. document analysis without examination of actual use in classrooms. Similarly, Şimşek and Dündar (2017), reviewing 54 postgraduate (MA and PhD) theses on ELT coursebooks completed between 2001 and 2013, inform us that only one MA thesis (Pilica, 2005, on duration of coursebook use in English and Turkish as a foreign language classes) used

observation, and one another study (Çoban, 2001) dealt with English teachers' reported adaptations based on interviews. In line with these surveys is Özmen, Cephe and Kınık's (2016) review of 137 ELT-related doctoral dissertations covering the period between 2010 and 2014 and not necessarily completed in ELT departments. The authors report three dissertations on coursebooks, none of which includes examination of coursebook exploitation in class. To sum up, the overviews on research carried out in Turkey indicate that

key research priorities emerging from the current study of research trends in EFL coursebook evaluations concern the quality of training that teachers receive for materials evaluation and adaptation, the amount of support, and freedom they are granted for materials adaptation, the range of factors influencing teachers adaptive behaviours, and the efficiency of their coursebook related decisions. Although the coursebook writers appeared to be mostly blamed for the weaknesses of local English coursebooks listed herein, it awaits discovery whether the teachers are really putting the materials to good use and how competent they are at exploiting the available resources (Şimşek & Dündar, 2017, p. 1001).

Research stemming from observational data indicates that English language teachers in primary, secondary and tertiary education heavily depend on coursebooks, and teachers do not tend to adapt coursebooks, even though in-house materials are reported to be used at universities (British Council, 2015; Dülger, 2016; Pilica, 2005). This overreliance is problematic given ongoing criticism by teachers according to which coursebooks delivered by the Ministry of Education (covering the largest part of formal instruction) are perceived as ineffective to facilitate English language learning (Çakır, 2015; Erarslan, 2018; Şener & Mulcar, 2018; Yılmaz & Aydın, 2014).

2.3.8. Intermediate Summary: ELT Coursebooks and Coursebook Exploitation

The role of coursebooks in English language teaching has been reviewed in the previous sections, and the necessity to exploit them in an informed way has been emphasised. This resonates with calls for a coursebook-based teaching instead of a coursebook-led teaching that appropriates materials to the contexts they are used in to promote language learning (McGrath, 2002, 2016; Shelton-Strong, 2016). As the way teachers utilise their coursebooks is informed by a variety of interacting factors, several of which the teachers may not be aware of, it is of importance for teachers to uncover

these factors so that they can analyse, evaluate and revise their coursebook exploitation in order to improve teaching and, eventually, facilitate more effective language learning (Athanasios, 1993; Bosompem, 2014; Masuhara, 2011). A way to initiate and conduct such an examination is to engage teachers in reflective practice. This is what the next sections are about.

2.4. Reflective Practice

The following sections are concerned with reflective practice, “a very popular concept within teacher education and development programs” (Farrell, 2016, p. 223). To frame the issue of reflective practice, the review will start with an attempt to determine the scope of reflective practice by revisiting distinctions, significant components and calls for reconceptualisation. Since the current study favours a data-led form of reflective practice (Mann & Walsh, 2013, 2017), I will introduce the tools that teachers can use to engage in such a form of reflective practice, and specifically review the reflective tools in this study. The last section is concerned with studies on reflective practice carried out by English language teachers to examine components of their instructional practice.

2.4.1. Reflective Practice: Definitions and Basic Distinctions

An attempt to arrive at a consensus what reflective practice is considering questions such as what actions reflective practice encompasses, what intended outcomes reflective practice should produce, what reflective practice should be directed to (i.e. the focus of reflection), or through what activities and with which instruments reflective can or should be realised (i.e. the tools for reflection), turns out to be challenging because a generally agreed definition does not exist due to the fact that different scholars have elaborated upon reflective practice from a variety of perspectives and reflective practice has been applied across a range of different professional domains (Clarà, 2015; Farrell, 2014; Fook, White & Gardner, 2006; Moon, 1999; Rodgers, 2002; see York-Barr, Sommers, Ghore & Montie, 2006, pp. 5-8, with a survey of understandings of reflective practice not limited to reflective practice in the educational domain). Starting from common-sense views, reflection can be understood as a thinking activity directed to a complex issue one has some information about (Moon, 2004, p. 82). Etymologically, reflection derives from the Latin prefix ‘re’ meaning ‘back’ or ‘again’ and the word

‘flectere’ meaning ‘bend’, so that reflection refers to the activity of bending back to an issue noticed and thinking carefully about it (Johansson & Kroksmark, 2004, p. 377; cf. Boud, et al., 1985a). Reflective practice, then, refers to a course of activities involving the retrospective examination of an issue of interest.

Given a variety of definitions of reflective practice available – Farrell (2013a, p. 33) reports counting more than 100 different definitions over two decades – few would object against a broad definition of reflective practice as a critical examination of aspects of a professional domain (such as teaching within the boundaries of the classroom and beyond) that enables professionals to make better-grounded decisions related to their professional practice (Boud, Keogh & Walker, 1985b; Burton, 2009; Farrell, 2015; Richards & Farrell, 2005). In order to come to terms with reflective practice, I will start from Dewey’s conceptualisation of reflective thinking and Schön’s distinction between reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action as significant contributions to the field, which allows me to “get back to basics as to what reflective practice is and where it came from” (Farrell, 2012, p. 15).

The American educator John Dewey made the important distinction between idle thinking signifying “everything that, as we say, is ‘in our heads’ or that ‘goes through our minds’” (Dewey, 1910, p. 2) and reflective thinking: Reflective thinking (i) consists of a consecutive progression in which thoughts are informed by previous thoughts, (ii) entails questioning of routine behaviour views and beliefs, and (iii) aims at drawing conclusions on the base of evidence. Reflection, because it is a critical approach, requires scepticism, the intention to clarify aspects that are unclear or somehow perplexing, and an active examination of data. Unlike uncritical thinking

Reflective thinking is always more or less troublesome because it involves overcoming the inertia that inclines one to accept suggestions at their face value; it involves willingness to endure a condition of mental unrest and disturbance. Reflective thinking, in short, means judgment suspended during further inquiry; and suspense is likely to be somewhat painful (Dewey, 1910, p. 13).

Dewey clearly appreciated the value of experience as the base for reflective practice carried out by teachers: “Every experience is a moving force” (Dewey, 1938/1997, p. 38). However, to benefit from experience, he regarded a systematic inquiry involving the application of reflective thinking and following a cycle of activities as indispensable (Dewey, 1910, pp. 68-78): Reflective thinking is triggered when there is a perceived incongruence between intended aims and means used or between expected and achieved

outcomes. To come to an understanding of a problem, observation and critical, unbiased examination are conducted and alternatives are generated. Then, the alternatives are evaluated and an alternative considered to be suitable is applied; this may lead to a modification of the personal knowledge base. As Dewey was interested in improving schools in his times, he was convinced of the need to generate opportunities for teachers to engage in a systematic inquiry that would allow them to assess and evaluate beliefs and practices guided by a “scientific habit of mind” (Dewey, 1910, p. iii).

Notably, Dewey pointed to the teacher’s disposition to engage in reflective thinking as crucial to overcome impulsive or routine action (Dewey, 1933, p. 17) and to focus on informed and goal-oriented instructional practice. In order to arrive at a disposition conducive to engaging in reflective practice, Dewey (1933, pp. 30-33) saw the need to develop three attitudes in teachers: (i) Open-mindedness refers to the ability of addressing problems or ideas without prejudice accompanied with the willingness to intellectually process them from a multitude of perspectives, so that beliefs and assumptions about own teaching are modified. Farrell (2014), translating open-mindedness into the second language classroom, suggests asking teachers to provide evidence for the question if their instructional practices promote language learning, i.e. to initiate a process of examining what is really happening in the classroom and to contrast it with assumptions about own teaching. Surely, as York-Barr et al. (2006, p. 10) note, open-mindedness is a prerequisite to take up an examination of teaching practice. (ii) Whole-heartedness is defined as the commitment a teacher demonstrates to her profession. Rodgers (2002) accentuates Dewey’s concept by pointing to the need to show whole-heartedness towards the content that is taught, the learning process students go through and the teaching method and techniques applied; stated differently, lack of whole-heartedness leads to indifference hampering an accurate teaching of subject content and a critical examination of the teaching context. Dewey regarded whole-heartedness as crucial not only for the simple reason that it allowed teachers to direct their interest to school issues but also as it exerted “an intellectual force. A teacher who arouses such an enthusiasm in his pupils has done something that no amount of formalized method, no matter how correct, can accomplish” (Dewey, 1933, p. 32). (iii) Responsibility refers to a teacher’s readiness and willingness to consider the impacts and outcomes of teaching, and not to blame factors that are only seemingly beyond the teacher’s sphere of influence. Indeed, it is not uncommon that teachers refer to other participants (colleagues, administrators, governmental authorities, students) or

conditions (school facilities, regulations) as sources for difficulties experienced in classrooms, and, thus, abstain from reflective practice (i.e. inquiry and action) because they do not regard themselves in a position to resolve difficulties: In that way they stick to rationalisations that “may masquerade as reflection” (Senese, 2007, p. 46; cf. Kayapınar, 2013). Dewey remarked that teachers appropriate certain beliefs but do not “commit themselves to the consequences that flow from them” (Dewey, 1933, p. 32). Notably, responsibility is commonly accepted as trait contributing to teacher autonomy (Jackson, 2018).

In sum, reflection, according to Dewey, encompasses a kind of rigorous scientific inquiry through which meaning is attached to experience gained during professional practice. To initiate reflection, the specific dispositions of open-mindedness, whole-heartedness and responsibility need to be developed. This points to the importance of organising training opportunities for teachers so that they can improve their reflective thinking skills and contribute to their personal and professional development (Kayapınar, 2018; Rodgers, 2002).

Building upon Dewey (Farrell, 2012), but focusing rather on the significance of the intuitive knowledge generated by practitioners, Schön (1983, 1987) introduced the distinction between reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action to refer to professionals’ ways of reflecting on their own practice. Starting point for Schön was the predominance of the model of technical rationality that regarded “intelligent practice as an *application* of knowledge to instrumental decisions” (Schön, 1983, p. 50, emphasis in the original) and the lack of appreciation of the knowledge base of practitioners generate in and through experience and utilise in professional practice: “We are in need of inquiry into the epistemology of practice” (Schön, 1983, p. viii). Schön’s conceptualisation of reflection relied on his understanding of theories in practice, a conceptualisation developed in collaboration with Argyris (Argyris & Schön, 1974), according to which practitioners act upon personal theories as “vehicles for explanation, prediction and control” (p. 5). Theories of practice are informed by experiences gained in the professional practice and consist of values, beliefs and assumptions that guide people when they face a problem. Importantly, theories of practice may be (and often are) subconscious, and professionals may believe that they act based on a theory (espoused theory) that actually does not match the theory applied (theory-in-use); both Dewey and Schön made this distinction, and an aim of reflective practice is to enable teachers to identify mismatches between their espoused theories and theories-in-use

(Farrell, 2012, p. 14). Presenting a connected model, Argyris and Schön (1978) suggested that professionals exploit feedback loops denoting a response in form of strategy modification to address a perceived problem; single-loop learning does not lead to an examination of entrenched values, beliefs or assumption. In contrast, double-loop learning is characterised by a revision of underlying values, beliefs and assumptions so that theories of action are modified (Houchens & Keedy, 2009). The feedback loop model underlines the need to go through stages in reflective practice (Burton, 2009).

Gaining particular relevance for the teaching profession, Schön proposed “that in much of the spontaneous behaviour of skilful practice we reveal a kind of knowing which does not stem from a prior intellectual operation” (Schön, 1983, p. 51). This knowing-in-action has been attractive to explain practices of teachers, who are constantly forced to make decisions in the complex course of classroom interaction.

Similarly to Dewey (1910; 1933), Schön saw reflection triggered when a puzzling or perplexing event caused some kind of disturbance: To address the disturbance, professionals apply routine strategies; if these routine strategies do not result in an expected outcome, they initiate reflection-in-action denoting a process of utilising knowledge and experimentation that enables professionals to reframe a situation by attaching meaning to the event so that alternative actions to address a problem can be designed and put into practice (Clarke, 1995). Engagement in reflection-in-action demonstrates “not only that we can think about doing but that we can think about doing something while doing it” (Schön, 1983, p. 54) by utilising internalised “actions, recognitions, and judgments which we know how to carry out spontaneously; we do not have to think about them prior to or during their performance” (Schön, 1983, p. 54). Recognising the worth of reflection after an event (reflection-on-action), Schön regarded the development of the ability to reflect *in* action as a significant task in professional development (Schön, 1987).

Reviewing Dewey and Schön’s contributions to reflected practice, Farrell (2012) notes that Schön’s reflection-in-action is an expansion of reflection-on-action that established the core of Dewey’s conceptualisation of reflection and points to the significance for our understanding of reflection:

Dewey’s and Schön’s legacy is important because they moved the concept of reflection far beyond everyday simple wonderings about a situation to a more rigorous form of thinking whereby a teacher systematically investigates a perceived problem in order to discover a solution (Farrell, 2012, p. 14).

Additionally, both kinds of reflection enable professionals to engage in reflection-for-action, which is of particular significance for teachers' preparation for instructional practice (Killion & Todnem, 1991).

Despite its centrality for the conceptualisation of reflection and reflective practice, Schön's view of expertise as the ability to reflect while teaching has been criticised. Convery (1998) argues that Schön promotes an individualistic form of reflection that neglects the context teachers act in, does not consider the transformative potential of reflection and favours a craft model of teaching that equates teacher reflection with the capability to fix surface problems rather than examine underlying complications. Similarly, Kotzee (2012) doubts if Schön's exclusion of the social dimension of reflection adequately addresses the fact that professional practice by nature is contextually embedded and argues that Schön's concept of reflection "fails to be able to account for how people can learn to become part of social practices or can improve at them" (p. 15). In line with these considerations is the critique that implementations of reflective practice, not only but also based on Schön's conceptualisation, do not sufficiently consider the context defined as the wider cultural and socio-political environment along with the immediate working place with its distinct traditions, goals, resources and physical facilities that provide affordances or constraints for reflective practice (Boud & Walker, 1998). Moreover, Roberts (1998, p. 51) and Moon (1999, p. 14) critically remark that Schön's view is narrow because only a part of professional expertise is considered, idealised because it is not supported by empirical evidence and ambiguous because it remains opaque in how far the cognitive processes operating in reflection-in-action differ from those in reflection-on-action.

Johansson and Kroksmark (2004) suggest that, while reflection is a kind of thinking that requires distance from the object, teachers' sense-making in the moment of teaching may better be accounted for as intuition-in-action as an immediately available response to a classroom situation (cf. also Eraut, 1995). This is supported by neuropsychological research indicating that teachers organise their knowledge related to instructional practice "in particularly effective patterns that could be retrieved unconsciously from long-term memory via classroom cues" (Björklund, 2007, p. 30).

The survey so far drew an outline of reflective practice based on Dewey and Schön's models as the arguably most significant contributions in the field. This outline allows me to accentuate reflective practice in terms of the stages reflective practice ideally consists of and the epistemological perspective inherent in reflective practice (Section

2.4.2.), its potential outcomes and, referring to Farrell's (2015, 2018a) operationalisation, the content reflective practice can be directed to (Section 2.4.3.). A clarification of these aspects is then followed by an account of critical perspectives on reflective practice in Section 2.4.4.

2.4.2. Reflective Practice: Learning and Knowledge Construction

Dewey's conceptualisation of reflective thinking and Schön's introduction of reflection-in-action encompass guidance on how to enact reflective practice, and their proposed procedures resonate with accounts of learning proposed in theories of experimental learning (Boyd & Fales, 1983; Moon, 1999; Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993), notably Kolb's (1984) experiential learning cycle that explains learning as the sequence of concrete experience, observation and analysis based on reflective thinking processes leading to abstract reconceptualisation and active experimentation. In line with this, reflective practice models have been suggested. Korthagen (2001), for example, proposes a reflective cycle consisting of the stages of action, retrospection, identifying significant issues, developing of alternatives and experimentation. Based on other frameworks suggested (e.g., Boyd & Fales, 1983; Burton, 2009; Moon, 1999; Senese, 2007; Thorsen & DeVore, 2013; Wallace 1991) seven phases can be identified a practitioner may go through in reflective: (i) noticing the need to address a concern; (ii) clarifying the concern noticed; (iii) ad hoc experimentation to respond to the concern noticed; (iv) relating the concern to previous experience, assumptions or beliefs; (v) generating more alternatives to address the concern; (vi) evaluation of the insights gained throughout the reflective activity; (vii) modification of teaching practice and/or held beliefs. The phases (iv) to (vi) are distinctly related to reflection-on-action as they contain processes that require a kind of stepping-back from the event investigated. Obviously, in practice, there is variation in implementing and realising reflective practice, and Clarà (2015), challenging the claim that reflection requires practitioners to go through consecutive phases, makes the point that reflective practitioners may indeed not follow steps proposed in the literature to engage in reflection.

From an epistemological perspective, reflection and reflective practice function as tools to construct knowledge because meaning is attached to the object of reflection throughout the process of reflection (Denton, 2009; Moon, 1999). As seen above, one of

Schön's (1983) concerns was an appreciation of the knowledge generated by professionals as a valuable source for knowledge to be used in professional development against the backdrop of the prevalent understanding of professional knowledge as 'objective' knowledge to be transmitted by experts to professionals. Reflective practice, therefore subscribes to constructivist positions (Schunk, 2012, pp. 273-274), and its promotion in second language teacher education and professional development is an expression of the paradigm shift away from transmission-based to inquiry-based models which conceptualise teacher-students and teachers as active agents of their own learning in continuous self-development (Crandall, 2000; Freeman, 2002, 2009; 2016; Harfitt & Chan, 2017; Johnson, 2009b; Veléz-Rendón, 2002; Wright, 2010).

It was stated above that according to Argyris and Schön (1974) professionals rely on their theories of practice as a knowledge base. This knowledge base is established through specialised professional knowledge transmitted by experts, i.e. acquired, for instance, in teacher education and teacher development, and through examination of practice; the former knowledge, referred to as *episteme*, is universal, abstract and context independent, while the latter one, *phronesis*, is context-related, concrete and variable because it is based on life-experience (Kansanen, et al. 2000). Cochran-Smith and Lytle's (1999) distinction between knowledge-for-practice, knowledge-in-practice and knowledge-of-practice are conducive to theorising professionals' (teachers') knowledge bases and to accentuating the potential of reflective practice. Knowledge-for-practice refers to the knowledge base disseminated in teacher education programmes encompassing subject content knowledge (e.g. English) and pedagogical content knowledge informing teachers or student teachers on how to teach the content areas of the subject (cf. Shulman, 1987). As knowledge-for-practice is delivered by experts (university teachers), its dissemination is typically transmission-based and the knowledge has been generated by others. The second type of teacher knowledge is knowledge-in-practice referring to the knowledge base gained in daily instructional activity:

From this perspective, the emphasis is on knowledge in action: what very competent teachers know as it is expressed or embedded in the artistry of practice, *in* teachers' reflections on practice, *in* teachers' practical inquiries and/or *in* teachers' narrative accounts of practice (Cochran-Smith and Lytle, 1999, p. 262, emphasis in the original).

Teacher learning resulting in knowledge-in-practice resembles the practical knowledge which in particular experienced teachers are equipped with (Fenstermacher, 1994). The third type, knowledge-of-practice, goes beyond the other two conceptions because it assumes “that the knowledge teachers need to teach well emanates from systematic inquiries about teaching, learning subject matter and curriculum, and schools and schooling” (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, p. 274). In other words, the knowledge-of-practice conception recognises the teacher as the one who constructs her knowledge in collaboration with colleagues, learners and other stakeholders considering the wider social and political context by conducting a deliberate inquiry of (i.e. reflective practice on) the immediate and mediate teaching context with the aim of sense-making. Particularly for teacher education, the importance of reflective practice and related inquiries into teaching practice (e.g. action research) to enhance student teachers’ knowledge base and capability to link theory to practice has been emphasised (e.g. Barkhuizen, 2009; Borg, 2007; Cabaroğlu, 2014; Chua, Liu & Ying Chia, 2018; Darling-Hammond, 2006; Johnson & Golombek, 2002; Korthagen, 2010; Korthagen & Kessels, 1999; Loughran, 2002).

A further type of knowledge generated through reflection is knowledge oriented “toward emancipation from seemingly ‘natural’ constraint” (Habermas, 1971, p. 311) in order to initiate ideology critique, empower people and remove inequality, injustice and repression in society (cf. Brookfield, 2017). Habermas’ (1971) notion of knowledge generated for emancipatory purposes expands Dewey’s conceptualisation of reflection as an interpretivist attempt to make sense of the world by indicating liberating effects of reflection (Moon, 1999, p. 15).

Emancipatory purposes have particularly been acknowledged in critical language teacher education and transformative practice aiming to detect values inherent in knowledge perpetuating power relations, to promote learners’ participation in society and the school context, and, last but not least, to encourage teachers to become agents of their own instructional practice by transforming their own practices and immediate teaching context (Brookfield, 2009; 2017; Hawkins & Norton, 2009; Hickson, 2011; Ingerman & Wickman, 2015; Kramer, 2018; Netolicky, 2016; Ravitch, 2014; Richards, 2008).

2.4.3. Implementing Reflective Practice: Outcomes, Levels and Foci

The previous sections demonstrated that reflective practice is a purposeful endeavour that – stated generally – contributes to learning because the professional knowledge base is expanded. It has also been shown that reflection goes beyond “a purely speculative exercise in the construction of interpretations or meanings. It (...) is a power we choose to exercise in the analysis and transformation of the situations in which we find ourselves when we pause to reflect” (Kemmis, 1985, p. 184). In order to specify how reflective practice can or should be implemented in professional domains (i.e. pre-service and in-service programmes), I identify three significant dimensions (cf. Thorsen & DeVore, 2013): potential outcomes of reflection, the depth of reflection, and the content reflective practice can focus on. It should be noted that these dimensions are interacting and partly inherent in what has been developed so far.

Outcomes

We recall that Dewey (1910; 1933) introduced reflective thinking as an activity that is undergone in distinct stages encompassing the active examination of a specific event to arrive at new understandings. For that reason, reflective practice is outcome oriented (Boud, et al., 1985a) as it potentially expands knowledge about and understanding of the professional domain, encompasses action, involves participants in a critical examination of their context, enables them to trace learning processes, develops decision-making, stimulates creativity in problem solving, triggers emotions, raises an awareness of the need to delve into further reflection, enables participants to theorise based on reflection on experience, and, thus, contributes to the personal and professional development of teachers (Moon, 2004, pp. 83-84).

Reviewing studies examining reflective practice in the professional domains of social work, psychology and teacher education, van Beveren, Roets, Buysse and Rutten (2018) have recently identified a variety of purposes that mirror the outcomes reported by Moon (2004): The authors attribute reflective practice to purposes they categorise into three distinct levels: At the personal level, reflective practice seeks to promote (i) professional development including outcomes such as development of competences, skills, practical theories and professional identities as well as enhancement of career prospects; (ii) personal awareness of the own background (e.g., cultural, ethnic, linguistic, professional); (iii) change of beliefs, attitudes and behaviour, that is the

transformation of personal theories about professional practice; (iv) agency defined as the ability to shape own acting in the educational or professional context by enhancing autonomy and responsibility with the aim to transform power relationships. At the interpersonal level, reflective practice is concerned with (i) the establishment or expansion of practical knowledge to respond effectively to events occurring in the professional context given; (ii) raising an awareness of the other; (iii) developing empathic understanding. At the socio-structural level, reflective practice aims at (i) more effective practice in terms of addressing the specific needs of participants (clients, learners) by developing the ability to appropriately make decisions, and ensure accountability to authorities that assess practitioners; (ii) situating practice within structural and social contexts, i.e. to uncover factors departing from the socio-political, ethical or cultural context and to accommodate own practice to these factors; (iii) social transformation: Reflective practice is utilised not only to analyse the structural and social context (see the previous point) but to lead to betterment by removing social inequalities; (iv) counterforce or resistance: In some of the studies reviewed by van Beveren et al. (2018), reflective practice is explicitly utilised as a tool to resist against power relationships or practices that perpetuate dominant worldviews such as globalisation or neo-liberal ideologies.

In sum, both Moon (2004) and van Beveren et al. (2018) indicate that reflective practice pursues a variety of aims that may be directed to reflective practitioners themselves, the participants in the immediate context or the community in the wider context. Also, the object of reflection may be an observable 'object' (e.g. a teaching behaviour, artefacts produced in the learning process) or an unobservable 'object' (e.g. a belief). Finally, reflective practice may be more oriented towards understanding through attaching meaning to an object (mirroring Dewey's, 1910, 1933, conceptualisation of reflection) or transformation (as postulated by Habermas, 1971). A related and comparable differentiation is also apparent in the modes of reflective practice describing the depth of reflection, a further dimension significant for the implementation of reflective practice.

Levels

As reflective practice deals with an examination of a practice, an event or a situation, common sense suggests that an examination can be conducted in a continuum reaching from a descriptive level at one end of a continuum (aiming at getting a picture of

something) to a transformative level (aiming at changing something) at the other end as well as in a continuum ranging from less to more systematic approaches (Farrell, 2018b; Mann, 2005; 2016; Thorsen & DeVore, 2013). Arguably, not every act of thinking would count as reflection or reflective practice: “It would not be appropriate in academia, for example, to say that professional development is enhanced when a person goes for a sunny walk in a reflective mood” (Moon, 2004, p. 83).

Reflective practitioners engage in levels of reflection that vary in terms of breadth (including many components inherent in the context where the reflection takes place) and depth (Moon, 2004, p. 96). Hatton and Smith (1995), for instance, distinguish four levels of reflective writing with (i) descriptive writing that does not count as reflective because no attempt to identify reasons or give justifications is made; (ii) descriptive reflection encompassing an inquiry into reasons or justifications guiding actions, the considerations of other viewpoints and identification of factors having an impact on events; (iii) dialogic reflection characterised by distancing oneself from the event, an active discussion with the event observed, challenging justifications and identifying a factor or factors having an impact on events; (iv) critical reflection as dialogic reflection that takes the wider historical and socio-political context into account.

Bearing resemblance to Hatton and Smith’s (1995) framework, Taggart and Wilson (2005) propose a literature-informed “Reflective Thinking Pyramid” (p. 2) according to which reflection can be realised at a technical, contextual or dialectical level. At the technical level, practitioners reflect based on past experiences, and are guided by concerns about learning outcomes or learner behaviour. At the contextual level, alternative practices are evaluated, the immediate teaching context is taken under consideration, and a more principle-based analysis is carried out based on knowledge and values. The dialectical level requires open-mindedness and responsibility (Dewey, 1933) because practices are examined from moral and ethical points of view taking the socio-political context into consideration. This means, practitioners reflecting at the dialectical level critically evaluate their practices, attempt to enhance their knowledge base and achieve self-actualisation.

Looking at levels in reflection from a different perspective, Korthagen and Vasalos (2005) make the point that reflection, in order to become effective, for example to generate teacher behaviour that is believed to be conducive to student learning, requires depth by addressing core qualities in teachers: Proposing an onion model describing the levels at which reflective practice can take place (with the environment outside and,

from the outer layer to the inner layer, behaviour, competencies, beliefs, identity and mission), the authors postulate that reflection needs to raise an awareness in teachers of their core qualities such as empathy, flexibility, creativity, spontaneity or decisiveness, which are inherent in the inner layers of the onion. After experiencing a problematic situation, teachers need to verbalise what situation they want to achieve, and what factors (e.g. perceived lack of power to deal with problematic learner behaviour) inhibit teachers from dealing with the problematic situation. The activation and testing of core qualities considered to be conducive to addressing the problem identified complete the reflective cycle. Korthagen and Vasalos' (2005) model of core reflection is important for two reasons. First, it indicates that reflective practice does not need to focus on deficiencies but should actually focus on and promote character strengths professionals can utilise to deal with puzzling experiences. Second, reflective practice is by no means a tool with which problems can be fixed mechanically but has to pay attention to both observable aspects of teaching *and* the not directly accessible teacher cognition.

As an outcome of the survey on levels of reflection, we can conclude that depth of reflection depends or may depend on (i) the process gone through, (ii) the consideration of cognitions professionals hold (iii) the consideration of different aspects within and beyond the immediate context (e.g. the classroom) and (iv) the extent to which reflection generates some kind of desirable modification. This summary leads to the third dimension of reflective practice, that of the focus or content that is reflected upon.

Foci

I will mainly draw on Farrell's (2015, 2018a) operationalisation not only for the reason that it directs us to reflection in foreign language teaching, but also because it is a concise account of the aspects teachers (and other professionals) can reflect on. With his conceptualisation, Farrell not only responds to criticism expressed towards the delivery and lack of theorising reflective practice, he also establishes a framework that can be used in teacher education and teacher development as it proposes themes for reflective practice applicable for professionals with different degrees of experience. Moreover, it claims to be a framework that is

different from many other approaches because it encompasses a holistic approach to reflection that not only focuses on the intellectual, cognitive, and meta-cognitive aspects of practice that many other approaches are limited to but also the spiritual,

moral and emotional non-cognitive aspects of reflection that acknowledge the inner life of teachers (Farrell, 2018a, pp. 2-3).

Therefore, Farrell's operationalisation is a response to criticism expressed according to which reflective practice has developed to an approach that functions as a tool to repair problems at workplaces and neglects the complexity inherent in human life (Thompson & Pascal, 2011). Farrell proposes five stages, which however, have not to be passed through in a course of reflective practice. Instead, reflective practitioners or facilitators of reflective practice can select stages according to the distinct circumstances reflective practice is embedded in.

The first stage, *philosophy*, refers to an exploration of the background of teachers encompassing issues such as ethnicity, socioeconomic background or family as sources for values, understandings, and assumptions guiding teaching as a "basic philosophy of practice" (Farrell, 2018a, p. 3). *Principles* are assumptions, beliefs and conceptions teachers hold about teaching and learning; as it is the case with philosophy, principles may be subconscious and difficult to verbalise. Farrell explicitly points to metaphor elicitation as a reflective tool to uncover principles. The third stage, *theory*, is concerned with teachers' theories in practice (cf. Argyris & Schön, 1974; see Section 2.4.1.) as driving forces in the instructional practice referring to concrete methodological aspects of instruction such as the teaching of skills, and can be examined through, for example, analysis of critical incidents or approaches to planning. Theory is informed both by knowledge disseminated in teacher education and gained in experience.

Philosophy, principles and theory are components of teacher cognition, the "unobservable cognitive dimension of teaching – what teachers know, believe and think" (Borg, 2003, p. 81). The impact of cognitive and affective dimensions on practice has been recognised: "What people think, believe, and feel affects how they behave" (Bandura, 1986, p. 25). Teacher cognition is developed in schooling (the teacher's experience gained as a pupil/student), professional coursework (the teacher's knowledge acquired in teacher education), is shaped dependent on contextual factors in the workplace (physical conditions, material, curriculum etc.), and classroom practice (Borg, 2003). Cognitions also may consist of everyday conceptions acquired in an unreflective manner that actually militate against scientifically approved concepts of instructional practice (Johnson & Golombek, 2011). Informed from different sources, cognitions are of somehow dichotomous nature because they are both socially mediated and individually organised, based on theoretical and practical knowledge, can be

modified but tend to be resistant to change when they consist of deep-rooted core beliefs, are partly organised systematically, partly in a complex manner, so that conflicting perceptions may cause mismatches between beliefs and practices, and they comprise implicit and explicitly verbalisable beliefs (Gabillon, 2012; Phipps & Borg, 2009). Kubaniyova and Feryok (2015) refer to language teacher cognition “as *emergent sense making in action*” (p. 436, emphasis in the original). This epistemological view of cognition opposes understanding of teacher cognitions as “reified mental constructs, that is, static and discrete entities that are typically dissociated from action and context as well as other dimensions of teachers’ inner lives” (Kubaniyova & Feryok, 2015, p. 437).

Since teacher cognition stands in an interactional relation to teacher learning and practice (Borg, 2006; Li, 2017), uncovering teacher cognitions is essential to initiate reflection and promote professional development (Donaghue, 2003; Roberts, 1998). When teacher cognitions remain unexamined, teacher education and professional development are likely to be ineffective because approaches, methods or techniques introduced cannot be connected to existing beliefs or transferred into classroom practice (Freeman, 2002; Vélez-Rendón, 2002). Additionally, factors emerging from the immediately situational or wider context may force teachers to use practices that only partly correspond to their beliefs or even impede them from putting their beliefs into practice (Basturkmen, 2012).

Practice, the fourth stage in Farrell’s (2015, 2018a) framework, refers to what teachers do in the classroom. It coincides with reflection-on-practice, and can be carried out with a variety of instruments that document classroom interaction (video observation, peer observation) or promote delayed reflection (critical friend groups). Farrell (2015, 2018a) suggests *beyond practice* as the final stage of reflection encompassing a critical examination of the influence of the wider cultural, social or political context in order to detect impacts of assumptions, values and ideologies on educational systems and concrete instructional practice. Reflection beyond practice resonates with critical pedagogy (Hawkins & Norton, 2009; Piosang, 2018) and critically reflective practice (Brookfield, 2009; Thompson & Pascal, 2012).

In this section, three important dimensions of reflective practice were reviewed: outcomes and purposes, levels operationalising the depth of reflection, and foci professionals can direct their reflection on. Before I continue with tools to be used in reflective practice, I should like to report on criticism towards common realisations of

reflective practice because these critiques have informed the current study about the selection of reflective tools.

2.4.4. Implementing Reflective Practice: Critical Perspectives and (Re)Conceptualisations

Given the promises of reflective practice as a sense-maker in the workplace, a tool to identify and sort out a problem, generally speaking, as something desirable for professionals (Loughran, 2002) – “Who, after all, would want to champion the *unreflective* practitioner?” (McLaughlin, 1999, p. 9, emphasis in the original) –, it is no wonder that reflective practice has become a popular, frequently mandatory component in teacher education and teacher development programmes. In spite of its recognition and, probably, due to its adoption and adaptation in many professional domains, reflective practice has become “a messy and complex field in which traditional disciplinary boundaries and shared criteria for academic rigor do not always apply” (Fook et al., 2006, p. 4). Along with its proliferation in occupational and academic contexts, reflective practice has become a term actually lacking a clear definition, and doubts have been expressed if implementations promote professional growth of teachers (Beauchamp, 2014; Finlay, 2008; Marcos, Sanchez & Tillema, 2011). The criticism specifically addresses four specific aspects: reflective practice as a mandatory component in teacher education and development, the appropriateness of levels of reflection for reflective practice in teaching, the realisation of reflective practice as an individualised activity with an overemphasis on written reflection, and insufficient consideration of data coming from classrooms for reflection. The criticism leads into a reconceptualisation of reflective practice as a data-led and collaborative form of professional development. I will deal with these aspects in turn.

For one thing, it has been argued that reflective practice as a mandatory component in teacher education and development programmes undermines its own rationale because reflection degenerates into a routinised action, and triggers superficial or even fake reflection because student teachers or teachers are concerned with satisfying expectations of mentors or administrators rather than examining aspects they feel are relevant for them (Galea, 2012; Mann & Walsh, 2013, 2017; Noffke & Brennan, 2005). According to Gray and Block (2012), neoliberalism as a prevalent ideology in the Western world (cf. Section 3.2.2. for the impact on coursebooks) with its emphasis on accountability and functionality has generated forms of reflection in which student

teachers have to demonstrate engagement in reflection to be assessed by certifying bodies or management. Under such conditions, reflection appears to be a requirement to meet to outcomes predetermined by authorities (Noffke & Brennan, 2005, p. 73). An illustrating example is provided by a participant in a certificated English language teacher course:

I spent a whole day last week writing the evidence which consists of seven sentences stating *today I realised this and bla bla bla*. But because it's evidence based actually I could very well not have done these things and written it [that I had] anyway. They are asking you to create the evidence out of nothing but it's completely possible because it's such a long list and I told my mentor that and she said, *'well do it. If you think by the end of the year you haven't produced evidence for everything, just fake it'* (Gray & Block, 2012, pp. 130-131; italics in the original; transcription symbols removed and punctuation added).

Reflective practice as reported in the quotation is a bureaucratised act, functions as an assessment tool and does not contribute to professional development but invites practitioners to task completion by inventing evidence. "The problem with an evidence-based checklist approach is that it prioritises a product orientation to learning" (Mann & Walsh, 2013, p. 299, with reference to the same voice; cf. Mackenzie, 2018, for a recent response).

Pointing to a further critical aspect, Noffke and Brennan (2005) doubt if levels of reflection (see Section 2.4.3.) suggested as assessment criteria for teachers' depth of reflective thinking conform to the working realities at schools. Teachers, in their daily instructional practice, are forced to find practical solutions for a variety of concrete instances, so that "teacher reflection is, of necessity, manifestly concrete" (Noffke & Bennon, 2005, p. 66). To postulate teacher reflection needs to explicitly address the wider cultural or socio-political context to satisfy demands of critical reflection is misleading as it ignores that values indeed inhere teacher reflection at a seemingly technical level.

Third, the predominance of individualised reflective practice (even though there is now a growing body of research on collaboratively conducted reflective practice), often carried out in written form, is regarded as a further shortcoming. We recall from Section 2.4.1. that in particular Schön's view on reflection has been criticised for conceptualising reflection as an individualistic activity ignoring the social context practice is embedded in and tending to be "less an exercise in improvement, but more

one of reassurance or self-congratulation” (Kotzee, 2012, p. 15). Noffke and Brennan (2005) add that, given the potentially transformational nature of reflective practice, reflection is unlikely to exert desired outcomes when, for example, a teacher in a school context engages in some kind of reflection alone. Stated differently, it is not reasonable to exclude others working in the same institution from reflection when reflection is directed to the practices prevalent in the institution, which lends itself into an understanding of reflective practice as a collective activity (Goh, 2018). Mann and Walsh (2013, p. 297) make the point that collaborative reflective practice works at two levels: It allows practitioners to learn from each other by observing others’ practices and exchanging views, and to engage in a process of co-constructing in order to make sense of practices or contexts examined (cf. also Brookfield, 2017, pp. 115-116). The latter point is actually in line with Dewey’s (1910, 1933) notion of reflective activity, and appreciates the nature of reflective practice as constructivist action (Collin & Karsenti, 2011; Mann, 2016; Schunk, 2012). Undisputedly, reflective practice conducted collaboratively promotes the establishment of a school culture that is based on shared values and encourages teaching staff to follow a “teachers-teaching-teachers model” (Borko, 2004, p. 10).

Fourth, reflective practice often deliberately abstains from relating reflection to examination of practice. It is reduced to an internal thinking-about process including little attempt to engage in active inquiry of the teaching context so that reflective practitioners are unlikely to refer transmitted theoretical knowledge to lived experience:

In Dewey’s early use of the term “reflective action”, and in the students’ earlier cited understanding, there is a clear and particular linkage between theory and practice. The link of action and reflection, while echoed in the term “reflective teaching”, tends to be ignored in the theoretical exposition of the nature of reflection. Reflection in the modern literature, even that which may call on Dewey himself, tends to appear more as a cerebral rather than a practical or material activity (Noffke & Brennan, 2005, p. 67).

Referring to the situation in foreign language teacher education and professional development, Mann and Walsh (2013, 2017) argue that reflective practice is too often conducted in a way that teachers are asked to reflect on their teaching without taking data into consideration. Forms of individual reflection are dominant in which student teachers or teachers based on memory or self-reports engage in written reflection with dubious outcomes (cf. Gray and Block, 2012; excerpt given above).

Based on the criticism reported so far, it can be concluded that reflective practice contributes to professional development when it is grounded in data coming from the immediate, local context and is based on classroom practice (documented, e.g., in audio and video recordings or transcribed classroom discourse), feedback from peers or students, artefacts from the immediate classroom context or written reflections because “data provide a focus for reflection” (Mann & Walsh, 2017, p. 29). If reflection, on the other hand, is not based on data, it remains vague and irrelevant for the local context it should be informed by and inform. Mann and Walsh (2017) also emphasise the importance to organise reflection dialogically as a way of co-constructing understandings of the local context. In sum, the authors suggest a form of reflective practice that satisfies three conditions: “the research takes place in the classroom (...) teacher-researchers reflect and act on what they observe (...) understandings emerge through dialogue” (Mann & Walsh, 2017, p. 31).

In line with this reconceptualisation, reflective practice can reasonably be defined as a form of practitioner inquiry, an umbrella term repeatedly suggested by Cochran-Smith and Lytle (2009, p. 39-45; cf. Borg, 2007) encompassing forms such as action research (Burns, 2009), explorative practice (Allwright, 2003) or classroom research (McKay, 2009). Forms of practitioner inquiry have in common that the inquiry is conducted by practitioners (e.g. teachers, administrators) in the workplace, are based on an examination of distinct aspects of instructional practices and recognise members of the school community as knowledge generators. Evidently, data-led reflective practice as suggested by Mann & Walsh (2013, 2017) is based on research principles as it positions teachers in the role of explorers of their own context. According to Farrell (2017), reflective practice may be a preliminary stage towards action research, and, in a recent publication, he even positions action research “under the umbrella of reflective practice” (Farrell, 2018b, p. 4; cf. McKernan, 2008, p. 147). According to Burns (2017), different from action research and other forms of teacher research, reflective practice does not necessarily depart from a stated research problem, data collection, analysis, and interpretation, is not concerned with disseminating earned insights to an audience beyond those involved in the school context, and it is not necessarily interventionist to generate change. However, as the survey has shown, reconceptualisations of reflective practice may not entirely subscribe to Burn’s view because reflective practice is considered an endeavour that seeks teachers to engage in data collection and examination (Mann & Walsh, 2017) and exerts a potentially transformative power

(Kramer, 2018). Also, studies often report on reflective practice interventions in which action research is explicitly integrated (e.g. Arslan & Başağa, 2010; Şahinkaras, Yumu & İnözü, 2009). A kind of evidence is the inclusion of studies benefitting from action research as interventional tool in Farrell's (2016) recent literature review.

2.4.5. Data-led Reflective Practice

The current study was designed and conducted based on the principles of data-led, collaborative reflective practice as proposed by Mann & Walsh (2013, 2017; cf. also Borg, 1998). For this reason, it benefitted from reflective tools that mediated the process of reflection the participants were engaged in through providing data or stimuli (Orland-Barak & Maskit, 2017; Wertsch, 1991).

Publications subscribing to reflective approaches in second or foreign language teacher education and professional development propose a variety of instruments and sophisticated techniques to put reflective practice into action (e.g. James, 2001; Richards & Lockhart, 1996; Roberts, 1998; Taggart & Wilson, 2005; Wallace, 1991). Richards & Farrell (2005), for example, introduce the rather transmission-based form of workshops, the (not necessarily) individualised formats of self-monitoring, teaching journals and teaching portfolios, the distinctively collaborative forms of teacher support groups, peer observation, peer coaching and team teaching, and the research-directed forms of critical incidents, case analysis and action research in their book about strategies to engage in professional development.

To address the instruments used in the current study, I will deal with metaphor elicitation, use of stimulated recall, transcripts of classroom discourse, reflective conversation and reflective writing in the following sections. The survey will introduce to the tools and discuss affordances and constraints by revisiting perceptions of reflective practitioners. The Methodology Chapter (Sections 3.5.5. to 3.5.7.) informs about how the instruments were methodologically implemented in the study as data collection and reflective tools.

2.4.5.1. Metaphor Elicitation

A metaphor is an expression describing something or someone with an expression that is literally different from the described object or person but is considered to share similar qualities. Metaphors are means with which people express understandings,

attitudes, values or feelings, and metaphors also denote socioculturally generated conventions (Cameron, 2010; Fisher, 2017). The understanding of metaphors and their pervasiveness in life has been demonstrated by Lakoff and Johnson (1980a, 1980b) in their conceptual metaphor theory. According to this theory, the conceptual system that humans benefit from in thinking and acting is metaphorical, that means people use metaphors to organise their understanding of the world and their relations to other people. People are not normally aware of the metaphors they use or that are in use in a specific context. However, they are present in everyday discourse – Lakoff and Johnson base their theory on linguistic evidence – and have an impact on how people apprehend reality, construct their own conceptualisations and act accordingly (Fisher, 2017). For example, the metaphor *time is money* suggesting an understanding of time as a limited resource and valuable commodity encourages people to act in a way that they esteem time accordingly. Notably, because metaphorical conceptualisations (such as *time is money*) are contextually generated, they may not have universal validity (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980b, pp. 7-8).

Conceptual metaphor theory is a cognitive approach because it renders an account of mental representations. It has been developed and expanded by pointing to the dynamic, i.e. changeable, nature of metaphors as shaped by the sociocultural context (Cameron, 2010; Deignan, 2010; Gibbs, 2011). Because metaphors are considered to be doors providing access to people's thinking, metaphor analysis and elicitation have been widely used as instrument in social sciences research (Jensen, 2006; Todd & Low, 2010; Zheng & Song, 2010) and professional development (James, 2001; Roberts, 1998; Taggart & Wilson, 2005; Wallace, 1991). To that end, research is concerned with examining metaphorical use in naturally occurring discourse and eliciting people's metaphors to arrive at a verbalisation of beliefs and understandings that otherwise would be undetected (Fisher, 2017).

Metaphor elicitation has gained significance as a tool in professional development of teachers departing from the consideration that when teachers explore the metaphors they use, they become aware of their own beliefs, so that they can critically examine and, if required, reconceptualise them through selecting different metaphors and, eventually, modify their practices (Quinn, Charteris, Fletcher, Parkes & Reyes, 2018; Rosaen & Florio-Ruane, 2008; Tobin, 1990). In particular, metaphor elicitation may stimulate new ways of perceiving a process or an object as non-salient characteristics and properties are likely to be uncovered (Wimmer, 2006). As Bolton (2010) notes, “[m]etaphor makes

abstract concrete, a grasp of the ungraspable, make visible or audible that which is normally invisible or inaudible” (p. 223). Encouraging teachers, particularly those with little experience or student teachers, to reflect on instructional practices through metaphors allows them to deconstruct complex or even opaque aspects of their professional activities by activating experiences (Seferoğlu, Korkmazgil & Ölçü, 2009; Thornbury, 1999). McGrath (2006b) points to the affordance of metaphor elicitation directed to a specific component of instruction (e.g. metaphors for coursebooks) as a starting point to engage in examination of other areas.

There are numerous studies using metaphor elicitation or metaphor analysis as a research tool to examine cognitions teachers and learners hold about aspects of language teaching and learning (for overviews see Fisher, 2017; Jenson, 2006; Nikitina & Furuoka, 2011; Todd & Low, 2010; Zheng & Song, 2010; for research in ELT McGrath, 2006a, 2006b; for research in Turkey Demir, 2018). There is consensus “on the usefulness of metaphor analysis in which researchers attempt to elicit beliefs” (Wan, Low & Li, 2011, p. 411) and as a reflective tool, so that teachers “can begin to understand what they really believe about teaching and can start to change themselves as teachers” (Farrell, 2018b, p. 5). In both, research and reflective practice, it is crucial that metaphors are explained and interpretations are justified through additional data to detect implications that may not be apparent at surface level (Low, 2015). Furthermore, as McGrath (2006b) notes, metaphors for teachers may lack reliability “in the sense that a teacher would supply exactly the same metaphor a week or a month later” (p. 312). Consequently, insights gained from metaphor analysis need to be triangulated if examined for research or professional development purposes.

2.4.5.2. Stimulated Recall

Stimulated recall belongs to an array of video-based tools used in teacher education and professional development providing teachers with the opportunity to analyse and reflect on practices by watching videos containing samples of instructional practice (Bopardikar, Carlson, Kimber, Loper, Roblin & Rostovtseva, 2018; van Es, Tunney, Goldsmith & Seago, 2014). Starting in the early 1970s, and having gained enhanced popularity over the last 20 years due to technological developments facilitating easy access to devices for video recording and viewing, teacher education and professional development programmes have increasingly made use of videos showing own, peers’ or

unknown teachers' practices in commercially produced videos (for overviews see Arya, Christ & Chiu, 2016; Gaudin & Charliès, 2015; Major & Watson, 2018; Sherin, 2004). Videos as reflective tools in professional development of teachers are particularly considered to generate opportunities for teachers to engage in data-led reflection (Borko, Jacobs, Eiteljorg & Pittman, 2008; Borko, Koellner, Jacobs & Seago, 2011; Mann & Walsh, 2013; Orland-Barak & Maskit, 2017).

Stimulated recall, “an introspection procedure in which (normally) videotaped passages of behaviour are replied to individuals to stimulate recall of their concurrent cognitive activity” (Lyle, 2003, p. 861), has been used as an SLA research tool with rather strict procedures (so-called protocols) determining cues and instructions given by the researcher in stimulated recall interviews (Gass & Mackay, 2000) and, as a reflective tool, following less strict procedures to initiate teachers reflection taking lesson passages viewed as a starting point (Borg, 2006). This distinction is important because, implemented as a reflective tool, stimulated recall does not necessarily seek to trace thinking of teachers in specific moments of classroom interaction. Studies employing stimulated recall as a reflective tool report use of pre-established protocols (e.g. Endacott, 2016; Powell, 2005) or posing questions tailored to aspects emerging in specific lesson phases (Cutrim-Schmid, 2011; Basturkmen, Loewen & Ellis, 2004) so that teachers can engage in a reflective conversation with researchers or facilitators. Tekkumru-Kisa and Stein (2017) suggest the integration of video-based forms of reflective practice in professional development programmes including goal setting, task assignment for participants, selecting and editing videos and guidance by a facilitator who monitors participants' contributions and directs reflective dialogues towards learning goals. In sum, stimulated recall (and related video-based forms of professional development) are distinctively dialogic forms of reflective practice conducive to taking the concretely observed event into consideration and to expanding to aspects beyond the immediate classroom interaction (Mann & Walsh, 2017; van Es & Sherin, 2017).

Studies on stimulated recall and other forms of video-supported professional development for teachers indicate a variety of advantages (Major & Watson, 2018). A perspicuous advantage is that it allows teachers to reflect on documented practice without being dependent on their memories which may not be accurate (Rosaen, Lundeberg, Cooper, Fritzen & Terpstra, 2008; Wear & Harris, 1994). Videos capture classroom events in a direct way, thus display a higher degree of authenticity than, for example, written accounts of lessons (Sherin, 2004). Also, watching videos of own

classroom practice appears to be particularly relevant, activating and motivating, and therefore preferable to watching videos of other teachers or published material (Gün, 2015; Kleinknecht & Schneider, 2013; Seidel, Stürmer & Blomberg, 2005; Seidel, Stürmer, Blomberg, Kobarg & Schwindt, 2011). What is more, since video-recordings are permanent artefacts, they can be paused and reviewed to focus and reflect on specific aspects and to develop alternatives to instructional practices observed based on evidence (Richard & Lockhart, 1996; Sherin, 2004). Also, video-recording and subsequent review of video-tapes enables teachers to notice aspects of their teaching that otherwise may remain unnoticed, and this noticing enables teachers to detect and challenge implicit beliefs by contrasting them with observed concrete samples of teaching behaviour (Consuegra, Engels, & Willegems, 2016; Farrell, 2015; McCullagh, 2012; Rosaen et al., 2008; Tripp & Rich, 2012; Saito & Khong, 2017). Using stimulated recall in a study with eight foreign language student teachers majoring in second language studies (target languages English, Spanish or Chinese, seven participants with teaching experience), Jackson and Cho (2018) found out that the participants noticed in stimulated recall sessions deviation from plans, identified factors (student behaviour, in-class dynamics) forcing teachers to take ad hoc actions and recognised learner contributions that promoted language learning. The authors emphasise the importance to keep the distance between lesson and stimulated recall as short as possible, but delayed stimulated recall does not exclude the possibility of teachers' noticing aspects in their lessons, which then are taken as a base for reflection. McCullagh (2012) and Tripp and Rich (2012) point to the potential of continuous video-based reflection that allows teachers to trace own professional development evidenced in modified instructional practice. Recently, Tülüçe and Çeçen (2017) examined affordances and constraints of video-supported micro-teaching in English language teacher education. According to their study, the Turkish student teachers favoured video viewing as a resource for recalling classroom events, for noticing their strengths and weaknesses, for taking up critical reflection and for tracing progression in their learning process. This is in line with a growing body of research indicating that video-based forms of professional development

- expand the knowledge base of teachers because, by observing others' practice and/or in collaborative reflection on video material, they learn new techniques of teaching and notice aspects of their teaching that otherwise remain unnoticed;

- help teachers challenge beliefs and detect mismatches between espoused theories and theories-in-use;
- promote teachers' ability to evaluate own practices critically and to identify issues to be improved;
- strengthen teacher self-efficacy when own successful practices are viewed (Major & Watson, 2018).

Besides its advantages, it has repeatedly been pointed out that having student teachers or teachers watch videos of their own (or others') instructional practices does not trigger reflection if facilitators of reflective practice do not provide scaffolding (Gaudin & Charliès, 2015; van Es & Sherin, 2017). Seidel et al. (2011) report that teachers viewing own videos were less critical compared to teachers watching others' videos, while Zhang, Lundeberg, Koehler and Eberhardt (2011) report that participating teachers in their study criticised colleagues for not willing to criticise peers. Undoubtedly, teachers need to become accustomed to video-based professional development to engage in reflection (Santagata, 2008).

A further challenge is concerned with the anxiety occurring in the situation of being filmed and the feelings of discomfort perceived when viewing own teaching behaviour and hearing the own voice documented on a videotape (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Jensen, Tuten, Hu & Eldridge, 2010; Lyle, 2003; Smith, 1996; in Turkish contexts: Tülüce & Çeçen, 2017; Yücel, Arman & Yapar, 2016), an aspect that has not been considered extensively in research (Marsh & Mitchell, 2014, p. 412). By nature, video-based forms of professional development require the presence of a video camera and, optionally, a researcher or peer operating it. It is well known that classroom observation (with or without electronic equipment, for professional development or research purposes) can be perceived threatening by teachers and learners leading to unnatural behaviour (Cockburn, 2005; Hopkins, 2008). In Greenwalt's (2008) study with preservice teachers, for example, the camera was perceived as having the quality of an assessing supervisor or as an imposition that "reaches into the classroom, inserts itself into the pedagogical relationship, taking participants away from their students, away from their selves even, and focuses them on the silent and unforgiving camera" (p. 393). Zhang et al. (2011) report on a teacher who explicitly said that she was anxious and had the feeling that she needed to fill class time with teacher talk while being recorded. Another teacher, similarly, pointed to anxiety, which, however, decreased by the experience of video-supported observation. A participating teacher noticed discomfort teachers and

students had as ““(…) they were not their normal selves because of the camera”” (p. 460). Resistance by a few teachers was reported by Dyke, Harding and Lajeunesse (2006; as cited in Marsh & Mitchell, 2014, p. 412): those teachers opposed video-supported observation because they perceived strong discomfort due to the intrusiveness of the video camera and the idea of being filmed. Ryan (2012) points out that participants, when undesired actions are viewed, may respond reluctantly or offer ad hoc justifications that neither reflect the events viewed nor promote critical reflection. Pointing to affordances and constraints, Cutrim Schmid (2011) determined in her study concerning English language teachers’ IWB use that the participants held ambivalent attitudes towards stimulated recall as they found it highly conducive as a tool for professional development but also pointed to “challenging and painful aspects” (p. 267). On the whole, research indicates that teachers or student teachers, in spite of expressing discomfort associated with the use of stimulated recall, appreciate the advantages of this reflective tool.

2.4.5.3. Reflective Conversation

Reflective conversation is a central component of data-led, dialogic reflective practice (Mann & Walsh, 2013, 2017). It refers to activities in which, “[b]y negotiating common understandings, discussing course texts, and drawing upon their own experiences, group members communally create a rich understanding” (Bailey, 1996, p. 260) of aspects of their professional domain. It is exactly the act of verbalisation that enables teachers to arrive at an understanding of own practices and underlying beliefs, assumptions or attitudes (which, if not verbalised, would remain implicit), so that practices and cognitions can be examined in dialogic mediation (Johnson, 2009a, p. 66; Senese, 2007, p. 50). According to Simpson and Trezise (2011), effective participation in reflective conversation requires the willingness and capability to share own views with others and to accept others’ views irrespective of status or experience. Richardson (1997, p. 185) emphasises the need to create a conversation context in which participating teachers feel safe, are connected to the community of practice, are “passionate about what they are doing, believing that their activity ‘makes a difference’” (p. 185), and appreciate the effort of conversation partners to contribute to the reflection generated in the group.

Reflective conversations in teacher development require some kind of organisation in terms of negotiating rules, time and place arrangements to promote regularity, input through data from the teaching practice or, optionally, through outside expertise (e.g. research-informed literature or experts) (cf. Lee, 2009), and the establishment of a non-threatening atmosphere because aspects discussed are likely to create discomfort or anxiety in participants (Farrell, 1999a, 1999b). Gebhard (2005) advises against judgmental language in reflective conversations, which often leads to prescriptions on how to improve practice but does not promote reflection on underlying problems or development of alternatives to address identified problems. Like other reflective tools, reflective conversations need to be scaffolded as it cannot be taken for granted that participants immediately engage in deep reflection; however, practitioners taking part in reflective conversations not only gain insights concerning aspects of their profession, but also develop their reflection skills (Farrell, 1999b).

Reflective conversations are usually realised orally in teacher development groups (Richards & Farrell, 2005), but practitioners can also benefit from written or spoken conversations provided by means of online media (Ab Rashid, 2018; Murugaiah, Azman, Ya'acob & Thang, 2010). Reflective conversations can be formally constituted or informally developed within the boundaries of schools or beyond in regional, national or international networks (Barfield, 2016). Studies about reflective conversations with English language teachers often stem from professional programmes in which pair or group discussions are embedded in other reflective activities (Farrell, 2016). Reporting on an implementation of reflective conversations as a strategic tool to initiate professional development of two English language learners in Pakistan, Ashraf and Rarieya (2008) report that the participating teachers, supported by a reflective coach, engaged in a dialogic sense-making of critical incidents in their own teaching: Gradually becoming more critically of their own teaching, the teachers generated alternative teaching strategies for problems identified and started to consider the wider context beyond the classroom. Ashraf and Rarieya's (2008) study is insightful as it indicates the potential of reflective conversation to develop a reflective stance but also the need to establish conditions (here a reflective coach guiding the teachers) to facilitate teacher reflection.

Farrell (2013a) documented group meetings of three English language teachers who also reflected accompanied by teacher journals and occasional lesson observations. The teachers talked about a variety of issues such as the school context (management,

institutional pressure, own duties), their selves as teachers (roles, teaching as isolated profession, own development) or learners (motivation, preferable relationship to learners, teacher responsibility for learners). The teachers perceived the group discussions as enjoyable, instructing because they learned about themselves and good practices, and empowering as they gained confidence. Additionally, they were encouraged to consider and try out alternatives for their own instructional practice. S. M. Gray (2012) reports in a study with English language teachers who engaged in collaborative post-lesson conversations that the conversations not only established mutual trust to engage in peer observation, but also created collegiality resulting in “rarely seen (...) sustained conversation in the staff room” (p. 242). In sum, reflective conversation based on data coming from the classroom enables teachers to come to a deeper understanding of their teaching because critical aspects are more likely to be detected collaboratively and participants can inform each other about strategies to address aspects identified (Mann & Walsh, 2013).

2.4.5.4. Lesson Transcripts

Lesson transcripts, the written documentation of oral classroom interaction, are artefacts that can be used in reflective practice to provide practitioners with data to be used in post-lesson examination (Wright, 2010, p. 283; cf. Borg, 1998). The underlying rationale of exploiting transcripts in reflective practice is the assumption that classroom discourse (teacher talk in particular) is a critical component in creating opportunities for language learning (Walsh, 2002). Burns (1999) points to the advantage of transcribing as a starting point for reflection because the act of transcribing itself enables teachers to closely examine classroom interaction. As preparing transcripts is time consuming, Farrell (2015, pp. 85-87) suggests teachers not to transcribe all parts of a lesson but to limit transcriptions to parts that apparently include data valuable to address distinct aspects of teaching; however, the transcription of a whole class will enable teachers to detect patterns. Burns (1999), additionally, advises to use reader-friendly transcription for professional development purposes, i.e. “simple orthographic representations” (p. 99).

Implemented as a strategy in reflective practice, transcripts can be utilised as mediational tools through which teachers examine teacher talk in terms of, for example questioning (Cullen, 2001), implementation of techniques in vocabulary instruction

(Rimbey, Mckeown, Beck & Sandora 2016), matches or mismatches between beliefs about and practices of grammar teaching (Phipps & Borg, 2009) or a variety of other aspects such as teacher feedback, wait-time, teacher- and student-initiated interaction or use of the first language (Coburn, 2016; Thornbury, 1996). Harfitt (2008) points to the potential of transcripts as an instrument to promote self-reflection when transcripts of identical subject content lessons (i.e. in lessons about the same content given by two teachers) are used as a source for examination. Harfitt's approach was initiated by the reluctance of a teacher participating in an in-service course to critically response to examples of own practices evidenced in video-recordings. The comparison of transcripts of own lessons with those of another teacher then enabled the teacher to recognise

a different way of teaching and offered alternative practices in the use of interactional devices in the classroom. From this reflection, T1 [the participating teacher] was able to reframe her own understanding and practice of classroom interaction. The comparison of transcriptions appeared to sensitize her to this (Harfitt, 2008, p. 178).

