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Editorial

İsmail Hakkı Erten ^a *, Hüseyin Öz ^a

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Dear EJAL Readers,

We are happy to be writing this editorial to the first issue of second volume. It is a thrill to start our second year with Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics. It has been truly stimulating to work on the journal. It has also been a challenge to maintain the quality of papers without getting tempted by the number of submissions. Despite being a new journal, EJAL has succeeded to receive a good number of submissions from various parts of the world. After our in-house and external review cycles, we have been fortunate to include in this issue most relevant three research articles and two book reviews. We, therefore, feel obliged to thank members of our editorial board and anonymous reviewers for their efforts and invaluable constructive feedback in the review process of manuscripts. Without their input, the issue would not have been as successful.

The first article in this issue is by Atsushi Iida, Gunma University, Japan. The author explores the use of *haiku* – a form of Japanese poetry in foreign language instruction. Atsushi Iida reports on findings from a case study where a Myanmar student wrote ten haiku poems. It is suggested in the article that *haiku* writing and or poetry can be used as a meaningful medium for literacy learning where students can find creative opportunities for expressing themselves in L2.

The second article explores alternative ways of glossing in the reading process. Dilara Arpacı, Hacettepe University-Turkey. Dilara Arpacı reports on findings from an experimental study in which she investigated varying effects of providing glosses in L2, in L1, or not glossing at all. Her findings show that there may a preference among learners for L1 glosses over L2 glosses and L1 glosses may possibly yield better results.

Andrzej Cirocki, University of York-UK, and Raichle Farrelly, Saint Michael's College-USA, are the authors of the third article in this issue. Acknowledging the value of teacher-research in one's professional development and connecting the ability to link theory to practice, the authors attempt to explore whether and how EFL teachers in Armenian context are engaged in classroom-based teacher research. The

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authors conclude that teacher-led inquiry needs to be promoted and supported in the process of professional development of EFL teachers.

Journals are often the meeting points for books and readers. We, therefore, support book reviews. In this issue, too, we have reviews of two recent books in applied linguistics. The first book is *Motivational currents in language learning: frameworks for focused interventions*, (Dörnyei, Henry, & Muir, 2016) published by Routledge. Funda Ölmez, Hacettepe University-Turkey, reviewed the book for EJAL. Kadriye Aksoy, Hacettepe University, reviewed the second book, *Exploring psychology in language learning and teaching* (Williams, Mercer, & Ryan, 2016) published by Oxford University Press.

Publishing a journal is an ever-continuing process. Having been able to release the EJAL 2(1) issue, the next task is to prepare the next issue. Hope to be able to write the editorial for the second issue in 2016.

Happy reading!

İsmail Hakkı Erten & Hüseyin Öz

Editors

ARTICLES

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Poetic identity in second language writing: Exploring an EFL learner's study abroad experience

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Abstract

The current study investigates the way in which an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) college student writes *haiku* – a three line Japanese poem with a specific number of syllables in each line in a second language (L2) to express his study abroad experience. This poetic inquiry which involved literary, linguistic, and content analyses of the collection of ten haiku poems written by a Myanmar student documented some discursive identities in relation to his study abroad experience in Japan: a Myanmar boy who struggled with his loneliness in Japan, a teenager who was challenged in making Japanese friends and tried to develop his friendships, an international student who explored a place of his own in the society, and a college student who enjoyed his daily life with friends. This study illustrates the expressive ability of an EFL writer to communicate personal life stories through poetry writing. It also proposes the usage of poetry writing as a form of meaningful literacy learning in the EFL classroom from theoretical and methodological perspectives.

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Keywords: Second language poetry writing