A significant contribution for teachers to evaluate teaching based on transcripts has been proposed by Walsh (2003; 2006). By identifying specific modes prevailing at lesson stages (i.e. managerial mode related to classroom management, materials mode related to exploitation of materials, skills and systems mode related to the teaching of language skills and grammar, and classroom context mode related to personalised learner contributions), teachers can check if the language used at a specific lesson stage suits the mode identified. An additional purpose of transcripts is to identify common errors and inform upcoming teaching practice through analysis of the language produced by learners (Gebhard, 2005).

In spite of its potential to facilitate reflective practice and transform instructional practice, lesson transcripts are not commonly applied in teacher education and professional development (Rimbey et al., 2016, p. 80). Given the importance of classroom discourse as promoter or hindrance for language learning, transcript exploitation deserves greater consideration as a component in teacher education and professional language programmes (Walsh, 2011, pp. 20-21).

2.4.5.5. Journal Writing

The importance of journal writing as a tool in reflective practice has widely been recognised. A journal is “a teacher’s or student teacher’s written response to teaching events” (Richards & Lockhart, 1996, p. 7) containing the documentation of and reflection on events and experiences. Teacher writing (including journal writing) can be realised in a continuum ranging from informing oneself to informing others, that means journals can be written with the writer as audience in mind or a peer, supervisor, or a community to receive feedback or share experiences or even expertise (Burton, 2005). As valid for any form of reflective writing, teachers keeping journals benefit from the writing process which in itself is reflective because it encompasses stepping back from the event and considering how to reconstruct it in the written form so that aspects not recognisable at a surface level (cognitions, reasons for and impacts of own practices) can be discovered and routinised explanations for classroom experiences can be reframed (Bolton, 2010; Farrell, 2016; Johnson & Golombek, 2002, 2011; Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Additionally, journal writing is a tool through which practitioners can develop the language conducive to engaging in reflection and improve their reasoning skills (Abednia, Hovassapian, Teimournezhad & Ghanbari, 2013; Vieira, Barbosa, Paiva & Fernandes, 2008). Specifically, journals allow teachers to structure the complexity of instructional practice (Phelps, 2005). Furthermore, journal writing is considered to be promoting reflection when it is perceived as addressing the writer’s emotions or areas of interests, establishes connections between the writer and her cognitions, conceptualisations, knowledge base or working context and “helps the writer develop the awareness needed to understand the self, an experience, and idea or an event in expanded ways” (Casanave, 2011, p. 8). Also, it has been argued that journal writing is more effective if the aim and format is clear to teachers, teachers receive feedback for their writings, are informed by academic knowledge mediated by experts, and the reflective writing is incorporated into a set of other activities of inquiry (Abednia et al., 2013; Golombek & Johnson, 2017; Moradkhani, 2018).

Research specifically indicates that journal writing, when conducted interactively by sharing journal entries, encourages practitioners more strongly to base their reflections on evidence coming from classrooms but it may not result in deeper reflection (Kaplan, Rupley, Sparks & Holcomb, 2007). Vieira et al. (2008) show that deep reflection is not a matter of course in journal writing due to several factors (possibly in combination)

including the lack of a developed culture of reflective writing, limited competences of practitioners in reflecting or writing, lack of the conviction that reflective writing is a powerful tool, insufficient consideration of actual teaching practice, or when journal writing is an expected product to be assessed in teacher education or workplace quality control (cf. Section 2.4.4.). This has been confirmed in studies with English language student teachers in the Turkish context indicating that reflective writing is often realised at a descriptive level (Yeşilbursa, 2011) possibly because reflective writing and reflective practice are perceived as a novelty (Çelik, 2014), but deeper reflection may be achieved if course programmes entail mediating components that encourage participants to take up critical examination (Hamiloğlu, 2013). Asserting a lack of criticality in English language student teachers' reflection, Turhan and Kırkgöz (2018) recently reported that the student teachers still perceived reflective writing as contributing to their professional development.

In spite of those shortcomings, studies on teacher journal writing in second or foreign language teaching also show that journal writing allows teachers to address a variety of topics related to the immediate and mediate context of teaching. Those topics include, for example, teaching approaches and methods, teacher identity, teacher self-awareness, specific teaching behaviours in the classroom (e.g. questioning, feedback), materials, and journal writing directs teachers to an evaluation of their own teaching (Chien, 2013; Farrell, 2013a, 2013b, 2016; Moradkhani, 2018; Zulfikar & Mujiburrahman, 2018).

Two remarks will conclude the section about teacher journals. First of all, as frequently reported, journal writing is time-consuming (e.g. Chien, 2013; Farrell, 2016; Vieira et al., 2008). Second, journal writing is a reflective tool that does not suit the personal preferences of all teachers. This means not every teacher may perceive the act of writing enjoyable or contributing to their professional development. Two English language teachers in Zulfikar and Mujiburrahman's (2018) study, for example, were not sure whether teacher journals or other sources (teachers, textbooks, experiences) contributed to changes they observed in their instructional practice. Two other teachers in the same study even denied that journal writing was effective: Interestingly, one of the teachers, who was convinced of the benefits of reflective practice, explicitly expressed her view that other tools in professional development (video-supported observation and peer feedback) were advantageous because in journal writing teachers may not be honest to themselves (cf. Lakshmi, 2014).

2.4.6. Reflective Practice in ELT

In this section, I will give a selective survey of studies about reflective practice in English language teaching. I incorporate recent studies that are data-led, collaborative and have a focus on *practice* (Farrell, 2015, 2018a; cf. Section 2.4.4.). Studies in pre-service contexts are not considered (for a recent literature review on reflective practice in ELT cf. Farrell, 2016). Studies employing action research (or other forms of teacher-based inquiry) are considered when the researchers explicitly conceptualised them as a form of reflective practice (e.g. Şahinkaras, et al., 2009). This is clearly an indication that data-led reflective practice shares common characteristics with action research (Farrell, 2018b; cf. Section 2.4.4.).

Table 5

Studies on Reflective Practice Reviewed

Study	Participants and Contexts	Reflective Tools
Arslan & İlin (2013)	six EFL teachers at a Turkish university	peer coaching, video-supported peer observation, classroom management checklist; feedback sessions, interviews
Arslan & Başağa (2010)	four EFL teachers at a Turkish university	three-part programme: (i) introduction to reflective practice; (ii) reflective practice for teachers including identification of aspects to reflect on; (iii) action research, collaborative work, diary keeping, interviews, classroom observations, post-lesson interviews, reflective conversations
Bai (2014)	four primary school teachers in Hong Kong	discussions, peer observations, post-teaching conference
Bayram & Canaran (2018)	35 EFL teachers at a Turkish university	professional development programme: (teachers choose one of the following): lesson study, team teaching, action research, reflective teaching (introductory courses and readings provided)
Conway & Denny (2013)	six EFL teachers (varying teaching contexts) enrolled in a Master's programme ("Reflective Practice Project")	first project component: e-portfolio containing (i) theory of teaching related to self-selected topic, literature review; (ii) essays critically reflecting own practice; (iii) final essay about reflection undergone

		second project component: observation/classroom data collection
Cutrim Schmid (2011)	seven EFL teachers at German secondary/vocational schools	classroom observation, field notes, video recordings/stimulated recall, workshops, interviews
Farrell (2011)	novice ESL teacher at a university in Canada	observation, SCORE chart, pre- and post-lesson discussion
Farrell & Bennis (2013)	experienced and novice teacher at an adult language academy in Canada	interviews, video recordings
Farrell & Ives (2015)	novice ESL teacher at a university in Canada	pre-study interview, lesson observation, pre and post-lesson interviews, follow-up interview
Farrell & Kennedy (2019)	African-American English teacher in South Korean language centre	interviews, classroom audio recordings, post-assignment reflection interviews
Farrell & Mom (2015)	four ESL university teachers in Canada	pre-study interview, lesson observation, pre and post-lesson interviews, follow-up interview
S. M. Gray (2012)	two content teachers (mathematics) teaching in a CLIL context in New Zealand	collegial observation, observation reports, journal entries, interviews
Gün (2010)	two Turkish, an American, a British teacher in an intensive ELT programme in Turkey (university?); 3 trainers; 4 learners	video-supported lesson observation with tasks, reflective conversations, demo lessons
Kayaoğlu, Erbay & Sağlamel, (2016)	EFL novice teacher at a Turkish university, cooperating with three researchers and experienced teacher	input session, audio recordings, focused classroom observations (by experienced teacher), semi-structured interviews

Kayapınar (2016)	45 teachers in an in-service programme at a UK university	workshops, observations, feedback sessions with coordinator, focus group discussions, co-planning, peer observations, questionnaires
Lakshmi (2014)	two teachers at an Indian university	interviews, questionnaire, class observation, journal
Persson & Yiğitoğlu (2015)	two novice EFL teachers at a Turkish university	after in-service programme observations, field notes, stimulated recall
Phipps & Borg (2009)	three EFL teachers at a Turkish university	interviews, observations, audio recording, post lesson interview, stimulated recall, transcription
Ryder (2012)	26 teachers working in a state school programme (natives, and non-native); six teachers observed	observation, post-lesson discussion, teachers' comments (by email), questionnaire at study end
Şahinkaras et al. (2009)	28 EFL teachers at a Turkish primary and secondary schools	1st cycle: lectures, workshops by researchers 2nd cycle: implementation 3rd cycle: observations 4th cycle: reflection with participants and researchers
Unlu & Kulekci (2018)	two ESL teachers in a refugee and immigrants service centre (USA)	student needs assessment, student interviews, field notes, video recordings, team teaching, mentoring, peer observation
Yücel, et al. (2016)	51 teachers at a Turkish university	input sessions, group of three teachers: video-recording with self-reflection form, collaborative watching of video and feedback, reflective practice format disseminated

After remarks on contexts and methodology, I discuss the studies under the two aspects of the research questions, i.e. in how far the reflective practice promotes the participating teachers' professional development and how the teachers perceive the reflective practice; however, this does not include the perception of specific reflective tools (see Sections 2.4.5.1. to 2.4.5.5).

The studies displayed in Table 5 were carried out in the framework of professional development programmes (in-service training) (e.g. Bayram & Canaran, 2018; Persson & Yiğitolu, 2015), in postgraduate programmes (Conway & Denny, 2013) or informally

with a researcher providing tools and scaffolding the reflective process (e.g. Farrell & Ives, 2015; Farrell & Kennedy, 2019). Reflective practice can be initiated without a pre-established focus, i.e. the teachers can select what they seek to examine (Conway & Denny, 2013), the data examination leads into a focus (e.g. Arslan & Başağa, 2010, S. M. Gray, 2012; Lakshmi, 2014; Ryder, 2012) or the focus is determined beforehand usually by the researcher; foci encompass, for instance, IWB use (Cutrim Schmid, 2011), grammar teaching (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Phipps & Borg, 2009), teachers' use of questions (Farrell & Mom, 2015), communicative activities (Personn & Yiğitoğlu, 2015), or implementation of the English Language Portfolio (Şahinkaraş et al, 2009). Some studies (Farrell & Bennis, 2013; Farrell & Ives, 2015; Farrell & Mom, 2015; Phipps & Borg, 2009) explicitly start from an investigation of tacit beliefs in order to find out if beliefs and classroom practices converge or diverge; however, in virtually all cases the reflective practice helps participating teachers detect cognitions or aspects that are beyond the immediate teaching context (Farrell, 2016). Also, studies differ in that the focus may be on the applicability and usefulness of specific reflective tools for reflective practice. For instance, studies have a focus on collaborative forms of reflective practice such as peer coaching (Arslan & İlin, 2013), video-supported reflective practice (Cutrim Schmid, 2011; Gün, 2010, Yücel, et al., 2016), action research (Bayram & Canaran, 2018; Şahinkaraş et al, 2009) or observation forms (Farrell, 2011). Unlu & Kulekci (2018) recently assessed a battery of reflective tools including those ones which are used to get information from learners directly (student need assessment, student interviews), but they also made use of field notes, video recordings, team teaching, mentoring and peer observation. Commonly, studies are based on the combination of reflective tools that fulfil complementary functions: A typical example is the study by Farrell and Ives (2015) who employ pre-study interviews, lesson observations with pre- and post-lesson interviews and follow-up interviews to document and review the whole reflective process the participants were engaged in.

Reflective practice has been shown to promote the exploration of aspects of the teachers' professional domain by fulfilling four functions: (i) noticing and evaluation, (ii) generating alternatives, (iii) testing the impact of beliefs on practice; (iv) modifying practice. For one thing, through reflective practice, teachers notice and raise an awareness of a variety of aspects that have an impact on their instructional practice (Arslan & Başağa, 2010, Bai, 2014, S. M. Gary, 2012; Kayaoğlu, et al., 2016; Unlu &

Kulekci, 2018). The participants in Personn & Yiğitoğlu's (2015) study, for instance, found out, after an in-service training concerning the implementation of communicative activities, that they preferred pair work activities to group work activities, which was not always the best choice at specific lesson stages. They also noticed problems in encouraging learners to study autonomously or in giving instructions. Noticing problematic aspects leads to a critical examination and some studies emphasise the worth of positive and negative peer evaluation that opens different perspectives of teaching (Arslan & İlin, 2013; Farrell, 2013a; S. M. Gray, 2012). In particular, reflective teachers gain the students' perspective so that they revise assumptions they hold about students by considering learner needs (S. M. Gray, 2012), arrive at an understanding of the time students need to complete task (Lakshimi, 2014) or recognise the enhanced significance of personal learner preferences compared to educational backgrounds (Unlu & Kulekci, 2018). Notably, reflections based on classroom observations often deal with concrete classroom concerns such as seating arrangements, mixed-level classes (Ryder, 2012), L1 (first language) use, teacher talk, wait time, giving instructions (Unlu & Kulekci, 2018) or the appropriateness of coursebooks (Laksmi, 2014). Second, collaborative reflective practice is shown to be conducive to sharing or generating alternatives to address noticed problems; feedback by peers or researchers or facilitators is regarded essential in this respect (Arslan & İlin, 2013; Kayapınar, 2016). Third, studies with a methodological focus on beliefs stress the importance of reflective practice as a tool to analyse if practice really mirrors what teachers believe they do:

The purpose of examining language teacher beliefs and classroom practices is not to look at or for 'best practices'; rather, the idea is to see what is so teachers can become more confident knowing that what they believe about language teaching and learning is being practiced in their classes (Farrell & Bennis, 2013, p. 175).

Practices are usually in line with beliefs but divergences or practices not grounded in stated beliefs are also determined (Farrell & Ives, 2015; Farrell & Mom, 2015). Phipps and Borg (2009) show that teachers justify mismatches (i.e. when beliefs are not transferred into practice) with perceived needs to address learner expectations, curriculum constraints or learner motivation; also, teachers argue that learners learn better through a method that actually does not suit the method the teacher states to prefer. Phipps and Borg's (2009) study is important because it indicates that core beliefs (i.e. deeply-rooted beliefs) may overrule peripheral beliefs so that practices are not in

line with peripheral beliefs. An important contribution of reflective practice is then to help teachers detect potential mismatches between beliefs, and to reveal how these mismatches affect classroom practices. Notably, when teachers' reflections are directed to beliefs, they may construct, confirm or modify their own theories (Bai, 2014; Conway & Denny, 2013; Farrell & Kennedy, 2019). Fourth, reflective practice may encourage teachers to modify their instructional practice as they are exposed to other models or new practices in collaborative reflection (Arslan & İlin, 2013; S. M. Gray, 2012; Kayaoğlu et al., 2016). Cutrim Schmid (2011) showed that the participants in her study learned about the affordances and constraints of IWBs, and they were able to trace their development of using the tool throughout the reflective practice. Şahinkaras et al. (2009) report that an action research-based reflective practice programme diminished resistance against the implementation of the European Language Portfolio as a component of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) introduced to the Turkish ELT context. Unlu & Kulekci (2018) report that one of the participating teachers "followed the lead of the data to improve the teaching and learning in her class instead of focusing on descriptive models or checklists and neglecting what the data actually indicated" (p. 12). However, it has also been noted that reflective practice, to enhance its transformative potential, needs to be realised as a form of continuous professional development and insights need to be disseminated in the local context (Arslan & İlin, 2013; Yücel et al., 2016).

Doubts have been expressed if reflective practice leads straightforwardly into improved practice (Farrell, 2013a). Evaluating the literature on reflective practice in ELT, Farrell (2016) calls for caution in claiming that reflective practice betters classroom teaching

because, when one says 'improved quality' or 'better performance' for teaching, we assume that there must be a base line of what good quality or performance is in order to make judgments about any improvements. I believe that teachers will not be able to 'improve' their teaching unless they are aware of what that teaching entails or what it is they actually do (not what they 'think' they do) in and beyond their classrooms (p. 240).

All in all, there is evidence that collaborative data-led reflective practice enables teachers to gain insights about their teaching by noticing, focusing on and discussing critical aspects as evidenced in data coming from classroom, and these insights can be expanded when issues beyond the immediate teaching (the teachers' philosophy,

principles, theory, and the cultural, social and political context) are exposed to reflection (Farrell, 2018a; Mann & Walsh, 2017).

From the functions of reflective practice for language teachers as reported so far, it is expectable that English language teachers perceive reflective practice positively. Indeed, reflective practice is perceived as enjoyable, engaging and insightful and this appreciation is especially expressed towards the collaborative aspect (e.g. Bayram & Canaran, 2018; Farrell, 2013a; Lakshimi, 2014; Yücel et al, 2016). Teachers also report receiving satisfaction as they develop an identity as researchers of their own practice (Arslan & Başağa, 2010), which means that by doing reflective practice they develop reflective practice skills (Conway & Denny, 2013; Farrell, 2011; Farrell & Ives, 2015) and become more confident about their own teaching (Wyatt, 2013). Lakshmi (2014) additionally reports that reflective practice helps teachers develop a sense of belonging to the classroom, and the contribution of reflective practice to strengthen collegiality has been emphasised variously (e.g. Bayram & Canaran, 2018; Farrell, 2013a; S. M. Gray, 2012). However, teachers also point to the need to conduct reflective practice with colleagues one feels comfortable with (Yücel et al., 2016), and it might be challenging to convince colleagues to spend extra time on reflective practice activities such as peer observation (Lakshimi, 2014). Yücel et al. (2016), in their study with English language teachers at a Turkish university engaged in video coaching, have recently indicated that the participants in spite of overwhelming positive perceptions perceived anxiety, discomfort and irritation when seeing themselves in videos and an artificial classroom atmosphere due to the implementation of video equipment in classrooms (see Section 2.4.5.1. to 2.4.5.5. for a discussion of negative teacher perceptions while using specific reflective tools). On the whole, the growing body of research confirms Kayaoğlu et al.'s (2016) remark that the “nexus between the reflective practice and professional development is quite strong because awareness, collegial sharing and insights for further practice are nurtured” (p. 179).

2.4.7. Research on Reflective Practice in ELT in the Turkish Context

Along with a body of inquiries into Turkish language teachers' beliefs and the impact of beliefs on practice (for overviews: Çobanoğlu, 2015; Demir, 2018), there has been a growing interest in researching reflective practice for English language teachers in Turkey, however with a strong focus on realisations in pre-service rather than in-service

contexts (Yağız, Aydın & Akdemir, 2016; Yazan, 2016; cf. Arslan, 2019, p. 4). As part of continuing professional development programmes for English language teachers in tertiary education, in-service often includes transmission-based forms (such as workshops), and in some language schools professional development programmes are not available (British Council, 2015, p. 79; cf. Borg, 2015, pp. 9-10). This indicates a lack of bottom-up approaches in which teachers examine their instructional practices and reflect on them. Similarly, teachers hold inconclusive views about programmes for English language teachers in primary and secondary education offered by the Ministry of Education, and, in particular, they criticise that the programmes lack relevance for their instructional practice (Güngör, 2017; Korkmazgil & Seferoğlu, 2013; Uztosun, 2018). In spite of an opposing trend, data-led forms of teacher inquiry do not seem to be widely institutionally established in the Turkish context or perceived effective by teachers (Uysal, 2012; Uztosun, 2018; Yeşilçınar & Çakır, 2018; for a North Cyprian context: Özbilgin, Erkmen & Karaman, 2016), and the readiness or willingness of teachers to engage in inquiries cannot be taken as a matter of course (Köksal & Razi, 2011, Yılmaz, 2015). However, studies reporting attempts to have teachers explore their practice (often initiated by researchers as facilitators in tertiary education contexts) reveal promising results as teachers perceive reflective practice approaches beneficial, but the need to support teachers and to realise practice-related implementations to engage teachers in reflection is also emphasised (Arslan & Başağa, 2010; Arslan & İlin, 2013; Atay, 2008; Bayram & Canaran, 2018; Dikilitaş & Mumford, 2016; Dikilitaş & Wyatt, 2018; Gün, 2010). Showing evidence for a growing appreciation of reflective practice, there are now reflective practice/teacher research projects within institutional frameworks (mainly university contexts) disseminating local teacher development practices (e.g. Bosson & Kurtoğlu Eken, 2017; Dikilitaş, Smith & Trotman, 2015; Dikilitaş, Wyatt, Hanks & Bullock, 2016; Gün, 2015; Smith, 2014) or researcher-teacher collaborations (Dikilitaş & Wyatt, 2018; Üstünel & Dikilitaş, 2015) as attempts to contribute to the personal and professional development of English language teachers in Turkey.

2.4.8. Intermediate Summary: Reflective Practice in ELT

The fundamentals of reflective practice, significant components and criticism concerning realisations have been explicated in the previous sections. Collaborative,

data-led forms of reflective practice employing reflective tools to gain data and to facilitate opportunities to engage teachers in reflection have been proposed to overcome identified shortcomings. Finally, studies in which English language teachers were encouraged to take up reflection were reviewed. Outcomes of reflective practice reported in the literature are promising to address the need to arrive at informed exploitations of ELT coursebooks, an area which was discussed in Sections 2.3.to 2.8.

2.5. Summary

This chapter reviewed the literature relevant for the current study. The review discussed the literature concerning constructivism as the theoretical framework of the study, ELT coursebook with a focus on coursebook exploitation, and reflective practice highlighting the significance of data-led, collaborative reflective practice. The next chapter presents the methodology of the study.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter gives an account of the methodology of the study. It intends to provide not only an accurate description of the methodological procedures followed throughout the study, but also a rationale for decisions made and steps taken. For this reason, I will start with introductory remarks on research and research design in the social sciences, which will provide me with the opportunity to clarify key terminology. Against the backdrop of quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods research as key approaches with their distinct epistemological and ontological perspectives, I will position the current study based on a conceptual framework that depicts the research interest with the main components to be examined. An explication of the sampling strategy and the research context is then followed by an account of the data collection tools and procedures in terms of development of instruments and their use in the study. The last sections encompass data analysis including data preparation and coding. The chapter is finalised through an account of how trustworthiness has been accounted for.

3.2. Research in the Social Sciences: Definition and Related Terminology

Few would contradict a definition of research as systematic inquiry to generate or expand knowledge related to a specific domain. To be systematic, a research design encompassing problem or research interest, research purposes, data collection tools and procedures needs to be developed, and the collected data need to be analysed to gain findings providing answers to the research questions (Christensen, Johnson & Turner, 2015; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Marczyk, DeMatteo & Festinger, 2005).

A research design is more than a manual explaining the steps in conducting a study. It is an outcome of the considerations, decisions and realisations regarding research aim, sampling, data collection and data analysis (Bernard, Wutich & Ryan, 2017). Creswell (2009) defines a research design as a plan involving “the intersection of philosophy, strategies of inquiry and specific methods” (p. 5). Apparently, the selection of a research design is initiated by the research interest (Dawson, 2007, p. 21). However, when making decisions on how to approach the research interest (by selecting a

quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods research approach), researchers need to be aware of existent research paradigms underlying these approaches (Guba & Lincoln, 2005) and have a clear understanding of related key terms (Grix, 2010).

Research paradigms have been defined as sets of beliefs or “worldviews as a general orientation about the world and the nature of research” (Creswell, 2009, p. 6). An account of research paradigms will have to deal with several fundamental issues: For one thing, as researchers examine social phenomena, the reality of those social phenomena needs to be conceptualised. This ontological conceptualisation is concerned with the question if there is an objective reality existing external to the actors involved or if social phenomena are constructed and continuously re-constructed by those involved. Furthermore, researchers need to address their epistemological stance, i.e. the question “what is (or should be) regarded as acceptable knowledge in a discipline” (Bryman, 2012, p. 27). Lincoln and Guba (2013, p. 38) point out that epistemological conceptualisations are constrained by ontological conceptualisations, i.e. the conceptualisation of reality will guide the researcher in conceptualising the knowledge he or she will generate: If research is guided by the assumption of “*ontological relativity*, which holds that all tenable statements about existence depend on a worldview, and no worldview is determined by empirical or sense data about the world” (Patton, 2002, p. 97, emphasis in the original), then the knowledge generated by research is also relative as it reflects an understanding of reality construed by the actors involved. Moreover, the roles of the researcher, who can be thought of as positioned in a continuum ranging from “disinterested scientist” to “passionate participant” (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p. 196), and of the participants as objects *of* research or participants *in* research vary in different research paradigms. Additionally, the research design needs to give an account of the role of theory as an “overarching explanatory concept” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 55): This is concerned with the question if research explicitly starts with a theory that guides the study or that is tested through the study, if the research intends to produce or contribute to a theory explaining the object of the study, or if theory is implicitly present as an outcome of the examination of the literature.

Figure 5 is an account denoting the components shaping the design of a study mentioned in the previous paragraph. It indicates, symbolised through the arrows, that research approaches are based on and informed by research paradigms and that research approaches provide the researcher with an array of research methods, which utilise specific data collection tools and procedures.

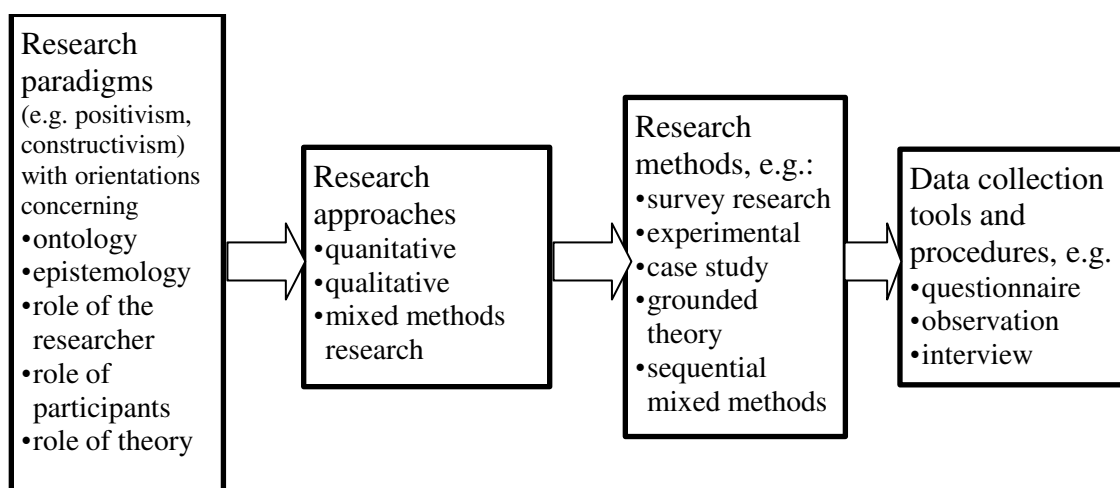


Figure 5. Components to be considered in research design

An elaborate explanation of the factors displayed in Figure 5 along with other issues surrounding research design is given by, for example, Guba and Lincoln (1994, 2005) and Creswell (2009). The figure is also an attempt to address the widely common fact that terminology is not always used consistently in the literature on research methodology, i.e. different terms are used to define the same thing or the same term refers to different things (Richards, 2003, p. 12; Shaw & Gaines, 1989). I will stick to the terms research paradigm, research approach, research method and data collection tools and procedures as exemplified in Figure 5 throughout the study to avoid ambiguity.

3.2.1. Research approaches

The classification into quantitative, qualitative and mixed methods research approaches will serve me as the organising principle to discuss paradigmatic issues in this section. The decision to take these three research traditions as the starting point is not only driven by the consideration that these are the research approaches researchers can choose from, but also because paradigms are visible to more or less extent in them (cf. Bryman, 2012, p. 35). The survey will then be conducive to developing the research design of the current study based on the conceptual framework presented in Section 3.2.2.

The quantitative approach in social science historically developed from research in the natural science conducted with data collection tools and procedures that generate

data consisting of numerical values. Based on the assumption that “Scientific maturity emerge[s] as the degree of quantification found within a given field increases” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 106.), research in the social sciences adopted the deterministic research paradigm of positivism. Positivism encompasses the view that research contributes to a knowledge base as an accurate representation of an objective reality – confirmed through empirical evidence or logical deduction – generated by any researcher (Guest, Namey & Mitchell, 2013). For this reason, it seeks to detect facts explaining (assumed) laws and principles that govern the world.

The complexity of the social world generated through a dynamic interaction of variables (Kiel, 2006), however, gave rise to the refusal of rigid positivism in the 1960s (Bryman, 2012, p. 28): While in social sciences very few scholars, if any, would subscribe to a positivist worldview claiming that an absolute truth of knowledge representing an objective reality can be gained through research, a shift towards a postpositivist paradigm was realised to “identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes” (Creswell, 2009, p. 7) by examining discrete points through survey or experimental research employing careful observation and numeric measurement so that researchers are enabled to make plausibility claims about a question investigated (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006).

As in positivism, postpositivism is driven by “the view that there is an external reality to which scientists direct their attention (in other words, there is a reality that is separate from our description of it)” (Bryman, 2012, p. 29). It is, however, accepted that the reality, as it occurs in a social, cultural, historical and political context, can only be presented imperfectly. Research in the postpositivist tradition typically starts with a theory that is tested by a researcher who “collects data that either supports or refutes the theory, and then makes necessary revisions before additional tests are made” (Creswell, 2009, p. 7). Researchers working in the postpositivist paradigm are concerned with minimising their personal stance and biases to reach a level of objectivity as high as possible. Additionally internal validity (ensuring that data collection tools measure what they are supposed to measure), external validity (generalisability beyond the participants of the study), internal reliability (consistency of results in case of reanalysis) and external reliability (consistency of conclusions in case of replication) (Nunan, 1992, pp. 16-17) are emphasised. Notably, postpositivism can also be the underlying paradigm for qualitative research (Patton, 2002, p. 93).

Qualitative research makes use of data that does not carry numerical values. Apart from this formal distinction, it “is a means for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (Creswell, 2009, p. 4). The significant difference to quantitative research is therefore that qualitative research takes an interpretative stance as it attempts to arrive at an *understanding* of the actions of those involved in social phenomena, while quantitative research is directed to an *explanation* of the factors that shape human behaviour; this means, qualitative research is typically concerned with the nature and modality of and factors shaping human behaviour (Hammersley, 2013, Chapter 3) – often visible in research questions – by examining the meanings people attach to their own and others’ actions (Bryman, 2012, p. 30). From this point of view, the reality social sciences attempts to examine is perceived as a construction realised by individuals (constructivism) or groups such as societies, generations, occupational or peer groups (constructionism) in social practice (Patton, 2002, p. 97). The terms (social) constructivism and constructionism are often used interchangeably because they share the ontological perspective of reality as multifaceted and constantly reconstructed (Bryman, 2012, p. 33). To examine these realities, the researcher takes the role of a “‘passionate participant’ as facilitator of multivoice construction” (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p. 196) utilising open-ended data collection tools and procedures (in contrast to the deterministic instrumentation, for example, surveys, in quantitative research). Corbin (2009/2016), on the epistemological stance prevailing in qualitative research, points to the core of

the constructionist viewpoint that concepts and theories are constructed (they don’t emerge) by researchers out of stories that are told by research participants who are trying to explain and make sense out of their experiences and/or lives, both to the researcher and themselves. Out of these multiple constructions, analysts build something that they call knowledge (p. 39).

Since data collection in qualitative research tends to be a co-construction carried out by researcher and participants, qualitative research does not subscribe to the idea of the objective, outsider observer but admits that researcher background, values and experiences actually affect data collection, analysis and representation of results (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Consequently, the role of the researcher may be addressed using the first person singular. Notably, researchers defining their roles according to advocacy/participatory or emancipatory worldviews are driven by the conviction that research needs to identify instances of inequality and contribute to empowerment of

participants (Creswell, 2009, pp. 9-10; Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p. 196). As for researchers, the role of participants in qualitative research is also different from those in quantitative research: They are actively involved in the research process, i.e. qualitative research tends to be research with participants rather than research on participants by providing control to them to certain extent.

By nature, qualitative research is context dependent and pays attention to the uniqueness of the cases examined. Thus, it utilises research methods such as ethnography, grounded theory, case studies or phenomenological research (Creswell, 2009, p.13). Being engaged in the examination of a specific context, qualitative research usually follows an inductive approach as it aims at discovering patterns in the social world, which are then taken as the starting point to develop a theory or contribute to theory building. In distinction to quantitative research with theory testing as a typical component, qualitative research may not explicitly address theory as it

is conditioned by and directed towards research questions that arise out of an interrogation of the literature. The data collection and analysis are subsequently geared to the illumination or resolution of the research issue or problem that has been identified at the outset. The literature acts as a proxy for theory. In many instances, theory is latent or implicit in the literature (Bryman, 2012, p. 22).

The relationship between qualitative research and theory building is most notably addressed in grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Charmaz, 2006). Grounded theory is, unlike the term suggests, not a theory but an approach in which data collection and analysis procedures inform each other and coding strategies eventually lead to certain categories encompassing explanatory power (Bryman, p. 387, 567-570). It must not be concealed that grounded theory, which has been modified since its introduction in the 1960s (Charmaz, 2008), has come under criticism including the concern that it is difficult to imagine a researcher blocking out her knowledge of relevant theories, or that it is doubtful if studies claiming to operate according to grounded theory in fact generate a theory or rather follow an inductive approach (Bulmer, 1979; Cho & Lee, 2014; Sandelowski & Barroso, 2003). Still, it “probably represents the most influential general strategy for conducting qualitative data analysis” (Bryman, 2012, p. 575.) as it equips researchers with an array of tools to be used in qualitative research (Flick, 2009, p. 429).

Mixed methods research, as the name suggests, is a blended research approach combining methods from quantitative and qualitative approach (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie

& Turner, 2007). It is based on a pragmatic worldview assuming that the complexity of the social world requires an approach that allows investigation from multiple perspectives (Onwuegbuzie & Johnson, 2006, p. 54; Creswell, 2009, pp. 10-11). “The nature of most research conducted in the social sciences lends itself to using mixed methods research procedures” (Kemper, Stringfield & Teddlie, 2003, p. 273). Following a holistic approach, mixed methods research combines “elements of qualitative and quantitative research approaches (e.g., use of qualitative and quantitative viewpoints, data collection, analysis, inference techniques) for the broad purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration” (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007, p. 123), i.e. it intends to compensate for the drawbacks of applying either qualitative or quantitative research methods.

Suffice to say, mixed methods research challenges the division into quantitative and qualitative research. As Johnson (2009) asserts, it “is a false choice that assumes there are only two possibilities on the issue and that suggests people must be either fully on one pole or fully on the other pole” (p. 450). Indeed, clear cut distinctions have started to blur since a researcher may make use of research methods belonging to both research approaches in a study. Even though the survey above has shown that quantitative and qualitative research *tend* to stick to specific research paradigms, the borders are permeable (Guba & Lincoln, 2005, p. 193; Kelle & Erzberger, 2004). In spite of marked differences in terms of epistemology, ontology and the place of theory in quantitative and qualitative research, “the distinction is not a hard-and-fast one: studies that have the broad characteristics of one research strategy may have a characteristic of the other” (Bryman, 2012, p. 37).

3.2.2. The Current Study: Conceptual Framework and Research Design

Considering the theoretical perspectives explicated above, I will now show the conceptual framework according to which the current study was designed. Miles and Huberman (1994) inform us that a

conceptual framework explains, either graphically or in a narrative form, the main things to be studied – the key factors, constructs or variables - and the presumed relationship among them. Frameworks can be rudimentary or elaborate, theory driven or commonsensical, descriptive or causal (p. 18).

The conceptual framework helps the researcher narrow down the focus of a study so that decisions can be made about research questions, data collection tools and procedures, and data analysis. Indeed, the development of the framework and decisions on how actually to conduct the study is an iterative process that is informed by and informs about the research aim and research methods.

This study had two main foci: first, it examined two English language teachers' (self-chosen pseudonyms Alice and Fiona, cf. Section 3.3.1.) views on and exploitations of the coursebook used in the programme. Second, it involved the participating teachers in reflective practice enabling them to examine their coursebook views and exploitations. Figure 6 presents the conceptual framework specifying the aspects examined.

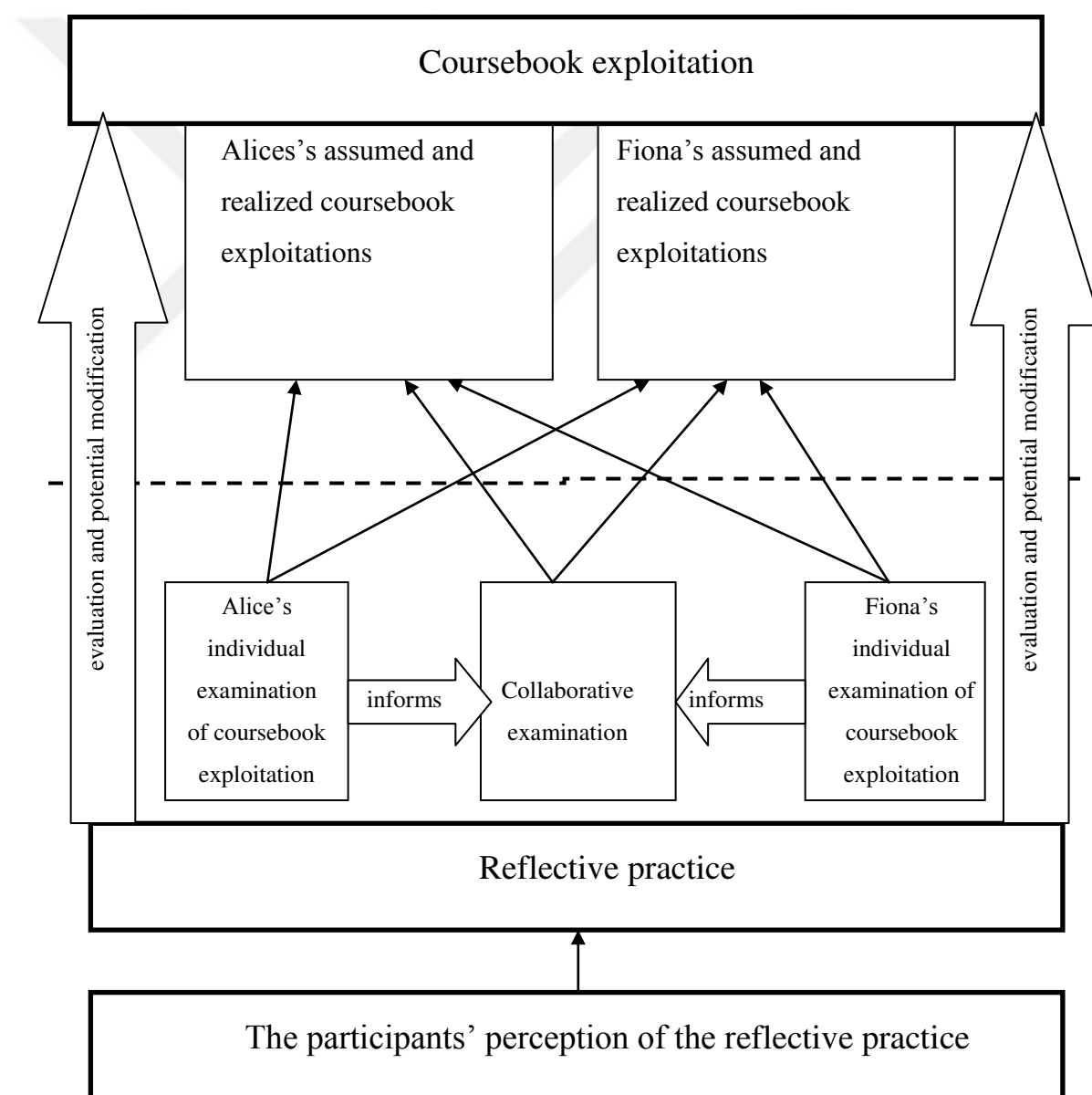


Figure 6. Conceptual framework of the study.

Figure 6 indicates – separated through the broken horizontal line – the two foci of the study: coursebook exploitation and reflective practice. Coursebook exploitation is divided into assumed practices (i.e. how the participants think they are using coursebooks) and their actual coursebook use. The reflective practice the participants were involved in was directed towards their own and their partner's coursebook exploitations and it was conducted both individually and collaboratively. It was hypothesised that the reflective practice potentially would lead to a modification in coursebook exploitation, not necessarily observed in the study. Finally, the study sought to detect the participants' perceptions of the reflective practice.

From this conceptual framework several conclusions were drawn:

1. Part of the study sought to document instructional practice and, therefore, relied on the analysis of observable data; part of the study sought to document the reflective practice the participants based on spoken and written data generated by the participants.
2. The 'reality' to be examined by the researcher was constructed by the participants, and, in analysing and later documenting this 'reality', the researcher's view came into play so that multiple realities were researched (Patton, 2002, p. 98). The study, therefore, established an instance in which "inquirer and research participants act together to co-create knowledge and create a new, shared reality" (Lincoln & Guba, 2013, p. 41).
3. The participants' involvement in reflective practice was a kind of learning in the workplace (Hager, 1998), and the learning was realised on the grounds of sociocultural learning theory (Mikkonen, Pylväs, Rintala, Nokelainen & Postareff, 2017; cf. Section 2.2.2.).

Based on the conceptual framework along with the considerations above, the current study has three distinct qualities in terms of research paradigm, approach and method. First, the study is an example of qualitative research with an interpretivist/constructivist orientation (Charmaz, 2008) because the research process was generated by the participants in cooperation with the researcher and the data were an outcome of participant interaction and negotiation with artefacts, i.e. the participants' lessons (video recordings, transcripts of a part of the lesson) and the coursebook used; additionally the participants and researcher's views, understandings and values were accepted as potentially shaping the research process: This interpretivist/constructivist

orientation particularly “disavow[s] the idea that researchers can or will begin their studies without prior knowledge and theories about their topics. Rather than being a *tabula rasa*, constructionists advocate recognizing prior knowledge and theoretical preconceptions and subjecting them to rigorous scrutiny” (Charmaz, 2008, p. 402, emphasises in the original).

Second, the study shares basic methodological qualities of case study research (Duff & Anderson, 2015; Yazan, 2015; Yin, 2015) because it encompasses an in-depth examination of a case in its real-world context (two English language teachers’ engagement in their teaching programme) over a stretched yet specific duration (16 weeks) with no control over behavioural events by the researcher; the use of “how” questions and a battery of data collection tools to discover significant variables the data and triangulate results specifies the study as a case study (Yin, 2015).

Third, as the research comprised an intervention in form of the participants’ exploration of a part of their instructional practice and, simultaneously, as it intended to contribute to teacher learning in the workplace, it is qualified as a form of formative intervention research (Engeström, et al., 2014; Penuel, 2014). Formative intervention research differs from experimental research in educational design for four significant reasons (for the following: Engström, 2011): For one thing, unlike experimental design research (cf. Collins, Joseph & Bielaczyc, 2004), formative intervention research is not based on the assumption that an educational intervention, for example, the implementation of a technique or method whose effectiveness is tested has desired outcomes. Instead, the intervention engages participants in an activity that expands their professional knowledge so that they “learn something that is not yet there” (Engeström & Sannino, 2010, p. 2). Second, formative intervention research methodology is based on Vygotsky’s (1987) method of double stimulation, in which an aspect of practice (the first stimulus) is explored through an intervention (the second stimulus). In the case of the current study, the first stimulus was the teachers’ coursebook exploitation and the examination was realised through the reflective practice as the second stimulus. Resonating what has been stated about the constructivist/interpretivist research orientation, the participants acted as researchers of their own instructional practice, while the researcher did “not have a monopoly over interventions” (Engeström, 2011, p. 606). Third, as formative intervention research is process-oriented, it intends to trace developments the participants go through during the study; new conceptualisations or modifications of previous conceptualisations may emerge and this process is usually not

straightforward but likely to be characterised by “contradictions” (Engeström, 2011, p. 607) resulting from mismatches between prevalent historically developed and/or institutional structures and activities performed by those involved:

In formative interventions, the contents and course of the intervention are subject to negotiation and the shape of the intervention is eventually up to the participants. Double stimulation as the core mechanism implies that the participants gain agency and take charge of the process (Engeström, 2011, p. 606).

Consequently, participants may shape the second stimulus provided by the researcher according to their own experiences and needs, and possible outcomes (e.g. expected at research beginning) may not appear. More important than finding solutions to identified problematic aspects, a “key outcome of formative interventions is agency among participants” (Engeström, 2011, p. 606). Fourth, as a logical outcome of the previous points, formative intervention research implies “transformation of practice as concept formation” (Engeström, 2011, p. 612). This means participants reconceptualise their knowledge base gained from outside experts (e.g. in teacher education) and daily experience to come to a knowledge-of-practice (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1999, 2009; cf. Section 2.4.2.). Since formative intervention methodology, if conducted with teachers, provides them with agency by putting them in the role of researchers and potentially contributes to transformative teacher learning (Engeström, et al., 2014), it exerts emancipatory power as other forms of teacher research do (Burnard, Apelgren & Cabaroğlu, 2015).

The overall research design of the current study is summarised in Table 6. The table also informs about the sampling strategy, data collection tools, research stages and duration. These aspects of the study are explained in the sections below.

Table 6

Overall Research Design

Research Design and Components	
Research Design	qualitative research • constructivist/interpretivist orientation • case study • formative intervention
Sampling strategies and participants	rich sampling paradigm (convenience and intensity sampling)
Research site	two English language teachers English preparatory programme at a Turkish state university
Data collection tools	• semi-structured interviews • metaphor elicitation tasks • lesson observation • stimulated recall • reflective conversation • journal writing • researcher log
Research stages	pre-intervention stage (2 weeks) intervention stage (12 weeks) post-intervention stage (2 weeks)
Total Duration	16 weeks

3.3. The Current Study: The Research Context

In the following four sections, the focus is on the concrete context of the study. This encompasses information about the participating teachers and sampling strategies adopted and the school context in terms of course organisation, physical conditions and opportunities for professional development. Then a detailed introduction to the coursebook used throughout the study is given. Finally, the role of the researcher, who was, at the same time, a colleague of the participating teachers, is explored.

3.3.1. Sampling and Participants

From the considerations concerning the purpose of the study and the research design leading to the decision to conduct a case study following a constructivist/interpretivist orientation and employing formative intervention methodology, the sampling was not only driven by concerns about accessibility of participants but also by the need to find participants who were likely to fit into the research design and to provide me with data addressing the research questions. Perry (2005) suggests the term “information-rich

sampling paradigm (...) [as an] approach [whose] emphasis is always on the *quality* of the information taken from the sample, not the quantity” (p. 57, emphasis in the original). Stated differently, the study was not concerned with a sample that ensured representativeness for a larger population.

For these reasons I adopted “purposeful sampling” (Patton, 2002, p. 243; umbrella term for strategies not belonging to random probability sampling). Due to my occupational responsibilities, which would have not easily allowed for a different school context as the research site, I decided to carry out the research in the department where I was employed, and selected a combination of convenience and intensity sampling (Patton, 2002, pp. 243-244), i.e. the sampling was guided by accessibility and willingness of teachers which seemed to guarantee engagement in reflective practice to explore their coursebook exploitation. At study beginning, I introduced my research project to all my colleagues in the department, and invited them to take part either in the pilot or main study. The sample size (two participants) was determined by the research design that foresaw two teachers conducting identical subject content lessons. Two teachers agreed to participate in the pilot study including pre-intervention interviews, lesson observation, stimulated recalls, collaborative reflective practice sessions and journal writing. Additionally, four other teachers agreed to take part in the pre-intervention interview as part of the piloting process (for the pilot study, see Section 3.5.8.). Finally, two other teachers accepted to participate in the main study which would encompass interviews and six lesson observations with accompanied stimulated recall sessions, collaborative reflective practice sessions and journal writing.

The two teachers taking part in the main study were two female English teachers of Turkish nationality (first language: Turkish). They decided to use Alice and Fiona as self-selected pseudonyms to protect their identity in the study.

Alice was 29 years old at study beginning and held a bachelor’s degree and a Master of Arts (MA) in ELT. She had a teaching experience of eight years and had been working for four years at the research site. She was assigned to teach in the English Preparatory Programme, and in the academic term the study took place she taught 18 hours per week in three different classes, nine of them in the class where the video recordings were carried out. Besides her teaching load, Alice was assigned with administrative work. She had experience in professional development as participant in another doctoral study concerning lesson study. She reported not remembering taking

classes (during her MA studies) about materials development, but she assumed that she had taken classes during her undergraduate studies.

Fiona was 36 years old at study beginning and she also held a bachelor's degree and an MA in ELT. Currently, she was enrolled in a doctoral programme, and she was working on her thesis on corpus linguistics. She had a teaching experience of 13 years, and she had been working as an English teacher at the research site for 12 years. Her teaching workload was 11 hours, and she gave all teaching hours in the class where the video observation took place. Additionally she was assigned to work as a member in the Materials Development Unit that mainly provided extra materials supplementing the coursebook materials used in class. Fiona reported taking a seminar in materials development during her MA studies. She had knowledge about professional development because her MA thesis was about a critical friends group.

3.3.2. The School Context

The study was carried out in an English Preparatory Programme at a Turkish state university. The programme was optional, that means first year students were allowed to participate in the programme so that they received lessons in general throughout an academic year before entering the studies in their departments. The lessons were delivered in a module system (two modules in a term), and students received 28 hours per week. A class was taught by three teachers, a supervisor teaching 14 hours per week, a partner teacher teaching 10 hours, and another teacher giving two hours in a computer laboratory where the learners used the e-learning materials accompanied to the coursebook. The programme also included different forms of assessment (quizzes, portfolios, end-of-module exams). The school's Test Preparation and Evaluation Unit was in charge of assessment and testing. Due to administrative constraints the number of class hours given by a teacher changed at times, or more than three teachers shared a class. The classes which were observed were not affected by extraordinary circumstances.

In the whole programme there were 12 classes in total, and there were usually around 15 learners in a class. At the beginning of a module, slight changes in the classes emerged as some learners were unable to pass the previous module. The classrooms were equipped with a computer, a projector with a screen and a sound system.

Additionally a whiteboard was used. The classrooms furthermore had single learner desks and chairs that were movable.

The programme led learners from A1 to B1+ according to the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001). The learners were placed into a class at the beginning of the academic year based on the results of a placement test. The school provided neither learning objectives nor a school policy in form of vision, mission, programme rationale, objectives or agreed teaching methodology. Instead, the teachers were informed about the working schedule through a syllabus that basically showed which coursebook unit had to be completed in which week. A sample is given in Appendix A. The context was an example of a school “where course design is delegated to the book” (McGrath, 2013, p. 52).

The school furthermore did not provide forms of institutionalised professional development. Professional development had occasionally been delivered by inviting teacher trainers who, at the same time, worked for publishers and introduced the teaching staff to new publications, however, not in the academic year the study was conducted. Informal professional development activities were mainly offered by teachers who completed their postgraduate studies. In regular staff meetings, problems and challenges experienced in instructional practice were mentioned. However, attempts to address perceived problems through systematic or collaborative inquiry had not been made.

3.3.3. The Coursebook

The coursebooks the participants used throughout the study were *Pioneer Pre-Intermediate* (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015) and *Pioneer Intermediate* (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016). The participating teachers used *Pioneer* for the first time. *Pioneer* is a general English coursebook series consisting of seven volumes leading learners from A1 to C1 level according to the CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001). It is launched by a British publisher, and has been developed for young adults. The coursebook sets consist of a Student’s Book, a Teacher’s Book, a workbook, online multimedia resources, a DVD with short films and accompanied worksheets, a Teacher’s Resource CD/CD-ROM with tests, answer keys and transcripts, and class CDs. Additionally, the series provides an IWB software, which includes all components of the Student’s Book,

Workbook and DVDs. The IWB was available in the classrooms used in all lessons observed.

The *Pioneer* series is a coursebook that follows the principles of Communicative Language Teaching and claims to be “innovative (...) with functional language and competence-based tasks” (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015, 2016, blurb on the back cover). A multi-component syllabus (cf. McDonough et al., 2013, pp. 33-39) encompassing the categories vocabulary, grammar, functions, reading, listening, speaking and writing is selected as the organising principle as evidenced on the content pages (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015, 2016, pp. 2-5). Even though *Pioneer* teaches British English, it does not provide any information for what contexts it intends to prepare language learners but contents itself with claiming that the “main concern of the writers of this course has been to explicitly demonstrate how English is used in real-life situations, thus enabling learners to use it in meaningful contexts” (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015, unpaginated page, Section Outline of the Course, para. 1). Thus, the coursebook seemingly intends to prepare learners to use English accurately in target language contexts and settings (cf. Alptekin, 2002, p. 58): There is no reference (either in the Teacher’s Book or in the Student’s Book) to the teaching and learning of English as an international language (Tomlinson, 2016) or translingual practices (Mahboob & Lin, 2016; Meier, 2017).

The pre-intermediate and the intermediate books consist of 12 units, called modules. Each module starts with a cover page that introduces the topic of the module labelled as, for example, “Choices”, “Career paths”, “Different cultures” (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015, p. 4). Each module consists of four lessons (e.g. 4a, 4b, 4c, 4d, a double page each) in the pre-intermediate and two lessons (e.g. 4a, 4b, four pages each) in the intermediate volume with texts, activities and exercises covering all skills and language domains (speaking, listening, reading, writing, vocabulary and grammar). A new grammar topic is usually introduced after related language has been presented in a reading or listening text, i.e. an inductive approach is adopted, and the grammar point is then explained, exemplified and practiced in forms-focused activities (as opposed to form-focused) that do not intend to involve learners in activities leading to communicative outcomes (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, pp. 33-34; for forms-focused and form-focused instruction see Ellis, 2015, 2016; Long, 1991; Williams, 2005). Usually at the end of a lesson, learners are invited to use the vocabulary, functions and grammatical structures introduced. Those skills-based activities are usually

accompanied with so-called TIP boxes that contain strategies for speaking, listening, reading or writing. Also boxes containing useful phrases for language production are regularly provided. The last page in lesson d (lesson b in the intermediate book) is reserved for writing. In short, *Pioneer* widely utilises PPP (cf. Thornbury, 2017) as the guiding principle to organise lessons within a module. Each module is finalised on a review page generally containing gap-filling, multiple choice and matching activities and a box in which learners are invited to self-assess their learning progress. A video activity is related to each module. Additionally, six extra task pages (related to two modules each), speaking activities, writing and grammar reference and tape scripts are provided at the end of the book.

The teachers in the programme used the Interleaved Teacher's Book, which provides, either on the left or the right side of a double page, a page of the Student's Book, and, on the opposite side, instructions for teachers related to the page in the Student's Book. For that reason, the Interleaved Teacher's Book is approximately as twice as thick as the Student's Book. The instructions for teachers include procedural and educative supports (Roblin et al., 2018). A typical procedure for a reading text is given here for illustration:

- Draw Ss' [students'] attention to the title of the text and ask them to tell you what they think about it.
- Elicit answers.
- Play the CD and have Ss follow in their books. Tell them to underline any unknown words at the same time.
- Ask Ss to read through the statements a-c and make sure they have not got any unknown words.
- Ask Ss the questions in the rubric.
- Check the answer with the class (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015, p. TB 82).

Notably, the Teacher's Books offers a wealth of extra comprehension questions for reading texts. Educative supports are given in form of aims for modules, whole lessons and single exercises, boxes displaying the functions, structures and key vocabulary to be taught in a lesson, information about specific language points and background information regarding content dealt with in texts. Additionally, the Interleaved Teacher's Book provides answer keys, tape scripts of the audio materials and suggested answers for open-ended speaking tasks.

I should like to add two points to the description of the coursebook used in this study. First, as I have worked in the same institution and used *Pioneer* in my own classes, I am familiar with the coursebook series. Second, several attempts to get permission from the publisher to reproduce sample pages in the appendix of this study remained unanswered.

3.3.4. The Researcher

Concerning the role of the researcher, three aspects need to be highlighted. First, as explicated in Section 3.2.2., the role of the researcher in qualitative research with constructivist/interpretivist orientation is usually not that of an outsider observer, but the researcher is conceptualised as co-constructor of multiple realities together with participants. However, it should be noted that in the analyses of the lessons observed, I took on the role of the rather distant scientist because key events in lessons were coded according to a pre-established coding framework (cf. Sections 2.3.6.1. and 3.6.2.1.). Second, as the study was designed according to formative intervention methodology, I had planned to function as the interventionist-researcher as suggested by Engeström (2011, p. 612) who provides the participants with reflective tools (the second stimulus in formative intervention research) so that they would discover aspects of their teaching in negotiation with artefacts (video recordings of their own and their partner's lessons, transcripts, coursebook materials). Third, this study was conducted at a research site I was familiar with, actually more familiar than the participants, because I had been teaching at the school for 17 years. This allowed me to interpret the data from an insider perspective but also increased the danger of approaching the data biased (cf. Section 3.8. for strategies to cope with this threat). Furthermore, my familiarity with the context, the fact that I had been one of the participants' colleagues occasionally violated my initial intention to exercise restraint: At times, the participants invited me to comment on their teaching and for the very reason that I was their colleague I could not always decline their wish to evaluate their teaching. I will resume this issue in a personal reflection in Section 5.6.

3.4. Ethical Issues

Stemming from the disciplines of philosophy and theology, ethics is concerned with the question if actions are morally right or wrong; ethical issues are debated in everyday

life and the significance of ethics has also been acknowledged for specific areas such as research (Birch, Miller, Mauthner & Jessop, 2002/2005). Hammersley and Traianou (2012) identify intrinsic and extrinsic values as significant factors in research ethics. Intrinsic values refer to the research task itself as they address the question if the research process as evidenced in research questions, research design, data collection and analytical procedures and researcher stance is conducive to producing knowledge; intrinsic values are associated with validity and reliability and are dealt with in Section 3.7. on trustworthiness. Extrinsic values refer to the values that “protect the research enterprise from external and internal pressures or influences that threaten to result in deviation from this course” (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012, p. 52). Extrinsic values are particularly concerned with offences that may harm research participants or jeopardise their autonomy or privacy (Wiles, 2013). To address these ethical issues several considerations were made and actions taken.

First of all, it was assumed that engaging the participants in a reflective practice to explore their own coursebook exploitation would not bring them in a position of “subjects at risk” (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006, p. 55). On the contrary, it was assumed that the participation would contribute to their personal and professional development and empower them. Second, I received the permission by the School of Foreign Languages at Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam University to conduct the study (Appendix B). Third, the whole research study including aims, activities the participants would participate in, data collection procedures, length and report and dissemination of study results was explained to all teachers in the department before the start of the pilot study. These explanations were first given in an invitation letter sent to all teachers by email (Appendix C), and later orally when I visited the teachers in their offices. The teachers participating in the pilot study and the main study then signed a consent form (Appendix D). Besides informing the participants about the aims and procedures of the study, the consent form thoroughly informed the participants about measures taken to ensure confidentiality in terms of saving data and reporting results anonymously, and to guarantee autonomy as the participants had the right to withdraw from the study at any time without giving reasons. Importantly, I repeated aspects documented in the consent form throughout the study in conversations with the participants when I felt the need to clarify issues (for this cf. Miller & Bell, 2002/2005); this included information concerning the rationale of using video recording, stimulated recall and transcript as reflective tools. Fourth, I prepared a consent form for the learners because I observed

and video-recorded lessons (Appendix E). Through the consent form and oral explanations, I informed the learners about the aim of the study and protected their privacy by guaranteeing to keep the observed data confidentially. To minimise threats I usually came to the classrooms five to ten minutes before lesson beginning not only to prepare the video camera but also to socialise with the students and to answer questions about the study (for this cf. Derry, 2007).

3.5. Data Collection Tools and Procedures

The following sections deal with the data collection tools and procedures. In the study, which focused on two English language teachers' coursebook exploitation and engagement in a form of data-led reflective practice, a variety of data collection tools was employed, many of which served additionally as reflective tools.

Table 7 lists all instruments in relation to the research questions and procedures in data preparation and analysis. Data preparation and analysis are explained in the Sections 3.6. to 3.6.2.2.

Table 7

Research Questions in Relation to Data Collection Tools and Analysis

Data Collection Tools and Procedures	Research Questions	Data Preparation and Analysis
metaphor elicitation task pre-intervention interview (audio-recorded)	1. What beliefs do the teachers hold about English as foreign language coursebooks and their own coursebook exploitation? 4. How do the teachers perceive reflective practice for their own professional development?	• classification proposed by McGrath (2006a) • transcription of spoken data • data analysis including first cycling and second cycle coding; detection of emergent patterns, themes and concepts (Saldana, 2009)
pre-lesson interview (audio-recorded)	1. What beliefs do the teachers hold about English as foreign language coursebooks and their own coursebook exploitation?	• transcription • data analysis: coding
observation (video-recording; classroom observation template) post-lesson journal	2. How do the teachers exploit the coursebook? 2. a. What reasons do they provide for their exploitation? 2. b. Do stated beliefs about coursebooks and coursebook exploitation resonate with realised practices?	• identification of key events • coding adaptations using own framework • data analysis: coding
stimulated recall (video-recorded)	2. a. What reasons do they provide for their exploitation? 2. b. Do stated beliefs about coursebooks and coursebook exploitation resonate with realised practices? 3. How does the reflective practice promote the exploration of the teachers' beliefs and practices?	• transcription • data analysis: coding
stimulated recall journal	2. a. What reasons do they provide for their exploitation? 2. b. Do stated beliefs about coursebooks and coursebook exploitation resonate with realised practices?	• data analysis: coding

reflective practice session (video-recorded)	3. How does the reflective practice promote the exploration of the teachers' beliefs and practices? 4. How do the teachers perceive reflective practice for their own professional development?	• transcription • data analysis: coding
reflective practice session journals	2. a. What reasons do they provide for their exploitation? 3. How does the reflective practice promote the exploration of the teachers' beliefs and practices? 4. How do the teachers perceive reflective practice for their own professional development? 2. a. What reasons do they provide for their exploitation? 2. b. Do stated beliefs about coursebooks and coursebook exploitation resonate with realised practices? 3. How does the reflective practice promote the exploration of the teachers' beliefs and practices? 4. How do the teachers perceive reflective practice for their own professional development?	• data analysis: coding
metaphor elicitation task post-intervention interview (audio-recorded)	3. How does the reflective practice promote the exploration of the teachers' beliefs and practices? 4. How do the teachers perceive reflective practice for their own professional development?	• data analysis: coding • transcription • data analysis: coding

The study took 16 weeks and basically consisted of three stages. In the pre-intervention stage (Week 1-2), the participants' beliefs about and conceptualisations of coursebooks, their own coursebook exploitations, reflective practice and professional development were examined. In the intervention stage (Week 3-14), six lesson observations were made, and the participants engaged in data-led reflective practice. The post-intervention stage of the study (Week 15-16) offered the opportunity to assess the participants' perceptions of the whole study encompassing insights they gained about coursebook exploitation and reflective practice. The term *intervention* was selected because the study was designed as formative intervention research (Engeström et al., 2014; Penuel, 2014), but this must not lead to the misinterpretation that the study was experimental. Table 8 shows the stages of the study together with the data collection tools

Table 8

Stages and Data Collection Procedures throughout the Study

Stages	Data collection tools and procedures	
pre-intervention	metaphor elicitation task (<i>A coursebook is...</i>)	
	pre-intervention interview	
	observation 1 (Fiona)	pre-lesson interview post-lesson journal
intervention	observation 1 (Alice)	pre-lesson interview post-lesson journal
	stimulated recall 1 (Fiona)	stimulated recall journal
	stimulated recall 1 (Alice)	stimulated recall journal
	reflective practice session 1	reflective practice journal (Fiona)
		reflective practice journal (Alice)
		(6 observations)
post-intervention	metaphor elicitation task (<i>A reflective teacher is...</i>)	
	post-intervention interview	

As seen in Table 8, metaphor elicitation tasks and interviews were used in the pre-intervention and post-intervention stages. The intervention consisted of 12 lesson

observations (six in Alice's and six in Fiona's classes) and reflective activities: stimulated recall sessions for each participant separately, collaborative reflective practice sessions and journals. In the reflective practice sessions the participants discussed their lessons (which were identical subject content lessons, i.e. the same part of the coursebook was covered) and examined transcripts of a part of the lessons. In the journals, the participants reviewed the lessons conducted and the forms of reflective practice they engaged in.

The questions in the interviews and the templates in the metaphor elicitation tasks and journals were in English, and the language used by the participants in the stimulated recall and reflective practice sessions was English. However, I explained to the participants that they were free to switch to Turkish any time they considered their mother tongue more suitable to express their reflections. At times, the participants used Turkish.

The following sections give an account of the data collection/reflective practice tools shown in Table 8. The focus is on the preparation and administration of the instruments. The value and drawbacks of the reflective tools (metaphor elicitation, stimulated recall, reflective conversations, journal writing) are discussed in the Sections 2.4.5. to 2.5.5. in the Literature chapter.

3.5.1. Metaphor Elicitation Tasks

The use of metaphor elicitation tasks in order to elicit individuals' beliefs or perceptions is grounded in the conceptual metaphor theory proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980a, 1980b). It is assumed that metaphors are "the concepts we live by" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a, p. 453), i.e. they are essential means for humans to verbalise thoughts (Gibbs, 2011). Given that metaphors are "pervasive in everyday life, (...) structure what we perceive, how we get around in the world, and how we relate to other people" (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980a, p. 454), metaphor elicitation has been widely used in second language teacher education (Roberts, 1998), professional development (Taggart & Wilson, 2005), and research on various aspects of ELT, e.g. to examine teachers' conceptions of assessment (Şahinkarakaş, 2012), teaching (Serefoğlu, Korkmazgil & Ölçü, 2009), coursebooks (McGrath, 2006a, 2006b), or learner conceptions of coursebooks (Kesen, 2010). My study made use of McGrath's (2006a) use of metaphor elicitation to elicit teachers' beliefs about coursebooks. (The metaphor

elicitation task is given in Appendix F.) I used a further metaphor elicitation task in the post-intervention stage. It aimed to elicit the participants' conceptualisations of a reflective teacher at study end. (This metaphor elicitation task is given in Appendix G.) To avoid mis- or over-interpretations while analysing and categorising the metaphors provided, I invited the participants to explain their metaphors briefly (Low & Todd, 2010). Both metaphor elicitation tasks were closely related to the pre-intervention and post-intervention interviews, respectively.

3.5.2. Semi-structured Interviews

The decision to employ interviews as data collection tools was driven by the consideration that a remarkable part of this study was concerned with an in-depth inquiry of English language teachers' beliefs about coursebooks, their perception of own coursebook exploitation and their views on reflective practice, i.e. this study aimed at an "understanding of subjective meaning" (Schutz, 1932/1967, p. 20) teachers attach to a part of their professional practice. As Seidman (2006, p.11) notes, interviewing may be the most suitable option to uncover the meanings people attach to their experience. That means, qualitative interviews are employed as a method of data collection through which the interviewees and the interviewer co-construct the interviewees' views without being necessarily interested in generating results that are easily generalisable (Borg, 2006, p. 203; Brinkmann, 2013).

The pre-intervention interview (see Appendix H) sought to examine the teachers' beliefs concerning coursebooks in general, the coursebook they were using during the study, their reported exploitation, and their conceptualisations of reflective practice. The interview was designed as a semi-structured interview following an interview guide with open questions prepared beforehand, which, however, would not necessarily be asked in the same order and would allow probes to elicit further clarification (Roulston, 2010). Along with questions concerning biodata, I gave a question (*To you, what is effective teaching?*) of the pre-intervention interview in written form due to its comprehensiveness assuming that allowing the participants to employ writing as a reflective tool would lead to deeper responses than asking orally (see Appendix I).

To generate the interview guide I started by formulating "*topics of enquiry*" (Gillham (2000, p. 20, emphasis in the original), which then would allow me to formulate interview questions and organise them in an interview guide that "translates the research

questions (...) into questions that can be posed to interviewees in a language that makes sense to them” (Brinkmann, 2013, p. 59). Importantly, the interview questions related to each of the four subtopics were informed by the related literature, i.e. they were formulated within conceptual frameworks “defin[ing] the boundaries of the territory to be explored and provid[ing] a guidebook pointing out what to look for and how to make sense of it” (Lunsford Mears, 2009, p. 80). Table 9 informs about the subtopics covered in the pre-intervention interview.

Table 9

Topics Covered in the Pre-Intervention Interview

Part of the Interview	Subtopics Covered
1	General beliefs about teaching and learning
2	General beliefs about coursebooks
3	Evaluation of the coursebook currently used
4	Perception of own coursebook exploitation
5	Perception of professional development and reflective practice

As seen in Table 9, the topics of inquiry were (i) the participants’ teaching philosophy; this topic was not explicitly stated as research question. However, it was assumed that coursebook beliefs and exploitation reasonably interact with general beliefs about teaching and learning, and, consequently, coursebook beliefs and exploitation may not be sufficiently examined without addressing them; (ii) their general beliefs about the role of coursebooks in foreign language teaching; (iii) the views teachers hold on the coursebook they are using during the study; (iv) their perceptions of their own coursebook exploitation; (v) the perceptions they hold about professional development and reflective practice. I will briefly deal with the underlying rationale and procedures followed in generating the questions for each part of the pre-intervention interview.

The first topic of inquiry dealt with an examination of the participants’ general views of teaching and learning. According to Larsen-Freeman (2011), language teaching and learning (i.e. in formal education in contrast to SLA in natural contexts) are situated in a context (the place, situation and time language teaching takes place) and depend on the participants’ (i.e. teachers’, learners’, policy makers’, etc.) concepts of language as the subject content in language teaching (e.g. structural or functional views of language; language as a means of communication); furthermore, beliefs about teaching and learning are associated with concepts of learning and role of learners (e.g. language

learning as habit formation or language learning through learner involvement in tasks without explicit focus on form; learners as receivers or active negotiators of meaning) and concepts of teaching and teachers (e.g. knowledge transmission or facilitating learning opportunities; teaching method; teachers as transmitters, facilitators or partners). This model was taken as a guideline to generate the questions in part 1 of the interview (cf. Luft & Roehrig, 2007).

The second, third and fourth topics refer to coursebook views and exploitation. While generating the questions for these parts of the interview, apart from the review of the literature, I was particularly informed by interview questions used in a thematically related doctorate thesis by Sampson (2009) and by two documents tailored for use in teacher development (British Council, 2013; Gabreliatos, 2000) as they provided me with language that would be understandable also for teachers who have not been engaged in exploration of own coursebook beliefs and exploitation.

The fifth part of the pre-intervention interview aims at examining the teachers' understanding of and views on professional development in general and reflective practice in particular. For the question catalogue, I made use of a recent publication on reflective practice by Farrell (2013a) for the very reason that it contains "reflective questions" (passim; e.g., p. 33: "What does reflective practice mean to you?") that invite readers to reflect on a variety of aspects related to professional development and reflective practice.

The questions for the post-intervention interview (Appendix J) were developed during the main part of the study, i.e. when lesson observations, stimulated recalls and reflective practice sessions were carried out and the participants were asked to reflect on the process by keeping journals. This procedure was adopted with the aim to generate questions that would not only match the research questions, but also reflect issues that appeared crucial in the light of the beginning data analysis during data collection.

The post-intervention interview covered the two main contents of the whole study: coursebook exploitation and reflective practice. As the participants had intensively explored their own and their partner's coursebook exploitation, I was interested to see how they would now position themselves as coursebook users. For that reason, I benefitted from the thematic classification by McGrath (2006a, 2006b), which considers teachers acting in a continuum from somehow being controlled by the coursebook to be willing to take the control of the coursebook. Additionally, as I had observed that the

participants prepared their lessons rather vaguely, I decided to ask questions about lesson preparation.

For the part concerning reflective practice, I was interested in (i) the participants' evaluation of the tools and procedures used for reflection; (ii) their views on reflection as a collaborative enterprise; this included their roles and the role of the researcher in the whole study; (iii) feasibility and affordances of as well as barriers to reflective practice, i.e. the participants' evaluation of reflective practice beyond this study.

While most of the questions somehow emerged during the process the participants were engaged in, I also examined the related literature, in particular Farrell (2013a) with his catalogue of reflective questions on reflective practice. The pre-intervention and post-intervention interviews were audio-recorded.

3.5.3. Lesson Observations

A total of twelve lesson observations (six in Alice's and six in Fiona's class) were made. In order to examine the coursebook exploitation of the participants and to provide a base for the collaborative reflective practice, the lessons were identical subject content lessons, i.e. they were concerned with the same page(s) in the coursebook. I was present as non-participant observer during the lessons and video-recorded them for later analysis and to provide data for the stimulated recall sessions.

Table 10 provides an overview of the lessons observed indicating the related coursebook pages and the duration the teachers devoted to the pages indicated. According to the time table provided by the school management, a lesson lasted 45 minutes. However, because the teachers in the programme taught a whole morning or afternoon in a class, they had the opportunity to shorten or extend lessons. All lessons were given in one session except for Alice's first, third and fourth lessons; the second session of the first lesson was given on the following day, while the third and fourth lesson were interrupted by 15-minute breaks.

Table 10

Observed Lessons

lesson	coursebook material used	duration (in minutes)	
		Alice's lesson	Fiona's lesson
1	Pioneer Pre-Intermediate, p. 34	74:03	30:18
2	Pioneer Pre-Intermediate, Video Clip 7 – No choice	44:34	26:36
3	Pioneer Pre-Intermediate, p. 104	71:39	40:42
4	Pioneer Intermediate, pp. 32-33	84:10	60:40
5	Pioneer Intermediate, pp. 54-55	41:20	40:54
6	Pioneer Intermediate, p. 130	63:10	42:17

Note. Pioneer Pre-Intermediate (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015); Pioneer Intermediate (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016).

During the lesson observations I used an observation form (Appendix K) in which I documented key events, identified kinds of adaptations, and took notes about issues I considered worth discussing in the stimulated recall and reflective practice sessions. The format was adapted from Richards and Farrell (2011, p. 95; cf. Hopkins, 2008, pp. 104-105). On the same day of the observation, I typed the hand-written notes, and used a post-observation form to label adaptations (Appendix L). The form was an adaptation of a classroom observation sheet developed by Sampson (2009, p. 246).

3.5.4. Pre-Lesson Interview

Before the lesson observations, I asked the participants about their plans for the upcoming lesson. To develop the pre-lesson interview, I examined particularly Sampson (2009), Farrell and Ives (2015) and Farrell and Mom (2015) because these studies are methodologically and/or thematically related to my study. Farrell and Ives (2015) and Farrell and Mom (2015) report that they used 15-20 minute pre-lesson interviews in which they asked what had been planned for the upcoming lesson (the questions are not given in their appendices). From my familiarity with the working conditions, I knew that the participating teachers would not have sufficient time to inform me about their lessons at length. For that reason, I kept the pre-lesson interview short and decided to formulate questions partially based on Sampson (2009, p. 247) (Appendix M). The pre-lesson interviews were audio-recorded.

3.5.5. Stimulated Recall

Stimulated recall is an introspective method used to initiate someone's recall of thoughts during involvement in an activity or experience (Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 17). Bloom (1954, as cited in Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 18) points to the accuracy of stimulated recall as the recall in contrast to, for example, post hoc interviews is based on a prompt, and to its convenience in contrast to think aloud methods, which not only require training of participants but also potentially affect the task they are referred to. Generally, the time distance to the event that the session is related to and a precise procedure, called protocol, are regarded important.

In teacher research, stimulated recall is a form of interview that “involves the use of a stimulus (most often a video recording) to elicit verbal commentaries about the cognitions (typically thoughts or decision-making) occurring during previously performed behavior” (Borg, 2006, p. 209). For this purpose, stimulated recall now more often avoids using a prescribed procedure with control exerted and questions to be asked by the researcher; instead, it “provides teachers with the opportunity to verbalize their thinking, in a relatively free and open-ended manner” (Borg, 2006, p. 210). In this sense, stimulated recall provides teachers with opportunities to reason about decision-making while teaching and, additionally, to talk about beliefs related to aspects of teaching “in relation to the immediate context of their own classroom” (Basturkmen, et al., 2004, p. 251), which, however, may lead to post hoc rationalizations that do not actually reflect the rationale of the decisions taken in action.

Starting from these considerations, I decided to apply a format in which my role would be minimal and the control with the participants. Accordingly, I had planned to intervene with probes (e.g. *Can you think of alternative ways of doing this activity/exercise? Why did you conduct this as a whole-class activity?*). For each stimulated recall session I had prepared a protocol entailing an overview of the key events and significant aspects I would ask (Appendix N). However, the stimulated recall sessions, particularly with Alice, frequently turned into a reflective conversation in which topics beyond the observed lesson were touched upon, and I did not always ask the questions noted down beforehand. Also, as the control of the stimulated recall session was with the participants, they fast-forwarded lesson parts so that a lesson was not always discussed entirely.

Even though it was attempted to conduct the stimulated recall within a couple of days after the lesson observation, and the reflective practice session in the upcoming week, this was not always possible. To give an extreme example, Fiona did her sixth stimulated recall 19 days after her lesson. This was due to the teachers' routine workload including lesson preparation and teaching, supervising students, proctoring exams and administrative work in the Material Development Unit of the department. Additionally, Fiona was temporarily responsible for writing exams in the English preparatory programme and she was furthermore engaged in her own doctoral thesis particularly towards the end of my study. Not only to address such problems the participants were given the video files of their own and their partner's lesson immediately after the lesson observations, which they watched before the reflective practice session and, if they considered it useful, before their stimulated recalls (a similar procedure was followed by Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver & Thwaite, 2001; cf. also Borg, 2006, pp. 217-218). The stimulated recall sessions took place in my office and were video-recorded. Durations ranged from 30 to 90 minutes.

3.5.6. Reflective Practice Sessions and Examination of Transcripts

The decision to use reflective conversations as a form of reflective practice in this study reflected the call for the implementation of collaborative and dialogic reflection to make reflective practice more effective (Mann & Walsh, 2013). As two identical subject content lessons were the starting point for the reflective practice sessions, I also decided to follow a procedure suggested by Harfitt (2008), and prepared transcripts of comparable parts for both lessons to have the teachers discuss them. From the fifth lesson on, I prepared transcripts with reflective questions and delivered them beforehand because the participants reported uncertainty of how to benefit from the transcripts (cf. Section 4.4.1.1.; a sample with transcription conventions is given in Appendix O). Also I prepared a protocol (sample in Appendix P) beforehand that would allow me to touch upon issues that were highlighted in the stimulated recall or journal entries of the participants. Apart from that, I followed the strategy to give the control over the reflective practice sessions to the participants. The sessions took place in my office and were video-recorded. Durations differed from 35 to 65 minutes.

3.5.7. Participant Journals

After observed lessons, stimulated recall sessions and reflective practice sessions, the participants were invited to respond to the activities they were engaged in through journal writing. In other words, I intended to elicit a retrospective account through engaging the teachers in a form of reflective writing as a research strategy to gain data on teacher cognition (Borg, 2006, p. 249). Different from logs, which record information and diaries as a form of personal interpretation of experiences, journals encompass documentation, analysis and evaluation of events enabling journal writers to arrive at personal interpretations and conclusions (Bolton, 2010, pp. 127-128; Moon, 2006). Lankshear and Knobel (2004, p. 255) propose the term *participant journal* to indicate that journals have two functions in classroom research: They serve as an instrument to enhance reflection, and they are instruments that provide the researcher with information, i.e. they are texts that “*have been generated by the research* and (...) are records of what research participants believe and think as seen from their own ‘insider’ perspectives, and reflect how they think and express themselves in writing rather than in speech” (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004, p. 247; emphasis in the original). The authors additionally point to the need to make sure that journals are not a burden for participants.

Taking the participants’ high workload into account, I assumed that they may not be willing to write lengthy journal entries. For this reason, I decided on a “degree of structure” (Borg, 2006, p. 252) by providing a clear rubric to make sure that the instruments would generate the data requested, be likely to make implicit thinking explicit and anticipate potential challenges caused by a potential lack of participants’ familiarity with journal writing. The journal templates were accordingly designed to address aspects typically covered in journal writing: awareness of what has been done; perceived feelings (challenges etc.); evaluation (what have I learned?); consequences (what will I do?) (Boud, et al., 1985a, p. 26; cf. Finlay, 2008; Phelps, 2005; Taggart & Wilson, 2005). In the Appendices, the template for the post-lesson journal (Appendix Q), the stimulated recall journal (Appendix R) and the reflective practice journal (Appendix S) are shown.

3.5.8. The Pilot Study: Developing the Data Collection Tools and Procedures

A pilot study was conducted to pretest the feasibility, validity and reliability of the data collection tools and procedures (van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001). In piloting the study, I also intended to develop my own researcher skills and gain some experience with the data collection tools.

Concerning the coursebook metaphor elicitation task, I had tested the instrument in the first half of 2016 with 81 English teachers working at different schools in Kahramanmaraş and presented the results at a conference (Rathert, 2016). For this reason, I did not pilot the instrument again. The piloting of the pre-intervention interview provided me with information if the questions would be eligible and elicit information I was interested in. I invited four teachers who were not potential participants for the main study to the interview. I deliberately invited a colleague, who was new in our department and held a Bachelor's degree and MA in Translation Studies to see if my questions would be intelligible to a teacher who was assumingly less equipped with knowledge about ELT methodology. Two other teachers preferred to respond to the questions in Turkish, one of them in written form. I also asked the interviewees to evaluate the questions in terms of intelligibility. According to the data and feedback received, I modified some questions, and decided to elicit the answer to a question (*To you, what is effective teaching?*) in written form.

I also piloted the lesson observations with two teachers who did not take part in the main study, and organised stimulated recall sessions and a reflective practice session, and I invited the participants to keep their journals. Evaluating the sessions rather impressionistically as I did not transcribe them but repeatedly listened to the recordings, I noticed the following aspects: In the stimulated recall sessions, I found one of the participant's rather 'unreflective' (cf. Harfitt, 2008, who points to a potential weakness of video-recordings as not necessarily generating introspection conducive to reflection) while the other participant held more critical views on his own teaching. Interestingly, the former participant then entered into a deeper reflection in her journal entries (see Appendix T). Also, I noticed that the 'more reflective' participant paused the video and spoke then, while the other participant at times spoke while watching, and then did not pay attention to what was going on in the video. This indicated that watching the video and speaking simultaneously would not be preferable for the effective use of the stimulated recall.

The reflective practice session was evaluated positively by both teachers. After giving hints (as indicated in a protocol prepared beforehand), the teachers discussed the lessons, and I noticed that the session was conducive to a verbalisation of beliefs concerning coursebook exploitation. One of the teachers found the transcripts particularly beneficial, and both teachers indicated that data-led reflective practice allowed them to become aware of otherwise hidden aspects of their own teaching. Evaluating the whole process a participant said: “You cannot learn it [something about your teaching] or know it until you see it” (Reflective Practice Session Pilot Study).

The pilot study revealed two further results: First, the participants suggested sharing the videos with each other to prepare for the reflective practice session – a procedure I then adopted in the main study. Before a reflected practice session, the participants had watched their partner’s lesson. Second, at several occasions (in journals, during the stimulated recall, in informal conversations), the participants indicated that being observed and recorded had an effect on the lessons making them unnatural. In reporting those effects, they did not claim that they disliked being observed but pointed to the novelty of this experience for both themselves and the learners. To minimize observation effects, I started with lesson observations before actually collecting data in the main study.

3.6. Data Analysis

The following sections report on the steps taken to analyse the data collected throughout the study. This report encompasses data preparation, coding, data display as well as drawing and verifying conclusions.

3.6.1. Data Preparation

For this study, data collection tools and procedures were applied which, following the categorization proposed by Lankshear and Knobel (2004), generated

- written data (metaphor elicitation task, journals);
- observed data (video-recorded lessons);
- spoken data (interviews, stimulated recall sessions and reflective practice sessions).

Arguably, the data gained in the stimulated recall and reflective practice sessions could be classified as observed data because the sessions were recorded with a video

camera. Compared to the video-recordings of the lessons, however, non-verbal behaviour of the participants was in the focus to much less extent.

3.6.1.1. Preparation of Written Data

Throughout the study each participant responded to two metaphor elicitation tasks in written form and wrote six post-lesson journals, six stimulated recall journals and six reflective practice journals. While Alice preferred to keep her journals electronically (using a word file), Fiona submitted handwritten journals, which I then typed for later data analysis. No other preparation data for the written data was necessary.

An additional source of written data was the researcher log, which I kept using a word file. I typed hand-written field notes in the researcher log, usually on the day they were taken.

3.6.1.2. Preparation of Observed Data

A total of twelve lesson observations (six in Alice's and six in Fiona's class) were made. Data preparation involved the steps explained in Section 3.5.3. The observed data was then analysed as explicated in Section 3.6.2.1.

3.6.1.3. Preparation of Spoken Data

The spoken data collected in this study encompass all speech produced in interviews, stimulated recall sessions and reflective practice sessions. Spoken data were collected with a digital voice recorder (pre- and post-intervention interviews, pre-lesson interviews) and a video camera (stimulated recall and reflective practice sessions). A video recording was the preferred option especially for the stimulated recall because a camera angle showing the participant and the computer screen with the lesson video recording would allow me to match participant speech to a specific lesson stage.

To allow an analysis of the spoken data as accurate as possible, I transcribed the spoken data. Gillham (2000, p. 61) considers transcription of speech as advantageous over alternative options, such as repeated listening through the tape, to identify and noting down key statements. Such an approach may actually generate statements disconnected from the context and lead to a situation in which the researcher loses sight of the significance of redundant material in the data for the understanding of key statements.

Transcripts are not neutral written representations of spoken language but are indeed the first step of analysis because they predetermine the aspects to focus on (Green, Franquiz & Dixon, 1997). Decisions on conventions to follow in transcribing spoken language not only reflect the researcher's theoretical views and orientations but also emphasize, uncover or disguise aspects of the spoken word (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004, p. 266). Dresing, Pehl and Schmieder (2015) point to the circumstance that a transcript will never achieve a complete representation of the interview since "producing a transcript is a dilemma oscillating between realistic representation and practically possible presentation" (p. 22):

On the one hand, one wants to represent speech in as much detail and in as multifaceted a way as possible in order to provide the reader with an accurate impression of the conversation and thus facilitate its reconstruction. On the other hand, too many details and too much information can make a transcript difficult to read (p. 21).

As Brinkmann (2013, p. 61) notes, there are no prescribed standards of how to transcribe interview data but the decision on which details of talk to include or not will depend on the aim of the study. Transcription conventions range in a continuum from simple transcripts that skip para-verbal and non-verbal forms of communication to detailed transcripts documenting such features as pauses, repetitions, prosody or dialects. As a rule of thumb, the more the focus of a study is on semantic content, the less detailed a transcript will be, while verbatim transcription is preferable for linguistic analysis seeking to uncover, for instance, anxiety present in interviewees (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 186; cf. Dresing et al., 2015, p. 23f.).

For the purposes of the current study a rather simple set of transcription conventions "transforming the conversation into a literary style (...) [to] highlight nuances of a statement and facilitate communication of the meaning of the subject's stories to readers" (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 186) was adopted. Informed by a transcription system proposed by Dresing et al. (2015, p. 27-33), I transcribed literally, i.e. incomplete sentences or syntactical errors were not corrected, and I marked discontinuations by "/" and speech overlap by "//". Also, I indicated pauses up to three seconds by "(.)" and longer pauses indicating the approximate time in seconds, for example "(5 sec.)". As a general rule, I documented pauses and non-verbal communication if they apparently had informational value (cf. Lamberg, 2015, p. 130), for example, when a participant's doubt or unsureness was indicated. For that reason,

the excerpts given in Chapter IV contain the transcription symbols; in the excerpts “(...)” indicates that a part of the transcript is omitted. The complete catalogue of transcription conventions is documented in Appendix U. As reported in Section 3.5., the participants most frequently used English as the mode of reflection. At times, they switched to Turkish. Data in Turkish was only translated when it was used for excerpts in Chapter IV.

3.6.2. Coding

In the previous sections, it was described how the data were collected and prepared for coding. This and the following sections are concerned with the coding process itself, which is considered to be the core activity in the whole data analysis. Huberman and Miles (1994) state that “[c]oding is analysis” (p. 56) because it is the part of analysis in which meaningful units are identified in the data and these meaningful units are labelled with codes.

I should like to precede the explanation of coding procedures followed in this study with general remarks on codes, purposes of coding and the role of research questions, conceptual frameworks and, consequently, the researcher’s lens as the guiding factors in the coding process. Given a wide variety of coding methods and analytic strategies in coding, my remarks need to be selective but attempt to summarise agreed guidelines as an introduction to the presentation of the coding procedures followed in the study.

A code is a label containing a verbalisation of varying length that attaches meaning to a specific piece of content captured in the data. Coding of qualitative data can be realised either by using given codes to analyse data or by developing codes as an outcome of data analysis. The former approach is deductive because the data is coded with the help of categories provided in an available framework, while the latter one is inductive because codes and coding categories do initially not exist but are discovered in the data, i.e. the data leads into the codes (Patton, 2002, p. 453). Inductive analysis is the typical approach in studies in the tradition of grounded theory that seek to generate or contribute to a theory as an overarching explanation of “a certain empirical instance or substantive area” (Bryman, 2012, p. 570; cf. Charmaz, 2006). Miles and Huberman (1994, pp. 58 and 65) point to the fact (and actually recommend) that in reality researchers selecting an inductive approach start with some pre-established codes

(explicitly formulated or not) based on, for example, their conceptual framework, research questions or knowledge of the topic.

The relevant literature (e.g. Bryman, 2012; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Saldana, 2009) points to the nature of coding as an activity that goes beyond sole paraphrasing of data because coding requires the researcher's active interaction with the data "involving (...) raising it to a conceptual level" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 66). A categorisation of code types suggests that coding takes place in a continuum with codes describing pieces of data at the one end and codes interpreting pieces of data at the other end, the latter one usually employed at later stages of the study when the researcher is able to reclassify descriptive codes due to her broadened knowledge about the context, the participants and their interactions (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 57). A more descriptive approach to coding is usually recommended for researchers when they begin coding the data. Corbin and Strauss (2008) use the term "microanalysis" (p. 58) denoting a form of open coding that aims at generating detailed descriptions of pieces of data: As the authors state, open coding allows researchers to get familiar with the data, to discover a variety of possible meanings in the material rather than relying on their theoretical or conceptual lenses, which actually may prevent them from identifying meanings in the data being outside their conceptual frameworks (Schmidt, 2004, p. 255). Böhm (2004, p. 271) and Bryman (2012, p. 575) suggest to start from general wh-questions as a starting point for coding preceding further analytic work. Saldana (2009) uses the term "first cycle coding" (p. 46 and Chapter 3 *passim*) with an array of coding methods. Various first cycle coding methods provide different approaches to the coding process: For instance, data is coded taking the research questions into consideration (structural coding), topics in the data are identified (descriptive coding), codes are generated using the language uttered by the participants (in vivo coding), more than one code is applied to the same datum (simultaneous coding), any content possible is identified (initial coding) or content in the data is examined from a specific perspective, e.g. the participants' values (value coding). As Saldana points out, the first cycle coding methods are overlapping, and a pragmatic approach leading to a combination of different methods is often indicated in order to address the research interest and the types of data collected. It also should be noted that, quite commonly, a coding method is labelled differently by different scholars, or a term used refers to different aspects of coding: *descriptive*, e.g. is used by Miles & Huberman (1994, p. 57) as an umbrella

term for initial, open coding strategies, while it refers to a distinct first cycle coding method in Saldana (2009, pp. 70-73).

“Second cycle coding methods” (Saldana, 2009, p. 149) refer to a re-analysis of the codes generated in the first cycle coding. This is more than restating codes using different wordings but includes the aggregation of first cycle codes into coding categories displaying a stronger explanatory force as they are characterised by a higher level of abstraction. Second cycle coding often involves pattern coding, a method referring to the process of assembling codes together based on similarity. As Miles and Huberman (1994, pp. 69-71) state, pattern coding leads to data reduction and functions as an analytical tool as it enables the researcher to detect themes, causal relations, personal relationships between participants and emerging constructs exerting explanatory force. Usually referred to grounded theory (but not exclusively used in studies using grounded theory) focused, axial and theoretical coding are further second cycle methods. Focused coding “uses the most significant or frequent initial codes to sort, synthesize, integrate, and organize large amounts of data” (Charmaz, 2006, p. 46). Axial coding then aims to identify relations between coding categories developed through focused coding. Focused and axial coding prepare for theoretical coding in which core categories are developed offering a theory explaining the issue investigated. Saldana (2009), who gives an overview of other second cycle methods available (Chapter 4), informs us that, as in first cycle coding, second cycle methods can be used in combination. Irrespective of the second cycle coding method(s) selected, the process of developing coding categories out of codes generated in first cycle coding needs to be accompanied by writing memos or drawing diagrams through which researchers define and continuously re-define coding categories and visualise relationships between categories (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, pp. 117-118).

Two points related to coding (implied in the survey so far) need to be emphasised. First, coding is an interpretivist action shaped by the research interest (as depicted in the conceptual framework), theoretical lens and worldviews of the researcher: Two researchers are unlikely to code the same data in exactly the same way. Second, in the whole process of coding, data is summarised, condensed and reduced (Saldana, 2009, p. 4) so that it “involves accepting a loss of information” (Schmidt, 2004, p. 256). Stated differently, “[t]he more one moves up the conceptual ladder, the broader and more explanatory the concepts become, yet as they move toward greater abstraction,

concepts, while perhaps gaining in explanatory power, begin to lose some of their specificity” (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 52).

3.6.2.1. Coding of Observed Data

The analysis of the lessons, i.e. the observed data, was conducted in four main steps. First, during the observation I used an observation sheet in which I documented key events during the lesson. Second, usually done on the same day of the lesson observation, I tabulated the handwritten notes and highlighted significant points related to observed coursebook exploitation in the post observation form. Third, I coded adaptations realised in a lesson using the framework developed in Section 2.3.6.1. This means the observed data was coded deductively with pre-established coding categories. Finally, I displayed the coded key events in a form that allowed me to compare the coursebook exploitations of a participant with the order of activities given in the book and the exploitations realised by the other participant. This format is used to display the results in the Sections 4.3 to 4.3.6.2. Additionally I calculated frequencies of identified coursebook adaptations, which would allow interpreting the coursebook exploitations realised by the participants more accurately.

3.6.2.2. Coding of Written and Transcribed Data

The coding of the written and transcribed data (i.e. originally the spoken data) was realised in five main steps. First, while transcribing, I regularly took notes about striking statements of the participants and wrote memos concerning emergent codes and patterns. Second, I read through the transcripts and journals repeatedly to get familiarised with the data. This process started during data collection. Third, I combined coding methods in the first cycle coding to address the conceptual framework (Section 3.2.2.) and the research questions (Section 3.5.), and to make “new discoveries, insights, and connections about (...) participants, their processes, or the phenomenon under investigation” (Saldana, 2009, p. 51). In particular, I used (i) initial coding as an open-ended approach that would allow me to see what is in the data; (ii) structural coding: the data was coded in the light of the research questions to examine the explanations and evaluations the participants gave for realised exploitations and the perceptions they held about the data-led reflective practice they were engaged in; (iii) in vivo coding to “prioritize and honor the participant’s voice” (Saldana, 2009, p. 74); (iv) process coding

to see what activities the participants actually performed reflecting; (v) descriptive coding to identify topics (related to instructional practice) the participants reflected on; (vi) simultaneous coding when the same datum could be read from two perspectives. I exemplify the first cycle coding procedures with an example (Figure 7).

transcription	first cycle coding	
¹ Even I said that as a teacher: how much I talked. ² Or I said my questions are not clear. ³ But when I don't see them, I feel like I speak very well. My sentences are fully correct or something. ⁴ Or I feel like my students understand what I say. ⁵ But when I see such copies, I say this is something ambiguous. There are some unclear points. ⁶ This reflective study made me a more reflective person. ⁷ You made my life worse than (laughs) as it is.	¹ teacher talk ² questioning ³ evidence ⁴ taking learner perspective ⁵ evidence ⁶ more reflective ⁷ painful	detecting

Figure 7. First cycle coding example.

This excerpt (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Alice) is an example illustrating that I as the coder had my (theoretical) lens while coding the data. The codes number 3 and 5 (*evidence*) is an expression used in the literature (e.g. Mann & Walsh, 2013) indicating that reflective practice needs to be evidenced-based to be effective. The code *painful* (code number 7) is rather interpretivist but emerged as a pattern describing a perceived discomfort while being emerged in reflective practice. The codes 1 and 2 are descriptive codes as they indicate topics the participants talk about. Finally, the simultaneous code *detecting* attaches a meaning to nearly the whole stretch of speech (indicated through the vertical line) by identifying a function of reflective speech: The participant here detects something about her teaching.

In the fourth step, the second cycle coding, I refrained from coding line-by-line and identified meaningful units that I re-coded accordingly (Chenail, 2012). This was an outcome of the gained familiarity with the data and included testing codes for similarities. For example, I changed the code *detecting* in Figure 7 to *noticing* after assembling it with *identifying*, another first cycle code. In other words, *noticing* became a coding category. Another example illustrating the coding process is given in Figure 8.

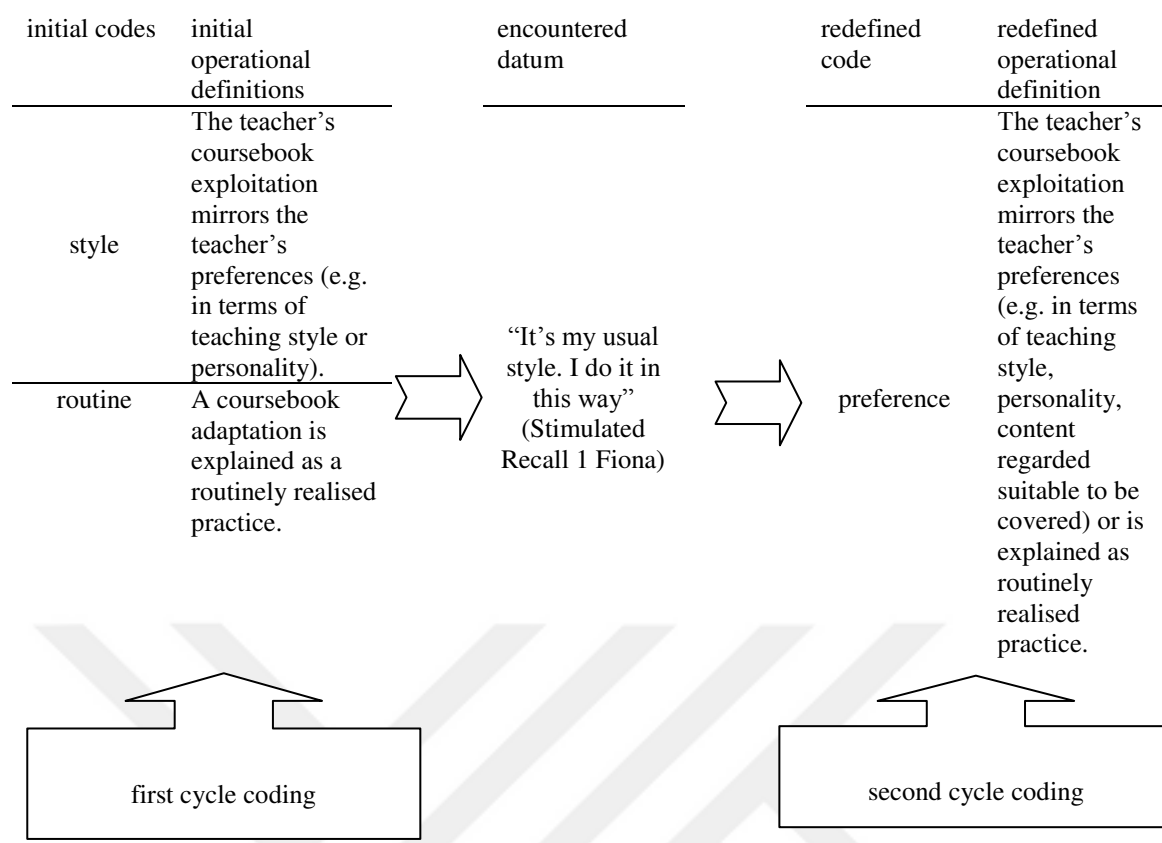


Figure 8. Establishing coding categories.

As seen in Figure 8, I subsumed *style* and *routine* under *preference* in the light of the encountered datum. The wording “usual” suggests a routine practice, while “style” refers to the initial operational definition of *style* given above. As the encountered datum could have been coded as *style* or *routine*, I assembled the first cycle coding categories and rewrote the operational definitions.

The fifth step then contained the recoding of the whole data with the coding categories established during second cycle coding. The coding procedures are summarised in Figure 9, which I generated based on the account given by Schmidt (2004):

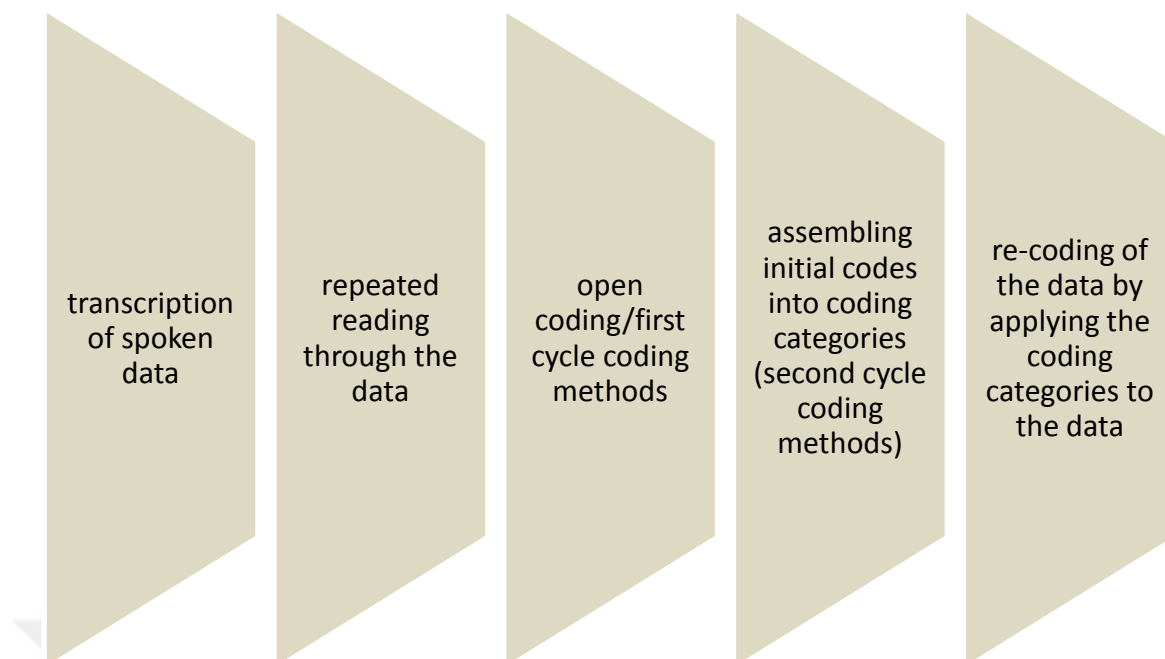


Figure 9. Stages in the process of coding qualitative data (adapted from Schmidt, 2004).

Figure 9 is an idealised presentation of stages in coding qualitative data for two reasons: For one thing, the process of developing coding categories usually starts after part of the data has been coded initially. Second, coding categories are usually renamed and redefined as the coding process continues. In other words, coding is a much more iterative and much less straightforward process than Figure 9 may suggest.

After having defined the coding categories, I subsumed coding categories under themes, and stored them in a separate file. This was an important step because it helped organise the results and retrieving sample excerpts to be used in Chapter IV. For example, the data revealed that the participants touched upon a variety of topics in the different forms of reflective practice. After establishing the coding categories, I assembled them to five themes: The coding categories *pronunciation*, *seating arrangement* and *pair/group work*, for instance, were allocated to the theme *instructional practice*, while *autonomy* and *demotivation* were allocated to the theme *learner*. All coding categories with operational definitions and samples from the data are displayed in Appendix V.

3.7. Trustworthiness

In Section 3.2.1., it was stated that validity and reliability are criteria for an evaluation of the quality of research. Stemming from quantitative research, validity is subdivided into internal validity referring to the degree to which the data collection tools measure what they are supposed to measure, and external validity referring to the degree to which results are generalisable to a population; likewise, internal reliability is concerned with the consistency of results in case of reanalysis of the data and external reliability with the consistency of results in case of study replication in another context (Nunan, 1992, pp. 16-17).

The specific features of qualitative research have cast doubts if a one-to-one application of these conceptualisations to qualitative research is possible (Bryman, 2012, pp. 389-390): For one thing, qualitative data collection tools do not measure investigated social reality in a way that numeric data are gained. Second, the qualitative researcher does not usually act as the neutral observer but has an impact on the data analysis through his/her theoretical lens; the same study repeated in the same context with another researcher would not result in exactly the same result. These first two aspects are an outcome of the prevailing ontological and epistemological perspectives inherent in qualitative research according to which the idea of an objective reality is contested or, given there is an objective reality, is supposed to be difficult to apprehend and present (Guba & Lincoln, 2005; cf. Section 3.2.1). Third, as qualitative research usually encompasses an in-depth examination of a specific case, it seems unlikely to receive the same results when replicating a study in a different context. Notably, a critique towards qualitative research in general and case study research in particular is that the description of a specific case may not contribute to a valid and reliable explanation of the social system the case is situated in. Epstein (1999) discusses

the claim: *No description of the individual bee can ever explain the emergent phenomenon of the hive.* How would one know that? Is this a falsifiable empirical claim, or something that seems true because of a lax definition of terms? Perhaps the latter. The mischievous piece of the foundation is the phrase “description of the individual bee.” What is that? Does “the bee’s” description not include its rules for interacting with other bees? Certainly it makes little sense to speak of a Joshua Epstein devoid of all relationships with family, friends, colleagues, and so forth. “Man is a social animal,” quoth Aristotle. My “rules of interaction” are, in

part, what make me me. And, likewise, the bee's interaction rules are what make it a bee – and not a lump. When (as a designer of agent objects) you get these rules right – when you get “the individual bee” right – you get the hive, too (p. 55).

The essence of Epstein's argument is that qualitative research can actually produce valid results because the unique case always depends on the surrounding context and the context is inherent in the unique case, or, as Eisner (1981/2005) formulated, “the general resides in the particular” (p. 71).

Yet, on the ground of the considerations given above, validity and reliability have been re-conceptualised for qualitative research (Bryman, 2012, p. 389-398; Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 277-280; Onwuegbuzi & Johnson, 2006). An important contribution was made by Guba & Lincoln (1994) who established criteria to test the quality of qualitative research. I restrict myself to the criteria for constructivist/interpretivist studies.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) propose trustworthiness and authenticity as criteria to test the goodness or quality of qualitative research with constructivist/interpretivist orientation. Trustworthiness encompasses four criteria: (i) Credibility is defined as the degree to which the findings and, consequently, conclusions drawn are present in the data; credibility is most closely associated with internal validity; (ii) transferability, associated with external validity, refers to the careful evaluation of the extent to which study results can be transferred to a wider context; conclusions concerning transferability greatly depend on detailed accounts of the research context and methodology (cf. Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 279); (iii) dependability, a test for reliability, refers to the attempt to adopt a consistent research process by sticking to a transparent course of procedures. Particularly due to commonly large data sets and complex analyses required in qualitative research, dependability is a challenging, thus not commonly used validation strategy (Bryman, 2012, p. 392); (iv) confirmability paralleling but not equalling objectivity, refers to the attempts of the researcher to be aware of own predispositions (beliefs and values) and to minimise their impacts during the research process. Authenticity is Guba and Lincoln's (1994) proposed second major criterion for qualitative research. Authenticity encompasses the consideration of different viewpoints in data presentation, of contributing to enhancing participants' knowledge and better understanding of their social setting so that they are empowered

to engage in action (for a discussion of authenticity and related criteria see Bryman, 2012, p. 393).

To address concerns about validity and reliability of the current study, the following steps were taken: First, as explicated in Section 3.4., ethical issues were addressed to avoid any kind of pressure on the participants that may result in invalid data, for example responding in interviews or reflective activities by producing data for the sake of suiting the researcher. On the contrary, I explicitly report on threats to validity, for instance, observation effects (Sections 4.4.3.1., 5.5.) and challenges I was faced with as the researcher to minimise the impact of my own predispositions (Johnson, 1997; cf. Chenail, 2011; see Section 5.6.). Second, I documented the procedures throughout the study as accurately as possible to satisfy what Hammersley and Traianou (2012) have called “intrinsic values” (p. 134): the research was designed in a way that the danger of producing misleading results was minimised (i) by setting and modifying research questions (see Sections 1.3. and 1.4.); (ii) by selecting data collection tools and procedures appropriate to the research aim (see Sections 3.5 to 3.5.7.) and, piloting them (Section 3.5.8.); (iii) by preparing the collected data for analysis and, to provide intra-rater reliability, establishing coding categories that are mutually exclusive (Stemler, 2001) (Sections 3.6. to 3.6.2.2.): All coding categories were operationally defined and are documented in Appendix V. It should be noted that strategies to address inter-rater reliability were not applicable as I was the only coder; (iv) by drawing conclusions in the light of the literature. In particular, the battery of data collection tools aimed at triangulation to achieve more robust results (cf. Bryman, 2012, p. 392; Miles & Huberman, 1994, pp. 266-267). Third, I invited the participants to respondent validation (Bryman, 2012, p. 391): After finalising the results, I sent a report with key findings to the participants and ask them to give me feedback that eventually confirmed my results. Finally, to address transferability, I gave a thick description of the research site not only in the Sections 3.3. to 3.3.3. in this chapter but also in the chapter Results by giving the participants a voice to express their views on the institution this study was conducted in, thus catering for authenticity as a further criterion for qualitative research (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

3.8. Summary

This chapter presented the methodology of the study. The study was introduced as a qualitative study with constructivist/interpretivist orientation sharing features of case study research and following the formative intervention methodology. The study was directed towards two English language teachers' coursebook beliefs and exploitations which were explored through interviews, lesson observations and reflective practice activities encompassing metaphor elicitation, stimulated recall, reflective conversations and journal writing. Additionally, the reflective practice itself was examined in the study. The development and utilisation of the data collection tools were reported, and an account of data analytical procedures was given. The context in terms of participants, research site and coursebook materials, ethical aspects and strategies to strengthen trustworthiness were reported to document attempts to ensure the goodness and quality of the research. The research findings are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the results of the study. The study had two main foci. The first focus was on the beliefs two EFL teachers held about coursebooks and their actual coursebook exploitations. The second focus was on the participants' engagement in a data-led reflective practice, which they used as a tool to explore their own coursebook exploitation.

Sections 4.2. to 4.2.5. report on the teachers' coursebook conceptualisations in the perspective of their general beliefs about teaching and learning a foreign language and their beliefs and conceptualisations of reflective practice. These sections refer to the pre-intervention stage of the study as explicated in Section 3.5. The second main part of this chapter (Sections 4.3. to 4.3.8.2.) documents the results of the analyses of the six lessons observed and the teachers' justifications of realised coursebook exploitations throughout the intervention stage. The findings on the lessons observed draw upon the researchers' analyses of the lessons, the participants' contributions made during the different reflective practice activities as well as on the post-intervention interview and metaphor elicitation tasks. For this reason, this part also informs about the reflective activities the participants were engaged in. The third main part (Sections 4.4. to 4.4.3.2.1.) – based on the data coming from the reflective practice activities and the research instruments deployed at the post-intervention stage of the research – deals with the reflective practice in terms of affordances, constraints and the participants' perceptions.

In this chapter, the presentation of the results is supported by direct quotes from the data. This is not only done to provide evidence, but also to give the teachers a voice and to illustrate the reflective process the participants had gone through. For the symbols used in the excerpts in this chapter (e.g. “(.)” for short pause, “(5 sec.)” for a 5-second pause or “(…)” for omission), readers are referred to the transcription conventions in Appendix U.

4.2. The Teachers' Conceptualisations and Beliefs

The following five sections report on the participants' conceptualisations of coursebooks and their beliefs about their own coursebook exploitation, and their conceptualisations of reflective practice. The findings for these results draw on the data coming from the coursebook metaphor elicitation and pre-intervention interview. The results are presented for the participants separately.

4.2.1. Alice's Beliefs about Coursebooks and Perceptions of Own Coursebook Exploitation

Alice used the metaphor "map" (Coursebook Metaphor Elicitation Alice) to conceptualise the coursebook but in her explanations she expanded her understandings. Referring to her experiences with coursebooks, she pointed out that, if a coursebook meets the learners' interests, levels and facilitates learning in a compelling way, it functions as the

biggest and trustable assistant. It guides me in my own teaching journey. Even when I'm not well prepared for the lesson, it lowers my anxiety as it shows all the streets and roads like a navigation and I don't feel lost (Coursebook Metaphor Elicitation Alice).

According to Alice, however, if the coursebook does not correspond to the given context, it becomes "*the source of stress and tension*" (Coursebook Metaphor Elicitation Alice, emphasis in the original). In the pre-intervention interview, she accentuated her view referring to a coursebook she had used in the past that was "full of grammar. And there were many mistakes. Even in the first unit for beginner level, there were if type II or something. It was terrible" (Pre-Intervention Interview Alice). This book apparently contradicted her views of language that she regarded as a means of communication and transmitter of cultural content; similarly she claimed that language teaching should prepare learners to use English in the world outside the classroom, grammatical competence should be a means to achieve communicative competence, and language learning should resemble the process of acquisition in which the teacher's role is to guide learners.

More specifically referring to the functions of coursebooks, Alice perceived coursebooks as providing confidence for her as a source of samples of and information about the language, which she as the teacher could benefit from. For example,

coursebooks at higher proficiency levels refreshed her linguistic knowledge and taught her new vocabulary: “I also update myself” (Pre-Intervention Interview Alice).

Regarding learners, Alice distinguished three functions of coursebooks: First, coursebooks elicit learners’ background knowledge. Second, coursebooks activate learners through the materials and activities offered. Third, they provide students with opportunities for self-assessment. However, Alice pointed to the need to familiarise learners with coursebooks: “They need time to do, to be familiar with the book. They should also develop a kind of ownership, even for the coursebook” (Pre-Intervention Interview Alice).

Alice also held positive views of the coursebook *Pioneer* (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015, 2016) used during the study. She praised the book for its focus on meaningful speaking activities with sufficient pre-speaking activities. Moreover, she denoted it as satisfying for teachers and appealing for learners because of its visual components. She described the book as having a main focus on vocabulary and speaking, however, she was not sure about the favoured teaching methodology of the book. She also stated that she would not like to change it.

Regarding her coursebook exploitation, she relied on the Teacher’s Book:

I READ every step. It’s says/ it really (.) shows me different perspectives. It says, ‘OK, group work, learners like this, ask them like this.’ I’m a teacher, but I don’t know everything. It reminds me. I said it’s OK, it says I can do the activity like this. I read (Pre-Intervention Interview Alice).

Alice reported omitting activities she did not find meaningful or irrelevant for her learners, especially pronunciation exercises. Also she reported to skip coursebook components when learners reacted bored. Other reported adaptations encompassed modifying or substituting comprehension questions for simplification or restructuring pair work into group work when she thought that this form of restructuring would more effectively facilitate learner engagement.

Alice pointed out that it was the institutional programme with its examination calendar that generally prevented her from major adaptations. While exploring this situation she reported on a realised adaptation:

For example, do you remember in elementary level, there was a topic about Panama Canal. I don’t remember exactly. I just wondered during the lesson. I thought, ‘Oh, there is interesting information in it.’ I just/ I opened YouTube then. (.) Even I myself was curious about it, I made learners watch the video half an

hour. Then the class was over and I said, 'OK; we're back. We are back on the schedule. What can I do? I need to catch up with it.' (...) But students watched it in English and I believe it was more meaningful. They saw something real. And the coursebooks, yes, there is the history of Panama. But when they saw, (.) I think they learned. I think if I had asked about it, they could have said something. But if they just read, it cannot be very permanent (Pre-Intervention Interview Alice).

In this adaptation she supplemented material (a YouTube video) to content presented in the coursebook she found herself interesting and considered to be interesting for her learners so that she decided to expose them to authentic language (“They saw something real”). Also she believed that it contributed to their learning even though the video was not exploited in a post-watching task. Notably, she was aware that she needed to stick to the institutionally foreseen syllabus (“Then the class was over and I said, ‘OK; we’re back. We are back on the schedule. What can I do? I need to catch up with it.’”).

To plan lessons, to discuss coursebook exploitations or plan adaptations Alice said that she never consulted other teachers even though she shared a class with a partner in the preparatory programme. Instead, she reported on discouraging experiences when she attempted to talk about how to conduct lessons with her colleagues:

I'd like to share something with my partner. I believe (...) it would be good. But, so far, since I came here, I never have managed it. I tried (...) but then I saw that everybody knows everything well. (.) No one wants to share. 'That's OK. Do it! Do it as you know!' But I don't know. That's why I am asking (Pre-Intervention Interview Alice).

According to Alice's views at study beginning, coursebook adaptation is a necessity when the coursebook materials do not match the learners' needs but its realisation also depends on the willingness and professional commitment of the teacher to care for the learning of their learners. She regarded herself competent in coursebook adaptation but added that she hoped to find out if her self-assessment was accurate through this study.

4.2.2. Fiona's Beliefs about Coursebooks and Perceptions of Own Coursebook Exploitation

Fiona selected “the bone of teaching” (Coursebook Metaphor Elicitation Fiona) as a metaphor to verbalise her coursebook conceptualisation. She explained this metaphor by denoting the coursebook's characteristic of providing tools to be used by teachers – she

explicitly referred to the digital components of coursebooks (DVDs, IWBs, etc.) – and enabling teachers to follow learner development in terms of learning progress. She explicated her view by comparing the coursebook with other materials:

It provides many opportunities to teachers. It gives us many extra activities. It helps us to see our students' achievement. For instance, if I just use some worksheet, I may not be sure about their progress. But coursebooks give us many opportunities to see our students' progress. And there are many activities in it (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

Her explanation indicates that she appreciated the fact that coursebooks deliver content in structured sequence so that learning achievement can be traced. Interestingly, when I asked her about her preferred teaching method she initially did not refer to an established method such as communicative language teaching but replied:

I usually follow the book and the guidelines of the book because I think that they are really professional guidance for us. And they are prepared for professionals. So I find them very useful. I use them most of the time (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

Her explanation is insightful because it suggests that her metaphor *bone of teaching* indicates that the coursebook is not only a source of materials for her to choose from but also a guide that assists her teaching. She did not regard her role as teacher restricted due to the coursebook because

as teachers we have many roles in the class. And while using a coursebook I feel that I take all my roles. I'm a guider. I monitor my students. I'm sometimes a friend of them, a classmate of them. I help them. So I don't think it reduces my role (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

However, in the written part of the pre-lesson interview she pointed to the danger of becoming “the slaves of the coursebooks” as a hindrance of effective teaching which may be difficult to avoid because of the strict programme as evidenced in the curriculum.

Apart from allowing teachers to trace learning progress, to receive guidance and to benefit from materials offered in coursebooks, Fiona explicitly referred to the advantage of coursebooks as caring for assessment purposes through their accompanied test resources, which, in her view, ensured higher degrees of validity and reliability than tests designed by teachers because coursebook test resources were usually developed according to the CEFR. Additionally, she pointed out that coursebooks helped diminish

the working load of teachers and may enhance the confidence of inexperienced teachers. For learners, Fiona regarded the coursebook advantageous as it provided them with an account of the content to be learned in a visually appealing manner.

Fiona appreciated the coursebook used in the programme, *Pioneer* (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015, 2016), for offering a variety of activities that exerted a motivating effect on students. She saw the coursebook's main focus on speaking activities and believed it followed a rather lexical approach and subscribed to communicative language teaching. She also found the accompanied video activities engaging, but considered the listening activities difficult. On the whole, she did not want to change the coursebook.

The coursebook's approach (as perceived by Fiona) was in line with her reported methodological preference towards communicative language teaching. However, she explicitly pointed to her belief about the necessity of focus on forms as a prerequisite to engage learners in communicative tasks:

I believe that mechanical activity's necessary at beginner and elementary level because they [the learners] need to get used to the forms of the language. And after that, they try/ after they get the form, they need to be engaged in meaningful activities. (...) Even at beginner level, we can engage them in communicative activity, but first we must start with mechanical, then go on meaningful, and then finish with communicative activities. I always follow it (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

Concerning her coursebook exploitation, Fiona reported that she made use of the interleaved Teacher's Book as the main component in lesson planning:

Before I enter the classroom, I have a look at them. It gives me the ide- it gives me the main points of that page, for instance. It is on the left side of the book, so I always look at them before I enter the classroom. So, I say, 'I must focus on these, these. These words are important. For instance, I look at the useful words. They were given as a table, so I look at them because I miss some useful vocabulary. That's why I look at them (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

Notably, she reported that a great deal of her decisions were "spontaneous. I don't think about it before the class because I have to finish too many units (.) in a week" (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

Her rather unplanned coursebook exploitation is not contradictory about her views on the necessity to adapt coursebook materials at study beginning and her claim that she

was competent in adapting coursebook materials because she described her adaptations as a response to a need usually perceived during the lesson. From a more general perspective, she argued that global coursebooks needed to be adapted to meet the local peculiarities of the target group and to enhance the motivational force of materials. She illustrated this rationale with an adaptation of a lesson about natural disasters in which learners were asked about their experience with hurricanes: “But in Turkey, I don’t remember a hurricane. So I skipped this question. I asked: ‘Have you ever experienced a natural disaster?’” (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona). Fiona reported adaptations in her own teaching that aimed at facilitating enhanced comprehension or engagement in learning tasks through clarifying instructions, deductive grammar teaching, reordering coursebook components to pre-teach vocabulary, or supplementing guided activities because in the coursebook

the speaking activities are mostly unguided. But sometimes they [the learners] need more guidance, so I give them some activities, some communicative activities (.) like what? My favourite communicative activity is information-gap activities. It provides the students more guidance. I try to supplement, integrate them in my classes (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

She said that she omitted activities she did not regard important for her learners, namely pronunciation exercises; instead, she matched sounds used in English with corresponding sounds used in Turkish. In spite of her appreciation of the speaking activities in the coursebook and the significance she attributed speaking for language learning, she reported on instances of omitting speaking activities. She commented:

[The focus of the coursebook on speaking activities] is good but with our curriculum, this is a bad thing because a speaking activity takes (...) nearly 45 minutes. So, sometimes I have to skip them. (...) For instance, there was a listening today and it was about the titles of news. And in the speaking activity, ‘Think about the titles and create your stories about them’ - I really liked the activity but I didn’t have the time, so I had to skip it (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

Throughout the pre-intervention interview, Fiona highlighted the impact of the dense programme and the additional compulsory (in her eyes ineffective) materials provided by the school’s material development unit. As she pointed out, the obligation to stick to the programme components was communicated in regular meetings, which built up “the pressure of doing all of them” (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona); however, she did not regard herself in a position powerful enough to disagree on the announced school

policy: “There are two or three people in our institution – whatever they say, we do it. And I accept it” (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

To sum up, Fiona’s beliefs about coursebooks and own coursebook exploitation, she welcomed coursebooks in general and the series used in the programme in particular. She mentioned some adaptations of rather minor scope. Also, she perceived her coursebook exploitation driven by the need to follow the book to make sure that she covered content to be asked in exams, which made it “hard not to be the slave of the coursebook because of the strict curriculum” (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

4.2.3. Intermediate Summary: The Teachers’ Coursebook Conceptualisations and Beliefs about Own Coursebook Exploitation

This section briefly summarises the beliefs the teachers held about coursebooks and realised coursebook exploitations at study beginning. This section does not only highlight the key findings from the metaphor elicitation tasks and the pre-intervention interviews but it also intends to prepare for a comparison between the stated beliefs and the coursebook exploitations identified in the lesson analyses (Sections 4.3.-4.3.7.2.). The stated beliefs are compared to realised exploitations in Section 4.3.8. The teachers’ conceptualisations at study beginning are summarised in Table 11.

Table 11

Alice and Fiona's Beliefs concerning Coursebooks and Coursebook Exploitation

Alice's Beliefs about Coursebooks and Own Coursebook Exploitation	Fiona's Beliefs about Coursebooks and Own Coursebook Exploitation
coursebook conceptualised as guidance	coursebook conceptualised as guidance
coursebook accepted as main component in teaching	coursebook accepted as main component in teaching
coursebook adaptation necessary to	coursebook adaptation necessary to
• meet learners' needs • expose learners to more authentic language • facilitate learner comprehension or production (simplifying)	• enhance relevance (localising) • motivate learners • facilitate learner comprehension or production (simplifying)
reported exploitations	reported exploitations
• coursebook is mainly followed with minor adaptations in form of ○ omission (components regarded meaningless, e.g. pronunciation) ○ modification (restructuring group/pair work; comprehension questions) ○ addition (videos to expose learners to authentic material)	• coursebook is mainly followed with minor adaptations in form of ○ omission (components regarded meaningless, e.g. pronunciation, and time-consuming activities, e.g. speaking activities) ○ modification (instructions, comprehension questions) ○ addition (more guided exercises)
teacher perceived as having control over the coursebook	teacher perceived as having control over the coursebook
coursebook provides confidence as a tool in lesson planning	impact of course programme and exam highlighted
impact of course programme and exam highlighted	brief planning based on Teacher's Book and spontaneous decisions due to workload

The results show that both teachers report following the coursebook as the guide. Reported adaptations are similar even though the given justifications differ. Notably, both teachers pointed to the programme delivered by the school administration as having an impact on the way how the coursebook is utilised. Finally, it should be stated that Fiona spoke with greater certainty about her own coursebook exploitation referring to more concrete examples of adaptation and less vague statements about her teaching principles than Alice during the interview.

4.2.4. Alice's Conceptualisations of Reflective Practice

At study beginning, Alice associated professional development and reflective practice as a way to become a better teacher: "If you want to develop, it's a chance for you. If you can be reflective, it's a kind of door to development" (Pre-Intervention

Interview Alice). In particular, she pointed to three functions: First, she regarded professional development as updating oneself in terms of methodology. She noticed that some teachers stuck to grammar translation method, which she regarded outdated. Furthermore, professional development prevented teachers from blaming learners because teachers related negative aspects of their teaching to their own weaknesses. For Alice, teachers in her institution commonly held the following view: “We’re perfect. Our coursebook is perfect. We’re as teachers - we’re perfect. All the problems are learners” (Pre-Intervention Interview Alice). Third, professional development would help teachers develop their proficiency as a user of English; as Alice claimed, some teachers were not able to speak English very fluently.

More precisely directed to reflective teaching, Alice indicated the ability to criticise oneself, to be open to criticism and notice deficiencies in one’s own teaching as crucial. Additionally, she viewed reflective teaching, by nature, as a collaborative undertaking:

I think to be reflective, collaboration is a part of it. Without collaborating with people, without hearing their comments on you, ideas on you, you cannot be reflective. (...) [Individual reflection] isn’t enough because your criticism is again by yourself, but not by others. They have different eyes (Pre-Intervention Interview Alice).

In the report on the findings concerning Alice’s perceptions of her own coursebook exploitation, it was indicated that she identified a lack of a culture of collaboration in her institution. She exemplified this aspect pointing to her experiences gained in staff meetings:

Well, I need help. In our meetings, (.) I believe (.) we are not there to conclude something. We just try to criticise. We just say, ‘OK, I’m doing this, and what I do is the best.’ No, none of us is doing the best. I can learn something from you. I can learn from her, from him. (.) Uhm. But I don’t believe people are very open to any kind of criticism because here criticism is something negative (Pre-Intervention Interview Alice).

In line with her view on the prevalent attitudes of her colleagues, she argued that opportunities for professional development were not provided by the school management but needed to be initiated by individual teachers and were occasionally organised by teachers who carried out their postgraduate studies. In particular, Alice noted to situations in which teachers may not want to attend forms of collaborative professional developments due to personal antipathy among staff members.

Asked for forms of professional development or reflective practice she could think of, Alice mentioned reading books and articles (a form she practiced), joining conferences, and journal writing. However she did not engage in journal writing. She reported that she had participated in a lesson study which was part of a colleague's PhD dissertation: "It was really good for me. It was the first one. That's why I accepted yours [the current study]. Because when we worked together, we learned something new. And we talked, we discussed" (Pre-Intervention Interview Alice). She also referred to postgraduate studies as a form of professional development. She had received an MA in ELT, and said that her decision to earn this degree was a response to her perceived insufficiencies in English language teaching.

4.2.5. Fiona's Conceptualisations of Reflective Practice

At the beginning of the study, Fiona defined professional development as a way to improve one's teaching. In her view, the effective delivery of professional development depends on an institutional culture of collaboration, although individual ways may compensate for insufficient conditions in the school. She perceived the current school culture as not conducive to engaging in professional development or collaborative forms of reflective practice.

More specifically on reflective practice she mentioned the distinction between reflection in action and reflection on action, and formulated her own definition of reflective teaching as "a kind of holding a mirror to my teaching (...) but you need to find a right angle to hold that mirror in your teaching" (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona). To Fiona, reflection encompassed keeping up with changes in methodology and language; as she explicated, since languages are exposed to change, the latter aspect played a role in reflection in contrast to other subjects such as mathematics. She also held the view that teachers taking up postgraduate studies are more likely to be engaging in reflective teaching while

especially experienced teachers say (...): 'I am competent enough, so I don't need to improve myself.' And I know there are many people here, they never reflect on their teaching. 'I do it and it is the right way to do it' (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

Interestingly, in explaining the forces behind her own postgraduate studies, Fiona did not refer to her studies as attempts to reflect on the own profession but said that she took

up her MA and later PhD studies as a response to a teaching situation she perceived unsatisfactory:

For instance, before starting my MA, I think, I'm really bored of teaching the same subject in the same way. We change the books but they usually have the same thing, the same way to explain a grammar point, a speaking skill. And I really get bored of them, so I thought that I must do something different. That's why I started my MA and PhD journey (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona).

It should be noted that the coursebook as a source for repetitiveness and routine is highlighted in her explanation. This is in contrast to the rather positive views on coursebooks she expressed in the same interview.

Asked about forms of reflective practice, Fiona mentioned webinars, peer observation, video observation, informal meetings and journal writing. She had experience with webinars, which she regarded useful even though they present an “isolated” (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona) form of reflective practice. She also informed me about a video observation with a checklist and focus she had conducted as an assignment in a doctorate seminar; she had video-recorded and evaluated herself, which she preferred to being observed and evaluated by someone other because “when there is another person, you may not show your own teaching” (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona). She had not carried out journal writing because she believed it was time-consuming “but if you keep a journal, in theory I believe it's useful and if you keep it, it gives you some important points that you never realise about your teaching” (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona). Finally she reported on a critical friends group she organised for her own MA thesis. The study included peer observations, and she reported on the perceptions of the participants: “They said: ‘It was very beneficial for our teaching. It developed our teaching’” (Pre-Intervention Interview Fiona). Concerning the current study she expressed the expectation that her partner Alice and I would help her evaluate her teaching.

4.3. Exploring Coursebook Exploitation

The following sections report on the coursebook exploitations lesson by lesson realised by Alice and Fiona and their reflections specifically related to the lessons. The presentation of the results is organised as follows. First, the lessons are described by identifying key aspects, and the lesson parts adapted are identified based on the

framework presented in Section 2.3.6.1. Then, the participants' reflections on the lessons in terms of explaining and evaluating are summarised. The reflections reported do not only refer to the adaptations identified but also cover other aspects that were highlighted in the journals and sessions. Frequently quotes from the participants intend to give the reader an insight in how the reflective practice enabled the participants to explore their own teaching. In Sections 4.3.7.-4.3.7.2., the results are summarised and justifications given by the teachers are reported to highlight the reasons and purposes that guided the teachers in their coursebook exploitation.

4.3.1. Lesson 1

The first lesson (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015, p. 34, Unit 3d) is about the language functions of giving news and responding to them showing surprise and enthusiasm, and asking for details. These functions are presented in interrelated listening and speaking tasks. The lesson starts with a listening task consisting of three exercises: a woman gives news to a man, and the learners are first asked to identify functions the woman performs, then to write questions the man asks her and finally to write the woman's answers. Then a speaking task consisting of two parts follows: the students are asked to generate questions to given news (e.g. upcoming marriage or purchase of a car), and then to carry out a role play in pair work: Student A tells Student B some good news, and then Student B responds by showing surprise and enthusiasm, and asking for details. A box containing useful language to perform the task and a TIP box giving advice on speaking are provided on the page.

The coursebook exploitations realised by Alice and Fiona are documented in Table 12. In the left column the main components on the coursebook page are given. Identified adaptations are highlighted in bold. Additionally durations in minutes and seconds are given for each lesson part. This format has been selected to document the participants' coursebook exploitations in all lessons observed. It should be noted that in all lessons observed the teachers benefitted from the IWB by projecting coursebook components on a screen next to the whiteboard.

Table 12

Coursebook Exploitations (Lesson 1)

Course of activities in the coursebook	Key events in Alice's lesson	Key events in Fiona's lesson
	After finishing the previous unit, Alice continues with Unit 3d (p. 34) opening the related page in the IWB. In L1, she appeals to the students to participate in spite of the fact that it is the last class hour of the day. She also explains in L1 that the programme is so intensive that they cannot work in the workbook. In L2, she explains to the students the need to work independently in the workbook at home. (1:40) (supplementation: admonishing and encouraging students)	
Listening task Exercise 1A: Students listen to a dialogue and identify language functions the female speaker performs (listening for gist)	Alice reads the rubric for Exercise 1A, and checks the functions given and the context of the listening text using L1. Then the listening is played once, and the answer to Exercise 1A is checked with some additional comprehension questions (3:17) (expanding: comprehension) .	Fiona turns on the IWB and paraphrases the rubric for Exercise 1A. She asks her students to find out what the woman in the dialogue is talking about. She plays the recording twice (3:07). Answer check: the students tell what the woman is talking about and answer the questions to Exercise 1B (0:39)
Listening Task Exercise 1B: students listen again and write the questions the male speaker asks (listening for detail)	Alice paraphrases the rubrics for Exercise 1 B and C and provides additional explanation in L1 (extemporisation: additional explanation for rubric and restructuring: combining two exercises) .	Fiona paraphrases the rubric for Exercise 1B. The students listen once and answers are checked (1:36)
Listening Task Exercise 1C: students listen again and complete the woman's answer to the questions in Exercise 1B	The recording is played twice as the teacher realises that her students have not caught the answer to the third question.	Fiona reads the rubric for Exercise 1C. The teacher pauses the recording when the woman's answer has been said in the recording; students call out answers

	After the second listening, the teacher has two students answer the questions (for Exercise 1B and C) in dialogue form (exploitation: answer check as dialogue). (5:18)	chorally (1:31) (restructuring: interrupting the recording when an answer to a question occurred and checking)
Speaking Task Exercise 2A: students are asked to generate questions to four pieces of news given in order to ask for details (in pairs or individually).	Alice tells her students to look at the pictures and speech bubbles with people giving news in Exercise 2A. Then she paraphrases the rubric and asks her students to work in pairs. Before her students start, she provides a sample question for the first picture/speech bubble (extemporisation: providing a sample answer). Students work in pairs (15:22). The teacher checks students' answers and collects those related to the first two pictures on the board. During this stage, the teacher discusses the appropriateness of a student's answer ("Is he rich?" to the news "Guess what! I'm getting married!"), so that some discussion partly in L1 ensues (8:37) (exploitation: discussing content of learner answers).	Fiona paraphrases the rubric to Exercise 2A, elicits sample answers for the first two speech bubbles by having her students imagine that one of her classmates (writes her name on the board) is getting married. She collects answers on the board. (extemporisation: eliciting a sample answer). Fiona establishes pairs and tells students to prepare questions for the other news (4:39). Students work in pairs established by the teacher (5:08). Fiona checks the answers; students' answers are not collected on the board (1:41).
Speaking Task Exercise 2B: students carry out a role play in pairs: Student A tells Student B some good news, who shows surprise and enthusiasm (phrases are provided in a box), and asks questions for details. A TIP box with	After presenting Exercise 2B on the IWB, the teacher decides to stop the lesson recognizing and saying that the students lack energy. The lesson is continued the following day (1:26). Lesson continuation (next	Fiona establishes new pairs and paraphrases the rubric to Exercise 2B. She points to the useful phrases in the book, but not to the TIP box (1:11) (abridging: TIP box). The students work on task

tips on how to speak (“Don’t worry if you make a mistake”) is provided.

morning at 8:15.) Alice starts with chat with her students about what they did that morning and an upcoming assignment (2:31) (**supplementation: warm-up**).

Alice reviews vocabulary from the previous day’s lesson (**supplementation: review**) (2:31).

Alice paraphrases the rubrics for Exercise 2B and refers to the phrases in the box, but not to the TIP box (**abridging: TIP box**). She gives an example of a piece of good news from her own life and elicits some examples from other students (**extemporisation: eliciting examples for good news**).

Alice has students classify the phrases in the box as positive or negative (**expanding: categorizing vocabulary**).

Alice shows a sample dialogue from the coursebook before the students work on the activity (7:28) (**extemporisation: showing a sample answer from the teacher’s book**).

Students work on the task; the teachers tells the students not to write the dialogues. After about 8 minutes, Alice listens to pairs, while the other pairs continue working (19:59).

Alice invites some pairs to act out the dialogues in class. She gives feedback

in pairs. Fiona monitors and helps (8:31).

Fiona asks all pairs to act out the role play in class. She gives no feedback. As some students do not listen to their peers, she asks a student what the pair on task has talked about at 30:18(4:39).

on the content of the dialogues (6:11).

The most striking difference between the two lessons is the length. While Alice's lesson took 74 minutes and was stretched over two days (starting at 15:15 in the afternoon, and resumed at 8:15 on the next day), Fiona's lesson took about 37 minutes. This difference is due to the more frequent use of minor adaptations made by Alice and allocating significantly more time for the group activity (Exercise 2B).

4.3.1.1. Lesson 1: Alice's Exploitations and Reflections

I will now report Alice's reflections revealing justifications and evaluations on her coursebook exploitation realised in Lesson 1. Table 13 summarises the adaptations in Alice's lesson.

Table 13

Adaptations Realised by Alice (Lesson 1)

Adaptations	Focus
1. supplementation: admonishing and encouraging students	process
2. expanding: additional comprehension questions	language
3. extemporisation: additional explanation for rubric in L1	language
4. restructuring: combining two exercises	process
5. exploitation: answer check as dialogue	process
6. extemporisation: providing a sample answer	language/ process
7. exploitation: discussing content of learner answers	content
8. supplementation: warm-up	language/ content
9. supplementation: review	language
10. abridging: TIP box	language
11. extemporisation: eliciting examples for good news	language
12. expanding: categorising vocabulary	language
13. extemporisation: showing a sample answer from the teacher's book	language/ process

Table 13 shows that 13 adaptations were realised, 11 of them additions, a modification (Number 4) and an omission (Number 10). All additions are minor in scale mainly encompassing extemporisation and exploitation. Adaptations Number 8 and 9 are due to the fact that the lesson was interrupted and continued the next morning.

Alice reported in the pre-lesson interview and post lesson journal that she wanted to ensure that her learners would produce a richer conversation in the speaking task when she extemporised by personalising (Number 11) and addressing an anticipated problem (Number 13): “I thought they couldn’t know how to start or continue the conversation at that stage and I planned to project a sample dialogue from the [Teacher’s] book [on the screen of the IWB]” (Post-lesson Journal 1 Alice). Later, she elaborated upon this adaptation:

I don’t want them to make very mechanical dialogues and I want to show them what could be a real life-like dialogue (...) Maybe as teacher I may skip something, but here we have a sample. And this is why I wanted to show this. (.) It just made me feel safe again. (.) This is the second time I projected this suggested answer part for a dialogue [using the IWB]. And for the first one, I saw that they liked this (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Alice).

The excerpts show that Alice’s decision is actually organised by a complex interplay of factors: Alice believes that showing a sample answer from the Teacher’s Book promotes her learners’ successful engagement in a speaking task, exposes them to language perceived (by Alice) as authentic, generates a feeling of safety in her and is justified based on positive learner feedback at instances in the past.

She evaluated these adaptations as successful because her learners were more eager to speak than usual. Another notable modification was to restructure the listening comprehension questions in Exercise 1B and C by combining them. Alice was not aware that she had adapted the material: She obviously misunderstood that the sequencing in the coursebook (taken as the default) did not foresee to combine these components. Consequently, she could not justify this adaptation, but - probably as a post hoc explanation - she said that her learners may get bored when they listen to a recording again and again. Actually she had to repeat the recording again because her learners had not got all answers. Additionally, she criticised herself during the stimulated recall session for adaptation Number 12 discussing the value of the categorisation initiated:

I was wrong at that point. Then I realised it. In the box, all the items were actually positive. But I thought here ‘Are you kidding me?’ would be negative. I misled the students. Then I realised it. (...) If they see these phrases in another context, they may think that it is negative. But here, it’s/ they needed to use it positive for (.) I’m sure they didn’t notice but then I realised (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Alice).

Finally, she stated that she had forgotten to deal with the TIP box but appreciated it as beneficial.

4.3.1.2. Lesson 1: Fiona's Exploitations and Reflections

A summary of the adaptations done by Fiona in the first lesson is presented in Table 14.

Table 14

Adaptations Realised by Fiona (Lesson 1)

Adaptations	Focus
1. restructuring: interrupting the recording when an answer to a question occurred and checking	procedure
2. extemporisation: eliciting a sample answer	language
3. abridging: TIP box	language

As revealed in Table 14, only three minor adaptations were realised by Fiona. Remarkably, the omission (Number 3) did not affect the course of activities as suggested by the coursebook writers. For the lesson, the coursebook functioned as the script: "I'm going to follow the book. I'm planning to do it" (Pre-Lesson Interview 1 Fiona). Fiona indicated that selected the coursebook components deliberately in terms of language and process since "there was no need to make modifications" (Post-Lesson Journal 1 Fiona).

For adaptation Number 1, she reported that she stopped the recording when an answer had been given in the listening recording (which consisted of a dialogue between two people) because she wanted to give her learners enough time to note down the answers. Reviewing this procedure during the stimulated recall she said she was not sure if it was preferable or not. For the second adaptation, she pointed out that using a learner's name was a way of making coursebook content more relevant. She selected a certain female student's name (Miyase) for the news *Guess what! I'm getting married!* on purpose: "I know Miyase has a boyfriend. She always talks on the phone with him. That's why I did this" (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Fiona). Fiona also explained that she usually did not deal with the TIP boxes in the book (providing strategies for skill work) as she does not find them practical. Instead, she gives her own explanations. Fiona expressed satisfaction with her lesson and said she would not change anything if she repeated the lesson again.

4.3.2. Lesson 2

In the second lesson a video activity from the accompanied “Clips & On View Video Activities” booklet is carried out (p. 11). The activity recycles the language and structures covered in Unit 7 of the coursebook (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015), namely expressing preferences and emergency situations. The video contains a cartoon in form of a trailer: the main character, John Raven, announces to his officemates that he is going to marry. While announcing, a fire breaks out in the building, and the people there (including John’s bride-to-be) cannot escape. A rescue team arrives. When John has the chance to escape from a window, he faces the choice either to save his own life or to help the other people (among them his bride-to-be) who get stuck in the building. The learners have photocopies of the worksheet with pre-, while- and post-watching tasks from the booklet.

The learners are first asked to discuss difficult choices and emergency situations they have had in their lives, and then to make predictions about the film based on a film poster given. They watch the film trailer and check their predictions. Then they watch again and answer six comprehension questions. The learners are asked to watch the film for a third time and to decide whether or not specific things (e.g. a torch, smoke) and people (a firefighter) appear in the film. In the last part, three discussion questions are given: “Would you go and see the film? Do you often watch film trailers? Do you think they are a good way to tell what a film will be like, and if it will be good?” (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015: “Clips & On View Video Activities”, p. 11)

The coursebook exploitations realised by Alice and Fiona are documented in Table 15. In the left column the main components on the coursebook page are given. Identified adaptations are highlighted in bold.

Table 15

Coursebook Exploitations (Lesson 2)

Course of activities in the coursebook	Key events in Alice's lesson	Key events in Fiona's lesson
Discussion Ex. A: learners are asked to report the last difficult choice they had to make and how they react in emergency situations.	Alice projects the questions in Ex A and asks about choices the students had; a conversation about selecting the university, initiated by the teacher, emerges (1:51). Then she writes a word map related to "emergency situations" on the board. Vocabulary related to illnesses, natural disasters, and environmental issues is collected on the board (9:31) (supplementation: recycling and previewing vocabulary related to "emergency situations") Alice asks her learners to report on specific events related to emergency from their own life; to elicit answers she gives examples of losing suitcase in different country, snake bite in forest, child trying to survive in pool. Learners come up with a few examples (broken arm, getting lost) (3:26) (extemporisation: providing sample ideas) Teacher asks learners what should be done in such situations, and how they feel. (4:22)	Fiona writes "Choice" on the board and asks learners if they have ever made a difficult choice in their life. After getting reluctant answers she says: "I think you are too young to make a difficult choice" (2:28) (substitution and abridging: the first question in Exercise A is covered through writing "choice" on the board, the second question omitted)
Prediction Ex. B: Based on a film poster learners predict the content of the film.	Teacher asks learners to predict content of the video, points to the poster, elicits picture description and purpose of the poster and	Fiona points to the film poster projected and elicits some learner comments. She asks her learners to guess what the main character's

	introduces “trailer” (3:33)	choice is. (2:17)
Ex B: Learners watch the video to check their predictions.	Alice tells her learners to watch the film; then she will ask questions (abridging: Exercise B (Watch the clip and check your answers. is omitted)) Teacher asks own (comprehension) questions (e.g. “What are their names in the movie?” “What was his announcement?” “Then what happens in the story?” “What kind of person is the man?”) (9:52) (substituting: instead of Ex. C the teacher asks her own listening comprehension questions after her learners have listened)	Fiona asks learners to watch and tell them what the choice is about. While checking, she asks some additional comprehension questions (2:58) (expanding: some comprehension questions are added to Exercise B). Fiona goes quickly over the questions in Exercise C. Her learners answer the first question chorally. She tells them to read the other questions, then checks comprehension. Her learners watch for the second time. Fiona pauses the video after an answer is given in the video; question 2 is skipped by mistake, question 4 answered by the teacher herself (restructuring: interrupting the recording when an answer to a question in Exercise C occurred and checking). Teacher writes “If he doesn’t survive his girlfriend” on the board to elicit the choice John has to make. The sentence is then completed with “she may die” (mainly teacher talk). (5:32)
Ex. C: Learners watch the video again and answer comprehension questions.		
Ex. D: Learners watch video again and tick items (e.g. torch) and people (firefighter) that appear in the video.	The learners watch for the second time and do Ex. D. (2:58)	Fiona reads the instruction to Exercise D; the items are checked without watching again (1:15) (subtracting: the video is not shown for a third time).
Discussion Ex. E: Learners discuss if they would like to see the film and the worth of trailers.	Alice asks her learners if posters and trailers affect them (3:22) (Substituting: Alice asks her own questions [encompassing the second and third question in Exercise E]).	Fiona reads Exercise E and establishes groups. Learners discuss in groups. The teacher monitors and then finishes the lesson without round-up (11:18) (restructuring: discussion questions are discussed in

groups without round-up).

Teacher shows trailer of
recent Oscar-winning
movie “Moonlight” (2:34)
**(supplementation:
authentic trailer is shown)**

As observed in Lesson 1, Lesson 2 also shows Fiona as the teacher who adapts less and her adaptations do not modify the course of activities as foreseen by the coursebook writers. Consequently, her lesson is remarkably shorter (26 minutes) than Alice’s (42 minutes).

4.3.2.1. Lesson 2: Alice’s Exploitations and Reflections

Table 16 summarises the adaptations in Alice’s second lesson.

Table 16

Adaptations Realised by Alice (Lesson 2)

Adaptations	Focus
1. supplementation: recycling and previewing vocabulary related to “emergency situations”	language
2. extemporisation: providing sample ideas	language
3. abridging: Ex B (<i>Watch the clip and check your answers.</i> is omitted)	process
4. substituting: instead of Ex. C the teacher asks her own listening comprehension questions after the learners have listened	language/ process
5. substituting: Alice asks her own questions [encompassing the second and third question in Exercise E]	language/ process
6. supplementation: authentic trailer is shown	language/

Table 16 shows that six adaptations were realised, two of them rather major in scope because the (by the coursebook writers) intended sequencing (prediction – watch to check predictions) is abolished (Number 3), and, in adaptation Number 4, the learners were asked to watch the trailer without knowing the questions to be asked. Notably, a trailer of a real film was supplemented at the end of the lesson without, however, leading a classroom conversation about it in the lesson observed.

For the analysis, it should be noted that Alice did not seem to be prepared in terms of having developed an elaborate plan. In the pre-lesson interview this became evident through her choice of words (repeated use of “some”) and pauses pervading her speech:

To be honest I didn't have this photocopy before. Yesterday I copied it. And after the class, I watched the video. (.) Uhm (.) Then I (.) made some (.) choices (.) about the questions, about the topics, how to specify it because I thought some questions are not very clear for our students, so I have some plans for these questions. And I'm also planning to show a short video (.) about the trailer. (...) I will give some examples from my own life. I will write something about emergency situations and how to deal with them (Pre-Lesson Interview 2 Alice).

She additionally said in the stimulated recall session that she had noticed the first question in Exercise A (*When was the last time you had to make a difficult choice?*) during the lesson. This led her to refer to selecting a university as an example for a difficult choice: "I even didn't plan this question (...) I was planning just to focus on emergency situations. Then I saw that there is one more. It is worth discussing. Then this question came spontaneously" (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Alice).

The supplementation of a word map (Number 1) was realised to recycle and introduce vocabulary related to emergency situations. Alice also pointed out that this adaptation intended to support her learners who, in that week, were assigned to complete a task covering the same topic preparing for the programme's speaking exam (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Alice) and compensated for her insufficient covering of the topic in the previous week's video activity (Reflective Practice Session 2). Evaluating the supplementation and following exploitation (Number 1 and 2), Alice critically commented in the stimulated recall that too much and partly irrelevant vocabulary (related to illnesses and indisposition, e.g. *stomach ache*) was generated and the whole part of this warm-up part of the lesson was too long; additionally, in the discussion with the researcher, she started doubting if this materials exploitation really prepared for the video.

In adaptation Number 4 in Table 16, Alice asked her learners her own questions orally instead of using Exercise C. She claimed that clarifying the comprehension questions in the coursebook material would take too much time for her students to understand them:

I do the same for the coursebook as well. There are questions about the reading text. But I try to simplify it. (...) When they try to answer the questions, they will ask. (.) They would spend too much to what the question say, what the question want. And we don't have much time for this (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Alice).

While watching the related part of the lesson, Alice then criticised herself. Prompted by the researcher to comment on the decision to have her learners watch the trailer without knowing the comprehension questions, she said:

I realise it, I realise it. Only if I aim to ask these questions in this material, I ask them first, read the questions, then we will watch the video. Then we will read the text. But here (.) that's why I criticise myself. I should have written the questions (...) before watching it. (.) But I thought they would understand the video (.) easily. It wouldn't be difficult for them (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Alice).

Finally, Alice explained her substitution (Number 5) and supplementation (Number 6) as an attempt to focus on the worth of trailers in general; she did not want to foreground the content of the trailer in the video (emergency situations). Furthermore, she wanted to expose learners to authentic material. However, her comments in the stimulated recall reveal a portion of uncertainty for what reason she supplemented the trailer:

Alice: *Maybe I wanted them to know (.) something (.) because this is a very popular (.)*

Researcher: *film*

Alice: *trend topic now (.) in the world. They should like to know something. It's not just knowing the language or learning (.) what we have in the book. But they should have something cultural as well. The language they are learning, the culture.*

As documented in Table 16, the supplemented trailer was not talked about in the lesson observed. Alice reported that they talked about it in the following lesson.

Directly related to her lesson, we discussed two issues in the stimulated recall and the reflective practice session (with Fiona) in some more depth. The first issue was the function of the poster in the coursebook material (Exercise B) as a tool to elicit predictions of what the film may be about, and the function of the first watching (Exercise C) to check the predictions. While Alice had asked her learners to predict the content of the video, she did not utilise the video to check the predictions. Not having recognised this rationale behind the coursebook lesson, Alice and Fiona criticised the coursebook for not providing “a good instruction” until the issue was negotiated in the reflective practice session 2:

Alice: *Isn't there something irrelevant (.) about the instruction?*

Researcher: *Do you think this is a good instruction or not?*

Fiona: *No. It's not a good instruction.*

Alice: *We ask, 'what do you think the film will be about?' (.) before watching the video. (...) But if we make watch them the video and then say: what were opinions at first? And what are your opinions now? It can be a good adaptation of the question. But again we should ask them first: what are your opinions? And after watching the video, what did you see? Compare it maybe. This would be better.*

Fiona: *Because our absolute aim is to make them speak. (.) So I feel that our way is better. This is not a good instruction.*

Alice: *Is your question that: 'What do you think the question will be about? After we ask this question, do we/were we supposed to wait for their answers?*

(...)

Fiona: *Yeah, they won't. According to the instruction, they won't. We're not going to wait.*

Researcher: *Well, that's interesting. I understand it differently. I would say, uh, I mean (...) learners will have to look at the poster. What you did. And they will make some guesses //maybe//*

Fiona: *//Yeah//*

Researcher: *what the film is about.*

Fiona: *Then they will check their guesses.*

Researcher: *Then the film is watched.*

Fiona: *Yeah*

Researcher: *And then we will/ we can compare.*

Fiona: *Yeah. That's the right way.*

Researcher: *Yeah. Mhm (approving).*

Fiona: *So it's a good instruction. We misunderstood it.*

Alice: *Alright.*

The second issue was about the content topic of the lesson. Alice said that she was driven by concerns about her learners' level, relevance of the material and the "possibility that they may not know what a movie trailer was. I planned to have a lesson the topic of which was mainly movies, trailers, posters, actors etc." (Post-Lesson Journal 2 Alice). As she noted in the same journal, she had planned to show some pictures of film posters, but forgot to do it during the lesson. However, her actual coursebook exploitation indicated that trailers or films were not recognisable as the

main focus. As mentioned above, she noticed that the parts in which she attempted to review and preview emergency were too long, and this may have led to a lesson in which her learners were not able to identify a main content topic:

Çok fazla konu oldu. (...) Bir ders saati için fazla oldu. Ya ben de böyle yapmak istemem. (...) Benim topiğim şu olsun: Daha çok filmlerle ilgili konuşalım. Bence şeydi (.) videodan yürümeliydik, oradan yola çıkmalıydık bence. Ama ben onu onunla bağdaştırmaya çalıştım.

There were too many topics. (...) That was too much for one class hour. I don't want to do it in this way. (...) This should be my topic: Let's talk more about films. Well, I believe we should have conducted the lesson with a stronger focus on the video. This should have been the starting point. But I tried to reconcile this (the topic trailers) with this (the topic emergency situations) (Simulated Recall Session 2 Alice).

4.3.2.2. Lesson 2: Fiona's Exploitations and Reflections

Table 17 summarises the adaptations in Fiona's second lesson.

Table 17

Adaptations Realised by Fiona (Lesson 2)

Adaptations	Focus
1. substitution and abridging: the first question in Exercise A is covered through writing "choice" on the board, the second question omitted	language/ process
2. expanding: some comprehension questions are added to Exercise B	language/ process
3. restructuring: interrupting the recording when an answer to a question in Exercise C occurred and checking	process
4. subtracting: the video is not shown for a third time	process
5. restructuring: discussion questions are discussed in groups without round-up	process/ process/

Table 17 shows that five adaptations were realised. The adaptations are minor as the sequence given in the coursebook is followed, and no part of the lesson has been omitted. An exception may be the abridging of the second discussion question in Exercise A so that the topic *emergency situations* was not covered.

Fiona said in the pre-lesson interview that she had planned the lesson immediately before the lesson, and that she saw the comprehension questions in Exercise C potentially challenging for her learners. She abridged and substituted the discussion

questions in Exercise A because she found them not engaging and the question related to emergency situations “somehow irrelevant to the video” (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Fiona). Her way of checking comprehension questions (adaptation Number 3; cf. adaptation Number 1 in Table [Fiona lesson 1]) was driven by her perception that her learners had difficulties in listening and writing down answers for comprehension questions simultaneously (Post-Lesson Journal 2 Fiona). While watching her lesson, she criticised herself:

I stopped the video. I thought while I was watching it, I thought that they should watch it for the first time and I didn't stop it. I shouldn't have stopped it. And for the second time, we can watch it again and I can stop it to ask the questions. (.) That's my comment on it (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Fiona).

Fiona evaluated the discussion of the questions in Exercise E as “the best part [because it] seemed more effective than whole class decision” (Post-Lesson Journal 2 Fiona). In the stimulated recall, she expanded her brief comments in the journal saying:

It says “just discuss” but I prefer putting them in groups. I think that it's more time-saving for me. And they have more opportunities to speak (.) freely. Because when they don't want to talk a lot, but when I put them in groups, they feel more comfortable. That's why I sometimes prefer putting them in groups. But I always walk around the groups and try to check their answers. Especially they didn't understand the third question. Every group asked about it to me. And I explained. ‘Do you think they are a good way to tell what a film will be like?’ I summarised, I paraphrased it again as I usually do (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Fiona).

Remarkably, she reported that her decision was driven by the consideration to generate a more relaxed atmosphere for a greater number of students to engage in speaking, which would be less given in whole class discussions. For that reason the group discussion was actually saving her time, a constraint she was aware of as she had “to keep up with the curriculum” (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Fiona).

4.3.3. Lesson 3

The third lesson (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015, p. 104) deals with the functions of giving information and express opinions about events or places. The coursebook page contains a listening (Exercise 1) and a speaking part (Exercise 2). First, the topic *charity events* is introduced in three discussion questions in which the learners are asked to

report on charity events in their city by telling what happens at those events and what money is raised for. Then, a poster announcing a charity event with information gapped out (e.g. time, place, entrance fee) is presented, and the learners listen to a radio announcement and fill in the gaps. This is followed by another listening containing a dialogue with two speakers talking about the event. One of the speakers has joined the event and tells his friend about it. The students answer five comprehension questions. After that, the speaking task is introduced with a table in which the learners are asked to provide information about an event or a place they have recently been to including name of the place, costs, good and bad points. Then they are invited to talk in small groups and to “discuss the place or event” benefitting from a box with prompts (“Talk about where it is (...) the age group it is for (...) whether or not it is worth going”) (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2015, p. 104). Also, the beginning of a sample dialogue is given on the coursebook page under the prompts box.

Table 18 documents the key events in Alice and Fiona’s coursebook exploitations highlighting the realised adaptations.

Table 18

Coursebook Exploitations (Lesson 3)

Course of activities in the coursebook	Key events in Alice's lesson	Key events in Fiona's lesson
Introduction to content/activation of background knowledge: Discussion questions about charity (Exercise 1A)	After turning on the IWB, Fiona asks her learners to read the discussion questions and then asks what charity is; a class discussions about who benefits from charity, organisations in Turkey, and kinds of charity events emerges (11:09)	Fiona asks about the previous day's exam; chats about absent student (2:32) Fiona asks her learners to look at the discussion questions, then explains charity and asks for local examples (4:01)
Listening task: learners listen to a radio announcement about a charity event and complete blanks in a poster advertising it (Exercise 1B)	Fiona paraphrases the rubric to Exercise 1B, points to the poster, asks comprehension questions and elicits possible answers to come into the gaps (3:27). The learners listen twice, and the answers are checked (3:56)	Fiona checks if her learners have understood the information on the poster (1:06). Fiona reads the rubric and plays recording twice; while playing for the second time, she pauses the recording after missing information has been mentioned in the listening text and asks her learners to call out the correct answer; in some cases she rewinds the recording when her learners do not come up with the correct answer (3:55) (restructuring: interrupting the recording when an answer to a question in Exercise 1B occurred and checking)
Listening task: conversation between two people talking about the charity event presented in the poster with	Alice asks her learners to read the questions and if they are clear; she tells students to write short answers (0:58).	Fiona paraphrases the rubric and starts recording without giving students time to read the comprehension questions;

comprehension questions
(Exercise 1C)

Alice plays the recording once and tells her learners to check their answers with a partner. After playing the recording for the second time, the answers are checked (5:13).

her learners listen twice
(3:53)

Fiona checks the answers; after realising that the students do not come up with correct answers, she asks them to compare their answers in pairs and plays the recording for the third time (0:57 minutes). During the third listening, the teacher pauses the recording when answer to a question has been given, and elicits answer from the students; she repeats parts of the listening several times because students do not come up with the answer (to question 5) (2:46) **(restructuring: interrupting the recording when an answer to a question in Exercise 1C occurred and checking)**

Pre-speaking activity: students have to complete a chart providing space for information about a place or event the students have been to (Exercise 2A).

Alice asks her learners to read the rubric and then to tell her what to do; after asking if she can tell in L1 (Alice refuses), a student reads the rubric; Alice then explains and provides sample answer (an evening she has spent in a café) (4:23 minutes) **(extemporisation: providing a sample answer)**.

Fiona reads the rubric to Exercise 2A, and asks her learners to complete the chart; her learners start working silently, then the teacher monitors, and her learners start to work in pairs (5:28)

Speaking activity: the learners discuss in small groups the place or event chosen in Exercise 2A (Exercise 2B); box with useful phrases/prompts provided

Alice paraphrases the rubric of Exercise 2B; she modifies it slightly by telling her learners that two learners will ask a third student about the place or event **(restructuring: the instruction intended in**

Fiona establishes groups, and students discuss place or event; she omits the box with the prompts (9 :00 minutes) **(abridging: prompts box)**.

Fiona establishes new

the rubric is modified);
 Alice also goes over box
 with prompts and
 establishes groups of three
 (1:46 minutes)

Her learners start working
 in their groups and Alice
 monitors; the activity is
 interrupted by break,
 students continue after the
 break. After some time
 Alice starts monitoring
 (23:08)

Each group acts out in class
 (frequently with reading
 from paper); Alice
 encourages her learners to
 give applause after each
 group has acted out (6:05
 minutes)

Alice projects a suggested
 answer from the Teacher's
 Book and invites her
 learners to take a photo of it
 with their smartphones
 (1:31) **(extemporisation:
 showing a sample answer
 from the teacher's book).**

groups saying: "We are
 going to make another
 group, but this time you
 have to discuss 'where
 would you like to go?' (she
 writes the question on the
 board); her learners in the
 newly established groups
 apparently do not
 understand the task; Fiona
 goes from group to group
 and explains that the
 students have to tell their
 new group partners where
 they would like to go
 considering the reports
 they have heard in their
 previous groups (5:34)
**(expanding: her learners
 evaluate their classmates'
 reports and express
 preference).**

Even though Alice's lesson again is longer (approximately 72 minutes) than Fiona's (40 minutes), it is Fiona who makes more adaptations to the materials given in the coursebook. The most significant adaptation is the addition of the last activity that entails the establishments of new groups and an additional task expanding the task assigned in Exercise B. The difference in lesson length is due to the time allocated by Alice for the introductory discussion questions (11 minutes) and for generating, rehearsing and acting out the speaking task (nearly 30 minutes). The adaptations are more closely analysed in the following two sections.

4.3.3.1. Lesson 3: Alice's Exploitations and Reflections

Table 19 summarises the adaptations in Alice's lesson.

Table 19

Adaptations Realised by Alice (Lesson 3)

Adaptations	Focus
1. extemporisation: providing a sample answer	language/ process
2. restructuring: the instruction intended in the rubric is modified	process
3. extemporisation: showing a sample answer from the teacher's book	language

Table 19 shows that two extemporisations were realised which, by nature, are minor adaptations because they are of informative or explanatory value to clarify aspects of language, procedures or content taught in the lesson. Adaptation Number 3 could arguably be coded as a supplementation because it does not lead into an activity (as Alice's extemporisations Number 6 and 13 in Lesson 1); it has, however an explanatory function as it potentially allows learners to review and evaluate their performance in acting out the discussion in Exercise 2B and to use it as a sample to benefit from in the speaking exams of the programme or in situations beyond the immediate teaching and learning context. Unlike supplementations, there is a close link to the preceding lesson activity. This resonates with Alice's evaluation when she remarked that showing a sample answer before an activity may result in

a kind of copy-paste activity. But after they watched, they said 'Uh, maybe we could talk about this.' It gives them an idea (.) after the activity. 'I would/ after that I will do this.' I will show it [a sample answer] if necessary (.) after the activity (Stimulated Recall Session 3 Alice).

The overview of key events in Table 18 may give rise to the conclusion that the first part in Alice's lesson (Exercise 1A) is a kind of adaptation. Since the class discussion, however, covers the topics entailed in the coursebook's discussion questions, it has not been identified as a distinct adaptation.

When I talked to Alice before her lesson, she told me that she had prepared a detailed lesson plan, which she showed me. The plan encompassed learning objectives, a definition of *charity* and concrete steps to be followed by the teacher such as "Read the instruction and ask about the poster. Make sure there are no unknown words in it" (Lesson Plan 3 Alice). She said in the pre-lesson interview that the lesson plan

generated stress in her as she felt the need to follow it. In the post-lesson journal, then, she confirmed her feelings towards lesson planning reporting that “being so planned and controlling myself at each stage were extremely disturbing for me”.

More accurately and less vaguely than in the previous lessons, she said before the lesson that she would follow more or less the book and provide sample answers (adaptation Number 1 in Table 19). Her preparedness was also obvious in the post-lesson journal. For instance, she recalled that

students may not know the meaning of ‘charity event’. I planned to explain it giving some examples and even to write its dictionary meaning (...) I asked some questions about the poster although the book didn’t ask for any prediction, guessing, etc. Normally the book encourages learners for such pre-listening activities, but this time it didn’t (Post-Lesson Journal 3 Alice).

These instructional decisions were apparently an outcome of issues discussed in the previous reflective practice activities (cf. Lesson 2 about the function of the poster for prediction; in the reflective practice related to the lesson, she also noted that not all learners had known the meaning of *trailer* in the last part of the lesson). Additionally, it seems that she examined the coursebook materials more critically beforehand: In the stimulated recall, she justified some additional comprehension questions about the poster with reference to a lack of such questions in the coursebook.

As explicated the speaking activities lasted significantly long. Alice explained that a less strict timetable that week allowed her to do so, and she evaluated the speaking part positively:

To be honest, if I had had the time pressure, I wouldn’t have spent that much time for it. (...) The students were also willing to speak in their groups. (...) This has been one of the best ideas of this study for me so far (Post-Lesson Journal 3 Alice).

Alice made an important reflection towards two adaptations (Number 1 and 3): She pointed out in the post-lesson journal that the sample answer taken from her own life and situated in the context of her city (thus based on the principle of localisation) provided before the speaking task was not necessary. Instead, she considered using the sample answer from the Teacher’s Book as a pre-speaking activity preferable because it would be less confusing for her learners and time-saving; additionally, she evaluated her board writing in this lesson part as “disorganised” (Stimulated Recall Session 3 Alice). Discussing the advantages and drawbacks of a teacher’s use of examples from their own life, she arrived at a general conclusion claiming:

I still believe what I did was OK. (...) The students were also willing to speak in their groups. (...) That's what I always do. I try to give examples from my own life. (...) I would, if I were a student, I would also prefer this. We teachers are also real beings, so we also go to/we have been to museums, to restaurants, OK? We also do this. (...) It works (Stimulated Recall Session 3 Alice).

4.3.3.2. Lesson 3: Fiona's Exploitations and Reflections

Table 20 summarises the adaptations in Fiona's third lesson.

Table 20

Adaptations Realised by Fiona (Lesson 3)

Adaptations	Focus
1. restructuring: interrupting the recording when an answer to a question in Exercise 1B occurred and checking	process
2. restructuring: interrupting the recording when an answer to a question in Exercise 1C occurred and checking	process
3. abridging: prompts box	language/ process
4. expanding: her learners evaluate their classmates' reports and express preference	language

As seen in Table 20, Fiona resorted to two types of adaptation observed also in the previous lessons. She stopped the recording of the listening tasks when an answer to a comprehension question occurred. Also, the omission of the prompts box was observed before (omission of the TIP box, Lesson 1); in this lesson, she forgot to focus on the prompts box, but said that she should have done it (Stimulated Recall Session 3 Fiona). Her most significant adaptation was to expand the speaking task. After her learners had discussed places or events in groups, as intended by the coursebook authors, Fiona established new groups and asked her learners to report which event or place discussed in the previous group they liked most. Before the class she indicated that she may make such an adaptation: "I sometimes ask them to report [what they discuss in groups]. Where did they go? For instance, I ask them: Where did your friends go? (...) I think I will do the same today" (Pre-Lesson Interview 3 Fiona). In the post-lesson journal and in the stimulated recall, however, she clearly denoted the adaptation as a spontaneous decision. In the stimulated recall sessions, I shared my observations that most of her learners were not able to report what their classmates had told them in the first group

work. Fiona concluded that she would have needed to inform her learners about that they would have to report later on what their partners told them. However, she justified her decision to make this adaptation as an attempt to encourage learners to listen to what other learners share with them. In Fiona's experience learners tend not to listen to what other learners share in the classroom. By telling them to report to other learners what they had heard from their classmates, she tried to find a solution for this problem.

Fiona argued that the listening activities were challenging so that she would pre-teach vocabulary to make them more accessible for her learners if done again. When we watched her class again in the stimulated recall session, she questioned her own practice of pausing and rewinding the recording as not suitable for the level of her learners (pre-intermediate) but argued that she had to do it as they missed so many answers. Notably, like Alice in the same lesson, she positively evaluated a technique she had learned about in the reflective practice: "I asked them to check with their partners when they couldn't answer. This was a solution we discussed in our reflective practice session last week" (Post-Lesson Journal 3 Fiona).

4.3.4. Lesson 4

The fourth lesson (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, pp. 32-33, Unit 3b) is designed around the function of talking about technology. First, the learners' background knowledge is activated in three discussion questions about apps downloadable on smartphones (Reading Exercise A). Then, a multiple matching reading task is deployed: The profiles of five people are given and eight descriptions of apps offered on a website for downloading apps are presented. Learners have to match the most suitable app to the people introduced in the profiles (Reading Exercise B). In Reading Exercise C, definitions of words are given, and learners have to find the related words in the texts (it is indicated in which profile or app text the requested word is). In two questions (Reading Exercise D), the learners are asked to discuss which app they preferred and when they would use them. The double page in the coursebook is finalised with a listening activity. Learners listen to a conversation between a man and a woman, passengers on a flight, and, in Listening Exercise A, learners have to decide which three apps (given is a choice of four apps from the listening text) the woman has downloaded. In Listening Exercise B, learners listen again and answer six true-false questions.

Table 21 shows the coursebook exploitations realised by the participants.

Table 21

Coursebook Exploitations (Lesson 4)

Course of activities in the coursebook	Key events in Alice's lesson	Key events in Fiona's lesson
Introduction to the lesson content: Discussion questions about personal preferences with regard to use of software applications (Exercise Reading A)	Alice points to discussion questions projected at the IWB, then she asks her learners to define apps; she asks her learners about their own apps use and provides examples of her own apps use (7:07 min).	Fiona writes "apps" on the board, and gives two examples of apps that can be downloaded on mobile phones; after eliciting the meaning in L1, she asks her learners to generate questions related to apps (conducted as whole-class activity); she provides a sample question and collects then her learners' questions on the board (e.g. <i>What sort of apps do you download? Where do you use apps? Why do you use apps? How often do you use apps?</i>) Fiona asks her learners to ask and answer the questions in pairs; Fiona monitors and during a round-up she asks questions to specific learners; her learners answer with elaborate answers (11:32 min) (substituting: instead of Exercise Reading A, learners asks and answer their own questions related to apps; activity partly as whole class, partly as pair work).

Multiple matching reading exercise: learners have to match five people (described in short texts) with apps (described in form of advertisements in an online 'appmarket'). There are three extra apps which will not be used (Exercise Reading B)

Alice points to 'appmarket'; she tells her learners to read the text and that she will give a handout after the reading; she asks what text sort it is; her learners read silently. After having read silently, the teacher has her students read and listen to the text; then she asks comprehension questions (e.g. about which app is the cheapest, most expensive, etc.) (13:06 min)
(restructuring: students read the texts about the apps first)

Alice hands out worksheets: her learners have to match the apps with short descriptions; students answer the questions individually; then check in class (8:50 min)
(expanding: extra worksheet with descriptions of apps in the coursebook text).

Alice paraphrases the rubric for Exercise Reading B; her learners read and match the people to the apps; before checking, the teacher has some students read the profiles out loudly; while checking, the teacher asks the students to justify their answers (10:58)

Fiona tells her learners to open the coursebook at page 32 and explains matching exercise; she tells her learners to read the people's profiles and to underline important information; while her learners work individually, the teacher writes the names of the people in the profiles on the board; when checking, she writes important info about each person on the board (6:59 min) **(exploiting: additional step in the reading task to make the matching task less complex for the learners).**

Fiona tells her learners to decide on the most suitable app for each person pointing to the info about the people on the white board; she elicits some info about the first app; she tells to work first silently, then to discuss in pairs; her learners read silently (7:41 min)

Fiona tells her learners to discuss in pairs which app the most suitable for each person is; she monitors during the discussion (5:18) During the answer check, Fiona asks a pair to present and justify their answer and then the other pairs if they agree and to justify their answers (9:51 min)

Learners match definitions given with words or phrases in the texts (Exercise Reading C)

Alice paraphrases the rubric for Exercise Reading C; students work individually; before checking in class, she asks her learners to check their answers with their partners (7:00 min).

Fiona reads the rubric to Exercise Reading C; then she writes the answers in different order on the white board so that her learners have to match the definitions in the exercise with the words from the texts; answers are checked (6:09 min) **(restructuring: exercise made linguistically and cognitively less challenging)**.

Post reading discussion questions: students are asked to talk about their preferences with regard to the apps presented in the reading texts (Exercise Reading D)

Alice asks her learners if they have any of these apps, then paraphrases Exercise Reading D, and tells her learners to work in pairs; she repeats instruction in L1; students discuss questions in pairs; teacher works with a student, later monitors (12:46 min).

Fiona projects the questions in Exercise Reading D on the IWB and some learners say which app they would like to use and why (2:05 min).

Alice presents role play with a student; in the role play her learner wants to travel to New York, and the teacher gives advice on useful apps (3:17 min). Alice invites other pairs to present their discussion related to Exercise Reading D; during the presentation, the teacher gives feedback criticising the students for not keeping eye contact (10:01 min) **(restructuring: discussion results are presented in form of a role play)**.

Listening: students listen to a conversation between two people and decide which three apps one of the speaker has downloaded (Exercise Listening A)

After asking her learners if they want to continue, Alice reads the rubric for Exercise Listening A, then immediately for B; she tells her learners to read the true/false-questions in

Fiona paraphrases the rubric of Exercise Listening A. After playing the recording twice, her learners call out the answers (4:52 min)

Students listen again and answer true/false questions (Exercise Listening B)	Exercise Listening B; then she asks questions about the dialogue: “Who is the dialogue between?” “Do we know the names?” “Do we know the characters?” Then, Alice returns to Ex. Listening A and starts the recording; answers are checked Alice plays the recording for the second time and checks the answers using the IWB’s function of showing parts of the transcript for answer check purposes	Fiona paraphrases the rubric of Exercise Listening B and tells her learners to read the sentences first; she starts the recording without checking her learners’ comprehension of the questions; then she checks the answers using the IWB’s function of showing parts of the transcript for answer check purposes (4:28)
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In both lessons, three adaptations were identified (Table 21). There are, however, some other distinct coursebook exploitations worth noticing in the following sections. To spot a remarkable difference, Alice more strongly intervenes in the materials provided by the coursebook writers than Fiona does by adding a worksheet she prepared herself and modifying a discussion task by turning it into a kind of role play. In Fiona’s use of materials it is easier to pinpoint the intended functions of realised coursebook exploitations towards the materials given in the book. Remarkably, Alice’s lesson stretched over nearly two class hours (84 minutes), while Fiona’s lesson took approximately 60 minutes.

4.3.4.1. Lesson 4: Alice's Exploitations and Reflections

Table 22 summarises the adaptations in Alice's second lesson.

Table 22

Adaptations Realised by Alice (Lesson 4)

	Adaptations	Focus
1.	restructuring: students read the texts about the apps first	process
2.	expanding: extra worksheet with descriptions of apps in the coursebook text	language
3.	restructuring: discussion results are presented in form of a role play	language/ process

Table 22 shows that three adaptations were realised, all of them rather major in scope. Before examining her justifications and evaluations, I should point out that the lesson was not perceived as successful and effective by her. She frankly shared her feelings first in the post-lesson journal, and later also in the stimulated recall and reflective practice sessions. Immediately after the lesson, she wrote:

In this lesson I liked only a few things, unfortunately not more. Normally I describe myself as a dynamic and energetic person, especially when I have interactions with my students. At that day, I was terribly moody, though. I know the importance of being professional whatever your occupation is. (...) I am quite aware that I shouldn't ignore the fact that I have to do my best as a teacher even when I have some private problems. But, things didn't go as I believed in this lesson. I couldn't prepare well before it. I couldn't keep real communication with my students (no smile, no real conversation, no eye contact). I couldn't focus on the lesson. I even noticed that I couldn't understand what the students said. The lesson lasted very mechanically without any fun and cheer. I found myself standing like a statue. It was the first time my students saw me in that way. My nervousness overwhelmed them, which was not something expected. Briefly, I confronted a fact about myself. It is that I wasn't able to leave some affective factors that affect me behind and it reflects on my profession (Post-Lesson Journal 4 Alice).

Alice's evaluation was in line with my perceptions, and it should be noted that this experience set the tone of her contributions in the reflective practice activities related to Lesson 4. As she stated, personal problems overshadowed lesson planning and

conduction, which, of course, I did not ask about in the stimulated recall and reflective practice sessions.

Her decision to restructure the order of the texts (adaptation Number 1) was planned (Pre-Lesson Interview 4 Alice) and she added a worksheet with short description of apps, which her learners then were assigned to match to the apps in the coursebook text. Alice reported that she made this adaptation because there were no comprehension questions in the coursebook (Post-Lesson Journal 4 Alice). She said that through the worksheet she intended to provide a preparation for the actual reading task in the book to “ask the main idea (...) to save time (...) to be sure that they (the learners) understood the text” (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice). Putting herself into her learners’ position, she found out that the matching task may be too difficult for her learners so that she

organised it (.) in the way of my mind thinks. As a person, first of all, I want to be sure of this part (points to the apps texts). Then I could make matching (...) if I have difficulty, probably they will have more difficulty than me (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice).

Regarding her idea to transform the discussion part on the usefulness of the apps presented in the coursebook reading text into a kind of role play, Alice noted after the lesson in the post-lesson journal that it was not effective and she would not repeat it; it was a spontaneous decision and she assumed she might have made it because her learners were not eager to speak. She commented in the stimulated recall: “I don’t know the purpose here, why I do this.” Further reflection on this lesson part was connected with discomfort as the longer excerpt from the stimulated recall session 4 demonstrates (the excerpt is related to Alice’s presentation of the answers to the discussion questions in Exercise Reading D as a role play with a student; see Table 21):

Alice: *Öff, onu da geçsek.* [Ugh, I wish we skipped that] (Alice doesn’t look at the screen). *Normally the student’s interested in (.) spends time on his mobile phone.* (16 sec.) *What application did we choose?*

Researcher: *No, no, it started like something, ‘I want to go to New York’ or so.* (5 sec.)

Alice: (pauses recording). *What did you ask?*

Researcher: *You made it as a little role play, right?*

Alice: *Yeah, yeah.*

Researcher: *Yes? And now Nazim's (student's name) role was to travel to New York. And for that reason he needed an app.*

Alice: *An application, right.*

Researcher: *Yes? (.)*

Alice: *So, what's the question? (.)*

Researcher: *OK, my question is: Later, when the other groups presented, did they present it as a role play? (.) Or did they just ask and answer more or less these questions?*

Alice: *Uh (.) But (.) they just (.) what we understand from role play I think are different.*

Researcher: *Yes (hesitatingly)*

Alice: *For me, if they can imagine, if they can make up something, they don't have to act or (.) they don't have to do this. But when they do this task, probably they will make up lots of things. And they do it as a role play. They don't have to body/ they don't have to show it bodily. If they create a situation, if they create a context, it would be great. But if they don't, (.).*

Researcher: *Maybe I should have, I mean, you should have talked about this. You should have told them before. The problem that I had was, and if I were a student, I probably wouldn't have understood what I have to do.*

Alice: *Mhm.*

Researcher: *You said, at some time you said, 'You are going to conduct a role play'. I mean mixing up this with a role play.*

Alice: *Did I say this?*

Researcher: *Yes, you said. With Nazim then it was a role play. Nazim is a traveller to New York. But with the others not. (.)*

Alice: *Uh, they directly started the conversation.*

Researcher: *Yes, like 'What app would you like to have?'*

Alice: *OK. (.) Ours would be more meaningful.*

Researcher: *But yours was in a little narrative story. You made up a story.*

Alice: *But that's what I always expect them. They know this. Before every task I say, 'Imagine and (.) just look at'. I even (.) got angry during this task because they still look at me while (.) (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice).*

The excerpt reveals that Alice did not notice that not informing her learners to create a kind of role play beforehand was an apparent problem in her decision to restructure

the activity. She did not notice it because she felt uncomfortable after the lesson and also in the stimulated recall. For this reason, she did not want to watch herself in the video, but often just listened, turned her head away from the computer screen, and forwarded the recording frequently. Because I realised that she would not discover the specific drawbacks of her instructional decisions through careful watching, I tried to direct her to the critical aspect and then shared my evaluation with her: “The problem that I had was, and if I were a student, I probably wouldn’t have understood what I have to do”. Her last utterance in the excerpt may suggest that I was not entirely successful in conveying my feedback, but it may also indicate that she actually did not expect what is commonly understood as a role play but a lively conversation enriched with some details: For the same lesson part she criticised her learners for not keeping eye contact and conduct speaking tasks in a mechanical way with little signs of engagement:

I’m tired of reminding for each speaking task: ‘You should look to your audience. You should listen to each other. This is not just for English but in real life. You should listen to. You should show that you’re interested in what the other person is talking about.’ And I’m really tired of making these warnings. And reminding this all the time. (.) I believe as a teacher I try to emphasize it. But now in this module I started, they are at intermediate level. And (.) I can’t repeatedly/ I shouldn’t, I just show them the way. And after then they will choose, they will decide to do or not. I want them to be more autonomous. And sometimes, as teachers we always criticise how to make learners more autonomous. But if as a teacher I show them the way, they should find their way. I don’t want to, ‘It is OK, do this. If you do this, it would be better.’ I’m really (.) fed up (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice).

With a brief outlook on the sections below on the functions of reflective practice (Section 4.4.3.), this excerpt shows that reflective practice provides teachers with opportunities to express their dissatisfaction with experiences in their professional practice. Remarkably, Alice expresses her anger in a stretch of language with relatively little pauses compared to the previous excerpt showing the discussion with the researcher.

As we will see in the next section, Fiona substituted the first part of the lesson (Exercise Reading A). Alice projected the questions on the screen with the IWB, but then asked her learners to give a definition of app and about their own use of apps, and gave an example of an app she used herself. In other words, she pointed to the questions in the coursebook, but did not benefit from them even though her questions covered the

content of the coursebook questions to great extent. Asked for her rationale to follow this exploitation, she seemed to be unaware of the problem of first directing learners to the questions, but then not using them:

But I didn't do it on purpose. I just opened the overhead projector [i.e. turned on the IWB]. So, there is the reflection [the projected questions]. I'm sure that students didn't focus on it. (.) Is it a problem? Maybe I just wrote the meaning. It's not their main focus at that moment, or is it? (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice)

In the stimulated recall, we also discussed that she asked for a definition of app, but, when her learners did not come up with one, she gave her own definition. She commented that she wrote her own definition “because I knew that. I sometimes ask questions that I know my students won't answer”. When asked why she then asked her learners, she replied: “Just (.) mhm maybe one of them can do it. With the hope of (.)”. Requesting an evaluation if she would change the first part of the lesson, her response encouraged me to make a more general remark on lesson planning and practice:

Alice: (.) Uhm (.) Again I would (.) give some (.) lifelike examples. Again I would show my mobile phone. What applications I have downloaded. I would ask them what applications they have on their mobile phones. But maybe I didn't need to write a definition. (.) But is it a big deal? I don't know. When you ask me such questions, I feel like it's (.) uhm/ sometimes I do it unconsciously. I just wrote them. Does everything have to have a meaning? Should everything have a purpose? Everything, everything we say, everything we write, everything we do? Do they need to have a purpose?

Researcher: (.) OK, I see what you mean. But when we, that's my philosophy, when we do something in class, and whatever we do, it should have, it should contribute to the learners' learning.

Alice: Hmh. (.) I agree with that. (.) But can you control everything?

Researcher: No, you can't control everything. (.)

Alice: I agree with the philosophy, but (.) ehm (.) I can't catch up with all those (.) I see it as detail but you see it as the main point for you.

Researcher: Uh, no, no. (.) But it's/ for me, for example, lesson beginning is something very important. (.) Because eh, I mean a good lesson beginning obviously can make a lesson good while a bad one can spoil a lesson completely.

Alice: Mhm, OK.

Researcher: That's just why I asked. (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice)

The stimulated recall session with Alice for the fourth lesson was by far the longest (approximately 90 minutes), stretched over two days, and we discussed a lot of details of the lesson as well as aspects of teaching beyond the lesson. The atmosphere could be described as somehow tense on the first day, and it can surely be concluded that Alice's private problems and her dissatisfaction with the lesson did not make it easy to address problematic areas fully and adequately. As obvious in the excerpt above, I unwillingly – because I did not want to bring her in a situation in which she would have to defend her teaching - left the position of the neutral facilitator by commenting critically and sharing my own understandings of teaching, which, of course, do not have more validity than those of the participants. Consequently, Alice labelled me as “the researcher who has a very critical point of view” in the stimulated recall journal for this session, saw herself as someone who defended some of her instructional decisions and criticised others, and characterised the stimulated recall session as “by far the most triggering to that time” (Stimulated Recall Journal 4 Alice). Notably, she expressed that she saw a learning process she was involved in because she started to question the reasons and rationales behind her actions. In spite of the distinct atmosphere the stimulated recall was carried out, Alice claimed that

I didn't face any challenge. It was even one of the most beneficial sessions because I felt like I reflected on my procedures as a teacher not only by watching my video, but also by thinking over my own learning. At the end of this observation, I learned another aspect of reflection process. Our responsibility as a teacher is not just to know how to teach best, but to raise awareness over own meta-cognitive processes that prove why we follow those ways in our teaching (Stimulated Recall Journal 4 Alice).

In other words, the reflective practice initialised a process in which Alice abstracted from the concrete examples in her lesson and started to think from a more general perspective on what instructional practice actually includes. Her concluding remarks in the stimulated recall journal then shows that she had started to realise her difficulties in exploiting or adapting the coursebook components to structure her lessons in a more coherent way:

More specifically, (...) I would like to find ways to make the tasks more relevant to each other. This is one of the biggest and even the fossilised weakness I have. When I watched the video, I saw that the students could have been clearer and done much

better if they had found the transitions between tasks more meaningful. This was what I was supposed to do, though (Stimulated Recall Journal 4 Alice).

To conclude this section about Alice's reflections about her own lesson, I shall address the way she introduced the listening tasks in the coursebook (Exercise Listening A; see Table 22). She told her learners to read the rubric for Exercise A and Exercise B before playing the recording, so she initially seemed to restructure the activity by combining both listening exercises. However, she then conducted the two exercises separately by playing the recording for Exercise A and check, and then playing the recording and check for Exercise B (so that I did not identify her procedure as an adaptation). She was apparently not aware of the procedure she followed, but she explained that she was in a rush just to finish the lesson because the class hour was about to be over and it was the last activity on the coursebook double page.

4.3.4.2. Lesson 4: Fiona's Exploitations and Reflections

Table 23 summarises the adaptations in Fiona's fourth lesson.

Table 23

Adaptations Realised by Fiona (Lesson 4)

	Adaptations	Focus
1.	substituting: instead of Exercise Reading A, learners asks and answer their own questions related to apps; activity partly as whole class, partly as pair work	process
2.	exploiting: additional step in the reading task to make the matching task less complex for the learners	language
3.	restructuring: exercise made linguistically and cognitively less challenging	language/ process

Table 23 shows three adaptations were realised, two of them (Number 1 and 3) major in scope because in the first adaptation a component in the book was completely substituted, and in the third adaptation the task complexity is modified because the words the definitions have to be matched to were provided by Fiona in random order; the learners did not have to identify the words in the reading texts. Taking the instructions in the Teacher's Book (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, p. TB 32) into consideration, the adaptation *exploitation* appears to be minimal because the coursebook authors suggest teachers to have learners read through the profile and underline unknown words. So, the difference is that Fiona had her students underline key

information that she then documented on the board and utilised when she later checked the multiple matching reading task.

While Fiona did not seem to perceive the first adaptation as significant in the pre-lesson interview and post-lesson journal, she reasoned in the stimulated recall that her books-closed approach may be more motivating and relevant for her learners due to their interest in smartphones and apps. At the end of this lesson part, her learners reported what they had discussed with their partners and Fiona asked some extra questions. According to Fiona, this actually extended the pair work, but it allowed her to check her learners' accuracy, which may be important as similar questions were likely to be asked in the speaking exams of the programme. Additionally she remarked that this was a spontaneous decision because "I never plan such things in detail. I always plan a general draft of my lesson" (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Fiona).

The second adaptation was a spontaneous decision she made due to the great amount of information in the reading texts (five people's profiles and eight app descriptions), i.e. her adaptation was according to the principle of simplification. Also Fiona's third adaptation apparently simplified the task of finding words in the text which have the same meaning as definitions given. However, Fiona did not modify the exercise to lower complexity but to save time; as she wanted to cover the following speaking and listening tasks, she had decided spontaneously on this modification. Weighing her learners' level against the length of the coursebook lesson she reasoned:

They are at intermediate level. They might do such activities easily. But they have some problems in doing this. (.) If we do this discussion and listening part, it will take too much time I thought. That's why I wrote them (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Fiona).

Evaluating her lesson, Fiona expressed satisfaction in the journals and stimulated recall session. Notably, in the stimulated recall session, we did not discuss how she exploited the coursebook components to great extent. Rather, the discussions covered topics like how to handle wrong student answers, how to deal with wrong student answers or dictionary use in the classroom.

4.3.5. Lesson 5

The fifth lesson's (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, pp. 54-55, Unit 5b) main focus is on writing informal emails to give directions and to make arrangements and

suggestions. The lesson stretches over a double page and starts with a speaking activity in which the learners are given the roles of a stranger asking for directions and asking for clarification and of a resident giving directions. The speaking activity was not observed but carried out beforehand – in Fiona’s class by her partner.

The writing task following the speaking task starts with an email in which Beata, a foreign friend, informs the receiver that she is going to visit the receiver’s city to attend a seminar. Beata informs about the date of her stay, the location of the seminar, the times she is available to meet the receiver, and she asks for a museum she may visit during her stay. The learners are asked to read the mail and to choose out of a list of eight functions (e.g. making suggestions, congratulating, expressing enthusiasm, complaining) those functions that can be expected in a reply to Beata (making suggestions concerning a museum to visit, expressing enthusiasm, giving directions, making arrangements) (Exercise Writing A). Then, the learners read a reply written by Amy, and they need to identify which of the functions in Exercise Writing A are included, and if all information requested is included – Amy’s email lacks a suggestion concerning a museum to visit (Exercise Writing B). In Exercise Writing C two excerpts of a mail are given, and the learners need to identify which excerpt is more suitable and where it needs to be incorporated in Amy’s email. The last component in the lesson in the coursebook consists of the actual writing task. The learners are asked to write an email to Beata. The rubric is given here completely because it was object to adaptation in Alice’s lesson:

Imagine that Beata is a friend of yours and is visiting your city. Read the writing task in activity A again, look at the map below and write an email responding to her. You can use Amy’s email as a model, but you mustn’t copy it. Use your own ideas and phrases giving directions from the speaking activity (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, p. 55).

A TIP box refers the learners to three different pages in the coursebook where they can find information about informal emails (e.g. useful phrases, punctuation), planning the writing of informal emails and the appropriate layout.

The coursebook exploitations realised by Alice and Fiona are documented in Table 24.

Table 24

Coursebook Exploitations (Lesson 5)

Course of activities in the coursebook	Key events in Alice's lesson	Key events in Fiona's lesson
Introduction to lesson content: Speaking role play, in which students ask for and give directions; useful phrases are provided in boxes [Not observed]		Fiona plays hangman with her learners introducing "accommodation", "advice", "congratulating" (key vocabulary of Exercise Writing A); she elicits collocations and uses L1 to check meanings (6:48) (supplementing: a game is used to introduce key vocabulary).
Part of an email, in which Beata, a foreign friend tells the receiver that she is going to be in her/his city and wants to meet him/her up. Beata also requests a recommendation for a museum; learners have to choose functions from a list to be included in the reply (Exercise Writing A)	After some chatting with her learners, Alice guides them to Exercise Writing A; she tells them not to read the functions, but to read the mail from Beata, and that she will ask some questions (1:51). After asking the students if they have finished, Alice starts the recording of reading text (0:35). Alice asks comprehension questions like "Who's writing this email?" She writes Beata's requests on the board (2:11). Alice guides her learners to the functions in Exercise Writing A and asks what functions students would use in a reply; after some learner feedback and	Fiona reads the functions in Exercise Writing A and checks meaning by eliciting examples and using L1 (2:04). Fiona points to email in Exercise Writing A and asks some comprehension questions; she uses the electronic pencil in the IWB to highlight parts in the text (1:42). Fiona asks her learners to identify the two things asked in the mail; Fiona collects the answers on board (1:52). Fiona paraphrases the actual task of Exercise Writing A and asks which functions should be included; answer check with IWB (1:13)

explanations in L1 Alice goes through functions and clicks (on the IWB) the ones her learners consider necessary (2:45).

The learners identify functions used in a reply presented and check if requested information has been included completely (Exercise Writing B)

Alice points to the email in Exercise Writing B; after clarifying writer and receiver, she tells her learners to read and that she will ask some questions afterwards (1:31).

Fiona points to the email in Exercise Writing B and reads the instruction. She reminds her learners of requested functions (from Exercise Writing A) and writes them on the board (1:23).

After asking her learners if they have finished, Alice starts the recording of reading text (1:13).

Fiona asks her learners to identify the functions; they do the task silently (2:02).

Alice asks for unknown words, a learner asks for the meaning of 'shift' (0:26)

When checking Exercise Writing B, Fiona ticks the functions included in the email on the board and crosses the ignored one (1:28).

Alice paraphrases the rubric for Exercise Writing B and checks the answers; while talking about some use of L1 to clarify *making arrangements*; use of the IWB (3:34)

Learners are presented two email excerpts and are asked to choose one to complete the email in Exercise Writing B, to decide on where to include it and to give reasons why the other paragraph is not suitable (Exercise Writing C)

Alice paraphrases the rubric of Exercise Writing C. Her learners read silently (1:11).

Fiona paraphrases the rubric of Exercise Writing C. Her learners start working silently, then some learners work in pairs (1:36).

After her learners have finished, Alice asks which paragraph is more suitable; her learners hesitate, Alice uses L1 to clarify. Some confusion about *suitable/not suitable*. Alice does not ask where to include the suitable excerpt (1:05) (**subtracting: where to include the excerpt is not checked**).

Fiona checks the answer. She does not ask where to include the suitable excerpt (**subtracting: where to include the excerpt is not checked**) (0:54).

Learners are asked to write a reply (an informal email) to Beata taking a city map provided in the coursebook into consideration; other pages in the coursebook containing advice on how to write an informal email are referred to in a TIP box (Exercise Writing D)

Alice directs her learners to Exercise Writing D. Pointing to the map, she asks questions like: “Do we know these places?” “Do they make sense for us?” Then Alice asks her learners to close their book and tells them to imagine that Beata is their friend and wants to visit them in Kahramanmaraş (the location of the school). She writes information about Beata’s trip and the students on the board (cf. Figure 10 below). After that, Alice tells her learners to open their coursebooks and take the emails as models, but not to copy and paste. After her learners have started, she points to the pages related to the TIPs and makes some clarifications (10:24) **(rewriting: the content of a writing task is changed by using a different localisation and information to be used by the learners).**

While her learners write individually Alice monitors scarcely; at times students ask for help or whisper. Towards the end of the class hour, Alice says to the researcher: “I will give them some more time after the break and I will give instant feedback.” Then she stops the lesson. (12:32)

Fiona reads the first half of the rubric to Exercise Writing D, then points to the map; she provides her learners with ideas where they could work and reminds them of task details (what Beata required in her mail/functions to include). Then, she refers to the TIP box with related pages on how to write emails, gives a time limit of 15 minutes and tells her learners that she will collect their writings. She monitors initially (4:13). Fiona gives a break; during the break the researcher remains for 3 minutes observing that her learners keep on writing (15:15).

While in the previous four observations Alice’s lessons were always significantly longer, in this lesson the durations differ only slightly (Alice’s lesson: 41 minutes; Fiona’s lesson: 38 minutes). Both teachers reported unintentionally omitting a

component in Exercise Writing C. While Fiona supplemented an activity leading into but not modifying the course of activities in the coursebook, Alice rewrote the actual writing task, i.e. she decided on a major change that, however, did not affect the procedures to be followed by the students in completing the writing task.

4.3.5.1. Lesson 5: Alice's Exploitations and Reflections

Table 25 summarises the adaptations in Alice's fifth lesson.

Table 25

Adaptations Realised by Alice (Lesson 5)

Adaptations	Focus
1. subtracting: where to include the excerpt is not checked	process
2. rewriting: the content of a writing task is changed by using a different localisation and information to be used by the learners	language

Regarding Alice's second adaptation, she explicated before the lesson that she intended to make the task "more meaningful and relevant" (Pre-Lesson Interview 5 Alice) instead of using the map in the coursebook which "may mean nothing for my learners" (Post-Lesson Journal Alice 5). More precisely, she argued that using the map *can be a good activity for finding or giving an address. This kind of map can be used for some other tasks. OK, now you can say you're on the Canal Street (a street shown on the map). You want to go to park. How can you get to there? (.) This is a good activity for this. But it says that 'Beata is your friend. And she is visiting your city.' But this is not the map of my city* (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Alice).

For that reason she created a new context by deploying the principles of localisation and personalisation: Beata, the coursebook character would visit the learners in Kahramanmaraş (the learners' residence), and the learners were given specific information concerning their availability (see Figure 10)

Beata is visiting you in K.Maraş	→ You are a student at KSÜ
→ Coming on the 2 nd of May	→ You have a part time job at Piazza
→ Leaving on the morning of the 4 th	→ You work between 3pm-7pm
→ Attending a conference at KSÜ	→ You suggest her to meet every day at Osmanlı Café
→ She will be free both evenings after 8 pm	
→ She wants to see <u>the museum</u> downtown	→ You suggest her to visit <u>the castle</u>
the castle	the museum

Figure 10. Whiteboard work for Exercise Writing D (Alice Lesson 5)

As seen in Figure 10, Alice localised the writing task by setting the scene in Kahramanmaraş (the learners' residence) referring to the university (KSÜ), a local shopping mall (Piazza), a café popular with students (Osmanlı Café) and the castle of Kahramanmaraş, which she added at a learner's suggestion during the lesson. She also personalised as her learners were assigned to write in their real role as university students, and additionally they were assumed to have a part time job. This means, Alice transformed the coursebook writing task into a more guided writing task because the information provided guided her learners towards a more specific outcome compared to the writing task in the coursebook.

In the stimulated recall, she said that she usually gave writing for homework, but this time she decided to have her learners write in class. As shown in Table 24, I did not observe the following lesson in which her learners finished the writing task and Alice gave feedback. She reported that she had sat next to each learner who had finished while others were still on task, read their writings and gave immediate feedback. She evaluated this positively:

They saw the mistake immediately. And they said, 'Uh, how did I write it?' They saw their mistake at that time. So they changed it. I didn't correct their mistake. I said, 'What is the problem here? Do you see? Can you see it?' They observed their own mistake (Reflective Practice Session 5).

Due to her adaptation, she had only to deal with grammatical problems, not with content. As she said, this procedure was possible because the course programme was less dense compared to the previous module (in which the Lessons 1-3 were conducted).

An aspect I dealt with in the stimulated recall was how she initialised the rewriting of the activity. I shared my evaluation that her approach was somehow imposing because

she claimed in the lesson that the map given in the coursebook was not meaningful for her learners. Alice response and the following interaction are given below:

Alice: Stefan, instead of saying that they don't make any sense for you, I could just write the context on the board: would it be something uh (.) better? (.) Not better but (.) I don't know, it's (.) I feel like I'm sharing my own ideas with my students. I don't feel it's imposing something. This is my idea. They may say something different. This is their idea. They may make comments on the task, on the topic. Sometimes they do it. 'Teacher, this topic is very ridiculous. It's not OK for our age. We don't find it meaningful. Where are we going to use this uhm (.) topic in our lives?' I don't know. Is it a part of being professional?

Researcher: (.) What?

Alice: Is it a part of being professional? Not giving our ideas.

Researcher: (4 sec.) I think teachers should give their ideas, of course. (.) I mean, in this point here, uhm (.) we shouldn't forget that there is always a power relation between teachers and students. And I mean you guided them very much towards saying 'this is very meaningless'. And I don't know if a student would dare to say, 'No, it's meaningful. Let's do it that way.'

Alice: I don't think they would think that much. (...) They won't think about it. They are so focused on the activity. (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Alice).

This example from the stimulated recall indicates that reflecting on instructional practice may not always be consistent. On the one hand, Alice defended her adaptation as informed by previous experience of learners' refusal of coursebook materials ("Sometimes they do it"), on the other hand, when I suggested that her decision may be imposing taking teacher-learners power relations into consideration, she claimed that learners would not reflect on content because they were focused on the activity. The example also shows the dialogic nature of the stimulated recall sessions in which I participated rather as a critical friend than researcher.

Three other aspects are worth reporting from Alice's reflection of the lesson because they show how she interacted with and interpreted the coursebook materials. First, differently from the coursebook, which first provides a list of functions and then Beata's email with a request, Alice started with Beata's email and then had a look at the functions. However, since both the functions and the email belong to the same exercise, Alice's decision does not seem to count as an adaptation particularly because the Teacher's Book suggests starting to "Ask Ss [students] to read through the writing task

and check understanding” (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, p. TB 54), i.e. her – as she explicitly stated in the post-lesson journal - deliberate approach to clarify the email fully before dealing with the functions is actually in line with the coursebook authors’ intention. Alice’s second objection refers to the reply by Amy, who is introduced in Exercise Writing B as a friend of Beata’s:

In the first writing the sender of the e-mail (Beata) is introduced as a foreign friend of yours, however, in the reply mail the students encounter another character Amy. Even as a teacher I spent some time to comprehend the task fully. I believe that if any teacher who teaches this part doesn’t clarify the procedures for the learners, this task, which is definitely not difficult for intermediate learners, may turn into something very complicated (Post-Lesson Journal 5 Alice).

The third issue Alice dealt with explicitly in her reflections is concerned with the questions which functions given in Exercise Writing A should be considered in a reply to Beata’s email. Alice expressed disagreement with the coursebook in the discussion with the researcher:

Alice: *Ehm (.) aslında (.) burada personel bir şey soruyor (...). Benim öğrencim diyebilir ki ‘ben de offering accommodation yapabilirim.’*

Researcher: *Sen Beata’ya cevap verseydin, hangi fonksiyonları kullanırdın?*

Alice: *İşte, mesela ben olsam buna accommodation derdim. (.) O zaman yine öğrencinin önce bunu okuduktan sonra buna cevap vermesi lazım. Yine sıralanmasında hata var. Şimdi ben bunu hiç okumadan bunu görsem, dedim ki bunu da yaparım, bunu da yaparım. Tavsiye de veririm. Hatta complaining bile yapabilirim yani. Hiç belli olmaz. (...).*

Researcher: *Ama neyle ilgili şikayet edeceksin?*

Alice: *Ya mesela, çok zorlarsam bulurum ben (laughs). Şehre bak geliyorsun ama bizde public transportation da sıkıntılı. Taksiyle gel falan. Bir şeylerden şikayet ederim.*

Alice: *You know (.) actually (.) she asks something personal here (...). My student may say, ‘I can also offer her accommodation’.*

Researcher: *If you answered Beata, which functions would you use?*

Alice: *You see, for example I’d offer accommodation. (.) The student first needs to give a reply after reading this (Beata’s email). There is a mistake in the sequence. When I saw this (Beata’s email) without reading that (Amy’s reply), I*

would do this and that. I would make a suggestion. I may even complain. You never know. (...).

Researcher: *But what will you complain about?*

Alice: *For instance, if I force myself, I find something (laughs). 'Look at that city but our public transportation is troublesome. Take a taxi' or so. I do complain about something (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Alice).*

While the aspects she criticised in the excerpt above did not affect her lesson, the task in Exercise Writing C led to some confusion: According to the coursebook authors, Amy had forgotten to make a suggestion concerning a museum. However, Alice had perceived Amy's offer to meet in a café (according to the coursebook authors an arrangement) as a suggestion. She discussed this problem and concluded that she should have adapted the coursebook: "Instead of following the instruction of the book (*instead of insisting on the function*), I could just say which paragraph is missing in the reply. After they found the answer, I could ask which function this paragraph matches with" (Post-Lesson Journal 5 Alice, emphasis in the original). The stimulated recall then provided her with the opportunity to review her teaching more critically leading her to the conclusion that her instruction to the exercise was not suitable:

I was a slave of the book at that part (...) It shows us that sometimes we criticise the learners not learning or not doing well in class. But it can be about us. I'm not providing good instructions, so they can't answer. It doesn't show they don't know the answer. They know (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Alice).

This instance is insightful as it shows that the stimulated recall can add a dimension to a teacher's reflection of her instructional practice because it is based on visual evidence provided by the video. In journal writing teachers have to resort to their memory which may not uncover aspects noticed in other forms of reflective practice.

It should, finally, also be noted that, similarly to Lesson 4, Alice did not perceive Lesson 5 as effective. Directly after the stimulated recall, she expressed her unsureness of how the reflective practice would contribute to her teaching, and she said that she had learned a lot but was not able to put the things she had learned into practice. More specifically, she reasoned:

I noticed that I have the ability (actually a disability) to make a relatively simple task a very challenging one. During the lesson I mostly can't observe it. But, through this study I have realized that not the task or the language itself, but the way I teach it might make things inextricable (Reflective Practice Journal 5 Alice).

She also said that the time (towards the end of the academic year) would be detrimental insofar as both her mood and the mood of the students would not favour effective teaching and learning, and it was obvious that she did not look forward to the final observation. Her feelings were also noticed by Fiona who noted that “Alice was very tense. She always put blames on herself” (Reflective Practice Journal 5 Fiona), and we suggested her in the reflective practice session of Lesson 5 to plan Lesson 6 with Fiona collaboratively, an offer that she welcomed as an opportunity to

talk about the benefits of such cooperation between us. We can talk about whether it worked or not, why we chose those methods for the tasks, what differences we observed in our classes although we used the same lesson plan, what differences there were in our students’ reactions, and how we felt at the end. We can even discuss if we are reflective enough to accept this kind of cooperation with different colleagues in any institution to gain insight in our teaching. Because I’m not very sure of myself about it (Reflective Practice Journal Alice 5).

4.3.5.2. Lesson 5: Fiona’s Exploitations and Reflections

Table 26 summarises the adaptations in Fiona’s fifth lesson.

Table 26

Adaptations Realised by Fiona (Lesson 5)

Adaptations	Focus
1. supplementing: a game is used to introduce key vocabulary	process
2. subtracting: where to include the excerpt is not checked	language

Table 26 shows that Fiona decided to supplement a game (hangman) to introduce some of the vocabulary denoting functions in Exercise Writing A. She had planned to implement the game five minutes before lesson beginning. In both, the post-lesson journal and the stimulated recall she expressed her doubts about the relevance of this lesson start regarding the content of the lesson. The driving forces for her were that playing hangman was potentially motivating and her learners’ requests to play games in class. She also wanted to revise collocations such as *offer accommodation* or *give advice*. In the reflective practice session, when Alice asked Fiona about why she had selected certain function words for the game, Fiona explained that she had used *advice* and *congratulating* because the learners often mispronounced the words,

accommodation because her learners did not know how to use the word and *arrangement* because it was going to become a main function in the emails in the lesson. Her adaptation along with the selection of words to be covered in the hangman game aimed at facilitating learners' successful management of subsequent coursebook components.

As documented in Table 26, Fiona wrote the functions to be expected in Amy's email on the whiteboard, and then she put a tick to those ones that were considered by Amy. This procedure was not suggested in the Teacher's Book, but it was apparently effective – from my own perspective as the observer - as her learners were able to follow the lesson content and later to identify the paragraph to be added to Amy's email (Exercise Writing C). In the stimulated recall, Fiona's evaluation was in line with mine, and she additionally pointed to the outcomes of the actual writing task as evidence:

I think it's good because when I read their mails, the mails they wrote, they clearly understood each function and did everything exactly. The same with their writing, the sample writing. And only two of my students forget to make a suggestion. Their writing was really good. Their emails were very good, so I think it worked here (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Fiona).

Fiona also said that she had not planned this procedure or her whiteboard writings: "I never plan such things (...). I just plan a rough draft of my lesson" (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Fiona).

Finally, unlike Alice, Fiona did not localise the content but used the map given in the coursebook. She agreed in the stimulated recall and the reflective practice session that localising may make the writing task more relevant for her learners but pointed to the practicality of the map in her discussion with Alice:

Alice: This is not the map of my city. The students' city. But this is just our imagination.

Fiona: Yeah, but I thought like you before. (.) Before I did the activity. But I didn't change it. But when I checked my students' writing, they really achieved good things. They can give directions easily by using this map. So, I agree it's irrelevant for them. But I believe it provides a good line, a good framework for them (Reflective Practice Session 5).

Generating an alternative, she then expressed the idea of changing the names of the places in the map (e.g. *Italian Restaurant, Bowling alley*) with name of places in the immediate environment of her learners.

To sum up, Fiona's lesson ran smoothly, in Alice's words her teaching was "very straightforward and result oriented" (Reflective Practice Journal Alice 5) and her only deliberate adaptation (supplementing a game to introduce or revise vocabulary) was apparently functional as it served to put the script foreseen by the coursebook into practice. Fiona, however, critically commented on this in her last reflection of Lesson 5:

My class was easy to follow. Everything is usually clear. I know what to do and my students know what to do. But I put great effort to achieve it. It seems a problem. I must give them more chance to get the responsibility of their own learning (Reflective Practice Journal 5 Fiona).

Fiona viewed classroom interaction as guided by her instructional decisions and, since she followed basically the coursebook, by the coursebook materials. At the same time, she questioned if such an approach would contribute to learner autonomy.

4.3.6. Lesson 6

The sixth lesson differed from the other lessons as it was prepared collaboratively by Alice and Fiona. The decision to organise this collaboration was made due to the discomfort Alice had experienced (cf. Section 4.3.5.1.).

The lesson is "Task modules 7 & 8" (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, p. 130). The book contains six tasks in the back parts of the book each related to two modules. Usually addressing a combination of language skills, the tasks "focus on language skills and link the language lesson with real-life needs that the Ss [students] will face in their everyday life outside the classroom" (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, unpaginated page, Section Task, para. 1).

The task in Lesson 6 is about the environmental issue of water use and water saving. In Exercise A, the learners are given a chart in which the average water consumption is given for nine different activities such as having a bath, toilet flush or car wash. The consumption is given in gallons (per minute or load), and for some kinds of water use, the consumption without the application of water-saving devices is given additionally. Learners need to report what kind information is given and what pieces of information surprise them. In Exercise B, four open-ended questions are given, three of them testing the learners' inferential comprehension and one question requiring an evaluation (cf. Freeman, 2014). The questions do not check comprehension of textually explicit content: For example, the second question reads "Does washing up by hand save more

water than using a dishwasher?” (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, p. 130). The answer cannot be given straight-forwarded because the amount used for washing-up is given per minute and for dishwashers in load in the chart in Exercise A, so that some calculation is necessary. Then, in Exercise C, six statements are given, for example “Fixing a leaky toilet can save up to 200 gallons of water a month” (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, p. 130). Learners are first asked to decide if the statements are true or false, and then they check their decisions by listening to a talk about the topic. In the next Exercise (Exercise D), the learners are requested to

Talk in pairs. The average person uses about 80-100 gallons of water daily. Look at the chart above again and discuss how much water you use as an individual and what kind of household activities make you consume more water. Do you need to make changes to save water? Discuss and decide how (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, p. 130).

In the final Exercise E, the learners are invited to report what they have learned about themselves and what changes they are going to make to reduce water consumption. The Teacher’s Book suggests teachers to recap the main points of the lesson in terms of content (using and saving water), language (tenses and specific structures used, e.g. gerunds) and relevance of the task for the learners (raising awareness of importance of water consumption, practicing discussion and presentation skills).

Table 27 shows how Alice and Fiona exploited the coursebook in the lesson. Adaptations are highlighted.

Table 27

Coursebook Exploitations (Lesson 6)

Course of activities in the coursebook	Key events in Alice's lesson	Key events in Fiona's lesson
Introduction to lesson content: Learners are asked what kind of information a chart about average daily water use gives and if they find the information surprising (Exercise A)	Alice points to chart, reads the title and asks what the chart is about. She collects learners' answers on the whiteboard. After pointing to the figures in the chart, Alice converts gallon into litre. Then she asks her learners to read the chart without giving a task. Her learners read silently. Alice checks for unknown vocabulary, then asks her learners what information they surprises. A class discussion takes place (9:19).	Without reading the rubric to Exercise A explicitly, Fiona asks her learners what the chart is about; she converts gallon into litre and then asks some comprehension questions; after that she asks what the most surprising info is (4:31)
Learners answer open ended comprehension questions related to the chart in Exercise A (Exercise B).	Alice asks her learners to read and answer the questions silently (4:25). An answer check with discussion about the issues dealt with in the questions follows (6:33).	Fiona asks her learners to read and answer the questions silently (5:46). While checking Exercise B, question 1 "What does it depend on?" is not answered; while answering question 4, Fiona explains "non water-saving devices and appliances" and answers the question herself (3:04).
Learners are given six statements about how to save water. Learners decide if the statements are true or false (Exercise C).	Alice paraphrases the instruction, then her learners read silently and make their guesses; the guesses are not checked (2:52).	Fiona asks her learners to read the sentences and to mark the statements true or false. She explains "leaky toilet". Her learners work individually; some of them start whispering while being on task (2:42). Fiona reads the statements in Exercise C, and her learners say 'true' or 'false' (0:48)

Learners listen to a talk and check if their guesses are true or false (Exercise C).	The listening is played twice, and then the answers are checked; her learners are asked to compare their predictions and the results (6:53)	The listening is played twice, and then the answers are checked; Fiona asks her learners to report how many of their predictions were correct (5:49).
Learners discuss in pairs about own water consumption considering the information presented in the chart and consider changes in their own water consumption (Exercise D). Learners are asked to report what they have learned about their own water consumptions and (if any) changes they decide on (Exercise E).	Alice asks: "Can you guess how much does an average person spend in a day?" After some learners' guesses, one learner comes up with the correct answer (given in Exercise D); this learner is then asked to read the rubric to Exercise D; Alice then explains the activity by transforming the rubric into three questions, which she writes on the whiteboard (8:22). Alice paraphrases Exercise E and tells her learners to work in pairs; in the following minutes, she gives further instructions for clarification; the pair work is interrupted through a break (15:59)	Fiona says: "Read the instruction and tell me how much water you use a day". She elicits answers and then she writes three questions transforming the rubric to Exercise D on the whiteboard. Then she establishes groups and pairs and tells her learners to discuss the questions and later to report their results to the class; she asks the students to take notes (3:16)
	The students report their results (7:39) (restructuring/rewriting: combining Exercises D and E are combined and the rubric to Exercise D is rewritten by transforming it into three questions).	Her learners start to discuss with their partners. The teacher walks around, monitors, and clears up the task. (9:42) Individual students report their results (4:25) restructuring/rewriting: combining Exercises D and E are combined and the rubric to Exercise D is rewritten by transforming it into three questions).

Given the fact that Alice and Fiona had collaboratively planned the lesson, it is not surprising that, by and large, they exploited the coursebook in a similar way. There are some differences in how the teachers introduced their learners into the tasks, and there is an adaptation concerning the discussion and presentation components of the lesson (Exercises D and E). Notably, the coursebook lesson as intended by the authors was not modified even if the adaptation realised is taken into consideration. Alice confirmed this repeatedly: "Actually we couldn't find something creative about this" (Pre-Lesson

Journal 6 Alice) and they deliberately selected the coursebook components “since all the skills were already integrated and there were enough number of activities” (Post-Lesson Journal 6 Alice). “With my partner, we decided to be bound to the instructions in the book. It is already a task, so we thought we didn’t need to do something extra as it is a task” (Stimulated recall Session 6 Alice). Fiona’s lesson (42 minutes) was remarkably shorter than Alice’s (63 minutes). As evidenced in Table 27, all lesson stages were longer, especially those parts in which she explained the procedures the learners would need to follow.

One adaptation was identified which can be subdivided into two adaptations (restructuring and rewriting). As the adaptations, however coincide and are directed towards the same components in the coursebook material, they are subsumed under one adaptation.

4.3.6.1. Lesson 6: Alice’s Exploitations and Reflections

Planned collaboratively, Alice reported in the pre-lesson journal that she felt much more confident and she was curious to see what differences there would be in conducting the lesson between her and her partner. Since Fiona had given the lesson before Alice did, Alice was able to receive feedback from Fiona. Alice had some doubts concerning the vocabulary in the task, which she regarded as potentially confusing for her learners, but Fiona had told her that her learners were able to guess items of vocabulary. Still, Alice said: “But in my class (.) uhm I will ask the vocabularies and even the questions. If they don’t understand, I’m planning to give, to explain it in Turkish. And even write/ they may even check in their dictionaries” (Pre-Lesson Journal 6 Alice).

Alice’s main concerns before she conducted the lesson, however, were the content and the integration of skills in one lesson. She started the pre-lesson interview saying:

It’s about daily water usage. It might be interesting. It might be an interesting topic for the ones who pay the bills but I don’t think for the students. I don’t think it’s attractive for their level. (.) But they will learn something new, new vocabularies. And they may also learn something about themselves (Pre-Lesson Journal 6 Alice).

Later in the interview, she added:

Bir de burada şey var ya, household activities falan. Bu çocuklar, yani washing machine de şu washing up by hand falan, bu tarz aktiviteler o yüzden ilgilerini

çekmeyebilir. Yani bu aktiviteleri ne kadar yapıyorlar? Hani duş ve outdoor, toilet flush falan, OK. Bunlar zaten temel ihtiyaçlar, brush your teeth falan, ama (.) Ya bilmiyorum. Bakacağım ben de. Attractive olacak mı, olmayacak mı? (.) Olmak zorunda mı?

There is another point here, household activities and so on. The students, I mean washing machine and this washing up by hand and so on, these activities may not raise their interest. I mean how much are they involved in such activities? Having a shower and outdoor, toilet flush and so on. OK, they are basic needs, brush your teeth and so on (.) Well, I'm not sure. I'll see. Will it be attractive or not? Does it need to be attractive? (Pre-Lesson Journal 6 Alice).

In spite of doubting the attractiveness and relevance of the coursebook content, omitting the whole lesson was not an option for her because it was assigned in the curriculum and content, grammar and vocabulary covered in the lesson might be asked in the exams.

It is worth noting that Alice, after having gone through the reflective practice provided by the post-lesson journal, stimulated recall and stimulated recall journal, said in the reflective practice session that:

sometimes maybe we (.) direct our, I mean, at least for me, I direct the students saying that I didn't like the topic. (.) They feel it. They feel when I don't like the topic. (.) And probably they felt that (Reflective Practice Session 6).

She talks here about the danger of being imposing which had been dealt with extensively in Lesson 5 (Section 4.3.5.1.). While this aspect was not explicitly mentioned in the reflections surrounding her coursebook exploitation in Lesson 6, her statement indicates that she had started to apprehend her expressing disagreement with content topics in the coursebook as potentially affecting learners.

Alice's second concern was related to the integration of different skills (in the lesson: speaking, reading and listening). She described it as "going around the same issue like a hamster" (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Alice) and also felt that the time allocated for this task by the Programme Development Unit would not be sufficient. She also expressed doubts if her learners would be able to prepare themselves for the concluding speaking task as she regarded a variety of skills in a lesson challenging for learners. This was the reason for her and Fiona to conduct the lesson rather slowly without major adaptations.

Before reporting on Alice's views related to the only adaptation in the lesson, I will summarise some significant explanations and comments made by Alice. It should be noted that Alice refrained from *watching* the video during the stimulated recall but listened to it and fast-forwarded it frequently. For that reason, I had to give the impetus to reflect on parts of the lesson, which is actually not in line with the rationale behind stimulated recall as a reflective tool. The context of the following example is the check of Exercise B containing the question "Which activity saves more water, showering or taking a bath? What does it depend on?" (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, p. 130). The chart provides the information that 28-36 gallons are used for a full tub and 2.5 gallons per minute for a shower. So, to answer this question her learners need to indicate that the duration of the shower has to be taken into consideration. The answer check revealed that her learners had not considered the time aspect. The following excerpt from the data begins with Alice's comments on her attempt to clarify the question (to enhance readability abundant parts are excluded):

Alice: *I'm talking and talking and talking.*

Researcher: *I mean, they probably, either they didn't understand or they didn't say that (...) if you have a 10-minute shower, you will have used the same amount as if you have a bath.*

Alice: *I said 10 minute but I said/*

Researcher: *Yeah, yeah, but I think they didn't understand the relationship, what it depends on.*

Fiona: *Yes, yes, you're right, probably. We may have skipped this question. But Fiona said after her class, there was no problem about the (.) I asked her about those questions. Could they find the answers? But she said (.) there is no problem. Normally I might have skipped it but as we needed to follow the same way (.) Mhm, that was my plan, to skip it. Then she said there was no problem and I wanted to ask. Maybe, what is, I don't know what is confusing for (.) my explanation or my (.)*

Researcher: (...) *We could ask the students if you have a shower for ten minutes, how much water will you have used? Because then they see, uh 10 minutes: a shower is the same as (.) yeah.*

Alice: *Because when they see this, they think taking a shower saves more water. (...) I just wanted them to think more critically.*

Researcher: *For example, I didn't do the lesson. But if/ maybe next year I will do this lesson, probably I will ask them, if you have a shower for ten minutes, or maybe twelve minutes, so that there is more than a bath, how much water will you have spent? (...) Maybe I will ask this question at the very beginning or at the/ definitely before this.*

Alice: *To check whether they understand or not.*

Researcher: *Mhm (approving). (.)*

Alice: *But I could find this answer. (.) If I were them, teachers wouldn't have to make so much effort for me, I could get it.*

Researcher: *It's only one question.*

Alice: *Yes (laughs). (.) I think that you are a person that you believe students may find the answers. But we need to make them prepared. For the next step there is a question. And if we trigger them before, they may find it (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Alice).*

Alice noticed too much teacher talk but did not identify the actual problem of learners not having recognised to make an inference to answer the question. She responded to my impetus then by referring to Fiona's evaluation shared after her lesson, and reported her initial idea to omit the exercise. However, the recall of Fiona's positive report triggered her reflecting whether or not her explanation may be insufficient to provide her learners' understanding. I proposed the alternative of clarifying the issue by having the learners calculate the water consumption of a 10 or 12-minute shower and to compare it with the amount used for a bath. Alice objected first that this would be intellectually less challenging ("I just wanted them to think more critically") and then added that she, if she were a student, would have found the answer. In her last turn, she recognised that preparing her learners (by pre-reading activities) may enable learners to master challenging tasks. Within the same part of the stimulated recall session, Alice repeated her insight more explicitly claiming:

This is a perspective I got from you during this study. I mean, (.) if we help them [the learners], if we trust them, if we (.) uhm if we have a good warm-up stage, they may do it. It's not that they don't understand, they don't have the capacity or so. They just need to be prepared. You know for the exercise and work out we need to warm-up to do it well. The same issue (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Alice).

A similar instance was given in our discussion about Alice's exploitation of Exercise C, where her learners first had to guess if given statements were true or false, and then

to check their guesses in a listening task. Alice asked her learners to guess but did not request feedback from her learners before the listening. After the listening she asked her learners if their guesses had been right or wrong. I questioned her coursebook exploitation:

Researcher: *OK, one question that I have. (.) So you asked them to read and to predict. Then you played the recording. Then you checked. And then you asked them, 'were your predictions right or wrong?' Yes? (.) Yes. Can you think of other ways of doing it?*

Alice: *No.*

Researcher: *OK, I tell you, but this is my personal idea. And it's not, I mean, there is no right or wrong, of course. Ehm (.) I very probably would have done it in the following way: Maybe I would have read together, would have a student read the sentence, and then I asked students, 'Do you think it's true or false?' And maybe a little conversation about the things. (.) And, so everybody would have said, 'I think it's right or I think it's wrong.' And then I would have played the recording. I just asked myself. I mean, if I were the student, the teacher tells us to think if the statements are true or false. But then he or she doesn't check or ask our ideas. (.) Do you see the point? (.) But that's my comment. (.)*

Alice: *If we have a conversation for each of them, how much time may we need?*

Researcher: *Yeah, it takes time, yes. (.) And I also had the idea, if we do it, if we talk about it a little bit, it will be a pre-listening. Because we will use the language in the questions and this will be probably in the listening. Just (.)*

Alice: *Yeah, OK. I'm thinking now. (.)*

Researcher: *And I, that's my (.) my point.*

Alice: *Sure.*

Researcher: *It would become I guess a little bit more meaningful (.)*

Alice: *But/*

Researcher: *If I as a teacher show that I'm interested in the students' beliefs about these statements. But OK (.)*

Alice: *Technically everything is/*

Researcher: *Because you asked only how many of your guesses were right. (.)*

Alice: *Yes, I asked that. (.) But the reason why I asked 'Read them and predict' (.) is (.) to help them to read and 'Please understand and comprehend the*

questions'. What you did was a kind of pre-listening. Mine was also a kind of pre-listening.

Researcher: *Yes.*

Alice: *But (.) definitely, it might be more meaningful in this way because we can talk, we can have a conversation. Maybe they may ask something unknown meaning. (.) But it takes a lot of time (laughs). And this is the end of the semester. (.) Anyway.*

Researcher: *Anyway.*

Alice: *That's something personal* (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Alice).

More than in the previous excerpt, the conversation was guided by me as my turns were remarkably longer and I proposed an alternative exploitation of the coursebook exercise: I definitely appear to be violating the role of the facilitating researcher and may actually be imposing (cf. my personal reflection on my own role in Section 5.6). However, I obviously attempted to initiate a reflective process in Alice which she was initially not willing to undertake (see her first answer “No”). I also intended to address a main issue I had been noticing in nearly all observations: the lack of real spoken interaction, i.e. learner talk going beyond reporting answers to questions asked in the coursebook. In the excerpt above three utterances by Alice are enlightened: She refers to time pressure (“If we have a conversation for each of them, how much time may we need?”), to functionality in terms of helping learners manage another task in the coursebook (“But the reason why I asked ‘Read them and predict’ is to help them to read and ‘Please understand and comprehend the questions’”) and to the time of the academic year when the main focus is on finishing the book (“But it takes a lot of time. And this is the end of the semester. Anyway”). Alice later explicated this aspect:

I felt very tired and students, they were also tired during the term (...) they feel like: OK, this task, we will do it like this. Then it will come the next part. We didn't have any energy left, enthusiasm (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Alice).

Apparently, the first and third arguments put forward by Alice are not driven by pedagogical considerations and the second one not exclusively.

I will now report on Alice's comments on the collaborate decision to realise the adaptation. The adaptation is shown in Table 28.

Table 28

Adaptation Realised by Alice (Lesson 6)

Adaptations	Focus
1. restructuring/rewriting: combining Exercises D and E are combined and the rubric to Exercise D is rewritten by transforming it into three questions	language/ process

As indicated in Table 28, Alice rewrote the rubric for Exercise D (see Section 4.3.6.) by transforming them into three questions. Figure 11 shows the three questions delivered to the learner group.

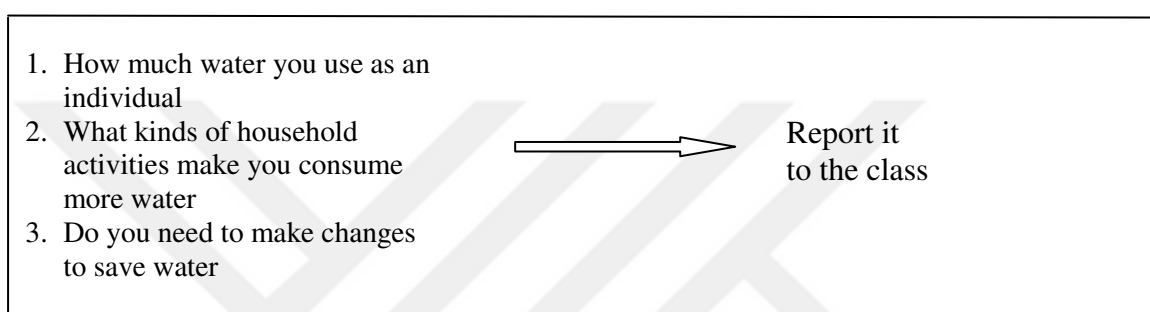


Figure 11. Whiteboard work for Exercise D and E (Alice Lesson 6)

From a general perspective, Alice justified the modification of the exercises as a response to a perceived weakness in her and Fiona's teaching "As you know we are actually we are not good at giving instructions, so (.) that day we talked about how to make instructions easy, easier for them" (Pre-Lesson Journal 6 Alice). More specifically related to the coursebook material, Alice explained in the stimulated recall that she could not make sense of Exercise E in which the learners are asked to report to the class what they have learned about themselves. She asked me:

Alice: (...) *This reporting issue made things harder. I still don't understand why the book wants this. (.) I'm still not sure. (.) Do you have an idea (.) about this?*

Researcher: *So you say, I mean, they discussed these questions with their partner. And then they tell what they said.*

Alice: *To be aware of myself. To be aware of the things about myself. Why should I talk to my friend? (4 sec.)*

Researcher: *I mean, probably the aim is to raise awareness about environmental issues.*

Alice: *Do we expect students, 'OK, my friend uses one gallon for, let's, say car wash. But I use two gallons. Hm, I realised it after we talked. I have found about myself that I use more water than the other people. So is that (.) I don't know. (.) I did but I'm still unsure. (.)*

Researcher: *Unsure of what?*

Alice: *The connection between part D and E.*

Researcher: *OK.*

Alice: *Why do I need to talk to my friend to be aware of (.) how much water I use?*

Researcher: *Hmm. (5 sec.)* (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Alice).

As I noted in the transcript of the stimulated recall session, I did not want to answer the questions but I wanted her to discover the rationale behind the activities. Instead, I suggested discussing the issue in the reflective practice session. Alice, then, examined the instructions in the Teacher's Book and found out that Exercise E aimed "to help Ss [students] think about their lifestyles and decide on the changes they need to make to save water" (Mitchell & Malkogianni, 2016, p. TB130). She commented:

Alice: *I didn't read* (laughs). *(.) Which part? E* (Alice reads the explanation in the Teacher's book). *"their lifestyle". (.) This is something general.*

Researcher: *But, for example, what changes do you need to make is here* (points to Exercise D) *and what changes are you going to make* (points to Exercise E). *So, there is a connection. But maybe not only to Exercise D, but to the whole lesson.*

Alice: *Yes, whole lesson. So, again this is too much. (...) Maybe we misunderstood the task. Maybe we said, 'Talk about this, then report what you have learned. This was something very different. (.) NOW I have realised it. (.) Alright.* (laughs). *(.) This was a very/ Am I right, this is a separate activity than this. We thought there is a connection between them. Talk and then you report what you have learned about.*

(...)

Alice: *'Bunu yapacağız, sonra report edeceğiz'. Ben/ şu anda o yüzden bana mantıklı gelmiyor. 'Biz bunu yaptık. Ama niye report ettik?' Zaten bunu çocuklar konuşuyordu. Bu çok başka bir (.) aktiviteymiş* (laughs). *Şu anda anladım. Ama olsun. Yine bence ondan sonra gerek yok yani böyle bir aktiviteye. (...) Bak, ben şu anda aydınlandım. (...) Evet, biz bunu birleştirmede aktivite biraz şey oldu. Normalde çocuklar bu yazdığım soruları zaten konuştular kendi aralarında. Ama farkındaysan sürekli şeyi sordular: Biz nasıl report edeceğiz? Biz nasıl*

report edeceğiz, dediler. So, ben zaten anlayamadım. Pair work yapıyoruz, niye report etsinler sınıfa?

Alice: 'We'll do this, later we'll report it'. I/ for that reason it doesn't make sense to me right now. 'We completed the task. Why shall we report it?' The students talked about that anyway. This is a completely different activity (laughs). Now I got it. Anyway, I still believe there is no need for such an activity. (...) Well, it now dawned on me. (...) Yes, when we combined this, the activity became a little bit like this: Normally the students talked to each other about the questions I wrote. But, if you have noticed, they asked, "How will we report this?" So, I didn't understand it anyway. We are doing pair work, why should they report it to the class (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Alice).

Until this clarification, Alice had not understood that her learners were assigned to report what they were going to do in terms of saving water after dealing with this topic in the whole lesson. In other words, the coursebook authors did not want her learners to repeat in Exercise E what they had talked about with their partners in Exercise D but to draw conclusions for their own lifestyles reviewing the information they had received throughout the lesson. Even though Alice seemed to gain an understanding of this coursebook rationale when she was reading the explanations in the Teacher's Book, she was not completely convinced of the meaningfulness of the coursebook materials. She stated, however, that she would not repeat her adaptation if she taught the same lesson again.

4.3.6.2. Lesson 6: Fiona's Exploitations and Reflections

Alice had reported that the teachers did not find the content topic of the lesson interesting, and this was explicitly confirmed by Fiona: "It was very boring. And I myself didn't like, I find it stupid in fact. There is no need. If I had a chance, I wouldn't do it" (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Fiona). She only enjoyed conducting the guessing/listening activity Exercise C because she perceived it as engaging for her learners. Before the stimulated recall session, she had the opportunity to watch the video with Alice's lesson and claimed that the unattractiveness of the topic had affected her learners' willingness to participate actively in the lesson: "I watched Alice's videos. And in her classes, the students didn't talk too much. They just gave short answers, too.

(...) So, I think her students didn't like the activity, too" (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Fiona).

As with Alice, I suggested that the guessing/listening activity Exercise C may have been made more communicative by having learners justify their guesses – in her lesson Fiona only had her learners say if they thought the statement was true or false. Fiona admitted that such an approach gave an "opportunity to speak, to practice" but, in her view, her exploitation "didn't create a problem. They did the activity. We laughed a little bit. So, if I say them guess whether it's true or false, then we did the listening. It's another way. But I preferred this one" (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Fiona).

I am examining now the only adaptation in the sixth lesson. Table 29 shows that it consisted of the collaboratively planned modification of Exercises D and E.

Table 29

Adaptation Realised by Fiona (Lesson 6)

Adaptations	Focus
1. restructuring/rewriting: combining Exercises D and E are combined and the rubric to Exercise D is rewritten by transforming it into three questions	language/ process

Like Alice, Fiona rewrote the rubric to Exercise D and she combined Exercises D and E as an outcome of the collaborative lesson planning. Fiona said that she would write the questions on the board to enhance visibility (Pre-Lesson Journal 6 Fiona). Her board writing is documented in Figure 12.

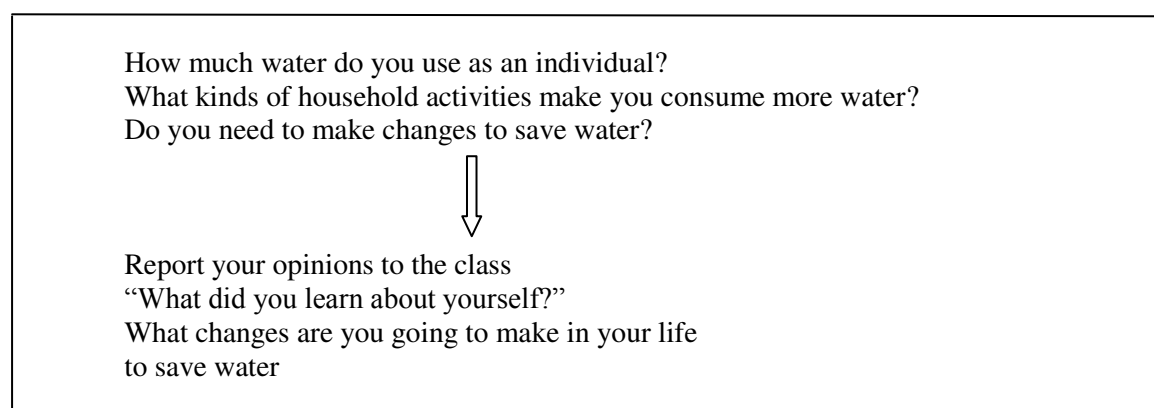


Figure 12. Whiteboard work for Exercise D and E (Fiona Lesson 6)

In the pre-lesson interview, Fiona explicitly said that she would admonish her learners to take notes that would help them report their changes to the class. This may

be an outcome of her coursebook exploitation in Lesson 3, in which she had asked her learners to report their classmates' contribution in a group work: She had concluded in her reflection on that lesson that informing learners beforehand would have been less confusing for her learners (cf. Section 4.3.3.2.). Concerning Lesson 6, she rendered more precisely:

Here, Alice and I decided to write the questions on the board because there were two instructions here and they needed two instructions at the same time. Especially in the reporting exercise, they skipped the reporting part [in the past]. They just (.) discuss it, but when we ask them, 'Can you report it to us?' They couldn't do it. That's why we tried to write the answers/ the questions here. And we tried to combine two instructions on the board (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Fiona).

After the lesson, she evaluated the lesson as "easy to follow" (Post-Lesson Journal 6 Fiona), and this included the adaptation realised. I shared my impression that the last part of the lesson actually lacked liveliness:

Researcher: *Shall we stop here for a moment? First you or shall I ask a question?*

Fiona: *You ask the question.*

Researcher: *OK. There was this conversation about washing the car. And you asked then, 'Will you stop washing your car? What changes will you make?' The students didn't say very much, right?*

Fiona: *Yeah. And he didn't answer the question in fact. He just said, 'I realise I consume too much water'. Then 'What will you do?' And he didn't answer. And I asked them again and again.*

Researcher: *Have you got an idea why, I mean, this car wash issue why he didn't? (.) I don't know, I don't know but (.) I know from my own students, sometimes they say something because they have to say it. But it's not true. Maybe he doesn't have a car. I don't know.*

Fiona: *Uh, OK. But he may clean his father's car.*

Researcher: *Maybe yes, hmm.*

Fiona: *That's why he didn't answer?*

Researcher: *Maybe.*

Fiona: *Yeah, it might be. (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Fiona).*

In this part of the stimulated recall, I tried to address the problem that learners may say something made-up because they are requested by the teacher to say something.

However, Fiona apparently did not engage in deeper reflection to elaborate on this issue. It should be noted that in both the lesson and the stimulated recall session she suffered from bad health, which, as she wrote in the post-lesson journal and communicated orally after the stimulated recall, affected her teaching and engagement in the reflective practice. Notably, she took up the aspects of her teaching I attempted to address in her journal after the stimulated recall: “I’m still thinking of how to make my students engage in the speaking activities more actively. (...) Actually I got used to my sts [students] replying shortly but while we were discussing I thought it was a big problem” (Stimulated Recall Journal 6 Fiona).

4.3.7. Intermediate Summary: Adaptations, Reasons and Purposes

In the previous sections I reported on the coursebook exploitations realised by Alice and Fiona separately lesson by lesson. The analysis of the lessons was based on (i) my observations with subsequent identification of key events and adaptations and (ii) the teachers’ reflections revealing underlying reasons, purposes and evaluations. In the following sections, I will summarise the analysis of the lesson exploitations realised by Alice and Fiona highlighting frequency and scope, and I will give a systematic account of their justifications, i.e. their stated reasons and purposes.

4.3.7.1. Intermediate Summary: Realised Adaptations

The coursebook adaptations made by Alice and Fiona in the twelve lesson observed (six lessons each participant) are summarised in this section. The adaptations were identified using the framework proposed in Section 2.3.6.1. and in detail described in the Sections 4.3.1. to 4.3.6.2. It should be noted that the framework also allowed considering minor adaptations, namely extemporising and exploiting.

Table 30 shows the adaptations realised by Alice. The adaptations were coded, frequencies determined, and spreading over the lessons indicated.

Table 30

Adaptations Realised by Alice throughout the Study

Coding category	Frequency	Lesson(s)
extemporisation	7	1, 2, 3
restructuring	5	1, 3, 4, 6
supplementation	5	1, 2
expanding	3	1, 4
abridging	2	1, 2
exploitation	2	1
rewriting	2	5, 6
substituting	2	2
subtracting	1	5
Total	29	

Table 30 reveals that Alice adapted the coursebook 29 times in the six lessons observed. Extemporisation was the most frequently made adaptation, and in nearly all lessons Alice restructured coursebook materials in some way. The distribution of her adaptations also shows that she adapted more in the first lessons. Given that rewriting along with complete omission is the most major adaptation, it is significant that she mainly resorted to minor adaptations. Her rewrite of the context for the writing task in Lesson 5 is the most notable example of a kind of major adaptation, while her attempts to restructure coursebook materials were rather minor in scope. Even though Lesson 6 also contained a rewrite of an exercise rubric, the rewritten rubric covered the rubric given in the coursebook. The language of reading or listening texts was not modified. The detailed description of Alice's adaptations in the sections revealed that she generally exploited the coursebook in a way that the structure of a coursebook lesson as intended by the coursebook authors was modified slightly and implicitly present learning objectives were not changed.

The adaptations made by Fiona are presented in Table 31.

Table 31

Adaptations Realised by Fiona throughout the Study

Coding category	Frequency	Lesson(s)
restructuring	7	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
abridging	3	1, 2, 3
expanding	2	2, 3
substituting	2	2, 4
subtracting	2	2, 5
exploiting	1	4
extemporisation	1	1
rewriting	1	6
supplementing	1	5
Total	20	

As shown in Table 31, Fiona adapted coursebook materials twenty times. Similarly to Alice, her adaptations were generally not major in scope but modified the coursebook materials in some way: Restructuring was the most frequently identified form of adaptation, but these adaptations did not lead to a radical change in the course of procedures foreseen in the coursebook or modified the functions of the coursebook components intended by the coursebook authors. Also, Fiona completely refrained from rewriting the language in reading or listening texts.

4.3.7.2. Intermediate Summary: Justifications for Realised Coursebook Exploitations

The sections dealing with the lessons observed showed that Alice and Fiona's coursebook exploitations were guided by a variety of reasons. In this section, I will systematise and summarise the results of the analysis regarding reasons and purposes for exploitations in the lessons observed; this means this section encompasses reasons and purposes stated by Alice and Fiona belonging to the adaptations reported in the previous sections and classroom practices that were not identified as adaptations. Reasons and purposes are presented in the same section because they are, as explicated in Section 2.3.6.1., the two sides of the same coin. The participants, for example, said in some instances that they were driven by time pressure (a reason), while they said in other instances they wanted to save time (a purpose). Apparently, the reason and the purpose refer to the same factor. As the reasons and purposes were stated by the teachers, they functioned as justifications.

For the reasons and purposes related to specific coursebook exploitations in the lessons observed, I draw on the data coming from the pre-lesson interviews, the post-lesson journal, the stimulated recall sessions and the stimulated recall journals. I consider the reasons and purposes stated in the reflective practice sessions and reflective session journals separately for three reasons: First, in the reflective practice sessions, the teachers resumed justifications they had given before. Since I provide frequencies, the results would be misleading because the same justifications for the same coursebook exploitation would be counted twice or even several times. Second, by nature, the reflective practice session was a collaborative reflective practice in which the participants (together with the researcher) co-constructed their explorations and reflected general aspects of their teaching so that it may be difficult or even wrong always to attribute a stated reason or purpose to a participant. Third, in the reflective practice sessions, the teachers often generalised the insights they gained from the specific examination of their lessons. For example, starting from the specific content of Lesson 1 offered in the coursebook, they discussed if women's rights should be explicitly considered as a content topic in the classroom, and expanded this topic by referring to the wider social, cultural or political context that encouraged them to implement certain politically sensitive content into their lessons or to refrain from it. Fiona argued:

I usually avoid talking about political things. If they [the learners] talk about political things, I ask them kindly not to talk about such things in our class because they are very eager to have a discussion about it, to have an argument about it. That's why I prevent them from talking about political issues. Especially in Turkey there are bad things happening recently, in recent years. But I always think that I support my own country. (.) Just as my general idea (Reflective Practice Session 1).

As this excerpt contains important information about a factor shaping a participant's teaching, it was coded as *content* under the theme teaching environment. It has also a relation to coursebook exploitation because we can conclude that she would not supplement coursebook materials with other materials addressing content controversially discussed in the wider political context of her country or she may omit it if present in the coursebook.

As explicated above, the teachers did not only comment on the adaptations identified and reported in the Sections 4.3.1. to 4.3.6.2. They also dealt with more specific events in the lessons, such as the organisation of group or pair work or the use of the IWB.

Fiona, for instance reported that she used the answer key to exercises integrated in the IWB on request of her learners and because her partner she shared the class with made use of this function. This coursebook exploitation at the micro level (use of answer key integrated in the IWB) was not considered in the sections presenting the results of the lesson analyses. However, the participants' reflections on it demonstrate that a variety of factors – often interacting - shape the teachers' coursebook exploitations, which do not necessarily materialise in a kind of adaptation. A final remark should be given to the fact that the teachers, as the control of the reflective practice was given to them to the greatest possible extent, did not comment on every single coursebook exploitation occurring during the lessons or were invited to do so by the researcher.

The analysis of the data revealed that factors belonging to five themes guided the teachers in their coursebook exploitations. First, *the teaching environment* consisting of the institutional context (colleagues, programme, exams, time constraints and affordances, point of time during the academic year) and the wider societal, political or cultural background with its impact on content selection were reported as influencing coursebook exploitation. Second, several coursebook exploitations were realised with focus on *the learner*: This included exploitations to engage learners cognitively and affectively, to avoid learner discomfort, to address the learner's proficiency level and to enhance relevance of materials for the target group. Also, instances in which adaptation responded to learners' requests or previously given feedback were reported. Third, *the teachers* with their preferences in terms of teaching style, favoured activities or content were identified as a further factor. Exploitations justified as routinely realised practise were allocated to the coding category *preferences*. Cases in which the teachers were uncertain about underlying rationales of their coursebook exploitation, unaware of realised adaptations, misunderstood the rationale behind coursebook components or simply forgot to consider a coursebook component were also identified. Surely as a specific outcome of this study, the participants reported that they addressed a weakness identified or implemented a practice they had learnt about during the reflective practice. Fourth, *the immediate lesson or course context* (i.e. the lesson conducted or lessons preceding or following a specific lesson) had an influence on how the teachers used the coursebook. This encompassed preparing learners for successful managing currently or subsequently covered coursebook components or activities often based on the anticipation of problems, recycling of previously taught content, compensation for content considered dealt with insufficiently beforehand and specific learning objectives

or outcomes. The fifth theme refers to the perceived appropriateness or inappropriateness of the coursebook. A particular point under this theme is the teachers' reports on attempts to increase the authenticity or enhance the variety of coursebook materials.

The following tables (Table 32, Table 33 and Table 34) show the frequencies referring to each coding category and theme separately for Alice, Fiona and the collaborative reflective practice sessions. (Appendix V gives an overview of the coding categories attributed to the five themes with operational definitions and examples from the data).

Table 32

Alice's justifications for her Coursebook Exploitations

	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 4	Lesson 5	Lesson 6	Total
Theme: Teaching environment							
exam	1	1	1		1	1	5
programme	1					1	2
time frame	1	1	1 ^a	1	1 ^a	1	4/2 ^a
time of the year			1	1		1	3
							16
Theme: Learner							
learner discomfort	1						1
level	1	1	1				3
relevance	2	2	2		1	1	8
response	1		1	1	2		5
							17
Theme: Teacher							
forgetting	1						1
misunderstanding	2			1	1	1	3
personal problem				1			1
preference	4		3	5	2	2	16
unawareness				3			3
uncertainty	1	2	1	7			11
uptake			1	2			3
weakness						1	1
							39
Theme: Immediate lesson or course context							
compensation		1					1
facilitating	4	3	4	4	2	5	22
learning	1	1					2
objective/outcome							
recycling		2					2
time of lesson	1	1	1	1			4
							31
Theme: Coursebook							
appropriateness	1	1	2	2		2	8
authenticity	1			2	2		5
inappropriateness		1			1	1	3
							16

Note. ^a = affordance provided by more time available than usual.

Table 32 indicates that Alice's coursebook exploitations were most strongly guided by factors that are related to herself as the teacher. She rather often argued that practices were due to her own preferences, for example her own style or preferences regarding content. Notably, particularly in the stimulated session of Lesson 4 (cf. Section 4.3.4.1.), in which she reported personal problems, her explanations were characterised by unsureness about and even unawareness of realised exploitations. It is also noteworthy that attempts to make coursebook components and associated activities more accessible for her learners (*facilitating*) were the most frequently mentioned factor. This coincides with a rather high number of data referring to enhancing relevance of materials for learners. In the analysis of her lessons, it was stated that Alice rather stuck to the coursebook, which may explain that she explicitly referred to the appropriateness of the coursebook eight times. On the whole, the teaching environment, her learners and the coursebook less significantly influenced her teaching compared to the factors *teacher* and *immediate lesson or course context*.

Fiona's stated justifications are shown in Table 33. A striking difference to Alice is that she referred to a lower number of reasons and purposes, which resonates with the fact that her reflections were remarkably shorter in terms of length of stimulated recall sessions and journal entries.

Table 33

Fiona's Justifications for her Coursebook Exploitations

	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 4	Lesson 5	Lesson 6	Total
Theme: Teaching environment							
colleagues	1						1
exam				1			1
time frame	1	1		2			4
time of the year		1					1
							<u>7</u>
Theme: Learner							
engaging	1	1	1	1	1		5
level	2			1			3
relevance	1		1	1			3
response	1			1	1		3
							<u>14</u>
Theme: Teacher							
forgetting			1		1		1
personal problem						1	1
preference	2		1	1	1	2	7
uncertainty	1						1
uptake			1				1
							<u>11</u>
Theme: Immediate lesson or course context							
facilitating	3	2	1	4	3	2	15
recycling		1					1
time of lesson				1			1
unnecessary	1	1			1		3
							<u>20</u>
Theme: Coursebook							
appropriateness	1			1	1		3
inappropriateness	1	1					2
repetitiveness				1			1
							<u>6</u>

As depicted in Table 33, Fiona was most often concerned with enabling learners to successfully deal with coursebook components and activities. The related theme *immediate lesson or course content* was most frequently addressed in her reflections. Unlike Alice, Fiona displayed less uncertainty about what she did in her classroom, and she also did not seem to be affected by factors departing from the wider teaching environment. In line with her preference towards designing practices to facilitate successful dealing with classroom activities may be the observation that she five times intended to engage her learners cognitively or affectively to follow or participate in lesson procedures.

Different key aspects concerning justifications of coursebook exploitations were highlighted in the reflective practice sessions. This can be explained with the tendency of the participants to discuss issues going beyond the concrete exploitations observed in the lessons. The results are presented in Table 34.

Table 34

Justifications for Coursebook Exploitations Mentioned in the Reflective Practice Sessions

	Lesson 1	Lesson 2	Lesson 3	Lesson 4	Lesson 5	Lesson 6	Total
Theme: Teaching environment							
colleagues					1		1
content	1						1
exam	1	1					2
programme		3					3
time frame	1	3	2 ^a	1	2	1	8/2 ^a
							17
Theme: Learner							
engaging	1	1					2
response					2		1
learner discomfort		1					1
level	3		1		1		5
relevance	2	2	1		2	1	8
							17
Theme: Teacher							
forgetting	1				1		2
misunderstanding		1			1	1	3
preference	3	7	1	1	2	1	15
uncertainty	1		1	1			1
uptake			1				1
							22
Theme: Immediate lesson or course context							
facilitating	2	3			2		7
learning		1	1				2
objective/outcome							
recycling		1		1			2
appropriateness						1	1
							12
Theme: Coursebook							
authenticity	1	1		1	1		4
inappropriateness	1	2					3
repetitiveness		1					1
							8

Note. ^a = affordance provided by more time available than usual.

As seen in Table 34, the teacher as the main factor in coursebook exploitation was again highlighted. However, the immediate lesson context played a less significant role, which is expectable because the reflective practice sessions offered opportunities to generalise and expand specific lesson aspects. Instead, Alice and Fiona more strongly highlighted the role of her learners and the teaching environment for coursebook exploitation in the reflective practice sessions. Notably, the time frame provided by the programme was in most cases regarded as a pressure, however, at two instances, the teachers pointed to the benefit of having more time to design and realise instructional practice.

So far, I have presented the results concerning the participating teachers' beliefs about coursebooks and their own utilisation of coursebooks in instructional practice and

the actual coursebook exploitation encompassing a report on justifications given by the participants. I will now oppose the beliefs and conceptualisations at study beginning with the actual exploitations.

4.3.8. Stated Beliefs about Coursebook Exploitations and Realised Coursebook Exploitations

We recall from Section 4.2.3. that the teachers held positive beliefs about coursebooks in general and they regarded the coursebook as the main component in their instructional practice. The teachers reported some kinds of adaptations, but it should be noted that Alice had rather vague beliefs concerning her own coursebook exploitation, while Fiona reported some concrete examples of how she utilised the coursebook.

4.3.8.1. Alice's Stated Beliefs about Coursebook Exploitations and Realised Coursebook Exploitations

To start with Alice, Table 35 summarises her beliefs about coursebooks and coursebook exploitation and realised exploitation. The account of her stated beliefs draws on the findings from the metaphor elicitation task and the pre-intervention interview, while her realised exploitations reported in the table are based on the analysis of the lesson observed and her contributions in the various forms of reflective practice.

Table 35

Alice's Beliefs concerning Coursebooks and Coursebook Exploitation and Realised Exploitations

Alice's Stated Beliefs about Coursebooks and Own Coursebook Exploitation at Study Beginning	Alice's Realised Coursebook Exploitations
coursebook conceptualised as guidance coursebook accepted as main component in teaching coursebook adaptation necessary to • meet learners' needs • expose learners to more authentic language • facilitate learner comprehension or production (simplifying)	coursebook served as guidance coursebook identified as main component in teaching coursebook exploitation and adaptation guided by a variety of reasons; main factors: • perceived need to make coursebook content more accessible to learners and to facilitate their engagement in activities • the teacher's preferred way of instructing • some uncertainty about guiding factors
reported exploitations • coursebook is mainly followed with minor adaptations in form of ○ omission (components regarded meaningless, e.g. pronunciation) ○ modification (restructuring group/pair work; comprehension questions) ○ addition (videos to expose learners to authentic material)	realised exploitations • mainly minor adaptations without modification of coursebook lessons in terms of structure or inherent learning objectives; most frequent: ○ extemporisation ○ restructuring ○ supplementation
teacher perceived as having control over the coursebook coursebook provides confidence as a tool in lesson planning impact of course programme and exam highlighted	coursebook serves as curriculum coursebook appreciated as convenient tool course programme and exams significant but less highlighted during the reflections on observed lessons than at study beginning

Table 35 shows that by and large Alice's beliefs are in line with her practices. However, three aspects should be noted to depict differences. First, due to the framework used in this study to analyse lessons and identify adaptations, extemporisation was accepted as an adaptation. It may not be considered as an adaptation by teachers who have no extensive knowledge about adaptation frameworks proposed in the literature. It is therefore understandable that Alice did not report about it

at study beginning. Second, when justifying her exploitations, Alice most frequently referred to constraints based in the lesson itself, i.e. she adapted coursebook components in a way that her learners' managing of coursebook components would be facilitated. This can reasonably be explained with the fact that she discussed in the pre-intervention interview coursebook exploitations from a general perspective, while during the observations (i.e. the pre-lesson and post-lesson reflections) her comments were more strongly focused on the specific lesson context. It should be noted that she referred to her way of doing more strongly as a factor in coursebook exploitation during the reflections than at study beginning. Third, Alice believed that she controlled the coursebook (even though she saw it as guidance), but the lesson analyses may suggest that this generalisations cannot hold. In the post-intervention interview she claimed

Maybe in the beginning, I saw it as a guidance, but at the end of the study, it turned out to be a resource. We tried to control, I think we were to control the coursebook. But I don't know what is good or better, this or the other one. When you use something as a resource, it also guides you. So are there really big differences?
(Post-Intervention Interview Alice).

Surely, the question if the control was with the teacher or with the coursebook requires some interpretive evaluation. While attempts to take control of the coursebook were visible in Alice's teaching, her evaluation does not fully match mine. The question she raised in the excerpt above, however, suggests that Alice was still in a stage of conceptualising the role the coursebook has in her teaching and also shows that coursebook exploitation indeed takes place in a continuum.

4.3.8.2. Fiona's Stated Beliefs about Coursebook Exploitations and Realised Coursebook Exploitations

A comparison of Fiona's beliefs about coursebook and coursebook exploitation is given in Table 36. The findings from the metaphor elicitation task and the pre-intervention interview are reported in the left column, and the results of the lesson analyses and Fiona's reflections are summarised in the right column.

Table 36

Fiona's Beliefs concerning Coursebooks and Coursebook Exploitation and Realised Exploitations

Fiona's Stated Beliefs about Coursebooks and Own Coursebook Exploitation at Study Beginning	Fiona's Realised Coursebook Exploitations
coursebook conceptualised as guidance coursebook accepted as main component in teaching coursebook adaptation necessary to • enhance relevance (localising) • motivate learners • facilitate learner comprehension or production (simplifying)	coursebook served as guidance coursebook identified as main component in teaching coursebook exploitation and adaptation guided by a variety of reasons; main factors: • perceived need to make coursebook content more accessible to learners and to facilitate their engagement in activities • the teacher's preferred way of instructing
reported exploitations • coursebook is mainly followed with minor adaptations in form of ○ omission (components regarded meaningless, e.g. pronunciation, and time-consuming activities, e.g. speaking activities) ○ modification (instructions, comprehension questions) ○ addition (more guided exercises)	realised exploitations • mainly minor adaptations without modification of coursebook lessons in terms of structure or inherent learning objectives; most frequent: ○ restructuring
teacher perceived as having control over the coursebook	coursebook serves as curriculum coursebook appreciated as convenient tool
impact of course programme and exam highlighted	course programme and exams significant but less highlighted during the reflections on observed lessons than at study beginning
planning based on brief examination of coursebook page and Teacher's Book, spontaneous decisions due to workload	planning based on brief examination of coursebook page and Teacher's Book, spontaneous decisions due to workload

As it was stated for Alice, Fiona's practices matched her beliefs in so far as the coursebook was the accepted tool in her teaching. Four significant aspects should be highlighted as an outcome of the comparative analysis. First, the reasons and purposes

Fiona stated before and during the study were mostly directed to the facilitation of learner comprehension and engagement in coursebook activities. Second, even though Fiona also referred to her preferred ways of teaching, this factor was less prominent than in Alice's explanations. Third, Fiona touched upon lesson planning in the pre-intervention interview and her explanation during the reflective practice activities coincide with the ones given at study beginning. The results for lesson planning as a significant component in coursebook exploitation are separately presented in Section 4.4.1.2. Fourth, unlike Alice, Fiona clearly stated that her belief of having control over the coursebook was shaken:

In theory, I believe that the coursebook is just a resource for me. But doing the observations I believe that the coursebook takes the control of my class because I realised I didn't skip many activities. I just uhm I just modified some parts. But it's more than a resource for me. I always followed the activities. So, in theory I believe it's just a resource, we are not the slaves of coursebooks. But in practical, I think I'm the slave of the coursebook. (...) I didn't notice it before. But why I do like this – I don't know (Post-Intervention Interview Fiona).

Fiona then explored her PhD studies, personal problems, the curriculum forcing teachers to stick to time frames as forces for her coursebook exploitation, but, notably she did not consider exams as important:

We have a lot of quizzes, but I don't feel they are very important for me because this is not a compulsory programme. So, my only aim is to teach them how to use English. (...) Do you remember Sedat [learner name]? (...) He always participated in the classes and he was very eager to learn English. This is an important issue for me. Whether he passes or not, I don't know. But I believe that he learned English. And I'm sure in the next year he will certainly go abroad with the Erasmus programme. This is important for me. But I try to pretend that quizzes are important (laughs) in our meetings. (.) But I never look at their grades (Post-Intervention Interview Fiona).

Her view is in line with the fact that she only once justified a coursebook exploitation with regard to the exam programme (see Table 32). Fiona's gained insight that the coursebook controlled her to greater extent than she had assumed, undoubtedly indicates the contribution the reflective practice had on her exploration and understanding of her instructional practice. The impact of the reflective practice will be dealt with in the following sections.

4.4. Reflective Practice

In the previous sections, I presented the teachers' beliefs concerning coursebooks, their own coursebook exploitations and the results of the lessons analyses revealing realised coursebook exploitations and justifications. The participants' explorations were elicited in a process of reflection through writing (journals), watching and responding orally to the observed classroom interaction (stimulated recall) and discussion (reflective practice sessions). In other words, the previous sections benefitted from the reflective practice and, therefore, there is some overlap with the following sections which intend to examine in how far the reflective practice contributed to the participants' exploration of their own instructional practice and how they perceived the reflective practice. The data analysis suggests that the reflective practice allowed the teachers to identify and inspect a variety of topics, and this inspection was conducted through engagement in certain operations.

4.4.1. Topics Addressed throughout the Reflective Practice

While describing, justifying and evaluating the instructional decisions and realisations specifically related to certain coursebook exploitations, the participating teachers raised a variety of topics surrounding or going beyond the immediate lesson context. Some issues were touched upon by the researcher. For instance, I asked about potential impacts of the seating arrangement: In all classes her learners sat in rows looking at the whiteboard so that the communication was often between teacher and learners but rarely between learners. On my request, Alice reflected on this situation:

Researcher: *I just wonder, I mean. (.) Do you think it [low learner participation in spoken interaction] has to do with the seating arrangement?*

Alice: *But this is (.) this is one of my problems in my classes: whatever I do, I never arrange the seating of students [intended meaning: I never manage to arrange the seating of the learners]. I myself do this, do this thing. Then they sit in the way they want.*

Researcher: *So you sometimes make different arrangements, yes?*

Alice: *Yes, I do. But in the next class, they do the same again. (...). At the start of the week, I always complain. This week I want the class to be in this way, but tomorrow I see, it's same again. (...) But it's not (.) it's not, the seating is not the only problem here. Students can do the pair work and group works when they sit*

like this. Maybe it can be (.) because it's not my (.) main focus (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Alice).

Notably, Alice makes some generalisations (“whatever I do, I never arrange the seating of students. (...) At the start of the week, I always complain”), and, when talking about pair and group work, she speculates that her difficulty in encouraging her learners to select a more communication-friendly seating arrangement may be due to her insufficient attention to this issue (“it’s not my main focus”). A further example, in which Fiona informs about her dictionary policy, is given for illustrative purposes:

In this activity, for example, I wouldn't let them use a dictionary because this is the vocabulary activity. But in normal reading activities, when they want they can have it. But I always encourage them not to use their dictionary because 'you can't use dictionary, especially in the exam so please try to guess the meaning. You don't have to understand every word in the reading text to understand the question or to get the main point. So, please try not to use it'. But if they use, it isn't a problem for me (Reflective Practice Session 4).

Fiona reflects on the topic *dictionary use* initially referring to an activity in the coursebook, but then generalises (“But in normal reading activities”). In the specific context of the reflective practice session, this topic is surely relevant for Fiona; however, a detailed account of all topics discussed would go beyond the scope of the study. What is more, in the sections dealing with the lessons and the teachers’ reflections on the lessons, many of the topics summarised in Table 37 below were touched upon. For these reasons, I will limit myself to giving an overview of the topics raised in Table 37 below. Classroom discourse (especially questioning) is discussed in more detail in the sections dealing with the examinations of the transcripts (Section 4.4.1.1.). Also the results for planning are presented separately (Section 4.4.1.2.) because this theme has significance for the aspect of coursebook exploitation.

The topics the teachers touched upon in their reflective practice are categorised under four themes: (i) *instructional practices* deals with actions and decisions significant in the context of teaching in class; (ii) *learner* is related to aspects discussed with the main focus on learners in terms of interests, motivation, dispositions and attitudes; (iii) *teacher* covers issues related to teachers’ beliefs, attitudes and emotions as well as colleagues; (iv) *material* refers to topics in which the main focus is on the coursebook, the teacher’s book or other materials used in class; (v) *planning* refers to procedures and forms of lesson preparation. Table 37 gives an overview of the topics covered

throughout the study. Topics serving as justifications of the teachers for realised coursebook exploitations (see Section 4.3.7.2.) are not included. All coding categories with operational definitions and samples from the data are given in Appendix V.



Table 37

Topics Addressed throughout the Reflective Practice

Theme	Topics	Reflective Practice (Lessons)
instructional practices	classroom discourse	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
	instruction	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
	questioning	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
	L1	1, 2, 3, 5
	answer check	1, 2, 6
	IWB	2, 4, 5
	speaking	1, 2, 4
	time management	1, 4, 5
	whiteboard	1, 2, 5
	pair/group work	2, 3
	seating arrangement	2, 6
	dictionary	4
	games	5
	pronunciation	1
	reading	4
	reading out loud	4
	writing	5
learner	autonomy	1, 2, 3, 4
	level	1, 2, 3, 4
	demotivation	2, 4, 6
	affective needs	1, 4
	dealing with problematic learners	1, 4
	attitudes towards learning	3
	using examples from learners' lives in class	1
teacher	preference	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6
	colleagues	3, 5, 6
	showing emotions in class	2, 4
	language learning beliefs	4
	professional dissatisfaction	4
	teacher role	4
	teacher autobiography	4
material	content	1, 2, 3, 4, 5
	functions of coursebook components	2, 5, 6
	Teacher's Book	1, 3, 4
	exploiting listening recording (of reading texts)	4, 5
	integrated skills	6
	source	1
planning	written plan	2, 3, 4, 5, 6
	learning objectives	1, 2, 6
	procedures	1, 4
	compulsory lesson planning	6

Table 37 shows that Alice and Fiona touched upon a variety of issues, most of which were directed to decisions and actions related to the immediate classroom context, to less extent on learners, teachers coursebook materials and planning issues; this is clearly due to the fact that all instances of reflections had their starting point in the lessons observed. Giving instructions, which encompasses paraphrasing exercise rubrics in the coursebook and the challenge of checking if learners have grasped them was frequently discussed, and Fiona said in the post-intervention interview that this aspect was one of the weaknesses in her teaching she had identified during the study. The teachers also discussed issues concerning learners and teachers. It should be noted that teaching style and personality subsumed under *preference* were also highly frequently addressed in justifications for coursebook exploitations.

4.4.1.1. Classroom Discourse

As explained in the Section 3.5.6., I prepared two transcripts for each reflective practice session. One transcript belonged to a part of Alice's lesson, the other one to Fiona's. Two transcripts of a lesson belonged to the same lesson part, typically the introduction to or answer check of a lesson component (exercise or activity).

As a general finding, it can be stated that the transcripts allowed the teachers to notice differences between each other or similarities in their teaching by examining classroom discourse. Comparing a transcript of her own lesson with Alice's, Fiona commented:

For instance, (.) Alice, to give an example, Alice says 'I would say such things.' But I never/ I didn't do something like that. Instead of this, she tries to make the content relevant for her students in this way. And I write the name of a student, I try to make it relevant in that way (Reflected Practice Session 1).

It also allowed identifying weaknesses. In the following excerpt, Fiona notices that both teachers do not allocate sufficient wait-time, and then she indicates problematic forms of questioning in her partner's transcript:

Fiona: I think Alice, we have one thing in common: we ask a question but don't wait for students' answer. (.) From this transcript you/ in every part of your speech, you asked (.) more than one, more than two questions: 'Who are they?' 'Who are the stars in the movie?' (.) But we don't wait for their answers. This is what I

do. (.) I think if we wait (.) a little bit, and ask one question, they can understand, they may understand us. (.)

Alice: Probably they understand our questions. But as they don't have much time, enough time, they don't/ I don't know (.) what (.) this is our general problem. This semester I feel the pressure of timing in my class (Reflective Practice Session 2).

Here, Fiona noticed that asking more than one question in succession impeded her learners' comprehension of teacher speech. In the same reflective practice session, the participants noticed that at times they answered their own questions when learners did not come up with an answer, and they explored if their questioning was in line with the rationale behind coursebook components. However, the explorations were frequently guided by me to certain extent as I had to point the participants to the relevant parts in the transcript. I felt the need to do so because the teachers rather briefly reported their findings from the transcript examinations or directed the conversation to more general justifications as the excerpt above shows: While it was Fiona who noticed critical aspects in her and her partners' questioning, Alice did not respond to Fiona's observations. Instead, she attempted to give an explanation which she halfway interrupted to refer to time pressure. It should be noted that Alice's perceptions of the transcript examination were associated with discomfort, and I observed an instance at which she refrained from actively examining the transcripts (Reflective Practice Session 4).

The exploitation of the transcripts during the reflective session was apparently affected by a more fundamental problem: At the beginning of the fourth reflective practice session, before Alice joined the session, Fiona expressed her uncertainty about how to inspect the transcripts:

Şimdi sen bunları veriyorsun. Ben bunları okuyorum ama bir (.) ne sonuç çıkartmam gerektiğini bilmiyorum. Mesela burada benim çıkarttığım sonuç, Alice çok fazla feedback vermemiş doğru olup olmadığına dair. Ya şu koyu olanlara bakıyorum mesela. (.) Yani, öyle çıkarttım ben. Böyle mi bir sonuç çıkartmam lazım?

Now you give them [the transcripts] to us. I read them but (.) I don't know what conclusion I have to draw. For example the conclusion I draw here is related to the issue whether or not it is OK that Alice didn't give much feedback. Or I examine,

for example, the parts in bold (.) Well, I concluded that way. Do I have to come to such a result? (Reflective Practice Session 4).

Later, in the middle of the session, when we started to examine the transcripts, Alice supported Fiona in her concerns: “What should we focus on? Why do you give to us these papers? Please explain” (Reflective Practice Session 4). I then explained – again from a general perspective – that the transcripts were supposed to contribute to a form of data-led reflective practice, and that I specifically intended to have the participants find out themselves issues in their teaching inherent in the transcripts. I then strongly guided the following examination of the transcripts by pointing to the number of learners speaking, the length and elaborateness of learner utterances, which enabled the teachers (Fiona more than Alice) to notice some problematic issues, for example when Alice remarked that Fiona’s learners “were much more talkative in her class” (Reflective Practice Session 4). Notably, Alice was apparently dissatisfied with her teaching, and did not examine the transcripts closely.

For the last two lessons, I then decided to provide the participants with instructions containing reflective questions (Appendix O) that would help them analyse the transcripts. Reflective questions were, for example about questioning and the function of coursebook components in the context of a lesson. A specific concern that guided me was the almost complete neglect of learning objectives by the participants; this was reasonably related to their way of lesson planning (see Section 4.4.1.2.). Reflection on learning objectives was mostly initialised by me.

Two excerpts of transcript examination are here analysed to illustrate the reflection the participants engaged in after I had decided to guide them through reflective questions provided beforehand. In the first excerpt below (related to Lesson 5) Alice and Fiona started to discuss the value of yes/no-questions as tools to elicit learner speech. In the left column an excerpt of the transcript of Alice’s lesson is given. In the right column the participants’ comments made in the reflective practice session are given.

	Classroom discourse	Reflective practice session discussion
1	T: What should be included in your mail? (3 sec.) Do you offer accommodation? Do you make suggestions? Do you congratulate? Do you give advice?	Alice: <i>Is there a specific difference between yes/no, if a teacher asks yes/no questions or wh-questions? Is there something rational behind it?</i>
2	Ss: Simultaneous speech. Making suggestions	Fiona: <i>I think if we ask wh-questions, we can get (.)</i> Alice: <i>more</i>
3	T: Ama bunu yaparken, sadece bu tanı normalde bu paragrafa göre istediği bilgiler doğrultusunda düşünüyoruz. Tamam mı? (3 sec.) Neye ihtiyacımız var?	Fiona: <i>more answers.</i> Alice: <i>Right.</i>
4	Ss: Making [suggestions]	Fiona: <i>If we ask wh-questions (sic), 'do you like it?', they say 'yes'. We must provide them more opportunities to use more words, to use more grammar.</i>
5	T: [Making] suggestions. T clicks on making suggestions on interactive whiteboard. Which question (.) shows that she wants some suggestions? (.) Look at these two questions. Which question needs a suggestion? T points to the questions written on the board.	Alice: <i>But it's again about the task.</i> Fiona: <i>Yeah.</i> Alice: <i>If the sequence is just, as I did, 'Do you express enthusiasm?' 'Do you complain?' If I just want to get yes/no answers, there is no problem.</i>
6	S1: She would like to go to the museum.	Fiona: <i>But we can ask questions, Alice. For example, instead of 'Do you complain?' we can ask, 'What kind of sentences do you use to complain about something?'</i>
7	T: Right. She is asking- I want to go to the museum. Tell me which one not to miss. This is for suggestion. (3 sec.) Do you congratulate her?	Alice: <i>Right. It's again about our focus.</i> Fiona: <i>Or we can ask: 'What kind of sentences does Amy use/ did Amy use?'</i>
8	S1: No.	Alice: <i>That was my plan for this part. Then I followed (.) They may give many more different answers (.) not related to the tasks. I thought about this possibility. Normally, what I was planning for this function part: 'Can you please give me an example for complaining?' But then their answers wouldn't match with the items in the writing task (Reflective Practice Session 5)</i>
9	T: Do you give advice?	
10	S1: No.	
11	Ss: No (short unintelligible speech).	
12	T: Do you express enthusiasm?	
13	Ss: Yes.	
14	T: T clicks on expressing enthusiasm on interactive whiteboard. What do you understand by this? (.) Giving enthusiasm? (3 sec) Bunu bence başk- diğer writinglerden hatırlamış olmanız lazım, değil mi?	
15	Ss: Coşkulu.	

- 16 S2: Coşkusunu açıklamak.
 17 T: (.) Do you complain in your response?
 18 Ss: No (short unintelligible speech).
 19 T: Do you give directions?
 20 Ss: Yes.

Immediately before the exploration presented here, Alice and Fiona had noticed that most of the classroom conversation consisted of yes/no-questions asked by the teacher and short answers by her learners. Remarkably, it was then Alice (whose transcript was in the focus) who lifted the reflective conversation onto a more abstract level by raising the question about the functions of yes/no-questions. Negotiating with Fiona, the two teachers came to the conclusion that wh-questions were conducive to eliciting more learner talk, and Fiona generated alternative questions. Even though Alice somehow turned Fiona's alternatives down with regard to the subsequent writing task in the lesson, the teachers' reflection indicates that the exploration of the transcripts triggered a – to a certain extent – critical examination of the discourse documented in their classes.

While the extract above gives an example of reflection realised without contributions made by the researcher (even though there were guiding questions and comments by the researcher surrounding this part of the reflective practice), the following example from the examination of the transcripts related to the last lesson shows more active intervention by the researcher. The lesson context (Lesson 6) is the check of a comprehension question related to a chart giving information about water consumption in households with and without the use of water-saving devices. The left column shows the discourse in the classroom as documented in the transcript, and the right column documents the related discussion in the reflective practice session:

	Classroom discourse	Reflective practice session discussion
1	T: Yes, 4? (.) T reads question 4 partly. Do you think water-saving devices and appliances make a big difference in the amount of water? (3 sec.) Merva? (.) Any idea for this? (.) Merva, look at the items shower, toilet flush, and washing machine. There are- there is some information in the parentheses, you see?	Researcher: <i>So, maybe we can start from this: we have this chart and these questions. And now question 4: 'Do you think that water-saving devices and appliances make a big difference in the amount of water a household consumes?' (.) So what would we expect our students to/</i>
2	S1: Yes.	Alice: <i>Yes/no.</i>
3	T: OK. It is the number four? (.) Non water-saving devices, so is there a difference? (.) Between the number? (3 sec.) For instance, for shower, it is 2.5 gallons per minute but if we use non water-saving devices, we spent 7 to 8 gallons. (.) Is it a big difference? (3 sec.)	Researcher: <i>Only yes/no?</i> Alice: <i>Yes/no. This is a yes/no</i> Researcher: <i>Of course/</i> Alice: <i>At first it seems like this. But we want something deeper.</i>
4	Ss: [Yes.]	Researcher: <i>//Yeah.//</i> Fiona: <i>//Yeah//. So that kind of questions ask their opinion. Not yes/no questions.</i>
5	T: [Yes.] (.) Look at washing machine. (.) 18 to 25 gallons per load. But if we use non water-saving devices and appliances, it is 40 to 55 gallons. (.) Can we say that there is a huge difference, big difference?	Researcher: <i>Yes, but, sorry, I'm insisting a little bit. What would you expect your students to say (.) to this question? (4 sec.)</i>
6	Ss: In a low voice. Yes. (3 sec.)	Fiona: <i>I believe water-saving devices make a big difference in the amount of water a household consumes.</i> Alice: <i>Yes.</i>
7	T: Yes. (3 sec.) OK. T continues with Ex. C.	Fiona: <i>They would say. (.) But it's written here. And they can give the answer/</i> Alice: <i>I also expect an example.</i> Researcher: <i>Hm.</i> Fiona: <i>Yeah.</i> Alice: <i>Uhm, for instance, (.) here (.) I expect the learners say that, OK, let's say that let's look at the car wash. If we use non water-saving devices, we spend 10 gallons, but if we don't use, if we use water-saving devices, we use 5 gallons. I would expect a sample. (...) We check whether they really understand. If they say yes or no, we don't measure whether they fully understood. But in this way we can be sure (Reflective Practice Session 6).</i>

The transcript documents that the learners' only answers are 'yes', partly uttered in simultaneous speech and speech that is overlapping with teacher talk; also teacher talk dominates the whole classroom discourse. As a cue to initiate a critical examination, I asked the participants to think of an expected learner answer to the comprehension question in the coursebook. While initially claiming that her learners would need to give a yes/no answer, Alice then challenged her answer ("At first it seems like this") and, at the researcher's insistence and co-constructing with Fiona, she explored the actually (by the coursebook authors) intended answer to the given question arguing that learners should support their answers by giving examples. She also concluded that elaborate learner answers were a better indicator of understanding learner comprehension. She confirmed this point in the immediate continuation of the reflective conversation, in which I attempted to direct the teachers' attention to the importance of learning objectives in coursebook exploitation, an issue I had dealt with to no effect at the beginning of the reflective practice session:

Researcher: *And now I would like to come back to the question we started, the learning objectives.*

Alice: *Hmm* (approving).

Researcher: *You see the point? (.) Students should be able to report a chart. And one thing would be: water-saving devices save water, for example, car wash.*

Fiona: *These questions are (.)*

Researcher: *Of course, these questions, they are related, yes. (.)*

Alice: *Just answering the questions but to check they really understood. (.) They say something about the difference* (Reflective Practice Session 6).

To sum up this section, the use of transcripts enabled the teachers to notice critical aspects in the classroom discourse. However, the purpose of the transcripts and potential foci to explore them were not or at least not fully apparent to them. This is clearly not a weakness of the participants but indicates that my plan to provide the teachers with transcripts and have them find out something about their teaching with little guidance was an inappropriate approach. In spite of this critical evaluation, it should be noted that Alice, even though she displayed some reluctance to examine the transcripts in detail, was able to identify critical aspects in her teaching through the guidance she received from Fiona and the researcher in the reflective practice sessions.

4.4.1.2. Lesson Planning

A significant theme emerging during the data collection and analysis was lesson planning. In the sections presenting the results of the lessons observed, the teachers' reports on how they planned their lessons were documented. This section briefly summarises the results concerning lesson planning beyond the concrete lesson contexts.

Lesson planning defined as a systematic approach of preparing classroom instruction in terms of generating objectives and determining lesson stages appeared to be an insignificant component of the teachers' instructional practice. This finding is particularly valid for Fiona, who explained that she never made lesson plans with learning outcomes but had a look at the book sometimes five minutes before the lesson, sometimes on the previous day (Pre-Lesson Interview 1). Consequently, she never planned "things in detail" but resorted to "a general draft" (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Fiona), which was not written down. Reflecting on her planning procedures she identified time pressure and private responsibilities as influencing her lesson planning:

So I believe I must look at the pages, what I'm going to teach before. But not all the time I can look up, look at it because I don't have much time at home. And when I finish the class here, I have to go. And that's why I can't be prepared all the time. But I feel that I must be prepared especially since this is a new book, I can't get used to it (Reflective Practice Session 4).

As seen in this excerpt, she perceived lack of preparation as problematic because it was the first year for her to use the book. When reviewing the whole study, she expressed critical views on her coursebook exploitation as an outcome of her way of planning lessons:

I think that I should have prepared in my classes in a detailed way and I shouldn't have made spontaneous decisions. I must be more careful about it. [That is] what I learned from these observations (...) [Spontaneous adaptations are] a good thing, but I must be careful about them. Because if I didn't plan them, at that time sometimes it may create some problems about the task (...) I'm planning to [change my way of lesson planning] (Post-Intervention Journal Fiona).

As Fiona pointed out in the same interview, the workload in the department, her involvement in her own PhD thesis and private problems made it particularly difficult for her to plan lesson carefully in the term the study was conducted. Additionally she

remarked that “towards the end of the year, we just followed the coursebook and just aimed to finish the course” (Post-Intervention Interview Fiona).

Even though Alice also reported not writing plans, she explained that she had prepared a lesson about installation art (observed before Lesson 1 to accustom the teacher and her learners to the observation procedures) by inspecting Wikipedia articles and YouTube videos which she then supplemented to the coursebook material in class. Apart from searching for supplementary materials, she said that her lack of familiarity with the content topic led her to some more extensive lesson planning. However, she did not usually use written plans because

I'm Turkish. (...) It's not OK for our nature. When I write something, or plan something, I feel under pressure. (...) It makes me feel like there is too much burden on me. (...) I know myself. I know that I won't follow the plan. I make plans all the time but I cannot follow it. That's why maybe I say, 'I'm writing this but I won't do.' (.) It can be about my personality. I'm not a very organized person (.) in my private life (Pre-Lesson Journal Alice 1).

Towards the end of the study, Alice again referred to abstaining from lesson planning as a cultural issue, but additionally reasoned that writing a lesson plan was not usual in her department

because we believe it will take a lot of time, because we always complain about the long working hours. We don't have time. I think you should observe whether they do it or not when they have a lot of spare time. If a teacher has just four hours a week, but if he doesn't make a lesson plan, so this is a big problem. But if you have thirty hours in a week, I don't think (.) Turkish, at least Turkish teachers (.) will (.) will do it (Reflective Practice Session 6).

As explicated in Section 4.3.3.1., Alice had a written lesson plan for Lesson 3, and this experience provided her with both discomfort because “I felt like I had to check it at any moment not to forget something” (Post-Lesson Journal 3 Alice) and, at the same time, comfort “since I knew what I would do in each step” (Reflective Practice Journal Alice 3). She also expressed her belief that lesson planning may enhance the effectivity of spontaneous decisions. The planning of Lesson 3 was her only attempt to write objectives and lesson stage beforehand. Immediately before Lesson 4, she said: “I was planning to have a hard copy of my plan but again I trusted my mind more” (Pre-Lesson Journal 4 Alice).

In Lesson 6 (Section 4.3.6.), the teachers were offered the opportunity to collaborative lesson planning. The data shows that the teachers had mixed perceptions, for example when Alice commented on a certain class procedure in the stimulated recall:

Normally I wouldn't do the activity like this. But we talked (5 sec.) we did this lesson in cooperation. Maybe it worked in Fiona's class. I didn't watch her video. Maybe it worked, I don't know. But in my class I saw it didn't work. She said they may do it. It's not difficult. They will report it. (.) And probably they did it in her class. But I just wanted to be loyal to our plan. So, I insisted. Then after this (.) this, I realised that (.) collaboration doesn't only mean to do the same thing even if it doesn't go in your class. It may not work. Maybe in her class it may work, but in my may not (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Alice).

Alice noticed that a planned procedure was not successful, and she actually did not support her and her partner's decision to organise the specific instruction in the way they conducted it. However, she stuck to the collaboratively prepared lesson plan for loyalty reasons. Remarkably, she reasoned that the same coursebook exploitation may work in a class, while it may not work in another one. Alice explicated the difficulties in collaborative lesson planning:

But I don't believe I would (.) I would be volunteer to have/ It's not possible, in practical, it's not possible to have a lesson, to make a lesson plan collaboratively. At least here, in this institution. I should trust. I should (.) I should be confident that my partner will give me different ideas and we will combine it and have a good job. I should trust her for such a task. Making a common lesson plan (.) it's not an easy job. Even we discussed long. I said, 'why are we doing this?' We talked about it. I didn't find something meaningful. She tried to (.) she helped me. I didn't understand some parts. She helped me for the transitions (Reflective Practice Session 6).

Alice here pointed to the importance of mutual trust and the appropriateness as evidenced in a school culture conducive to supporting collaborative lesson planning. Her comments also suggest that collaborative lesson planning may not necessarily lead to a common lesson plan but could function as an exchange of ideas.

Reviewing the whole reflective practice at the end of the study, Alice noted important aspects relevant to planning she had discovered. She realised that using the

coursebook as a resource encouraged teachers to adapt it, while using it as a guide did not require effort:

Sometimes you now that we should use it as a resource. I mean we should make adaptations. But we may choose an easier way to follow this guidance. (...) Because it's easier. It doesn't need any effort. You just go into the class. You follow the items. But it takes time. You should have a critical point of you to use it as a resource. Before the class you think about the activities and extras, which part to skip. It demands time. (...) At the end of the study I also learned it's easy to blame the syllabus, the schedule, the institution. We always say that: OK, we don't have a lot of time, blab la bla. If we want, you can again follow the syllabus. But you can make adjustments in your material. Again you can finish this unit. But how to make use of it depends on the teacher. No one interrupts you. No manager says what you are doing. 'Why didn't follow you this part?' It's your class, your time. You can (.) play with it (Post-Intervention Interview Alice).

Apparently, her remarks resonate with the findings from the lesson analyses because it shows that coursebook exploitation depends on lesson planning. Having developed a critical stance of her own coursebook exploitation, she noted time pressure and curriculum as influencing factors but admitted that teachers' attitudes and willingness to adapt were more significant, especially if teachers do not have to give an account of own coursebook exploitation to school authorities.

All in all, the data showed that the participants engaged in cursory lesson planning that encompassed an inspection of the coursebook page and related teacher's book explanations. Virtually never, the participants referred to learning objectives without prompting (by the researcher) when reporting what they were going to do in class; this may explain the infrequent reference to learning objectives throughout the whole reflective practice. Due to the teachers' rather negative views on lesson preparation in form of written plans and refusal of compulsory lesson planning, their coursebook exploitations were often not driven by pedagogical considerations but most often by concerns to manage to deal with coursebook components successfully not least to compensate for constraints by the teaching environment (see Section 4.3.7.2.). Finally, the lesson planning procedures explain the frequently spontaneous decisions to adapt material and the tendency to realise minor adaptations: By nature, carefully planned decisions to adapt coursebook materials require in-depth examination of the material at the stage of lesson planning.

4.4.2. Functions of the Reflective Practice

The previous sections demonstrated that the reflective practice enabled the participants to explore their coursebook exploitations and to identify and discuss a variety of topics belonging to the immediate and mediate teaching context. This section deals with the operations the participants conducted while being engaged in reflective practice. For this reason, this section does not deal with content that was reflected about but reports on how the reflective practice functioned as an explorative tool.

The data analysis revealed that the teachers engaged in reflective practice by performing the following operations: (i) they noticed aspects in their own or their partner's teaching that they regarded worth reflecting on; (ii) they discussed either with a partner or in examination of the data (from memory in the journals, videos, transcripts) to come to terms with aspects of their teaching; (iii) they evaluated noticed aspects; (iv) they generated and/or shared alternatives or solutions for identified problems; (v) they set an agenda by formulating actions, plans or strategies to address issues noticed; (vi) they took up and tried out shared ideas in their teaching; (vii) they expressed solidarity with their partner in order to appreciate successful teaching or to soften the impact of dissatisfaction. I will exemplify these functions with excerpts from the data below. The coding categories are given with operational definitions in Appendix V.

Noticing is a function that was present in the teachers' reflections in all lessons, particularly in the post-lesson journals, the stimulated recall sessions and stimulated recall journals. An illustrating example is Alice's comment on unnecessary teacher talk while giving instructions:

Here I am sure they understood the instruction, but I'm still insisting on explanation in Turkish. I'm sure that when I watch it, I realise it. They got it and they started to be in pairs but I still talk (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Alice).

While this excerpt shows an example of noticing during examination of the video of a lesson, the journals gave the teachers the opportunity to record what they had noticed in the stimulated recall session ("we discussed the warm-up. I noticed before asking discussion questions, I should have focused on some key words" [Stimulated Recall Journal 4 Fiona]) or the reflective practice session ("I observed that I and my partner didn't follow *extremely* different ways in the lesson" [Reflective Practice Journal 3 Alice; emphasis in the original]).

Frequently, noticing led into a discussion through which the teachers attempted to gain an understanding of the significance of an aspect noticed. In the following example, Alice had noticed that she used code-switching extensively while giving instructions; showing unsureness, she assumed that she used L1 because she was not sure if her learners had grasped the instructions. With the researcher then she discussed the use of L1:

Researcher: *Do you think it's problematic to give it in Turkish?*

Alice: *(.) No, (.) I don't think so. (.) But (4 sec.) the only point that can be problematic that it gives the learners the sense that you cannot understand the instruction. You don't know what to do. Now I will explain this. Maybe they (.) they don't even (.) attempt to read the instructions. They think that teacher is already going to explain this. (.) Probably I would also do this. If I were a student, //I would do this.//*

Researcher: *//They may say//, 'We don't have to listen to the English teacher. In one minute the teacher will tell us'//*

Alice: *Probably* (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Alice).

Prompted by the researcher, Alice identified problematic aspects of overuse of L1 by adopting her learner perspective. While discussing two aspects (learners' self-efficacy may be harmed or learners ignore rubrics in the coursebook) she engaged in a process of reflection as the pauses in her speech indicate. Her conclusion was then confirmed by the researcher. Another excerpt provides evidence of discussing an issue while writing a journal entry:

I observed that some of the students found it too long and started to feel bored before watching the video. I think it would be more enjoyable if we had talked more about movies, trailers or posters. But the purpose why I did it was that I wanted them to recall the vocabularies (about natural disasters, health problems, environmental dangers in the context of emergent situations) they already learned (Post-Lesson Journal 2 Alice).

After noticing a problem (learner boredom), Alice generates an alternative to address the problem (expanded conversation about films and trailers), which is then confronted with the intended focus in the lesson.

Inherent in the excerpt is a kind of evaluation. Alice regarded a realised lesson exploitation (reviewing vocabulary related to environmental issues, natural disasters and emergency situations) as inappropriate based on her learners' reaction. A more obvious

evaluation reads: “I believe this activity didn’t work. Even I myself didn’t enjoy and didn’t find it meaningful” (Post-Lesson Journal 4 Alice). The data also contains examples of positive evaluations: “While watching myself, I realised that the cues that I wrote on the board made the writing actually more clear” (Stimulated Recall Journal 5 Fiona). It is worth noting that the functions of noticing, discussing and evaluating contained an affective component as they provided the teachers with opportunities to express their feelings.

Generating alternatives or solutions to perceived problems and sharing these was a further function the reflective practice fulfilled. For one thing, the teachers watched the videos with their partner’s classes and learned about alternative ways of conducting lessons or they reported on realised practices. For instance, Alice taught Fiona and me the possibility to share suggested sample answers for speaking tasks in the teacher’s book with the learners. Another example is a suggested alternative developed by Fiona in a reflective practice session: Discussing whether or not a map of a nameless city in the coursebook should be substituted with the location of the learners, she proposed as a third alternative to rewrite the given map based on the principle of localising to make the material more relevant: “But we can use this map and/ but we can change the names. For instance, Italian restaurant – Piazza [name of a local shopping centre], we can write. And Bowling Alley, we can write municipality” (Reflective Practice Session 5).

Based on the identification of critical issues in their teaching and informed about alternatives they received from their partner, the participants formulated actions, plans or strategies they wanted to try out in their classes. Unsurprisingly, they used the journals to set an agenda because the journal format contained questions asking the teachers to record what they would like to change in their teaching. A typical entry reads:

I’m still thinking of how to make my students engage in the speaking activities more actively

- *to motivate them to participate in speaking activities more actively*
- *teacher talk vs. st [student] talk*
- *make my sts [students] answer the questions in a logical way (e.g. giving reasons)* (Stimulated Recall Journal 6 Fiona)

Reflecting on topics to work on also included considerations on what to talk about in upcoming reflective practice sessions:

For the next reflective session we can talk about the benefits of such cooperation between us. We can talk about whether it worked or not, why we chose those methods for the tasks, what differences we observed in our classes although we used the same lesson plan, what differences there were in our students' reactions, and how we felt at the end. We can even discuss if we are reflective enough to accept this kind of cooperation with different colleagues in any institution to gain insight in our teaching. Because I'm not very sure of myself about it (Reflective Practice Journal 5 Alice).

As seen in this example, the topics put on the agenda were not only related to the immediate context of instructional practice in the classroom but also encompassed issues related to the feasibility of professional development in the institutional context.

The most concrete impact of the reflective practice was evident in the teachers' attempts to modify their teaching by implementing lesson ideas they had learned about in previous reflective practices. For instance, in order to deal with the problem that learners do not come up with the correct answers in listening task, it was suggested having learners check their answers with a partner before check in class. Fiona reported about her experience:

I totally liked the listening activity. They did the activities perfectly. (I asked them to check with their partners when they couldn't answer). This was a solution we discussed in our reflective practice session last week (Post-Lesson Journal 3 Fiona).

Similarly, Alice implemented a variation to establish pairs in pair work previously proposed in a reflective practice session:

I started mixing the groups, the students. These meetings gave me an idea. It really works. They say, sometimes they say 'Oh teacher, it's good, because I'm tired of this boy.' They give me some reflections for this. They also, I realised they didn't want to be pairs in because it becomes something very mechanical after a while (Stimulated Recall Session 3 Alice).

The examples shown so far indicate that in a reflection expressed by a participant often several functions are inherent. For example in the last excerpt, Alice did not only report the uptake of a previously learned practice ("The meetings gave me an idea"), but also evaluated it ("It really works") and, additionally, justified it post hoc based on learner feedback ("they didn't want to be pairs in because it becomes something very mechanical after a while"). The whole excerpt also suggests a kind of satisfaction perceived by Alice not only because the procedure of matching learners worked out but

also because the reflective practice was perceived as beneficial; this aspect is dealt with (under the code *appreciation*) in the next section about the participants' perceptions of the reflective practice. It should, however, be noted that the engagement in reflective practice was not continuously perceived positive, and in such instances the participants showed collegiality to soften discomfort felt by their partner.

It was reported in the findings for Lesson 5 (Section 4.3.5.1.) that Alice displayed dissatisfaction with her lessons and was not sure if the reflective practice would contribute to her personal and professional development or improve her teaching. Fiona was well aware of Alice's situation, and tactfully expressed her solidarity with Alice in the reflective practice session:

Fiona: *I don't see any problem in your teaching. Actually, you and I (.) are I believe that we have the same strategies. And you put this here, and I put this here. But we go the same (.) we follow the (.) what? (inc.) different paths. But we reach the same road, I think. So (.)*

Alice: *I don't know if I*

Fiona: *No, no*

Alice: *I if I reach or if the students reach, I'm not sure.*

Fiona: *I'm sure of it. Because I have watched five videos, five of your teaching. So they always (.) well, they were always good. But giving instruction, when it comes to giving instructions, we don't wait for them to understand the task. That may be our problem. For instance, I said one thing. Then I kept on talking. (.) I should let them (.) there must be silence in the class so that they can comprehend it (Reflective Practice Session 5).*

Notably, Fiona used the first person plural in her turns, and she focused on common problems both teachers have. She did not abstain from addressing a critical issue in both teachers' teaching, but selected a non-judgmental approach. In the journal related to the reflective practice session she then explained her cautious behaviour:

I believe we can learn from our mistakes, as teachers. So I was a bit confused whether to state my exact thoughts about the issues we discussed. I never want to offend her. I believe she is a good teacher (Reflective Practice Session Journal 5 Fiona).

Notably, Fiona recalled this instance in the post-intervention interview and reasoned that her intention had been to encourage Alice because of her (Alice's) anger: "Her feelings stopped me to make criticism" (Post-Intervention Interview Fiona). Not less

interestingly, Alice had noticed Fiona's reluctance to criticise her as she remarked in the post-intervention interview: "I always felt that she was a little bit nervous to criticise me" (Post-Intervention Interview Alice).

With general reference to criticising the partner in reflective practice, Alice claimed that she was less reluctant in criticising Fiona, and this was possible as they were friends. She concluded that having a good relationship was a prerequisite for effective reflective practice because it allowed addressing negative aspects in the partner's instructional practice. The participants' conviction that the partner and the researcher or facilitator should have mutually good relationships is in line with this finding; the participants also stated clearly that an outsider researcher or facilitator would be less preferable. Fiona reasoned:

If I think, professionally, I can learn a lot from a person I don't know, but, as I said in our last reflective session, I don't want to work with someone who doesn't have the same teaching principles as me. I believe that Alice and I have the same teaching principles. And although we conducted the lessons differently, I believe there are some key points in our teaching and they were very similar (Post-Intervention Interview Fiona).

A sense of collegiality was not only evident in instances when the reflective practice caused discomfort. It was also shown to indicate when the partner's instructional practice was found to be conducive to language learning. Alice, for example, praised Fiona:

While you were writing some specific things about those people, you triggered something else. Learners (.) uhm tried to do something for it. They didn't just read. They tried to underline. To get the main point about the people. That's what I liked most. Uhm, it was more relevant for them. (.) Otherwise they could just read and get some general ideas. You made it specific (Reflective Practice Session 4)

It should be noted that there is again some overlap to evaluation because Alice apparently assesses her partner's teaching. As stated above the evaluation does not seek to criticise the partner personally but provides feedback to specific aspects of her instructional practice. This is – according to Fiona - in contrast to the prevailing institutional culture because the two teachers "worked in collegiality, learned from each other, created a friendly atmosphere in such a disgusting working place" (Reflective Practice Journal 3 Fiona).

On the whole, the reflective practice provided the participants with opportunities to explore their teaching by identifying and discussing critical issues and allowing them to generate solutions they could try out in their classes. To fulfil these functions, the different tools took on complementary tasks as shown in Figure 13 (data taken from Alice's reflections in examining Lesson 3).

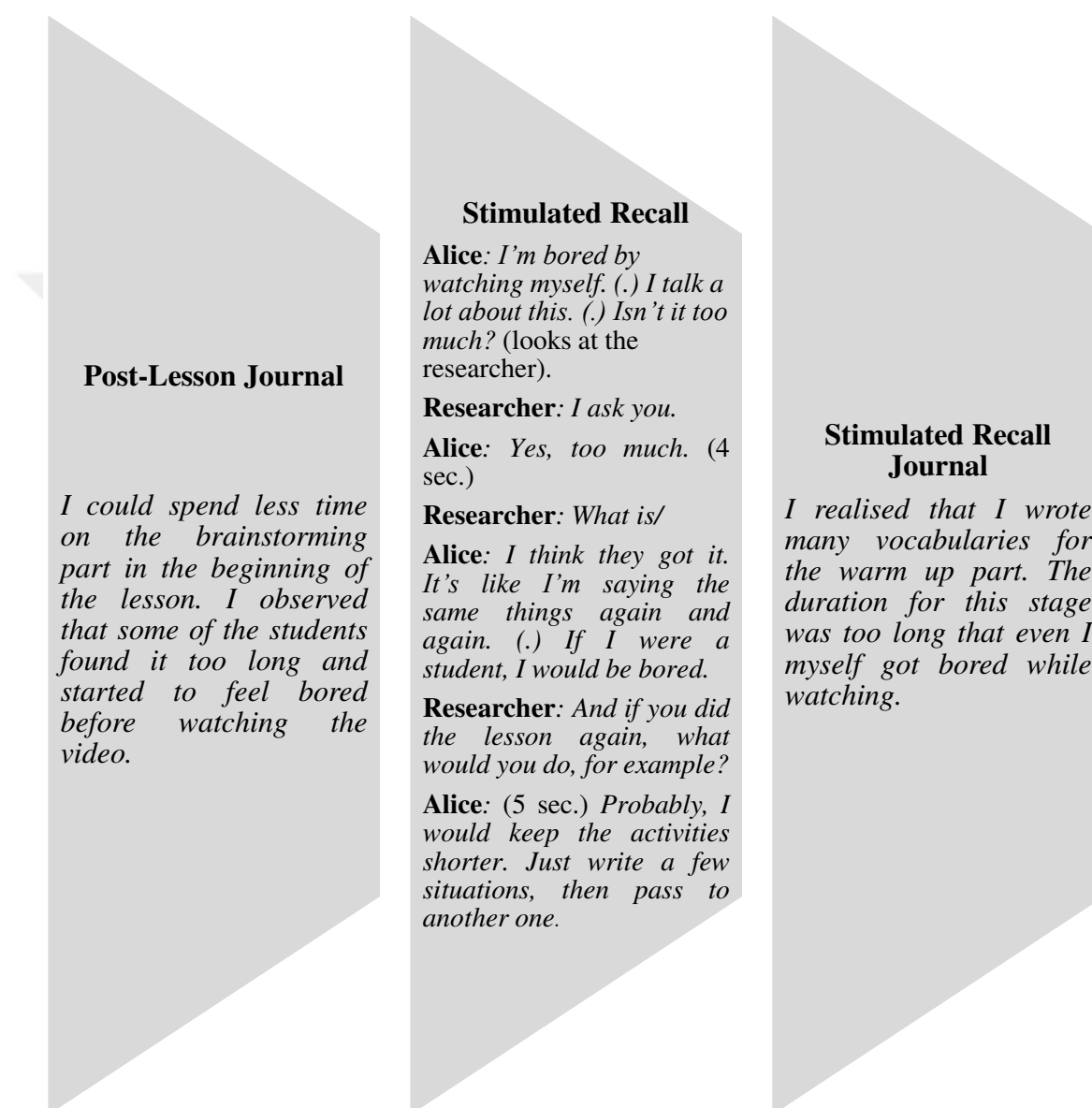


Figure 13. Complementary functions of reflective practice tools.

The problem noticed in the post-lesson journal is resumed in the stimulated recall session, where Alice expresses her self-criticism far harsher as a response to the visual stimulus. Since the stimulated recall is a dialogic reflective tool, the researcher as a reflective partner has the opportunity to ask probes or return questions to the teacher so

that certain aspects can be reflected more deeply and alternatives can be developed which may be tried out later. The stimulated recall journal then allows Alice to document and confirm the lesson she has learned.

4.4.3. The Teachers' Perceptions of the Reflective Practice

One of the research interests of the current study was to examine how the participants perceived the reflective practice they were engaged in and if their understanding of reflective practice and professional development changed throughout the study. In order to elicit data, I asked them directly but also checked the data for passages that contained responses or reactions to the reflective activities. To present the findings concerning this complex, I will first report on specific perceptions. Then, I will inform about the overall perceptions the participants held about reflective practice, and analyse if their conceptualisations of reflective practice had changed throughout the study.

4.4.3.1. Specific Perceptions of Reflective Practice

As an outcome of the data analysis I established four rather broad coding categories describing perceptions the participants held about the reflective practice activities: appreciation, discomfort, observation effect and observing oneself. Admittedly, observation effect and observing oneself are categories referring to instances in which the participants expressed some kind of discomfort but the coding categories are kept separately because observation effect is directly associated with perceived effects of lesson observation on learners and teachers, and observing oneself to the experience of watching videos of own lessons in the stimulated recall sessions. I will deal with the coding categories in turn. Operational definitions and samples are given in Appendix V.

When the participants appreciated the reflective practice, they emphasised three different benefits. For one thing, they expressed affective satisfaction: "Giving her [Fiona] a new idea (though she already knows the importance of authenticity in materials) made me feel good" (Reflective Practice Journal 3 Alice). This satisfaction was particularly gained in the reflective practice sessions: "Once again I had the satisfaction of collaboration between us" (Reflective Practice Journal 3 Alice). Both teachers repeatedly pointed to the unthreatening atmosphere of the reflective practice sessions which allowed them to verbalise weaknesses and deficiencies in their teaching.

Second, they appreciated the stimulated recall as a tool conducive to noticing issues they would not have noticed otherwise. The following quote includes three excerpts from the same stimulated recall session:

It's good that we watched that part. We didn't skip. At least I saw that what I can do to attract other students' interests. (...) Normally I'm aware of, I'm fully aware of what I am doing. I know that I cannot use the board effectively. I know this. But when I see it, you start seeing from the perspective of learners. When I stand in front of the board, I think no, it's not very important. My handwriting is not good, but not important. But when I see from their perspective, I see it's terrible. What I believe in, what I do can be different. (...) Maybe I can think that I am a perfect teacher, that I do everything very well in my class. But this shows, no you aren't (Stimulated Recall Session 3 Alice)

Notably, the stimulated recall as a provider of evidence helped Alice identify both positive and negative aspects of her teaching, allowed her to take over her learners' perspective and enabled her to challenge beliefs about her teaching; it can safely be assumed from the data that the reflective practices helped uncover beliefs or aspects teachers were not aware of: "In every session, I discovered one aspect of my teaching" (Reflective Practice Journal 3 Fiona).

A third appreciation expressed by the teachers was directed towards the perception of learning something that may have an impact on the instructional practice: "In this session, I remembered even doing minor changes may make bigger changes in your teaching" (Stimulated Recall Journal 4 Fiona). Alice, to give a further example, said that she had been developing criteria to assess other teachers' instructions when she watched videos with lesson observations. She discovered the importance of spoken interaction in the classroom as an indicator for effective teaching:

I observed that the students in her class are more active and willing to produce, speak, at least try to do something. The productivity of the learners' has always been important to me, but now I perceive it much more valuable (Reflective Practice Journal 5 Alice).

It was said that Alice and Fiona appreciated the reflective practice as beneficial because it allowed them to notice aspects in their teaching and modify instructional practice. This appreciation was not always associated with positive feelings. Alice, in particular, repeatedly reported how the reflective practice affected her emotionally. Besides verbalising her feelings of discomfort, she expressed distress through refraining

from watching videos of her classes in stimulated recall sessions (instead she listened) or from examining transcripts in reflective practice sessions. She reported on her feelings in the following example:

Çok, fazlası getirdi. Şu anda ben bizim gözlem yapmadığımız dersler dışında da kendimi kontrol etmeye başladım. Dedim ya hatta daha az biliyorken, daha mutlu bir insandım. Şimdi daha mutsuz bir öğretmen oldum. Ama daha iyi bir şey (.) yani sürekli bir eksiklik hali hissediyorum. ‘Doğru mu yaptım?’ ‘Şunu şuna bağlamalıyım.’ ‘Acaba öğrenciler sıkıldı mı?’ ‘Anlamlı mı gelmedi?’ Şu anda çok daha fazla eleştiriyorum kendimi. Eminim ki bu eleştiri bir yere varacak.

[The reflective practice] brought about plenty of issues. I have now started to monitor myself also in lessons we don’t observe. As I said, when I knew less I was happier. Now I have become an unhappier teacher. But being aware of the own deficiencies is actually better: ‘Did I do it in the right way?’ ‘I should have connected this with that.’ ‘Did the learners get bored?’ ‘Was it meaningful?’ At the moment, I’m criticising myself too much. But I’m sure the criticism will turn out to be beneficial eventually (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Alice).

Alice’s remarks indicate that she definitely appreciated and accepted the reflective practice as a tool to initiate professional development because it helped her uncover unfavourable parts of her teaching. At the same time it was a painful process she went through, especially from the third lesson observation on (see Sections 4.3.3.1, 4.3.4.1., 4.3.5.1. and 4.3.6.1.). Looking back at the whole process in the post-intervention interview, she confirmed her perceptions expressed during the reflective practice recognising that she had developed a more critical view of her own teaching. However, she was unsure about how she could benefit from the insights she gained in the daily instructional practice:

It was a very different experience. Maybe if I feel/ after this study I believe I have learned something. Practically I don’t know how much I can apply it after then. But if I feel at least I have this critical point of view. If I feel very bad about my teaching/ If I feel bad about my teaching, if I say there is something a problem, if I see that my students are not happy or I don’t feel good, maybe I can do it. I may understand there is something wrong (Post-Intervention Interview Alice).

Alice repeatedly associated her difficulties in transforming insights into improved teaching with her personality, which forced her to see everything critically and to focus

on her weaknesses rather than strengths. However, the data also points to the complexity of instructional practice as a further hindrance to transform lessons learned in reflective practice straightforward into teaching:

After this study I learned too much and I don't know how to put things together. A lot of ideas but now it enrolls another problem. I don't know how to apply it, how to combine all those ideas. I want to use, I want to try many things. (...) When it comes to the application it's getting harder. So it makes me feel (.) an (.) unsatisfied teacher now. I'm aware and this awareness is killing me (Reflective Practice Session 5).

It should be emphasised that Alice's perception of learning many issues surrounding her teaching is confirmed by the fact that the participants indeed dealt with a variety of issues throughout the study (cf. Section 4.4.1.).

Apparently, Fiona was much less affected by feelings of discomfort caused by the reflective practice. She followed an uncomplicated approach in that she pragmatically implemented what she had learned about in the reflective practice:

I really believe that it contributed to my teaching because I learned from (.) I learned many things from both of you. And I tried to use them in my teaching. I believe that it's working well. (.) But I don't criticise – I don't know if criticise is a correct word here – but I don't criticise myself as Alice does. Because I believe that this can be done like this. And this is my approach (Reflective Practice Session 5).

Actually, Fiona's lessons went on more smoothly towards the end of the study, and this surely had an impact on how she perceived the reflective practice. Alice's lessons, on the contrary provided her with feelings of dissatisfaction as the study went on. The teachers noticed this in the last reflective practice session:

Fiona: Especially in the first observations, in the first or second observation, I was thinking that I'm a bad teacher. And this is not just because of our meeting. I always think about it.

Alice: No, at first I believed I was a good teacher (laughs). At first I believed it, I was much better. But now I know more. Now I feel (.) like (.) I criticise myself (Reflective Practice Session 6).

In spite of her perceptions, Alice did not regret taking part in the study: "I have learned that I have achieved to be able to reflect on my own teaching to some extent" (Reflective Practice Journal 6 Alice).

Lesson observation was an integral part of the reflective practice. The participants had mixed feelings about this form of reflective practice as they repeatedly reported that the camera and the observer in the classroom generated an artificial atmosphere in which the learners and the teachers did not behave naturally. Alice told me that her learners expressed discomfort concerning the presence of the camera, and learners who normally participated in classroom interaction were reluctant. Except for Lesson 4, Alice addressed the observation effect on learners in reflective practice activities of all lessons, while Fiona mentioned it only in the first lesson. Fiona, however, addressed a particular effect on teachers:

I always feel the pressure that we/ I need to focus so my students get focused. And we cannot sometimes in our real teaching, we may talk about sometimes anything irrelevant. But when you observe us, I always feel the pressure of focusing on the task (Reflective Practice Session 5 Fiona).

Fiona deals with the important point that an observer may prevent teachers from teaching more spontaneously. She also detects a problematic issue in the design of the study: At study beginning we had agreed that I would observe lessons in which the teachers covered the same coursebook page. Even though I explained that the control of how to conduct the teaching of a coursebook page was completely with the teachers, they clearly felt the need to cover the pages within a reasonable amount of time.

Noting an additional point, Fiona believed that peer observation was advantageous over watching another teacher's class because due to the technical constraints a part of the classroom interaction got lost, e.g. speech in lower voice may not be discernible. As a final point on lesson observation, both teachers pointed out in the post-intervention interview that the presence of the camera was more disturbing than the presence of the researcher.

A related yet distinct perception the teachers reported was the experience of observing themselves. The main point expressed was the discomfort of watching oneself and hearing the own voice: "As I was watching it, I thought this can't be me" (Stimulated Recall Journal 1 Fiona). Alice perceived the stimulated recall for this reason even more uncomfortable than the situation of being observed in class. As noted earlier, in the stimulated recall sessions 4 and 6, she avoided watching herself by turning away her head from the screen. Consequently, she denoted watching herself as the least enjoyable part in the post-intervention interview. However, comparing the stimulated

recall with journal writing, Alice believed that stimulated recall would lead to more accurate reflection:

Writing journals. To/ making comments about yourself. I think they are not enough. The most basic evidence is the video. Because you see, as you said, more objective. There is nothing (.) to skip. You may not very objective when you evaluate yourself or another peer's observation. You see it (Post-Intervention Interview Alice).

The perception the teachers held about particular components of the reflective practice are summarised in Table 38. The results belonging to the coding category *observing oneself* are subsumed under *stimulated recall*.

Table 38

Perceived Advantages and Disadvantages of Reflective Tools

	Alice		Fiona	
	advantage	disadvantage	advantage	disadvantage
journal writing	• good way to express oneself • allows deep reflection: “I feel like I’m talking to myself” (Post-Intervention Interview Alice)	• may not be sufficient	• benefits proven in research • less threatening than observation	• following a given scheme^a • limited contribution to professional development
lesson observation	• provides evidence	• no natural behaviour of learners and teacher • learners reluctant to speak • camera more disturbing than observer • does not look forward to upcoming lesson observation (Stimulated Recall Session 4)	• provides evidence	• generates feeling of being a bad teacher • “looked so artificial” (Stimulated Recall Journal 1) • pressure of having to complete the coursebook page

		Alice)		
		• pressure of having to complete the coursebook page		
reflective practice session (collaboration)	• “nurturing atmosphere” (Reflective Practice Journal 1 Alice) • more effective than solely individual reflective practice • new perspectives gained • opportunity to appreciate other’s work • challenging but beneficial	• generates “the same feeling of being fed” (Reflective Practice Journal 2) • may turn out into giving an account	• “established a sense of ownership” (Reflective Practice Session 4) • learning from each other • sense-making of issues which were only noticed in previous reflective activities (journals, stimulated recall)	
stimulated recall	• provides clear evidence; record of things that otherwise would be forgotten • dialogic form of stimulated recall sessions • needs for improvement are uncovered	• time-consuming • verbalising reasons for practices difficult if the stimulated recall is not immediately after the lesson observed • hearing the own voice and watching own movements in class; “I still hate it” (Reflective Practice Session 6)	• strengthens confidence • discovery of weaknesses and strengths	• hearing the own voice and watching own movements in class • noticing own mistakes frustrating

transcript	• valuable • uncovers ambiguous teacher talk • no distraction as in the video	• not beneficial without purpose explained or focus given • mistakes in English in teacher talk disturbing • “It is (.) it was harder (.) to face with it than watching yourself” (Post-Intervention Interview Alice)	• uncovers flaws in classroom discourse (e.g. amount of student and teacher talk); therefore advantageous over video	• less effective than watching videos • not beneficial without purpose explained or focus given • talk documented is “not part of my teaching (...) seem[s] to be isolated for me” (Reflective Practice Session 5) • preparation believed to be too difficult
watching another teacher’s video	• necessary for more effective reflection because own teaching can be compared with another teacher’s • other teacher serves as model		• enhances reflectivity • conducive to noticing details • particularly valuable for identical content subject lessons	• loss of information through recording (sound, only small section of classroom visible); peer observation preferable

Note. ^a Fiona prefers a journal template that does not guide her by given questions.

From Table 38, the following main points can be observed: First, video-based forms of reflective practice were appreciated as providing evidence for strengths and weaknesses which may remain unnoticed in other forms of reflective practice. Second, video-based forms of reflective practice have the disadvantage of having negative impacts on those observed and cause discomfort when teachers watch videos showing themselves. Third, even though the value of individually conducted reflective practice is recognised, collaborative forms are experienced as particularly beneficial because issues can be explored in reflective conversations enabling teachers to get a partner’s view and

compare the own teaching with the partner's. Fourth, transcripts are effective means of reflective practice but their usage need to be introduced and a focus needs to be determined. Notably, Table 38 is a summary of the participants' perceptions of the reflective tools verbalised throughout the study. This may explain inconsistencies, for example when Fiona at an instance evaluated transcripts as advantageous over videos while expressing the opposite view at another instance.

4.4.3.2. Overall Perceptions and Reconceptualisations

In the previous section, I have summarised the particular perceptions the participants had gained throughout the study. Attention was given to their perceptions related to the reflective tools employed in the study. The following sections' focus is on the general understanding the participants held about reflective practice and professional development at study beginning and how this had changed compared throughout the study. I will start with Alice's conceptualisations.

4.4.3.2.1. Alice's Overall Perceptions and Reconceptualisations

In Section 4.2.4., Alice's beliefs about reflective teaching and professional development at study beginning were presented. These beliefs are summarised in the left column of Table 39. Her conceptualisations as evidenced in the metaphor elicitation task (*A reflective teacher is...*) and the post-intervention interview at the end of the study are summarised in the right column.

Table 39

Alice's Conceptualisations and Views of Reflective Practice and Professional Development at Study Beginning and End

conceptualisations and views at study beginning	conceptualisations and views at study end
being reflective prerequisite for development in terms of • being update with methods • accepting own responsibility instead of blaming learners • developing proficiency in English	being reflective • means exploration • requires systematic approach and effort • values learners and colleagues as source for knowledge • confronts beliefs about own teaching with reality • uncovers mismatches between plans and realisations
reflective teaching encompasses • ability to self-criticism • collaboration	reflective teaching encompasses • honesty in identifying strengths and weaknesses • collaborative search for solutions
reflective practice can be realised through • reading books and articles • joining conferences • journal writing • lesson study • postgraduate studies	reflective practice can be realised through • cooperation/regular reflective circles • peer observation • video recordings • journal writing • learner feedback
no institutional culture of professional development	personal issues hamper development of institutional culture of professional development professional development only effective on voluntary basis

As seen in Table 39, Alice's conceptualisation shifted not in a way that her previous beliefs lost their validity, but her conceptualisations were expanded and accentuated. She even claimed:

I learned uhm (.) the concept of being reflective. What was it for me at first? What I thought at the end of the study? I supposed being reflective/ I thought being reflective was a little bit abstract for me. (.) It wasn't (.) uhm I didn't have many definitions for it. But now I have. I said something general like having willingness, to be ready for developing or something. But when it comes to real, things are much more different than I thought (Post-Intervention Interview Alice).

Her conceptualisation changed as she now understood being reflective as the active examination of the own teaching context. In line with this, she used the metaphor *explorer* to define reflective teachers as “the ones who begin their journey to find out the new knowledge” (Reflective Teacher Metaphor Elicitation Task Alice). This journey, according to Alice, encompasses a principled approach, the acknowledgement of learners and colleagues as sources to expand knowledge, passion, courage and the disposition of not giving up easily when failure is encountered. She emphasised the need to engage in some kind of action to be reflective: “It is worthless for a teacher to have perfect theoretical knowledge unless s/he practices it in classrooms” (Reflective Teacher Metaphor Elicitation Task Alice). As seen in Table 39, she listed more classroom-based ways of reflection (including video recording) but did not mention transmission-based forms such as conferences.

Alice described her participation in the study as an extraordinary experience: “It was the first time I put a light on me. OK, what I’m doing, why I’m doing this” (Post-Intervention Interview Alice). Comparing this study with the lesson study she had joined before, she felt that the reflective practice was more intensive due to the fact that her own teaching was in the focus of examination and the number of participants was lower. As documented in Section 4.4.3.1., her experience was not exclusively associated with positive feelings but also characterised by dissatisfaction with her own teaching as an outcome of the data-led reflective practice. Importantly, Alice expressed the view that engagement in reflective practice may not directly transform a teacher into a more effective language teacher. However, she pointed out that being a participant had increased her confidence to attend forms of professional development in the future, and that it actually forced her to look at aspects of her professional practice more critically:

After this last reflective session I have started thinking about whether I would be volunteer in such a reflective study or not in my teaching career because this study led me to see my strengths and weaknesses not only as a teacher but also as a person. Apparently, I would regard these kinds of studies valuable (...) in case I find a really collaborative group, the members of which are helpful and eager to share their teaching experiences and learn from each other (Reflective Practice Journal 6 Alice)

As she additionally pointed out, reflective practice has the potential to open new perspectives for teachers, may contribute to their personal development and, eventually,

exert an impact on learners: “I may not be an effective teacher. But I may believe I am effective in their [the learners’] lives” (Post-Intervention Interview Alice).

4.4.3.2.2. Fiona’s Overall Perceptions and Reconceptualisations

In Section 4.2.5., Fiona’s beliefs about reflective teaching and professional development at study beginning were presented. These beliefs are summarised in the left column of Table 40. Her conceptualisations as evidenced in the metaphor elicitation task (*A reflective teacher is...*) and the post-intervention interview at the end of the study are summarised in the right column.

Table 40

Fiona’s Conceptualisations and Views of Reflective Practice and Professional Development at Study Beginning and End

conceptualisations and views at study beginning	conceptualisations and views at study end
professional development is a way to improve teaching: • being update with methods • tracing the changes in language reflective teaching means holding a mirror to the teaching; it requires • school culture of collaboration (individual attempts may compensate for lack of school culture)	being reflective • means holding a mirror to the teaching; includes ○ identification of cause and effect relations in teaching ○ identification of strengths and weaknesses ○ willingness to work on weaknesses • requires self-awareness • means taking over responsibility: transmission-based forms of professional development not sufficient
reflective practice can be realised through • webinars • peer observation • video observation • informal meetings/critical friends group • journal writing	reflective practice can be realised through • critical friends groups • peer observation • journal writing
no institutional culture of professional development	no institutional culture of professional development

At first sight, Fiona’s conceptualisations of reflective practice do not seem to have changed. She used the expression *holding a mirror* both at study beginning and at the

end of the study when she defined the reflective teacher as “the person who can hold a mirror to his/her teaching” (Reflective Teacher Metaphor Elicitation Task Fiona). However, the experience she gained throughout the study resonates with the dimensions she attributes to reflection as identifying cause and effect as well as strengths and weaknesses in instructional practice. Additionally, Fiona believes that reflective practice serves as a tool to detect espoused theories. Like Alice, Fiona’s view of reflection is stronger directed towards examination of distinct classroom events. In line with this view, she emphasises the need not exclusively to resort to information received in transmission-based forms of professional development but to take responsibility for the own professional development.

For Fiona, the reflective practice was a tool to learn specific aspects of her own teaching or to get informed about ways of teaching by her colleague. In the post-intervention interview, she identified giving instructions and checking answers as her weaknesses and appreciated the atmosphere in Alice’s classes as particular issues she had learned about in the study. Additionally, she referred to implementing games as a modification in her own instructional practice as an outcome of the reflective practice.

Explicitly referring to the experience she gained throughout the study, Fiona formulated the need to establish forms of professional development organised by the administration. However she believed that participation needed to be voluntary: “If it is compulsory, many teachers do just participate in it and they just listen” (Post-Intervention Interview Fiona). Moreover, Fiona appreciated the value of collaborative reflective practice which included meetings and peer observation. The longer the reflective practice lasted, the more she felt that the participants were able to find it meaningful and they even developed a kind of pride. Quite in the middle of the study, Fiona noted: “We established a sense of ownership for this reflective programme. We worked in collaboration. We made valuable suggestions to improve our teaching. Shortly, we learned from each other. It should go on like this” (Reflective Practice Session 4 Fiona).

4.5. Summary

This study had two main foci: It investigated two English language teachers’ beliefs concerning coursebooks and their actual coursebook exploitation, and it examined the

language teachers' engagement in reflective practice activities through which they explored their coursebook exploitations.

The study revealed the following key findings concerning the participants' coursebook beliefs and exploitations: (i) The participants held positive views on coursebooks, which they accepted as their main tool in their teaching. Indicating some adaptations, they reported organising their instructional practise around the coursebook as a response to constraints provided by the programme (e.g. time and exams). (ii) The participants exploited the coursebook following the by the coursebook authors intended procedures and learning outcomes, i.e. the coursebook served as guidance; this approach to coursebook exploitation was favoured by cursory lesson panning. Realised adaptations were minor as they did not change the course of activities offered by the coursebook. (iii) The participants justified their exploitations with a variety of reasons. The immediate course or lesson context was dominant for both teachers, i.e. they used the coursebook in a way that her learners' comprehension of materials and engagement in activities was facilitated. Alice more often referred to her own style or showed uncertainty concerning reasons or purposes of realised exploitations. (iv) Realised exploitations were in line with stated beliefs. However, the coursebook controlled the teachers more than they had assumed; this was stated by Fiona explicitly.

Concerning the reflective practice the teachers were engaged in, the study revealed the following key findings: (i) The reflective practice allowed the participants to identify and address a variety of issues related to the immediate or mediate context of instructional practice. The reflective tools specifically enabled the teachers to notice, explore in discussion and evaluate issues related to their instructional practice and to formulate actions to be taken to address those topics. Also, the teachers tried out practices in their classes they had learned about in the reflective practice activities, and perceived the reflective practice as conducive to enhancing collegiality. (ii) The teachers appreciated the reflective practice as conducive to their professional development but they also expressed discomfort, which was related to the noticing of own weaknesses and, in the case of Alice, perceived inability to improve the own teaching in the light of the deficiencies identified. They also held critical perceptions on reflective tools, particularly on video-based tools pointing to observation effects and negative feelings while watching own lessons. (iii) The teachers redefined their definitions of reflective practice and professional development. They conceptualised reflective practice as a tool contributing to professional development, and emphasised the need to be exploring

actively the own teaching context rather than relying on transmission-based forms of professional development. The results presented in this chapter are discussed in the light of the literature in the following chapter.



CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

5.1. Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the study are discussed. The study had two main foci. The first focus was on the beliefs two EFL teachers held about coursebooks and their actual coursebook exploitation. The second focus was on the participants' engagement in data-led reflective practice which they used as a tool to explore their own coursebook exploitation.

The chapter is organised according to the research questions. In Section 5.2., I will discuss the results related to the beliefs the participating teachers held about coursebooks and their own coursebook consumption (Research Question 1: *What beliefs do the teachers hold about English as foreign language coursebooks and their own coursebook exploitation?*). In Section 5.3., the coursebook exploitation of the participants is reviewed under the aspects of realised adaptations (Research Question 2: *How do the teachers exploit the coursebook?*), provided reasons (Research Question 2a: *What reasons do they provide for their exploitation?*) and match of stated beliefs and practices (Research Question 2b: *Do stated beliefs about coursebooks and coursebook exploitation resonate with realised practices?*). Sections 5.4. and 5.5. are concerned with the reflective practice carried out in this study. I will first discuss the contributions of the reflective practice to the teachers' explorations (Research Question 3: *How does the reflecting practice promote the exploration of the teachers' beliefs and practices?*). In Section 5.5., the teachers' perceptions of the reflective practice are discussed in the light of the literature (Research Question 4: *How do the teachers perceive reflective practice for their own professional development?*). The chapter is concluded with a personal reflection that provides me with the opportunity to address the whole study from my personal perspective with a distinct focus on my role as researcher and co-participant in the reflective practice.

5.2. Coursebook Beliefs

The participants held positive views on coursebooks, which they accepted as the main tool in their teaching as it served them as a resource and, more significantly,

guidance. Considering McGrath's (2006a) thematic classification according to which teachers who conceptualise coursebooks as guidance give control to the coursebook, it is somehow contradicting that the teachers thought at study beginning they had control over the coursebook. The teachers' positive opinions about coursebooks are in line with other studies indicating that English language teachers *in general* are convinced of the functionality of coursebooks and other curriculum materials (Bosompen, 2014; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007; McGrath, 2006a, 2006b). The conceptualisations were not uni-dimensional as the teachers were aware of the negative effects poorly designed coursebooks could have (Alice) or the potential danger of deskilling teachers (Fiona). Both teachers justified their views with the quality of coursebooks as professionally designed tools to address the challenges of formal language instruction, and the functions they attributed to coursebooks resonate with accounts given in the literature (Hutchinson & Torres, 1994; McGrath, 2013; Richards, 2014; Ur, 2015).

Both teachers reported minor adaptations aiming to facilitate learner comprehension and production, that means to make coursebook content more accessible to the learners (Li & Harfitt, 2016). Adaptations with a stronger focus on authenticating materials in Alice's case and adding guided exercises in Fiona's case were reported. This resonates with their general beliefs about language and learning because Alice more strongly associated language learning with learning about the target culture while Fiona saw a place for deductive grammar teaching or focus on forms in communicative language teaching. Notably, as reported, for example, by Çakır (2015), Loh & Renandya (2016), Menkabu and Harwood (2014) or Shawer (2010a), the teachers said that they skipped certain activities (pronunciation activities) because they regarded them unnecessary for the learners. This coincides with the work by Çakır (2015) who, also in the Turkish context, found out that teachers do not add activities with a focus on using English for communicative purposes because they do not regard them suitable to meet their learners' future needs. Stated differently, teachers in ELT contexts with a strong focus on examination (and possibly, as a further factor, a dense course programme forcing teachers to finish the book in time) may lose sight of potential future use of English by learners, and omission of activities related to pronunciation is more likely to occur. All in all, the adaptations reported by the participants were minor in nature and suggested that they organised their instructional practise around the coursebook as a response to constraints provided by the programme and own views on language learning and teaching.

5.3. Coursebook Exploitations

The analysis of the actual coursebook use revealed that the participants exploited the coursebook following the procedures intended by the coursebook authors. Realised adaptations were minor in nature as they did not lead to a change in the course of activities offered in the coursebook. Notably, texts in reading or listening texts were not rewritten. This means, the coursebook components were not adapted in a way that the lesson aims inherent in the coursebook lessons were modified. Alice heavily made use of extemporisation in the first three lessons, and restructured, for example, by having the learners read texts in a multiple matching task in a different order compared to the suggested order in the coursebook taken as the default, but she also localised material. Similarly, Fiona did not radically manipulate or omit the coursebook materials. All her adaptations were in line with the objectives of the lessons as designed by the coursebook authors. When she added, for example hangman as a warm-up activity, it prepared learners for upcoming classroom work with coursebook materials. As reported for teachers in Menkabu & Harwood's (2014) study, neither Alice nor Fiona removed the coursebook from the centre of the lesson. Taking into account that the framework for coding adaptations used in this study leads to an identification of rather slight changes to the material, thus leading to a high number of adaptations identified, Alice and Fiona still acted as curriculum-transmitters (Shawer, 2010a) because they enacted the curriculum material following the advised procedures in the teacher's book and they stuck to the programme delivered by the school management. In other words, the school and, consequently, the participants used the coursebook "as the de facto curriculum" (Garton & Graves, 2014a, p. 654).

While the teachers related *reported* adaptations mainly to the dense course programme and exams along with perceived needs to make coursebook components more accessible to learners at study beginning, the exploration of the observed coursebook exploitations revealed that the teachers in fact were driven by a variety of reasons covering accounts by Li and Harfitt (2016, 2017) and Tomlinson & Masuhara (2018). These reasons included institutional constraints (the programme with its exams), but more notably they referred to the immediate course or lesson content, i.e. they made changes to the material to facilitate learner engagement by enhancing comprehension or clarification of tasks so that learners could engage in tasks in the coursebook more easily. In this sense a significant amount of adaptations intended the viability of

coursebook activities (Li & Harfitt, 2016, 2017). Also, particularly valid for Alice, adaptations mirrored personal preferences or routines of the teacher indicating that coursebook adaptation may often be an intuitive practice rather than an outcome of reflective consideration (Harfitt, 2006b; Islam & Mares, 2003; Menkabu & Harwood, 2014). Especially Alice sometimes expressed uncertainty about realised practices in that she was not able to justify them, but this was obviously also a response to unfortunate decisions on coursebook exploitations that did not result in desired learner behaviour. Again Alice more than Fiona pointed to satisfaction with the material that guided her in following the coursebook as the script or realising only minor adaptations as also documented in several studies (Bosompen, 2014; Çakır, 2015; Lee & Bathwater, 2007; Rivera Cuayahuitl & Pérez Carranza, 2015). Regarding Fiona, the observations and her reflections revealed that she was much more goal-oriented in enacting the coursebook in class. This materialised in a rather low number of adaptations and, consequently a low number of justifications. In other words, she tended to exploit the coursebook as it is, and adapted it with a clear focus in mind. The cases of Fiona and Alice seem to confirm that “some teachers are naturally predisposed to avoiding uncertainty in the name of stability, while others are drawn to its unpredictable and perhaps even exciting nature” (Campbell, 2007, p. 8).

A problematic aspect of Alice and Fiona’s coursebook exploitations was that their decisions were frequently not driven by pedagogic concerns but addressed constraints set by the institutional framework or the immediate course context, or resonated with routinised teacher behaviours. This is in accord with the observation that teachers’ coursebook exploitations are frequently driven by pragmatic rather than principled considerations (Macalister, 2016b, p. 44). An illustrating example is Fiona’s decision in Lesson 5 to restructure an exercise resulting in simplification; she explained that the adaptation was not entirely based on concerns for the learners’ level but aimed at saving time.

An important outcome of this study – and a conclusive explanation for the participating teachers’ realised exploitations – is that they did not engage in lesson planning by examining the material through inspecting the functions of coursebook components on a page, establishing own objectives or checking the appropriateness of the coursebook material to activate learner participation (cf. Richards, 1998, pp. 103-121). The teachers themselves explained that they resorted to cursory lesson planning, that they did not like planning or believed it was not the way how Turkish teachers did.

The lack of lesson planning was apparent in the pre-lesson interviews, and in the post-lesson explanations the teachers indicated that some adaptations were made spontaneously. Also, Alice was at times not able to explain why she had exploited the coursebook in a specific way. Additionally, the data provides examples in which coursebook components (procedures and intended outcomes) were misunderstood.

The lack of sufficient planning evidenced in its outcomes documented in this study has to be seen critically given the importance of the “participatory relationship (...) in which both the teacher and the curriculum are significant and *active* participants” (Remillard, 2005, p. 238, emphasis added): Coursebooks are curriculum artefacts (Brown, 2009; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1991, 1998), and in order to enact curricula effectively, an *active*, informed examination of coursebook materials is necessary to adapt them in a way that learner needs in the specific context are addressed and learning objectives are achieved (Li & Harfitt, 2016, 2017). Schunk (2012) clearly explicates the significance of lesson planning to become a reflective teacher and the affordances of reflective practice to become an effective lesson planner:

When reflective teachers plan, they do so with the goal of teaching all students. Many good ideas for lesson plans can be garnered from colleagues and practitioner journals. When students have difficulty grasping content presented in a certain way, reflective teachers consider other methods for attaining the same objective (p. 273).

Another illuminating example for following the coursebook closely instead of initiating major adaptation was given in Lesson 6. Both teachers were not in favour of the lesson content (environmental issues and ways to protect the environment), and they believed that the content may not raise the learners’ interest because they believed it was not relevant for them and it was not given prominence in their culture. Interestingly then, they did not, for example, omit the whole coursebook page (which was not allowed as stated in the course programme) or find another access to the topic, nor did they change the lesson focus (for example by asking learners if environmental issues have relevance for them). This mirrors Forman’s (2014) observation that non-native teachers of English may “not intervene in the text, in order, for example, to subvert, question, or simply to introduce cross-cultural comparisons” (p. 85) when they teach with global ELT coursebooks. According to Forman, the authoritative stance of ELT coursebooks in the eyes of non-native speakers may prevent them from engaging in major adaptation. In the case of this study, other constraints as reported in other

educational domains in Turkey (Gür, 2014; Sarı, 2018), such as lack of time, the dense programme, the fact that the teachers were obliged to teach the lesson as evidenced in the curriculum, the time of the lesson towards course end with diminished teacher and learner motivation, and, maybe as an outcome of these factors, cursory lesson planning interacted with their (collaborative) decision to stick to the procedures foreseen in the coursebook, at least the participants did not explain that they had not dared to question the authority of the coursebook used.

Again related to Lesson 6, which consisted of a task including speaking, listening and reading, Alice was concerned that it was too much to include so many different skills in a coursebook lesson, which again did not encourage her to adapt the material. Her remark shows that she was not aware of or did not fully recognise guiding principles in materials development, for example, the integration of different skills within a task to enhance the communicativeness and authenticity of coursebook materials (McDonough et al., 2013).

The coursebook used was based on communicative language teaching, but the lessons observed were often not communicative in the sense that learners rarely communicated content relevant for them extensively (cf. the transcripts Section 4.4.1.1.). Looking at the ‘uncommunicativeness’ of the lessons observed, it is for one thing to ask to what extent the conceptions the participating teachers held concerning communicative language resonated with their instructional practice. Documented mismatches may be explained with Harmer’s (2003) remark that communicative language teaching means different things to different people, or may actually reveal that the teachers’ beliefs were not deeply rooted or based on knowledge of how to teach communicatively in an effective way (Phipps & Borg, 2009).

For another thing, it needs to be recognised that the material itself has an impact on classroom discourse as a significant indicator for facilitation of SLA (Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, p. 92; Walsh, 2011), because learners are likely to verbalise what the material expects them to do (Guerrettaz & Johnston, 2013). The coursebook used in the study is a typical sample of current ELT coursebooks that standardise lessons by telling teachers and learners what to do through highly structured courses of activities and tasks (Littlejohn, 2012; cf. Section 3.3.3.) often expecting learners to give expectable answers. Somehow paradoxically, teachers using global ELT coursebooks that subscribe to communicative language teaching as a script may not generate communicative teaching as evidenced in classroom discourse because of the dubious

appropriateness of modern coursebooks to promote communicative language teaching and learning (Harmer, 2003; Littlejohn, 2012; Macalister, 2016b; Tomlinson, 2008, 2017; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018). Following the steps offered in the coursebook may neither trigger oral learner participation nor facilitate SLA (Tomlinson, 2017) but leads to “unit-by-unit, lesson-by-lesson, task-by-task, and page-by-page” coursebook exploitation (Shawer, 2010a, p. 180) in form of a “lockstep teaching”, which is based on the – maybe unquestioned – assumption that learners “learn the same thing in the same way at the same time” (McGrath, 2016, p. 75). Given this criticism and given the teachers’ general satisfaction with the coursebook as stated in the pre-intervention interviews along with the pressure to cover a predetermined amount of pages every week and cursory lesson planning guiding the teachers to use the coursebook without major adaptations, the absence of real communication in the classroom observed seems to be an expectable outcome.

In the light of the structured delivery of tasks in the coursebook, the participants’ overwhelming reliance on the coursebook can be critically seen as an indicator for deskilling (Gray, 2000; Littlejohn, 2012; Richard & Renandya, 2002). The teachers shaped their instructional practice within the framework given by the coursebook (Akbari, 2008) which appeared “to be the engine that drives much current practice” (Thornbury, 2013, p. 217).

The teachers’ coursebook exploitation matched by and large the stated beliefs about coursebooks and coursebook exploitation at study beginning. It is evidently the reflective practice on concrete lesson events that brought about some differences between stated beliefs and practice observed and an awareness of those differences in the participants. For one thing, the teachers noticed that they depended more on the coursebook than they had assumed. Also, it came out, as mentioned above, that the teachers were much more guided by other factors (e.g. personal preferences) than reported. The impact of exams was a frequently voiced reason at study beginning, but it was much less mentioned when the teachers reflected on observed classroom events during the reflective practice. Particularly this result raises the question if washback effects, frequently mentioned as factors influencing teachers in their selection and exploitation of teaching materials (Abdel Latif, 2017; Arıkan, 2009; Çakır, 2015; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007; Menkabu & Harwood, 2014; Li & Harfitt, 2016, 2017; Loh & Renandya, 2016; Pouromid & Amerian, 2018) indeed has a major impact on specific teacher decisions to use the coursebook in a certain way. It needs to be considered that

teachers' reports may entail more vagueness compared to explanations based on observed practice when they are asked about beliefs and adaptation habits. Like other studies, the beliefs were not in strong mismatch to stated beliefs (e.g. Farrell & Ives, 2015; Farrell & Mom, 2015), even though some studies on coursebook exploitation have shown mismatches between reported and realised exploitations concerning grammar teaching and exploiting communicative activities (Abdel Latif, 2017; Seferaj, 2014; Tasseron, 2017).

Two remarks concerning the methodology of this study will finalise this section. It was agreed that both teachers covered the same page on the coursebook so that a common basis was provided to examine coursebook exploitations in the process of the data-led, collaborative reflective practice. This component of the research design may have encouraged the participating teachers to stick more to the coursebook than they normally did. However, for three reasons this aspect does not seem to have influenced the participants' teaching significantly. For one thing, the teachers reported normally following the book as in the lessons observed and personal preference was a significant justification for coursebook exploitation. Second, as discussed above, lesson planning was not significantly carried out; logically, it is expectable that teachers stick to the coursebook closer when they have not planned the lesson in detail. Third, the coursebook-led context forced the teachers to cover what was given in the book also beyond the lessons observed.

The second remark is directed to the decision to have the participants discuss their coursebook exploitations after the lessons and *based on* the lessons. I completely agree with Grammatosi and Harwood (2014) who emphasise

the context-bound, mediated nature of textbook use, reaffirming that content analysis will only take textbook research so far, and that textbooks cannot be studied in a classroom-free vacuum: it is abundantly clear that John [the study's participant] radically transformed the textbook material *in situ* (p. 195, emphasis in the original).

Transferred to the context of the current study, Alice and Fiona used the coursebook as curriculum-transmitters because they used the book in a context of affordances and constraints that guided them to use the coursebook as they did; this, of course, should not suggest that they would not have had other alternatives in coursebook exploitation. Grammatosi and Harwood (2014) also point to the limitedness of asking teachers only in the pre-lesson phase, and I should like to add that asking teachers about how they use

coursebooks without directly linking it to the practice of coursebook consumption is unlikely to give the full picture because some degree of vagueness in participant responses is expectable. This remark does not intend to devalue studies based on teachers' reports on coursebook exploitation (e.g. Bolster, 2014, 2015; Bosompen, 2015; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007) but a more accurate account of factors influencing teachers in exploiting curriculum materials needs to take the practice into account.

5.4. Reflective Practice: Promotion of Exploration of Teacher Beliefs and Practices

The reflective practice allowed the participants to identify and address a variety of issues related to the immediate or mediate context of instructional practice. Reflective practice starting from an examination of own or other teachers' coursebook exploitation appeared to be a catalyst conducive to exploring tacit knowledge and thinking about best practices (Bouckaert, 2018). As explicated in the previous section, the reflective practice triggered a process in which the participants started to examine the role of the coursebook in their teaching and they came to the conclusion that the coursebook exerted a more significant control of their instructional practice than assumed at study beginning. Data from the post-intervention interview shows that Alice gained awareness that, while factors beyond the teacher (the teaching environment, the learners, the immediate course context and the coursebook) played a role in her teaching context, she recognised the factor *teacher* as equally contributing to ineffective instructional practice. In short, and they accepted responsibility for their teaching, a significant feature of reflective practitioners (Dewey, 1933). Apparently, the reflective practice did not cause a unidirectional transformation in the teachers in a form that new information was simply added to existing knowledge and teaching practices were modified, but existing beliefs were challenged and new insights and conceptualisations were gained. In that respect, the reflective practice mediated the participants' gradually emerging process of gaining insights into their own teaching and empowered the participants as they expanded their knowledge (Engeström, 2018; Feryok, 2012; Lantolf, 2012).

More specifically, the data-led, collaborative reflective practice utilised in this study contributed to the teachers' exploration in several ways. For one thing, it allowed the teachers to identify and talk about several aspects of their instructional practice. Uncovering aspects teachers are not aware of or do not notice is an apparent function of reflective practice (Arslan & Başağa, 2010, Bai, 2014, S. M. Gary, 2012; Jackson &

Cho, 2018; Kayaoğlu, et al., 2016; Unlu & Kulekci, 2018). The examination of coursebook exploitation served as a springboard to reflect on a variety of aspects promoting breadth of reflection (Luttenberg & Bergen, 2008; Moon, 2004) by departing from the concretely investigated instance, which is actually recommended for effective reflection (Korthagen & Vasalos, 2005). The results confirm Noffke and Brennan's (2005) remark that the "real conditions of teachers' work form not just the constraint, but also the substance of their reflections" (p. 66). More specifically, the results confirm Arslan's (2018) findings of her study with foreign language teachers in the Turkish context showing that teachers perceive aspects related to their immediate teaching context as most relevant to be dealt with in professional development. The findings of the current study strongly suggest that exploring English language teachers' coursebook exploitation for research purposes or as a starting point to engage in reflective practice is conducive to arrive at understandings of many areas beyond the coursebook. Harwood (2017), pointing to the value of research studies outside ELT, remarks "that we are learning as much about the teachers in the studies concerned, their identities, and their development as professionals as we are about the way in which they exploit textbooks and materials in class" (p. 274).

Second, we saw that the participants engaged in a variety of activities that were coded as noticing, discussing and evaluating significant issues, generating/sharing alternatives, uptake (trying out practices) and expressing collegiality. The participants engaged in a reflective cycle as they reviewed their actions, detected critical aspects in their teaching, developed alternatives and initiated a kind of experimentation by testing alternatives in the classroom (Boyd & Fales, 1983; Burton, 2009; Korthagen, 2001; Moon, 1999; Senese, 2007; Thorsen & DeVore, 2013; Wallace 1991). Designed as formative intervention study, the results of this study coincide with other studies (not necessarily in the context of foreign language teaching) as the overview given by Engeström, et al. (2014) shows. The authors' synopsis reveals that participants engaging in formative intervention are equipped with transformative agency as they individually and collaboratively criticise current practices, explicate formerly unnoticed potentials of practices, envision alternative approaches, commit themselves to trying out concrete steps and realise them; additionally resistance to proposed change appears, which, in the current study, has become manifest in Alice's perceived and expressed discomfort as she clearly identified negative aspects in her teaching but also noticed that she was not able to better her teaching immediately (cf. Section 5.5.). Notably, the agency the

participants arrived at was an outcome of negotiating with critically perceived components which may cause greater challenges and confusion than putting insights coming from an outside expert into practice (Engeström, 2007, p. 382; Virkkunen, 2006). Looking holistically at the data, the current study clearly confirms that data-led reflective practice is an interventional activity that expands teacher knowledge (Engeström, 2018) as Alice and Fiona reconceptualised their beliefs about coursebook exploitation and reflective practice, empowers and emancipates teachers (Boyd & Fales, 1983; Burnard, et al., 2015) as they noticed, evaluated and to some extent modified their practice.

Taking the framework suggested by van Beveren et al. (2018) as a guideline, the analysis of the data coming from the post-intervention interviews, participant journals, stimulated recall and reflective practice sessions revealed that the reflective practice (i) promoted the participants' professional development as it gave them an understanding of the value of critically examining the own teaching context, (ii) modified their beliefs about reflective practice and challenged their perception about their own coursebook exploitation, (iii) helped modify the participants' practical knowledge, which, however, did not extensively materialise in form of modified instructional practice, and (iv) enabled the participants to develop "empathic understanding" (van Beveren et al., 2018, p. 9) towards the partner's struggles while being involved in reflective practice. There were distinct examples of "cumulative talk" (Postholm, 2018a, p. 435) indicating that the participants supported each other through praising good teaching practice or when they saw their partners faced with uncomfortable teaching experiences; additionally they were encouraged to appreciate their partner's contributions for their own professional growth (Brookfield, 2017, p. 119). This coincides with Ashraf and Rarieya's (2008) finding that

Reflective conversations provided the teachers with the opportunity to collaboratively inquire about teaching and learning in their classes. Multiple perspectives on teaching issues were shared and this was helpful in developing a trusting relationship and commitment to teaching between the group members (p. 276).

The current study indicates that the collegiality experienced by the participants helped reduce isolation as a frequently asserted problem in the teaching profession but, there were also instances indicating refraining from critical feedback (Borko et al., 2008; S. M. Gray, 2012; Kelchtermans, 2006).

Appreciating that Alice and Fiona took up alternatives learned about in their collaborative reflections and expanded their knowledge, it should be noted that the data encompasses distinct evidence for instances in which the teachers did not engage in critical reflection or modify aspects of their teaching. The teachers' instructional practice did not change significantly when we consider the classroom interaction as evidenced in the transcripts and the observation that coursebook exploitation remained close to the coursebook in spite of critical views of coursebook content (Lesson 6; cf. the discussion in Section 5.3.). Also, the teachers were only able to exploit the transcripts effectively when the examination was strongly scaffolded by the researcher. Stated differently, towards the end of the study there were still instances indicating that aspects noticed in oral or written reflections were not resumed in a way that they materialised in modified practice and aspects noticed and touched upon before were not noticed later. These results do not only point to the need to guide teachers while being engaged in reflective practice (Warford, 2011) but also indicate that, in reflective practice, "Substantial learning occurs in periods of conflict, confusion, surprise, and over long periods of time" (Reiman, 1999). Additionally, this study confirms, as Farrell (2013a, p. 45, 2016, p. 240) has noted, that reflective practice does not influence instructional practice in a direct manner.

The data also revealed that the teachers rarely linked observed and examined practice to their own theoretical knowledge base explicitly and did not investigate research or research-informed literature to address aspects of their teaching found improvable (e.g. giving instructions, questioning, answer check). Also, their reflections were mainly directed to the mediate or immediate lesson and class context with only occasional reference to aspects linked to the wider cultural or socio-political context (e.g. when they talked about whether or not to address specific content in lessons, see Section 4.3.7.2.). At first sight, this may show that the participants reflected at low levels of reflection (Taggart & Wilson, 2005). A more robust explanation is that engagement in reflective practice does not necessarily lead to activation of what has been learned in, for example, teacher education (Clarà, 2015) and that teacher reflection is concerned with the requirements of the immediate teaching context that embodies thinking about values or responsibilities not explicitly expressed (Noffke & Brennan, 2005). Furthermore, for all critical comments on the implementation of the reflective practice, it should not be forgotten that the reflective practice was designed and facilitated by me

- there is definitely a co-responsibility of the researcher/facilitator for the whole process.

5.5. Reflective Practice: Participants' Perceptions

The results on the participants' perception of reflective practice revealed that the participants perceived the reflective practice as contributing to their professional development because it enabled them to identify aspects in their instructional practice they were not aware of, to discuss them, and to generate alternative ways to address them. This is a general outcome reported in a growing body of research dedicated to data-led, collaborative reflective practice in ELT (Farrell, 2016, 2018a, 2018b; Mann & Walsh, 2015, 2017). The appreciation of reflective practice was also associated with emotional well-being in the collaborative reflective practice session. This has been shown variously in studies promoting collaborative reflective practice (e.g. Bayram & Canaran, 2018; Farrell, 2013a; S. M. Gray, 2012; Moradkhani, 2018; Simpson & Trezise, 2011).

The participants in this study were engaged in an intensive exploration of their own instructional practice. Both the data and my own impressionistic evaluation proved that *discomfort* (coding category) - remarkably more present in Alice than in Fiona – was a significant perception indicating that teachers “invested in their work are arguably the most vulnerable to frustration and exhaustion when they find themselves facing hard challenges” (DiPardo & Potter, 2003, p. 337). Reiman (1999) points to the cognitive dissonance when learning experiences as an outcome of reflection do not match assumed images of the self or the own teaching. This mismatch, and, particularly in Alice's case, difficulties to transform insights gained into modified instruction apparently generated feelings of frustration. Alice's experience resonates with Brookfield's (2017) remark that reflective practice can complicate one's life because “[y]ou start to sense that complex problems are inherently unsolvable and that the best you can hope for is to make uneasy and constantly shifting partial responses to these” (p. 226). This study clearly demonstrated a peculiarity of reflective practice as an enterprise encompassing “an emotional load associated with self-confrontation and with personal wrestling about how to respond to the awareness” (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993, p. 12; cf. Boyd & Fales, 1983; Sellars, 2012). Stated differently, feelings are “part of the internal experience that guides new learning and are, in this way associated with

the process of learning” (Moon, 2004, p. 48). One might assume that, in the case of Alice, the reflective practice negatively affected her as it increased her emotional vulnerability but did not make her a more reflective teacher. Her perceptions while evaluating the whole process in the post-lesson journal do not confirm this assumption. Indeed it seems that

exposing teachers to feelings of discomfort and ambivalence creates an opportunity for them to revisit their views and beliefs regarding their pedagogic work, and question taken-for-granted dominant views (reflected in curricular materials, pedagogic guidelines and policy issues) that influence their practices (Nolan & Molla, 2018, p. 729).

Discomfort was significantly associated with the forms of video-supported reflective practice utilised in this study. Discomfort was related to the process of video-supported observation in class and watching videos in the stimulated recall sessions. For one thing, a recurring topic in particularly Alice’s comments, video-supported observation made the participants feel uncomfortable. According to both teachers, the intrusiveness of the camera changed teacher and learner behaviour, an effect that is, if not highlighted, present in comparable studies (Dyke, et al., 2006, as cited in Marsh & Mitchell, 2014, p. 412; Greenwalt, 2008; Tülüce & Çeçen, 2017; Zhang et al, 2011). Another effect was that of watching oneself in the stimulated recall session. Fiona’s perception was that watching a lesson via a video recording was not perceived as providing the same perspective a live observation can provide because there is a loss caused by camera angle and technical deficiencies through which, for example, speech may be unintelligible (cf. Sherin, 2004; Zhang et al., 2011). Also, the experience of watching own teaching in the stimulated recall session provided the teachers with the discomfort of hearing the own voice and seeing the own movements as also reported in other studies (Cockburn, 2005; Jensen et al., 2010; Smith, 1996). Greenwalt (2008) remarks that the “videotaping experience is one where our old self becomes strange” (p. 393). This experience was so painful for Alice that she, at times, abstained from actively viewing the videos and turned the stimulated recall into a listening session instead, “put[ting] up a psychological barrier and deny[ing] the validity of observational feedback all together without any processing” (Cockburn, 2005, p. 387). On the other hand, Alice’s physical and verbal struggle may be taken as evidence that, in the stimulated recall sessions, she did not justify her instructional practices by escaping to invalid excuses to protect her professional status or credibility (Ryan & Gass, 2012, p.

158): Her comments in the post-intervention interview clearly show that it was emotionally difficult for her to put up with facing her own teaching in the stimulated recall sessions but she definitely appreciated them as a tool to learn something about the own teaching based on unfiltered evidence. As seen in this study, stimulated recall may not be perceived as unobtrusive as suggested in the literature (Mann & Walsh, 2013, p. 309). However, the participants also clearly expressed that its affordances outweighed the constraints because it allowed them a different view on their teaching (Hamilton, 2012; Sherin, 2004) and provided them with data to reflect on (Major & Watson, 2018).

In this study, journals entries were written after an event or reflective activity (lesson, stimulated recall, reflective practice session). Obviously, it was perceived as a favourable procedure when journals function as a complementary tool to reflect on data analysed (cf. Moradkhani, 2018). It is quite expectable that different participants respond differently to different reflective tools. In this study, for example, Fiona would have preferred to use an open-ended format for journal writing instead of the structured format used in this study; responding to her feedback then, I suggested her to ignore the structure. Moradkhani (2018), for instance, reports the opposite case, that means the participants in his study felt that they were unsure about what to write because of the open-ended format of the journals used.

Arguably the most significant perception expressed by Alice and Fiona was their appreciation of reflective practice as contributing to their professional development. The study showed that the participants redefined their understandings of reflective practice arriving at a reconceptualisation according to which reflective practice is as a form of practitioner inquiry: Coinciding common features of practitioner research in Cochran-Smith and Lytle's (2009) survey, the participants pointed to the need to base reflection on concrete practices, to realise it in collaboration, and to view other members in the school context (learners and colleagues) as knowledge generators so that instructional practice can be evaluated and possibly challenged. Additionally, the participants perceived the reflective practice as an opportunity to create a learning community (Westheimer, 2008), and to value their own practice-based knowledge generated throughout the reflective practice (Ravitch, 2014). In sum, the participants' understanding of reflective practice at study end points to its contribution to their own professional development coinciding with Leitch and Day's (2000) remark that

reflective practice is considered to be central to the growth of teachers as inquirers who engage in collaborative research with others from inside and outside the

school in generating knowledge of practice rather than finding themselves as objects whose role is to implement existing theory in practice (Leitch & Day, 2000, p. 183).

The engagement in reflective practice as a form of professional development convinced them of the benefits of inquiry into own instructional practice, provided them with a teacher-researcher identity as similarly reported in other studies (Arslan & Başağa, 2010; Conway & Denny, 2013; Farrell, 2011; Farrell & Ives, 2015; Yılmaz & Arıkan, 2019) and encouraged them to engage in continuous professional development (Taniş & Dikilitaş, 2018).

Notably, Fiona pointed to the institutional context that she did not perceive as conducive to engaging in reflective practice or other forms of professional development (cf. Levine, 2010). Her view is in line with other reports pointing to the lack of institutional support by establishing programmes professional development that provide teachers with conditions to engage in professional development effectively (Madalińska-Michalak, & Bavli 2018; Solheim, Roland & Ertesvåg, 2018; Uztosun, 2018).

5.6. Personal reflection

I should like to end the discussion section with a personal reflection that allows me to review some important issues concerning my role as the researcher. In advance, I should stress that, as explicated in the Methodology chapter, I do not subscribe to the idea of the objective researcher in social sciences (Guba & Lincoln, 2005). Based on this stance, the decision to add this section was guided by the conviction that it is challenging for qualitative researchers to follow an unbiased approach in administering a study (i.e. developing instruments, collecting and analysing data, interpreting results), and the researcher should give an account on how his own worldviews had an impact on the study (Ortlipp, 2008). I hope that the following reflection may inform other researchers, teacher trainers or teachers who are planning comparable studies on kinds of reflective practice.

From the outset, I had planned to function as an outsider researcher who designs the research, develops and utilises the data collection tools and procedures and facilitates the reflective practice the participants were involved in by providing the required tools (metaphor elicitation task, videos of observed lessons, stimulated recall sessions,

templates for journals). My aim was to offer the participants opportunities to find out something about their teaching with a specific focus on coursebook exploitation. It was definitely not my aim to evaluate, assess or disparage the participants' cognitions or practices (cf. Mason & Payon, 2018, p. 2). A problem that I was faced with was the challenge to facilitate the reflective practice in a non-judgmental matter, which is without doubt an important issue to consider (Farrell, 2011). It was challenging for two reasons. First, the participants expected me, if not to judge, to evaluate their teaching providing specific feedback on their practices. The fact that I had been their older colleague with more teaching experience as evidenced in years of practice, and possibly the fact that I was a PhD candidate with some experience in professional development probably contributed to their demands to receive some kinds of evaluation, and this may have spoiled the intended "relation of peer equality" (Cockburn, 2005, p. 378). I felt I was given a kind of authority that I did not want to accept, and, actually, generated discomfort in me. Second, in spite of my desired role of the neutral facilitator, I, of course, analysed and interpreted the lessons, and identified instructional practices which I evaluated as ineffective teaching, especially based on classroom interaction and learner engagement which I believe are indicators for the facilitation of SLA. Surely, in identifying unfavourable situations, I departed from my own understanding of what effective teaching should comprise, and other teachers may disagree with my views. At times I had the feeling that the participants would not address those critical parts in their lessons sufficiently, and I then clearly stated what I perceived as problematic. In the Results chapter, I documented instances when I gave up the role of being the neutral observer (cf. Section 4.3.4.1) or provided alternatives (e.g. Section 4.3.6.1.). Both during the reflective practice and while transcribing and analysing the data, I occasionally perceived myself imposing. At times, I also felt that my inquiry during the stimulated recall sessions and the reflective practice sessions was (mis-)interpreted by the participants as a demand to render an account of their practice. So, a perceived challenge for me is in how far and to what extent a researcher providing teachers with opportunities to engage in reflective practice should take over the role of the critical friend, and what the best way is to avoid an evaluative tone in reflective practice (Ryan & Gass, 2012, p. 152). There were instances throughout the study when I felt that I definitely acted as the critical friend, and sometimes as the researcher imposing his view of effective teaching on the participants. Also, I sometimes refrained from critically asking the participants about apparently disputable instructional practices. This was, for

example the case when I felt that an examination would lead to an even higher degree of discomfort than already achieved. For that reason, readers may criticise me for not exploring aspects sufficiently, and for some coursebook exploitations observed, I did not get the participants' reflections exactly for that reason.

In sum, I experienced Kerstetter's (2012) observation that "[i]n practice, researchers' identities are often relative, and can sometimes even change, based on where and when the research is conducted, the personalities of the researcher and individual research participants, and the topic of the research" (p. 101). For that reason, the study turned out to be a form of co-operative reflection breaking "down the distinction between researcher and subject: the researchers are also co-subjects and the subjects are also co-researchers" (Heron, 1985, p. 128). As a co-subject, the study provided me with an opportunity to reflect on the roles a researcher/facilitator of reflective practice should take over, that is it expanded my knowledge of research and reflective practice (Tekkumru-Kisa & Stein, 2017, p. 6).

5.7. Summary

This chapter discussed the results of the study. The discussion was conducted with the research questions as organising principle. In the next chapter, conclusions are drawn concerning the two main foci of the study: coursebook exploitation and reflective practice in the area of ELT.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS

6.1. Introduction

This chapter contains the conclusions departing from the discussion of the results presented in the previous chapter. Section 6.2. is related to conclusions concerning the exploitation of coursebooks in ELT, and Section 6.3. on reflective practice. The chapter is finalised with a report on limitations of the current study and suggestions for further research.

6.2. Coursebook Exploitation

It should be noted that this study was carried out with EFL teachers using a global coursebook in tertiary education. For this reason, the following conclusions may not be valid for teachers in ESL contexts, primary or secondary education contexts or teachers using localised or local coursebooks or, for instance, ESP or CLIL coursebooks. Concerning coursebook use in ELT, this study gives rise to implications for teacher development, school administration and coursebook design.

For one thing, since English language teachers' coursebook exploitation is realised in a system of interacting factors encompassing the teaching environment, the learners, the teacher, the immediate course context and the affordances and constraints provided by the coursebook or other curricular materials (Li & Harfitt, 2016, 2017; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018), coursebook adaptation is not an unchallenging task, and the ability of English language teachers to adapt effectively should not be taken as a matter of course. An inevitable conclusion is that especially current global ELT coursebooks need to be examined by teachers if the organisation of procedures offered in the coursebook really engages learners. For this, planning is significantly important. Teachers who do not engage in lesson planning including the examination of the material, objectives and potential learning outcomes deskill themselves as coursebook users because they relegate responsibility to the standardised procedures offered in coursebook materials (Shawer, 2010b). Therefore, this study strongly supports the call "to prepare teachers for an informed selection, adaptation and integration of available media and materials" (Sercu, 2004, p. 397) in teacher education and professional development programmes

(cf. also González Moncada, 2006; Hann, 2017; Loh & Renandya, 2015; Tomlinson, 2016b). Many undergraduate and graduate programmes offer seminars on material development, but coursebook analysis should be a component in professional teacher development since the coursebook is used in the everyday practice of teachers (Aydın, 2012; Bosompem, 2014; Cabrera, 2014; Shawer, 2010b; Waltermann & Forel, 2015). Continuous professional development benefitting from bottom-up approaches should provide teachers with opportunities

- to arrive at an understanding for themselves if coursebooks deskill teachers, and if so, how and why the deskilling process occurs;
- to critically examine their own coursebook exploitation so that they can evaluate the degree to which the coursebook controls them (or they control the coursebook);
- to generate adaptation strategies to cater for specific learner needs in their local context by examining coursebooks used in the school;
- to develop collaboratively plans on how to exploit a certain coursebook page and to try them out;
- to compare different teachers' exploitations of the same coursebook page;
- “to play with possibilities through trying out options, reflecting on practice, evaluating tasks, and revise the materials for increased learning opportunities” (Bao, 2015, p. 48);
- to develop teachers' abilities to evaluate coursebooks not necessarily based on checklists;
- to critically examine course contents in ELT programmes and, consequently, to contribute to curriculum development;
- to notice a variety of issues related to classroom practice while exploring coursebook exploitation.

School administrators should encourage teachers to use coursebooks as resource by establishing non-restricting curricula in order to generate coursebook-based instead of coursebook-led programmes (McGrath, 2002, 2016; Shelton-Strong, 2016). This is doubtless a challenging task given the pressure to provide accountability of language programmes forcing school managers to standardise language programmes. School administrators are also requested to organise forms of professional development in which teachers can reflect on how coursebooks are used in the school, what impacts

coursebook exploitations have and what steps need to be taken to address critical aspects identified.

For materials developers, studies like this can be beneficial because they show that global ELT coursebooks in practice may not generate the communicative classroom they promise to generate in marketing slogans. To avoid overreliance of teachers on coursebooks due to routinised teacher behaviour, current coursebooks should be designed in a way that flexible use is easier to achieve by transforming them into resource books offering choices instead of inviting teachers to stick to coursebooks dictating procedures to follow (cf. Bao, 2015 with suggestions) and by providing learners opportunities to engage with contextualised and relevant language input and output (Macalister, 2016b; Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018). It should be noted that coursebooks as resource books are more challenging for teachers because they make greater demands on teachers to transform the coursebook material into classroom practice. However, this seems to be exactly the way to enable teachers to exploit coursebooks skilfully.

6.3. Reflective Practice

The affordances of the reflective practice conducted in this study and the teachers' positive perceptions support calls for the implementation of inquiry-based forms of reflective practice in which teachers can examine their local context, gain new understandings, challenge routinised views and modify their own practice. Based on the drawbacks associated with the reflective practice detected in this study, important conclusions can be drawn concerning its implementation.

First, reflective practice needs to be data-led, and in the context of teaching this means the data come from the classroom. The current study strongly supports the call to reflect on the data collaboratively and to utilise a mix of different tools (written and oral) to benefit from different modes of reflective tools (e.g. writing as stepping back and reconstructing practice or reflective conversation as negotiating meaning with a peer). If organised as an oral and dialogic practice, reflective practice potentially serves as career-long available tool in teacher development (Mann & Walsh, 2017).

Second, this study was driven by the idea that the reflective practice should be conducted by the participants with artefacts (video recordings, transcripts) coming from their instructional practice which functioned as mediational tools (Lantolf, 2005;

Wertsch, 1998), and this approach included the decision to give a minimum of guidance in how to benefit from these tools. However, it can be concluded based on the experiences gained that providing scaffolding and expert knowledge through, for example, teacher trainers, supervisors, research informed literature or peers having more expertise (cf. Abednia et al., 2013, p. 510; Godínez Martínez, 2018) is beneficial if not needed to avoid that critical aspects remain unnoticed, noticed aspects remain unaddressed or even wrong understandings are reinforced (Kayapınar, 2013; Rossi, Magnoler, Mangiaone, Pettenati & Rossa, 2016; van Es & Sherin, 2002). “Expert mediation is at the core of harnessing the transformative power of both written and oral narrative [forms of reflective practice] in ways that promote the development of teacher/teaching expertise” (Golombek & Johnson, 2017, p. 18).

Third, a critical aspect is how classroom data can be collected. Teachers intending to engage in reflective practice or administrators thinking of offering opportunities for reflective practice should try out options in order to find out if particularly video-supported forms of data collection are perceived as too intrusive by teachers and learners, and if watching videotapes with samples of own teaching creates feelings of discomfort (Arıkan, 2004). Peer observation, audio-recordings or learner feedback, for instance, are alternatives but they provide less direct access to classroom events for reflection-on-action.

Fourth, the reflective practice conducted in this study was time-consuming, and this may cause problems when teachers have a heavy workload. In video-supported forms of reflective practice, for example, teachers or facilitators may select shorter episodes and/or sessions with multiple participants (Hiratsuka, 2017; Saito & Khong, 2017) and focus on specific aspects of teaching (Borko et al., 2011; Masats & Dooly, 2011; McCullagh, 2012). Data-led reflective practice can lead into a focus, start from a pre-established focus, or start from a pre-established focus that generates the noticing of other foci (as in this study). While there is no harm in any of the approaches, working conditions at school may suggest that shifting towards a rather narrow focus may be preferable.

As explained in Section 6.2., it is the school management’s task to generate reflective practice opportunities fostering active teacher engagement in professional development (Rahimi & Weisi, 2018). Although this and other studies (e.g. S. M. Gray, 2012) show that collaborative practice can foster collegiality, to exert an effect in terms of establishing a reflective school culture it is essential that a significant number of staff

members are involved in forms of reflective practice (Postholm, 2018b). Otherwise reflective practice is carried out in “highly isolated and insular groups - in effect replacing the isolated classroom teacher with the isolated teacher group and balkanized workplace” (Little, 2003, p. 939). To have an impact on the school context, reflective practices need to be communicated to non-participants in the school not only to disseminate insights gained but also to exert transformative impact (Unlu & Kulekci, 2018). Notably, reflective practice needs to be conducted on a voluntary base. If conducted as mandatory programme, it is likely to degenerate to a tool with which institutional management evaluates and assesses teacher performance (Arıkan, 2004; Mann & Walsh, 2017). It seems important to raise awareness in administrators of workplaces as learning environments for professionals (Billett, 2004). Given pressure to provide accountability and standardisation - a frequently heard discourse in the school where this study took place – this is easier said than done.

6.4. Limitations

This study reported on the coursebook exploitation of two EFL teachers in a preparatory programme at a Turkish university. Because of the specific case examined, caution should be exercised in generalising results to other contexts. The generalisability may be even diminished when we consider that in the same or comparable contexts teachers may apply different coursebook exploitation practices (e.g. Loh & Renandya, 2016; Shawer, 2012a, 2010b), and from anecdotal evidence I can assume that in the research site of this study other teachers *do* exploit the coursebook differently. In how far the participants’ coursebook exploitation or engagement in reflective practice was associated with, for example, age, experience or other factors related to the participants was also not examined; however, this would be difficult with the research design used. Another factor that may limit the study was the coursebook. It was argued that the quality of the coursebook as a global ELT coursebook with its presentation of procedures to be followed contributed to the teachers’ curriculum-transmitting approach (Shawer, 2010a) to coursebook exploitation. The study does not allow making statements if another ELT global coursebook in a comparable context would have revealed the same results. Finally, even though some modifications were documented, a longer study documenting potential changes after the

reflective practice has been completed would be conducive in order to evaluate the sustainability of reflective practice activities.

6.5. Suggestions for Further Research

There is a growing body of research on English language teachers' coursebook exploitation with a focus on adaptations made and reasons behind realised adaptations. Most of these studies are qualitative in nature. In order to gain more generalisable findings, researchers may conduct mixed methods research studies to find out in how far coursebook (over)reliance is associated with other teacher-related factors, for example, self-efficacy or satisfaction with the workplace environment. These two factors are proposed here deliberately, given the prominent role teachers play as agents of coursebook implementation (so that their perceived mastery in teaching may have an impact on coursebook exploitation) and the significance of the workplace with its affordances (e.g. non-restricting curriculum policy, supportive staff) and constraints (e.g. restricting curriculum policy, exams), but other factors can be explored equally. The study by Sampson (2009), investigating the relationship between teachers' inclination to add own materials and teacher autonomy, can serve as an example. In mixed methods research studies with the aims outlined, quantitative instruments (e.g. measuring teacher self-efficacy and coursebook attitudes) can be given to a higher number of participants, and classroom observations then conducted with a smaller sample of the participant group.

Also, it is desirable that more studies in different contexts (e.g. state or private schools, young learners, ESP, CLIL) about how teachers plan coursebook lessons, and how the planned lessons are enacted in the classroom, what factors teachers trigger to deviate from plans, and what specific effects exploitations exert in the classroom. This study's design utilising identical content subject lessons appears to be a promising approach.

Research should be done to report on specific professional development activities in which teachers discuss coursebook components from different perspectives (e.g. appropriateness of the material to the learner group, inherent objectives, adaptability of the coursebook material, and impact on learner activation), plan lessons and carry them out. In other words, reflective practice should be employed as a tool to document the process teachers go through in their coursebook practice and to encourage teachers to

exploit coursebook materials in creative ways. I believe it is important that insights gained in such studies, in particular examples of good teaching, should be disseminated in research-informed literature because English language teachers are unlikely to follow scholarly journals. Furthermore, teachers engaging in professional development in the workplace should disseminate their insights to their colleagues, and research may examine in how far insights are taken up by other teachers and if they are encouraged to take part in reflective practice activities or other forms of bottom-up professional development in the workplace.

Finally, school administrations should be more strongly examined in terms of attitudes to coursebook exploitation and reflective practice. Anecdotal evidence indicates that these are aspects that may even not be considered by administrators. This and other studies clearly indicate the need to conceptualise schools as learning environments not only for learners who study a subject but also for the people who are engaged in the complex task of teaching.

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Student's Book	One unit scheduled for Week 7/Tasks on page 127ff.
Workbook	Parallel to Student's Book (if necessary, can be assigned as homework)
WEW (without keys)	3 Class hours
Video Activities and Speaking Practice	2 Class Hours (Speaking Practices to be implemented in Video Lesson)

[illegible]

Appendix B. Permission Granted by the School

Evrak Tarih ve Sayısı: 06/12/2016-E.9664



T.C.
KAHRAMANMARAŞ SÜTÇÜ İMAM ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Müdürlüğü

Sayı : 20772231-929
Konu : Doktora Çalışması İçin Araştırma İzni

TEMEL İNGİLİZCE BÖLÜM BAŞKANLIĞINA

İlgi : Okt. Stefan RATHERT'ın 05/12/2016 tarihli ve 2273 sayılı dilekçesi,

Bölümünüz okutmanlarından Stefan RATHERT'ın ilgede kayıtlı dilekçesi incelenmiş olup, adı geçen Öğretim Elemanı'nın doktora çalışması için araştırma yapma izin talebi Müdürlüğümüzce uygun görülmüştür.

Gereğini bilgilerinize rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Mehmet KURT
Müdür

Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Avşar Yerleşkesi
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Bilgi İçin: Mustafa FINDIK
Unvan: Şef
Telefon No: 03442801967

Appendix C. Invitation Letter to the Teachers in the School of Foreign Languages

Dear English Language Teacher,

I am an English language teacher currently registered as a Ph.D. student in the Department of English Language Teaching at Çukurova University Adana. As part of my Ph.D. programme, I am required to conduct a research study. The study is under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Neşe Cabaroğlu, ELT Department, Çukurova University Adana. The research thesis is entitled

**Utilizing Reflective Practice as a Tool to Explore Coursebook Beliefs and Exploitation:
A Case Study.**

To conduct my research I wish to observe the teaching of two Turkish EFL teachers, and to engage them in a form of reflective practice. The objectives of the study are:

- (a) To examine coursebook beliefs and exploitation of English language teachers.
- (b) To contribute to research conducted on in-service professional development programs that support teacher-directed collaboration and teacher learning in the workplace.

If you decide to take part, I will start with an interview to learn about your views about teaching, English coursebooks and teacher reflection, and I will give you a metaphor elicitation task related to coursebooks. Also, I will observe and video record up to six forty-five minute English lessons taught by you, and I will ask you to comment on the lesson in a session, in which we watch the video of your class (this is called stimulated recall). There will be a collaborative session with another teacher who has given lessons about the same content, in which you will discuss your ways of exploiting the coursebook in the lessons observed. Additionally I will ask you to keep a journal to evaluate the lessons observed, the stimulated recall, and the collaborative sessions. To your convenience, I will provide you with journal templates. Finally, I will conduct an interview, in which I ask you to evaluate the whole study you have participated in.

There is no compensation for participating in this study. However, your participation will be a valuable contribution to research on English teachers' coursebook use and professional development. I would also like to point out that I, as the researcher, will facilitate procedures and be the observer, but you will have the control in the lessons, stimulated recall and collaborative sessions, and your suggestions about procedures are highly welcome. This means the study is a research with teachers but not on teachers.

It is important for you to understand that it is up to you to decide whether or not to take part in the study. This study will take place at School of Foreign Languages from February to June 2017. All data collected, including video recordings will solely and exclusively be used for research. Only those directly involved in the research will have access to the videos and they will not be used for any other purpose without your consent. All information obtained by the study will be kept strictly confidential and your proper name will not appear anywhere in the study.

I very much hope that you are able to accept the invitation, and participate in this study. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to ask.

Sincerely,
Stefan Rathert

Appendix D. Consent Form (Teachers)

Dear English Language Teacher,

I am an English language teacher currently registered as a Ph.D. student in the Department of English Language Teaching at Çukurova University Adana. As part of my Ph.D. programme, I am required to conduct a research study. The study is under the supervision of Assoc. Prof. Dr. Neşe Cabaroğlu, ELT Department, Çukurova University Adana. The research thesis is entitled

Utilizing Reflective Practice as a Tool to Explore Coursebook Beliefs and Exploitation: A Case Study

To conduct my research I wish to observe the teaching of two Turkish EFL teachers, and to engage them in a form of reflective practice. The objectives of the study are:

- (c) To examine coursebook beliefs and exploitation of English language teachers.
- (d) To contribute to research conducted on in-service professional development programs that support teacher-directed collaboration and teacher learning in the workplace.

Before you decide to participate, it is important for you to understand that it is your decision whether or not to participate. If you decide to participate, you will be given this information sheet and be asked to sign the consent form below. After agreeing to participate you are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

During the study, different data collection tools and procedures will be used:

- a metaphor elicitation task;
- a pre-study interview related to your views about teaching, English coursebooks and teacher reflection (one question to be answered in written form); the oral interview will last about 45 minutes;
- up to six video-recorded lesson observations with the researcher present;
- short pre-lesson interviews before each lesson observation;
- journal entries to evaluate the lesson observed;
- up to six stimulated recall sessions: you will be asked to watch the video of the lesson observed and comment on it; a session will last about 60 minutes. Stimulated recall sessions are video-recorded;
- journal entries to evaluate the stimulated recall session;
- up to six collaborative reflective practice session, in which you and your colleague who has given lessons about the same content, will discuss your ways of exploiting the coursebook in the lessons observed; a session will last about 60 minutes. collaborative reflective practice sessions are video-recorded;
- journal entries to evaluate the collaborative reflective practice session;
- a post-study interview to evaluate the whole study; the interview will last about 45 minutes
- several short, informal conversations related to the study during the research.

In this study you will collaborate with a colleague who gives lessons in the same programme (but in a different class), so that it is possible for you to compare and discuss about identical subject content lessons.

The study consists of three phases:

- 1) The metaphor elicitation task and pre-study interview will be realized in the first week of February 2017.
- 2) Lesson observations, stimulated recall sessions (if possible within 48 hours after the lesson), and reflective practice sessions (if possible within one week after lesson observations) are realized between 6 February and 26 May 2017.

3) The post-study interview will be conducted at the beginning of June 2017.

Dates for all activities will be mutually arranged to your convenience. I would also like to point out that I, as the researcher, will facilitate procedures and be the observer, but you will have the control in the lessons, stimulated recall and collaborative sessions, and your suggestions about procedures are highly welcome. This means the study is a research with teachers but not on teachers.

Risks or Discomfort: This research is considered to be minimal risk. That means that the risks associated with this study are the same as what you face every day. There are no known additional risks to those who take part in this study.

Confidentiality: The identities and names of participants will remain confidential during data analysis and reporting. Demographic data will be reported anonymously. You will have the opportunity to select a pseudonym, if you wish. All data collected, including video recordings will solely and exclusively be used for research. Only those directly involved in the research will have access to the videos and they will not be used for any other purpose without your consent.

Voluntary Participation / Withdrawal: You should only take part in this study if you want to volunteer. You should not feel that there is any pressure to take part in the study, to please the researcher. You are free to participate in this research or withdraw at any time. There will be no penalty or loss of benefits you are entitled to receive if you stop taking part in this study. Your decision to participate or not to participate will not affect your job status.

Questions, concerns, or complaints: If you have any questions, concerns or complaints about this study, please contact the researcher at strathert@gmail.com. If you have questions about your rights as a participant in this study, general questions, or have complaints, concerns or issues you want to discuss with someone outside the research, contact Assoc. Prof. Dr. Neşe Cabaroğlu at ncabar@cu.edu.tr.

CONSENT FORM

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the study above.

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 study.

I allow the researcher to observe, video-record and transcribe my English lessons, stimulated recall sessions and collaborative reflective practice sessions.

I allow the researcher to audio-record and transcribe the interviews.

I agree to the use of anonymized quotes in publications.

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Contact for further information:

Researcher:

Stefan Rathert (Ph.D. candidate)

KSU

School of Foreign Languages

Tel.: 05052761226

strathert@gmail.com

Supervisor:

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Neşe Cabaroğlu

Çukurova University Adana

ELT Department

ncabar@cu.edu.tr

Appendix E. Consent Form (Students)

Değerli Öğrenciler,

Kahramanmaraş Sütçü İmam Üniversitesinde İngilizce okutmanı olarak görev yapmakta olan öğretim elemanıyım. Çukurova Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalında sürdürmekte olduğum doktora çalışmam kapsamında, İngilizce öğretmenlerinin ders kitaplarını kullanımına ilişkin bir araştırma yapmaktayım. Bu form ile, sosyal bilimler çalışma alanı ahlaki standartları gereği, derslerinizin video kaydına alınması ve gözlemlenmesine vermiş olduğunuz onayın resmileştirilerek kayıt altına alınması amaçlanmaktadır. Çalışmaya dair sorularınızı rahatlıkla sorabilirsiniz.

Stefan Rathert

0505 276 1226

Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu

strathert@gmail.com.

KSÜ

46100 Kahramanmaraş

Süreç

Çalışma süresince, derslerinizi her zaman işlediğiniz şekilde işlemeniz beklenmektedir. Derslerde yalnızca gözlem yapmak, not almak ve video kaydı yapmak üzere bulunacağım.

Gizlilik

- Çalışmanın sonuçları, bilimsel yazında yayımlanabilir veya toplantılarda/ etkinliklerde bildiri olarak sunulabilir.
- Çalışmanın sonuçları, kimliğinizi deşifre edecek bilgilerle bağlantılı olmayacak şekilde ortaya konacaktır/ yorumlanacaktır.
- Kimliğiniz, araştırmanın sunumu aşamasında kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır.
- Ders süresince elde edilen verilere (video kayıtları, ders notları) yalnızca araştırmacı, doktora tez danışmanı ve dersin öğretim elemanı erişebilecektir. Video kayıtları, bu kişiler dışında hiç kimse ile paylaşılmayacaktır.

ONAY FORMU

Yukarıda yazılanları okudum, anladım ve araştırma süresince derslerimin araştırmacı tarafından, söz konusu araştırmanın amaçları doğrultusunda gözlemlenmesi ve video kaydına alınmasını onaylıyorum. Dersi vermekte olduğum eğitim düzeyi ve mesleki deneyimin onay verme durumuma bağlı olmaksızın olumsuz bir şekilde etkilenmeyeceğinin bilincindeyim.

Adı-Soyadı**Sınıfın Adı****Tarih****İmza**

Appendix F. Metaphor Elicitation Task (Coursebook)

Please complete the following sentence using a metaphor.

A coursebook is ...

Please explain your metaphor.



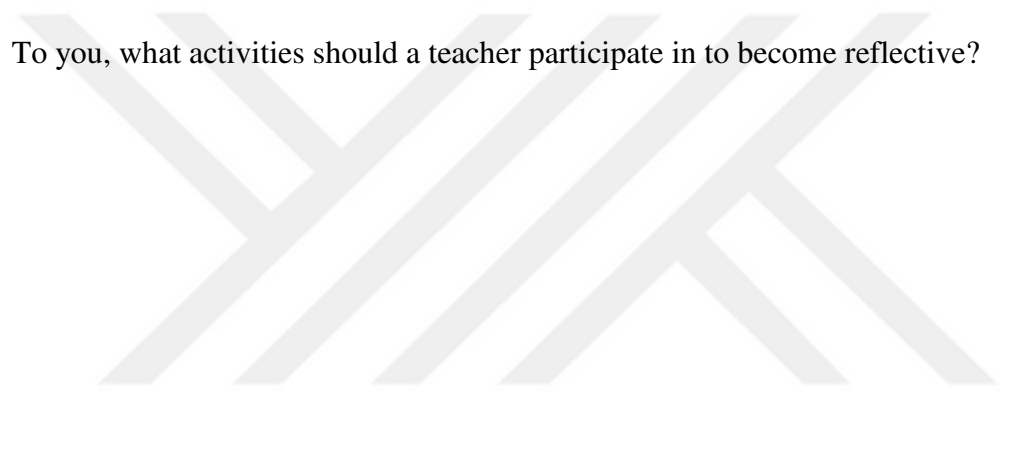
Appendix G. Metaphor Elicitation Task (Reflective Teacher)

Please complete the following sentence using a metaphor.

A reflective teacher is ...

Please explain your metaphor.

To you, what activities should a teacher participate in to become reflective?



Appendix H. Pre-Intervention Interview

Part 1: General beliefs about teaching and learning

In the first part of this interview I would like to ask you about your understanding of teaching and learning.

1. When we say that language teachers teach a language, what does it mean to teach a language?
2. What do learners need to do to learn a language?

Cue:

- In what activities do learners need to be involved in the classroom?
3. To you, what is the role of the teacher?
 4. Would you say you stick to a teaching method? If so, please describe your method.

Part 2: General beliefs about coursebooks

Now, I would like to ask you about your views on English language coursebooks.

1. To you, what roles do coursebooks play in the classroom?

Cues:

- Think of how coursebooks serve learners.
 - Think of how coursebooks serve teachers.
2. What other advantages do coursebooks have?
 3. To you, what disadvantages do coursebooks have?
 4. Do you prefer to rely on using the coursebook to teach?
 5. Do you think that using a coursebook reduces your role as a teacher in the classroom?
 6. Does using a coursebook in class make you more confident?
 7. If you had the chance, would you decide not to use a coursebook?

Part 3: Evaluation of the coursebook currently used

Now, I would like to ask you about your views on the English language coursebook (*Pioneer*, mm publications) that we are currently using.

1. Imagine I don't know *Pioneer*. Can you tell me about the book?

Cues:

- What skills are covered? Are they balanced?
 - Does the book favour a teaching methodology?
2. What do you regard as the strengths of the coursebook?

3. What do you regard as the weaknesses of the coursebook?
4. If you had the chance, would you select a different coursebook? Why/Why not?

Part 4: Perception of own coursebook exploitation

Let me ask you some questions about how you exploit, i.e. actually use the coursebook in the classroom.

1. Do you use the coursebook in every main course lesson?
2. Do you make use of the teacher's book?
3. Are there occasions when you use the coursebook differently from the course of activities given in the book (or procedures suggested in the teachers' book)? Please give examples.

Cues:

- Do you ever change the order of the coursebook material?
 - Do you ever omit coursebook material?
 - Do you ever supplement the coursebook material with extra material or activities?
 - Do you ever modify coursebook material (for example by simplifying the language or changing the instructions)?
4. When adapting the coursebook, do you ask colleagues or get help from colleagues?
 5. In the course you are teaching, do you have the freedom to adapt, omit or supplement material in the coursebook?
 6. Do you feel yourself competent in adapting your coursebook?
 7. Would you say that coursebook adaptation is an option or a necessity?

Part 5: Perception of professional development and reflective practice

The last part of our interview is about your views on professional development and reflective practice.

1. What does professional development mean to you?
2. Can you think of forms of professional development?
3. What forms of professional development have you been involved in, if any?
4. What does reflective teaching mean to you?
5. Should language teachers reflect on their practice? Why?/Why not? If so, how?
6. Do you think you have sufficient opportunities to engage in reflective practice? Why? Why not?

Appendix I. Biodata and Written Pre-Intervention Question

Dear participant,

Please answer the following six questions. Thank you.

Personal Information

1. What are your academic qualifications (e.g. bachelor in ELT, MA, Ph.D.)? (Please specify.)
2. Are you currently enrolled in an academic programme in ELT? (If yes, please specify.)
3. Are you currently enrolled in an academic programme different from ELT? (If yes, please specify.)
4. How many years have you been working as an English language teacher?
5. How old are you?
6. To you, what is effective teaching?

Appendix J. Post-Intervention Interview

Part 1: Introduction

In this interview, I would like to talk with you about the reflective practice you were engaged in.

1. When you think of the whole study, can you recall an event or instance that you enjoyed very much?
2. Can you think of an event or instance that you didn't enjoy at all?
3. Can you name things that you have learned about your teaching through the study?

Part 2: Coursebook exploitation

1. As you recall, I was interested to see how you and your partner use your coursebooks. I would like to show you a graph, which is based on a study by Ian McGrath. He concluded that some teachers believe they conduct their lessons rather dependent on the coursebook, while others believe they conduct lessons independent from it. So a teacher who perceives the coursebook as guidance is more likely to allow some degree of control by the coursebook, while a teacher considering the coursebook as a resource is more willing to take the control of the coursebook. Those who regard the coursebook a constraint have completely negative views on coursebooks. When you recall the lessons that we observed, where would you position yourself? [Graph at the end of Appendix J.]
2. What factors make you allow the coursebook to control/be willing to take control of the coursebook?

Cues:

- | | |
|----------------------------|--|
| ○ the programme/syllabus | ○ sharing the class with a partner |
| ○ teaching for exams/tests | |
| ○ the students | ○ the time of the class hour |
| ○ the institution | ○ the time of the year (e.g. towards the end of the academic year) |
| ○ the colleagues | |

Part 3: Lesson planning

1. Looking back, how would you describe your way of planning lessons?
2. Do you think this study has changed or will change your way of planning lessons?

Part 4: Lesson observation

1. How was being observed by me and a camera for you?
2. How was being observed by me and a camera for your students?

Part 5: Stimulated recall

1. To you, what is the value of watching a video of your own class?

Cues:

- What did you like about it?
 - What didn't you like about it?
2. Would using videos be an option for you to engage in reflective practice beyond this study?

Part 6: Watching the video of the partner's lesson

1. To you, what is the value of watching a video of your partner's class?

Cues:

- What did you like about it?
 - What didn't you like about it?
2. Would watching videos of a colleague be an option for you to engage in reflective practice beyond this study?

Part 7: Using transcript

1. To you, what is the value of examining transcripts of your own and/or your partner's class?

Cues:

- What did you like about it?/What didn't you like about it?
2. Do you think you benefitted sufficiently from them? Why (not)?
 3. Do you think you could prepare transcripts?
 4. To you, what is the difference between videos and transcripts?
 5. Would using transcripts be an option for you to engage in reflective practice (beyond this study)?

Part 8: The role of the participants/the reflective practice sessions

1. To you, what was your own role in this study?
2. To you, what was your partner's role in this study?
3. To you, what was the researcher's role in this study?
4. Would an outsider researcher have been better?

5. To you, what is the value of the reflective practice sessions?

Cues:

- What did you like about it?
- What didn't you like about it?

6. Did you find it difficult to express kinds of criticism to your partner?

7. You and your partner in this study are close friends. Can you think of advantages and disadvantages?

8. Would regular discussions with one or more partners be an option for you to engage in reflective practice beyond this study?

Part 9: Journal writing

1. I asked you to write journals after each lesson, stimulated recall and reflective practice session. To you, what is the value of journal writing?

2. One reason for having you keep journals was collecting data. Apart from that, would you say that journal writing is a suitable tool for you to engage in reflective practice?

Cues:

- time constraints
- writing for oneself/for others (dialogic writing)

Part 10: Reflective practice in general

1. Would you say there is a positive relationship between reflective practice and effective teaching?

2. Should reflective practice be conducted individually or collaboratively?

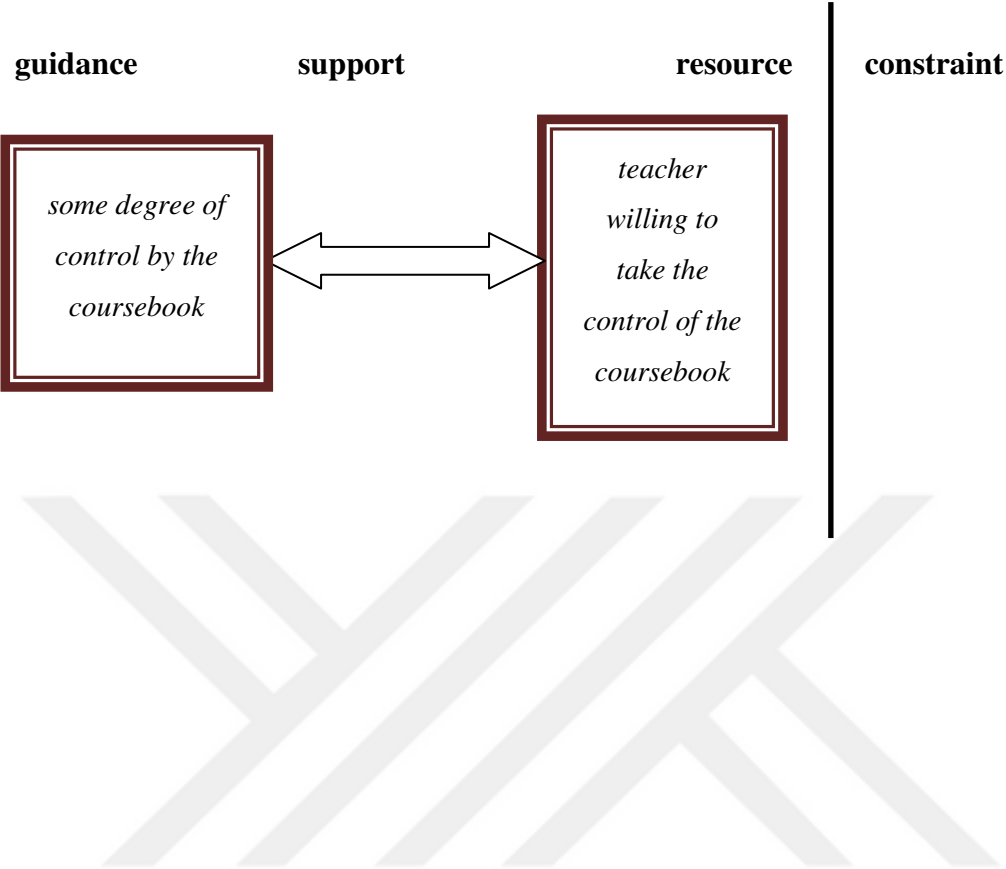
3. What do you consider the biggest barriers to conducting reflective practice?

Cues:

- Given teachers' heavy workload, do you think reflective practice is feasible?
If so, how?
- Do you consider an expert (from outside) necessary for reflective practice?
- Should the school organize forms of reflective practice?
- Should reflective practice be compulsory?

4. Will you conduct reflective practice on your own? If so, how?

Graph shown to interviewees in Part 2 Question 1



Appendix K. Observation form

Observation no.:

Date:

Location:

Time:

Teacher:

Class:

Coursebook (page[s]):

Key events	kind of adaptation	notes for SR and RP

Appendix L. Post-Observation form

Observation no.:

Date:

Location:

Time:

Teacher:

Class:

Coursebook (page[s]):

- Proportion of time spent using the coursebook (including tasks and activities and teacher instructions: _____ (minutes)
- Proportion of time spent using materials or tasks and activities different from the coursebook (including tasks and activities and teacher instructions: _____ (minutes)

	(describe as detailed as possible; see categories for classroom adaptation)
Were any coursebook activities omitted?	
Were any coursebook activities modified?	
Was the order of coursebook activities changed?	
Were any supplementary materials used in addition to the coursebook?	
other forms of adaptation	

Appendix M. Pre-Lesson Interview

1. Please tell me briefly what you have planned for this lesson.

Cue: What adaptations are you going to realise? Please explain your decisions.

2. Do you have a detailed lesson plan for this lesson?
3. Do you have a set of pre-established learner outcomes?
4. How far in advance did you devise this lesson plan?



Appendix N. Protocol for Stimulated Recall Session (Sample)

Observation no.: A4

Date: 12/04

Time: 13:00

Class: G 103

Location: YD 20

Teacher: Alice

Coursebook (page[s]): Pioneer Intermediate, p. 32f.

Time	Key events	kind of adaptation	notes for SR and RP
1:48	teacher chats with students		
2:23	teacher points to discussion questions projected and asks what “apps” are asks for definition “Could you please define it with your own words?” teacher gives own definition teacher asks for students’ app use teacher gives examples of her own apps use	personalization	the students were rather reluctant. Can you comment on it?
9:30	teacher points to appmarket text teacher asks students to read; then she will give handout; teacher asks for text sort students read silently about 16:25: teacher asks some students if they have finished	restructuring: start with texts about apps	You asked the students to read the text without giving specific instruction; you could have given the handout before the first reading
17:30	teacher tells students that before giving the handouts, she will have them read and listen to the text		please comment
22:15	teacher asks which tasks are the cheapest/most expensive/free		
22:36	teacher hands out worksheets	supplementing extra activity to check comprehension and as preparation for multiple matching task	ask Alice! (Is my interpretation in the column “kind of adaptation” correct?) why doing this task individually?

Appendix O. Transcripts with Instructions Used in Reflective Practice Session

Dear participants,

Please examine the transcripts. They are both related to the part of the lesson (Lesson 5) in which you and your partner introduced the functions in Ex. A. The following questions may help you notice details in the transcript:

- What kind of questions did the teachers use (yes/no questions, wh-questions)?
- What was the amount of teacher talk?
- What was the amount of student talk?
- How many students talked?
- How long were the utterances the students made? How elaborate were they?
- How was this episode embedded in the lesson?
- Were there longer pauses? If so, what do they tell us about this part of the lesson?
- Was L1 used? Who used L1? Do you think it was used effectively?

You may also ask your own questions. Please report in the reflective practice session what you have found out about your and your partner's teaching.

Please note the following transcription conventions:

T	Teacher
S1, S2, etc.	Student 1, 2, etc.
Ss	several students speaking simultaneously
[	overlapping speech
-	interrupted speech (e.g. <i>she aski- she is asking</i>)
(.)	pause (up to 2 seconds)
(3 sec.)	pause in seconds
(?)	speech difficult to understand

Observation no.: A5

Date: 26/04

Time: 09:15

Class: G103

Location: YD 20

Teacher: Alice

Coursebook (page[s]): Pioneer Intermediate, p. 54f.

Episode: Introducing functions (Ex. Writing A.) (Functions used in writing informal emails)

(5:32-7:48)

Students have read Beata's email [Ex. Writing A], and the T has asked some comprehension questions. The information requested by Beata has been written on the board:

**->she would like to go to the museum,
tell me which one not to miss
-> If you want to meet up let me know
when/where/how to get there**

- 1 T: As you see, there are some sentences from one to eight. It starts, 'offering accommodation, making suggestions, congratulating, blab la bla. Think that Beata is writing to you (.) this email. She's writing to you. She's asking some questions, so you are responding her, her writing, a- an email, reply email. What should be included in your mail? (3 sec.) Do you offer accommodation? Do you make suggestions? Do you congratulate? Do you give advice?
- 2 Ss: **Simultaneous speech.** Making suggestions
- 3 T: Ama bunu yaparken, sadece bu tanı normalde buparagrafa göre istediği bilgiler doğrultusunda düşünüyoruz. Tamam mı? (3 sec.) Neye ihtiyacımız var?
- 4 Ss: Making [suggestions]
- 5 T: [Making] suggestions. **T clicks on making suggestions on interactive whiteboard.** Which question (.) shows that she wants some suggestions? (.) Look at these two questions. Which question needs a suggestion? **T points to the questions written on the board.**
- 6 S1: She would like to go to the museum.
- 7 T: Right. She is asking- I want to go to the museum. Tell me which one not to miss. This is for suggestion. (3 sec.) Do you congratulate her?
- 8 S1: No.
- 9 T: Do you give advice?
- 10 S1: No.

- 11 Ss: No (short unintelligible speech).
- 12 T: Do you express enthusiasm?
- 13 Ss: Yes.
- 14 T: **T clicks on expressing enthusiasm on interactive whiteboard.** What do you understand by this? (.) Giving enthusiasm? (3 sec) Bunu bence başk-diğer writinglerden hatırlamış olmanız lazım, değil mi?
- 15 Ss: Coşkulu.
- 16 S2: Coşkusunu açıklamak.
- 17 T: (.) Do you complain in your response?
- 18 Ss: No (short unintelligible speech).
- 19 T: Do you give directions?
- 20 Ss: Yes.
- 21 T: Yes. (.) So here in these questions, do you see it? Direction? **T points to the questions written on the board.**
- 22 Ss: Yes.
- 23 T: How how to get there. She's she wants an address, hm? (.) Do you- do you make arrangements?
- 24 Ss: Yes.
- 25 T: (.) Do you- do you make arrangements?
- 26 Ss: Yes.
- 27 T: Again in this question she's asking what? (.) Merva?
- 28 S3: If you want to meet up, let me know when/where how to get there.
- 29 T: OK. She wants to (.) meet, hm?
- 30 Ss: Yes.
- 31 T: Is that clear?
- 32 Ss: Yes.
- 33 T: Great. **T shows email in Ex. B (Amy's response) on interactive whiteboard.** Then comes another mail. (.) This time (.) uhm this is from Rita's friend Amy. (.) Rita is writing to her and Amy is answering. Please read it again. I will ask some questions. **Students read email silently. After 1:42, T plays recording. Then T asks students if there are unknown words, and asks some comprehension questions. After paraphrasing the instruction to Ex. B, T elicits which functions Amy included.**

Appendix P. Protocol for Reflective Practice Session 5

- When you review the whole lesson, would you say that designing and conducting a lesson using the coursebook material on p. 55/56 is rather easy or challenging?

Some aspects of the lesson:

- Fiona played hangman in order to introduce key vocabulary in the functions shown in Ex. A;
 - Fiona was not sure (as she indicated in the post-lesson journal and the stimulated recall) if this beginning was relevant
 - Alice asked in the stimulated recall why Fiona had chosen “accommodation”, “advice” and “congratulating”
- Alice strongly localized and personalized the actual writing tasks. Please discuss.
 - She gave the students a role (part-time job at Piazza; meeting at Osmanlı Café); what are the advantages and disadvantages? Why do you think the coursebook writers provide the students with a map (of an imaginary city)?
 - (Advantages may be that basing a writing activity on given info makes assessing writings easier: in tests students are often limited by providing info to use to make assessment more reliable [because the assessor can check with more ease if a candidate has taken given information into consideration]. Here, it could be tested if directions written by the students are accurate or not).
- Alice had her students listen to the reading text. Our coursebook gives us the possibility to have students listen to the texts. To you what are the advantages and drawbacks (if any) of having students listen to a reading text? When should they listen to it?
- What proves are there to show if a writing class was effective? (students’ writings)
- Giving feedback; please report briefly how you gave feedback. What other forms of feedback do you use? (peer editing?)

- transcripts: this time I gave you the transcripts together with some reflective questions. Maybe you can tell us what you've found out with instructions beforehand.
- I would like to share two excerpts from the reflective practice journals of RP4:

Your voices (excerpts from the last reflective practice journals)

Alice:

For the upcoming session, we can talk about to what extent we believe this study has (or hasn't) contributed to us so far. I know it might be a little earlier since we haven't completed the study, but I want to be aware of the process I have been in. I don't want this to turn into a vicious circle in which I am repeating myself.

Fiona:

Everything goes perfectly. We established a sense of ownership for this reflective programme. We worked in collaboration. We made valuable suggestions to improve our teaching. Shortly, we learned from each other. It should go on like this.

(My own interpretation: Alice is very critical, and this is painful for her; she can't "transform" the things she sees/learns in the process into her own teaching. I don't think that Fiona is less reflective, but her reflection allows her to "learn her lessons" and apply the lessons she learned into her own teaching). After the SR, Alice confirmed my interpretation.

Discussion points: the role of

- experience
- personality
- ...

for reflection/dealing with problems.

- If you did a collaborative practice again, what would you do differently?

Could be collaborative lesson planning be a solution to "help" Alice?

Appendix Q. Post-Lesson Journal

Dear participant,

Please answer the following questions as soon as possible after the lesson.

Name:

Date:

Class:

1. Please describe what you did at the stages in the lesson observed. Please focus on how you used the coursebook material.

2. What did you like about your lesson?

3. What challenges did you face?

4. Did you change or modify your lesson plan during the lesson?

5. If you did the lesson again, what would you change?

Appendix R. Stimulated Recall Journal

Dear participant,

Please answer the following questions as soon as possible after the stimulated recall session.

Name:

Date:

Observation no:

1. Please describe what you did during the stimulated recall session.
2. What did you like about the stimulated recall session?
3. What challenges did you face?
4. What did you learn about your own teaching in this session?
5. Are there aspects related to your teaching you would like to work on in the future?
6. Are there episodes in the video you would like to share with your partner and discuss about?

Appendix S. Reflective Practice Journal

Dear participant,

Please answer the following questions as soon as possible after the reflective practice session.

Name:

Date:

Observation no:

1. Please describe what you did during the reflected practice session. What were your contributions?
2. What did you like about the reflective practice session?
3. What challenges did you face?
4. What did you learn about your own teaching in this session?
5. Are there specific aspects related to your teaching you would like to work on in the future?
6. Please write your recommendations for the upcoming reflective practice session.

Appendix T. Journal Excerpt (Pilot Study)

4. What did you learn about your own teaching in this session?

I noticed that I was focusing on grammar, accuracy more than fluency and fraction of the language. And I emphasize this during my lessons. I always expect students to produce grammatical sentences.

5. Are there aspects related to your teaching you would like to work on in the future?

Yes, there are. As being a teacher there are always things to learn and also we should improve our teaching methods according to the course books, student's needs--etc. I believe this study is a useful method of for teachers who wants have a reflection on his/her own teaching methods.

6. Please write your recommendations for the upcoming reflective practice session.

- The video tape session shouldn't be early in the mornings.
- The lesson/ topic/ subject of the course book is also important. I would rather prefer a lesson which includes reading & grammar part on it.
- I definitely would like to watch the video before I have the video watching session.

Appendix U. Transcription Conventions for Spoken Data

Transcription conventions for interviews, stimulated recall and reflective practice sessions (Dresing et al., 2015, pp. 27-33; cf. Bryman, 2012, pp. 481-488; Lamberg, 2015, p. 130):

1. Interviews were transcribed literally, i.e. they were not summarised or transcribed with pseudo-phonetic characterization.
2. Informal contractions were approximated to written standard language: “gonna” became “going to”. However other contractions (“isn’t”) were transcribed exactly.
3. Syntactical errors were not corrected.
4. Punctuation was “smoothed in favour of legibility” (Dresing et al., p. 28). Units of meaning were indicated with periods.
5. Affirmative or negative utterances and fillers (“uh-hu”, “yes”) were transcribed when they had informational value. If required, an interpretation was added: “Mhm (affirmative)”.
6. Word repetitions were only transcribed when they were uttered for emphasis.
7. Frequent back channeling by the interviewer (“mhm”) was not transcribed.
8. Words with special emphasis were CAPITALIZED.
9. Pauses were indicated as (.) (short pause from one to three seconds) or, if longer, approximately in seconds (5 sec).
10. Non-verbal utterances (laughter, sighs) were indicated in parentheses when they had informational value.
11. Incomprehensible words were indicated as (inc).
12. If a word or phrase could not be identified unambiguously but could be assumed, the word was put in brackets with a question mark, e.g. “(certain?)”
13. Discontinuations were marked by /: “I was worri/ concerned.”
14. Speech overlaps were marked by //.
15. Apparently wrongly used or phrases were indicated as (sic), e.g. “And he said he didn’t want to do anything anymore. But it’s not about her (sic) personality. We just discussed about a specific issue. But he didn’t understand it I think.”
16. Parts of the material apparently irrelevant to the research were not transcribed.

Appendix V. Coding Categories and Operational Definitions

1. Codes Used in the Analysis of Reasons and Purposes for Coursebook Exploitations

Stated by Teachers (for themes cf. Tomlinson & Masuhara, 2018, pp. 102-104)

Theme: Teaching Environment (beyond the immediate lesson context including, e.g., the course programme, syllabi, curricula, management, colleagues, physical facilities, the society)		
Code	Operational Definition	Example
colleagues	How other teachers exploit the coursebook influence the teacher's coursebook exploitation.	Sedat (a colleague) does it [using the answer check function in the IWB]. (...) So I got used to it. That's why I'm using it (Reflective Practice Session 5).
content	The significance of specific content in the political, social, or cultural context encourages teachers to deal with it or discourages them from implementing it.	We talked parental issues. Their relations with their parents. These topics really attract them (Reflective Practice Session 1)
exam	Exams have an impact on the teacher's coursebook exploitation.	I would feel guilty, for instance, if they [the assessors] ask a question in their exams. I would feel guilty if I skipped, I didn't teach them (Reflective Practice Session 2).
programme	The institutionally organised programme as evidenced in the curriculum, syllabi or material selection has an impact on how the teacher exploits the coursebook.	I thought probably they didn't learn type II yet. (.) The schedule's too busy. I sometimes don't know which topics we covered, which ones we didn't. (Stimulated Recall 2 Alice).
time frame	The time available for teachers has an impact on how the teacher exploits the coursebook (certain exploitations are restricted through time pressure or rendered possible through time available).	I thought it may have taken too much time for them [the learners]. That's why I wrote them [words; refers to restructuring of an exercise] on purpose (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Fiona).
time of the year	The point of time in the academic year has an impact on how the teacher exploits the coursebook.	But they say the spring comes and we are not motivated anymore. And today we talked about it. The weather is sunny and we don't want to be here, they always say.

(Stimulated Recall Session
2 Fiona).

Learner (addressing specific characteristics of the learners including learning styles, preferences, motivation)		
engaging	The teacher's coursebook exploitation aims at encouraging learners to participate more fully in classroom activities.	That's why I did this in this way. It might be more motivating for them (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Fiona).
learner discomfort	The teacher's coursebook exploitation is a response to a perceived discomfort of the learners because of the lesson observation .	Yeah, actually that was what I was planning to do. (...) Maybe I thought they [the learners] weren't very comfortable as you [the observer] were in the class and they may be reluctant to do this. But I will try this in my classes when you are not in the class (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Alice)
level	The learners' language level has an impact on how the teacher exploits the coursebook	But I think especially in the beginner and elementary level, they don't understand instructions. That's why I'm doing this I think (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Fiona.)
response	The teacher's coursebook exploitation is realised due to previous learner reaction (explicit feedback, observed behaviour or request).	It seems unrelated to our text but I prefer to play hangman with my students because they told me that they wanted to play some games (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Fiona).
relevance	The teacher's coursebook exploitation aims at enhancing the relevance of coursebook materials for learners often by considering the principles of localising, personalising or modernising.	They won't write something looking at the map. I will give them some context. In Kahramanmaraş. And they will write something real. Like as if Beata is their friend. And she's coming to Kahramanmaraş. They are/ you will see my context. You are working. You have a part-time job here. You are free during this time (Pre-Lesson Interview 5 Alice).

Teacher (including personal preferences, teaching styles, beliefs about teaching and meaningfulness of coursebook materials)

forgetting	The teacher omits a coursebook component unintentionally.	And Stefan noticed, realised that the instructions where can we put thi (.) uhm yes, where can we put this information in Amy's mail, he noticed that both of us didn't do it. So, I think we sometimes skip some instructions but I think they are minor details (Reflective Practice Session 5).
misunderstanding	The teacher's coursebook exploitation is due to a misunderstanding of the intention of a component in the coursebook.	Alice: But I thought these two [exercises] are combined. (.) Wasn't I right? (.) Researcher: I think/ I mean if we take the teacher's book as the default, probably not. Alice: Uh. (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Alice)
personal problem	The teacher's coursebook exploitation is affected by a personal problem (bad mood or health problem).	This is the first time I have been late for the class (.) this morning. For years, for many years, this is the first time. Tonight, I couldn't, I couldn't wake up because I didn't want (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice).
preference	The teacher's coursebook exploitation mirrors the teacher's preferences (e.g. in terms of teaching style, personality, content regarded suitable to be covered) or is explained as routinely realised practice.	It's my usual style. I do it in this way (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Fiona).
unawareness	The teacher is not aware of an adaptation realised.	But I didn't do it on purpose (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice).
uncertainty	The teacher is not sure about or cannot verbalise reasons or purposes for a realised adaptation.	I don't know the purpose here. Why I do this (Stimulated Recall Session Alice 4).
uptake	The teacher realises a coursebook exploitation she has learned about in the reflective practice.	We discussed it now. Reflective practice. I did it and I think it worked well.

weakness	A coursebook adaptation addresses a perceived weakness of the teacher.	They discussed their answers. Then we listened for the third time. I think they could answer (Stimulated Recall Session 3 Fiona). As you know we are/ actually we are not good at giving instructions, so (.) that day we talked about how to make instructions easy, easier for them (Pre-Lesson Interview Alice 6).
immediate lesson or course context		
compensation	Coursebook adaptation compensates for insufficient covering of a topic taught before.	I conducted it deliberately as I couldn't cover emergency situations (.) in the previous videos. We were supposed to do it. But as I didn't make them watch the video before (Reflective Practice Session 2).
facilitating	Coursebook adaptation aims at enabling learners to comprehend the language or follow the procedures of a coursebook component (text, exercise, activity) either dealt with at the moment of adaptation or at a subsequent lesson stage more fully.	I try to make some changes first two make it more clear (sic) for the students (Pre-Lesson Interview 5 Alice).
learning objective/outcome	The teacher refers to a specific learning objective or intended outcome to explain coursebook exploitation.	They should like to know something. It's not just knowing the language or learning (.) what we have in the book. But they should have something cultural as well. The language they are learning. The culture (Stimulated Recall 2 Alice).
recycling	Coursebook exploitation aims at recycling previously (e.g. in the previous lesson) taught content.	I wrote this question on purpose because in this unit they study if-clause. That's why I do something like this (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Fiona).
time of lesson	The exploitation of a coursebook component is influenced by the time of the lesson (e.g. last lesson of the day, last stage within a	To be frank, we didn't have much time for the listening as it was close to the end of the lesson, so unfortunately

	lesson unit)	we were in a rush to complete it (Post-Lesson Journal 4 Alice).
unnecessary	A coursebook component is omitted because an intended outcome is believed to be already achieved.	Researcher: OK, just one question: Here (points to Exercise D). Here it says: 'Watch the clip again. Which of the following do you see?' You didn't have them watch the clip again. Fiona: Yeah, because they know the answer. That's why I didn't let them watch it again (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Fiona).
coursebook (specific features of the coursebook)		
appropriateness	A coursebook component is perceived appropriate or sufficient to achieve an intended learning outcome.	I can state that we mostly followed the stages in the course book since all the skills were already integrated and there were enough number of activities that could be produced from such a little information in such a little chart (Post-Lesson Journal 6 Alice).
authenticity	A coursebook adaptation aims at exposing learners to authentic language or at eliciting language production perceived authentic.	I don't want them to make very mechanical dialogues and I want them to show/ I want to show them what could be a real life-like dialogue. How to ask some extra questions. Maybe as teacher I may skip something but here we have a sample (Stimulated Recall Session Alice 1).
inappropriateness	A coursebook component is perceived inappropriate or insufficient, or a component is believed to be missing to achieve an intended learning outcome.	And I thought it is somewhat irrelevant to the video. And it might be difficult to interrelate it to the video. That's why I skipped the emergency situation question (Stimulated Recall Session Fiona 2).
repetitiveness	A coursebook component or	I sometimes feel that they

components are perceived to be lacking variety.

are really bored when we open, when we always look at the book, so I wanted to do something extraordinary for them (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Fiona).

2. Codes used in the Analysis of Topics Addressed in the Reflective Practice

Surrounding or Going beyond the Immediate Lesson Context (descriptive coding, cf. Saldana, 2009)

Theme: Instructional practice (actions and decisions significant in the context of teaching in class)		
Code	Operational Definition (descriptive coding, cf. Saldana, 2009)	Example
answer check	check of answers to coursebook exercises	But I always walk around the groups and try to check their answers (Reflective Practice Session 2)
classroom discourse	spoken interaction between teacher and learner or among learners	I think Alice's students, there are more free speeches in Alice's transcript (Reflective Practice Session 4).
dictionary	use of dictionary in language teaching and learning	But I always encourage them not to use their dictionary (Reflective Practice Session 4).
games	use of games in language teaching and learning	We played hangman to focus on the functions. It may not be related but my sts [students] love such games and they usually forget the meanings of those words (Post-Lesson Journal 5 Fiona).
instruction	giving instructions for exercises, activities or tasks including explanation of rubrics in coursebook components	Our instructions should be developed (Reflective Practice Session 4).
IWB	use of IWBs, iTools, or other digital materials	I always use the iTool to show them the answers (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Fiona).
L1	use of the learners' own language in class	I just expected in English. But I think Turkish would be OK (Reflective Practice Session 3).

pair/group work	organisation of group or pair work	Of course, sometimes when I see – do you remember that I made a spontaneous decision and grouped my students, regrouped my students? It didn't work well and I put a lot of effort for them to understand the task (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Fiona).
pronunciation	dealing with pronunciation or pronunciation exercises in coursebooks	I planned to skip that part [points to Pronunciation exercise]. I didn't cover it. I don't know, but I didn't find it meaningful (Pre-Lesson Journal 1 Alice).
questioning	teachers' use of questions in language teaching and learning including wait-time	I also need to be careful about giving my learners enough time to answer my questions (sometimes the questions are more than they could catch up with) (Stimulated Recall Journal 2 Alice).
reading	the teaching and learning of the skill of reading	I usually do it in such complex reading texts because if I don't write the main ideas, if I don't have them to focus on these ideas, they are lost in the reading text (Reflective Practice Session 4).
reading out loud	reading out loud texts by learners or teachers	I made them read. That's what we talked for the reading text. I made them, especially for listening. I always make them read sentences, the questions (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice).
seating arrangement	arrangement of chairs and desks in the classroom (e.g. in rows or horseshoe form)	For example in a U-shape. I tried it. There was no difference (Stimulated Recall Session 6 Fiona).
speaking	the teaching and learning of the skill of speaking	This is a big problem, I think, because when we do a speaking activity, they always look at our eyes (Reflective Practice Session

time management	allocating time or restricting time for specific activities in class	4). Do you give time to answer the questions (.) in your classes (.) after listening? While/or are you trying to be sure they are answering while they are listening to it? (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice).
whiteboard	use of the whiteboard in language teaching and learning	Probably I didn't use the board very well. It looks horrible (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Alice).
writing	the teaching and learning of the skill of writing	I said, 'OK, you can go on writing. I'm giving feedback to your friends now. Then I will come and sit next to you.' I stated in my post lesson that I liked that (.) there were only grammatical mistakes, no problems about the content. They got it (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Alice).
Learner (aspects discussed with the main focus on learners in terms of interests, motivation, dispositions and attitudes)		
affective needs	learners' affective needs	Because when I/ they don't want to talk a lot but when I put them in groups, they feel more comfortable. That's why I sometimes prefer putting them in groups (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Fiona).
attitudes towards learning	attitude learners hold towards language learning	I believe I should help them change their attitudes towards speaking tasks (Stimulated Recall Journal 1 Alice).
autonomy	learners' autonomy in language learning	I think if they had the autonomy in the class, they can easily follow the instruction, follow the book, follow the exercises, but I think that they are missed (Reflective Practice Session 3)
dealing with problematic	addressing learners who have difficulties in language learning	Normally, he never talks in a group work. When he's a

learners		pair with another student, he just sits. He has a problem with speaking, but not just for speaking in English. He has some personal problems. He's very introverted. He has excellent writings, by the way. His exam results are good. But I try to force him in other modules as well. He has been my student in three modules. But he's so/ he has barriers to speak. His friends said that he never even speaks in Turkish in our room, his flatmates (Reflective Practice Session 3).
demotivation	learners' lack of participation in classroom activities due to lack of motivation	So, I think they are a bit demotivated. That's why I always force them to talk (Stimulated Recall Session 2 Fiona)
level	learner level in terms of language proficiency	Normally, at Elementary level, at beginner level, I wasn't doing this. But for pre-intermediate, I believe at least for the first units, they may need guidance (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Alice)
using examples from learners' lives in class	teachers' use of examples from their learners' private lives for instructional purposes	We spent such a long time with them and we know many things about their private life. So, sometimes if I use it, sometimes they laugh or it attracts their attention (Reflective Practice Session 1).
Teacher (teachers' beliefs, attitudes and emotions; collegiality)		
colleagues	relationship with colleagues in terms of, e.g., planning or realising instructional practice	I think I'm lucky about my partner. We are working in cooperation. And (.) in the first module I had a partner. And when I asked him or tried to talk him about where we are or what can we do, he says, 'Don't talk

language learning beliefs	teachers' beliefs about how languages are learned	about me, I will ask my students and we can go on that part. (.) So, it's not cooperation (Reflective Practice Session 3) Learning a language. Sometimes we do it without any (.) uhm conscious activity (inc.) We know the answer but can't explain, just know (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice).
preference	teacher's preferences (e.g. in terms of teaching style, personality, content regarded suitable to be covered) or routine behaviour	It's my usual style. I do it in this way (Stimulated Recall Session 1 Fiona).
professional dissatisfaction	expression of dissatisfaction with professional life	I don't feel comfortable with my teaching (.) in this year because we have a new system and it really makes me disturbed and makes me burned out (Reflective Practice Session 4)
showing emotions in class	showing feelings (e.g. anger or enthusiasm) during instructional practice	But they know my style (laughs). That what I even (.) I treat myself like this (.) in front of them. So I say such things. I would tease myself. I say something bad to me. So, they never feel so, I believe. They don't feel (.) bad about this (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice).
teacher role	teachers' roles	I think if we do like this, we give all the responsibility to the teacher (Reflective Practice Session 4)
teacher autobiography	teachers' references to their life (e.g. as learners, during teacher education) in reflection	Personally, when I was a student, I didn't like pronunciation part (Pre-Lesson Interview 1 Alice).
material (coursebook, Teacher's Book or other materials used in class) content	content topics in the coursebook	But I don't remember any activity in Turkey. Cleaning the park or what else? Yeah, the activities mentioned in the book. There aren't such activities in Turkey

exploiting listening recording (of reading texts)	use of audio recordings of reading texts in coursebooks	(Reflective Practice Session 1). I use it. I care about/ I want them to listen to things by a native. That's why (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice).
functions of coursebook components	identification of functions of and rationales behind exercises, activities, texts and tasks in coursebooks	They just get a glimpse of the idea (.) of what is it, what is it about. And then they are looking for the details (.) in exercise C (Reflective Practice Session 2).
integrated skills	coursebook units containing the integration of at least two skills	This is what it needs to be. Skills must be integrated to each other (Reflective Practice Session 6).
Teacher's Book	use of the Teacher's Book	But do you remember that in New English File? The listening scripts are given here in the Teacher's Book (Reflective Practice 4).
planning (procedures and compulsory lesson planning)	and forms of lesson preparation lesson planning as requested by authorities (school administration, ministry of education, etc.)	They [the authorities] don't trust their teachers (Reflective Practice Session 6).
learning objectives	objectives in in language teaching and learning	They should like to know something. It's not just knowing the language or learning (.) what we have in the book. But they should have something cultural as well. The language they are learning. The culture (Stimulated Recall 2 Alice).
procedures	steps, actions and pathways in lesson planning	Researcher: No, no, I just wonder, it is very general, what teachers do when they prepare a page in the coursebook, let's say a reading with questions. Alice: I do it. Researcher: Do they answer/ do they go through the steps that the students will go through in the class?

written plan	written record of planned lesson	Alice: Uh, yeah. Just to see Researcher: Just to see is it difficult Alice: Right, right, how fast they can do or how clearly they understand. (.) I do it just for vocabulary. But not for such tasks (Stimulated Recall Session 4 Alice). As I stated in my post lesson journal, having a lesson plan made me both comfortable (since I knew what I would do in each step) and stressful (since I felt the pressure of sequencing things in an organized way) (Reflective Practice Journal 3 Alice).
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3. Codes Used to Denote Operations Performed during Reflective Practice (Functions of Reflective Practice)

Code	Operational Definition	Sample
agenda setting	The teachers formulate actions, plans or strategies to address an issue noticed.	It would be/ it's a good idea. For the following speaking class I will try this. (.) I will provide a sample and ask students, 'OK, ask me questions. Maybe I can choose a few of them. I can be a part of the group. We model this. And the others will see us and do it (Reflective Practice Session 3)
alternative	The teachers generate or share alternatives or solutions for issues identified as problematic.	Maybe we can (.) uh maybe they can create a situation, they can have some roles. they can have some nicknames, they can say that, 'OK, guys, my friends, now we are here. She is blab la, I have seen him on the way, and I have something good to tell her.' They may create contexts for this (Reflective Practice 1).
collegiality	Collegiality refers to data showing	My partner appreciated the

that teachers express solidarity with their colleague.

discussing

Discussing refers to data showing that teachers try to come to terms with aspects of their teaching through discussing with a partner or examining data (videos, transcripts, incidents recalled).

way I followed for the speaking part. She said she would also provide a real example in a speaking task for her next lessons. Giving her a new idea (though she already knows the importance of authenticity in materials) made me feel good (Reflective Practice Journal 3 Alice)

Researcher: Can I ask you a second question? Why didn't you give immediately the worksheet? 'Here are some sentences and you have to match the apps to the sentences. Now read the text and answer the questions in the worksheet.'

Alice: Normally that's what I do. Normally for a task we ask students: 'OK, now you will listen to a dialogue. Read the sentences first' or 'You will read a text. First read the comprehension questions first. Normally that's what I do. (.) Normally I can follow this procedure. But maybe this time I didn't do. //I know that//

Researcher: //Do you see// do you see //my my//

Alice: //Yes.//

Researcher: But my problem must not be your problem. And it must not be any other teacher's problem. But I found it (.) maybe not advantageous to just to tell students 'Read the text.'

Alice: I agree. (.) Yes, I know. (.) I know what you mean. If the book gave

		comprehension questions, first of all I would ask them, 'OK, read the questions. Get some general idea about it (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Alice).
evaluating	The teachers criticise or praise own or heir partner's instructional practice.	I thought using the map might not be stimulating for my sts [students] but while I was reading their mails, I saw that it provided a guideline for them (Stimulated Recall Journal 5 Fiona).
noticing	The teachers identify an aspect of their instructional practice or a difference in instructional practice between them.	Explanation. They know. I'm still saying Beata is writing to you (Stimulated Recall Session 5 Alice).
uptake	The teachers report that they have tried out a practice they have learned about in the reflective practice.	After I watched the video I observed that I started practicing the ideas we had discussed over so far. I mean I tried to make them practical in the classroom (Stimulated Recall Journal 3 Alice).

4. Codes Used to Indicate Perceptions of Reflective Practice

Code	Operational Definition	Sample
appreciation	data indicating that the participants perceive reflective practice valuable	I could see what I did in the class through the video clearly (Stimulated Recall Journal 1 Alice).
discomfort	data explicitly or implicitly showing that participants have negative feelings while being engaged in reflective practice	But now I know many things. (.) When it comes to the application it's getting harder. So it makes me feel (.) an (.) unsatisfied teacher now. I'm aware and this awareness is killing me (Reflective Practice Session 5).
observation effect	perceptions related to impacts of classroom observation on the teachers and learners, including video recording	In today's lesson they just sat silently. It may be because they are still disturbed by the existence of another teacher and video camera in the class (Post-Lesson Journal 2 Alice).

observing oneself	data related to perceptions related to the experiencing of watching oneself in video material	The observation, while watching myself I don't feel comfortable (Reflective Practice Session 4).
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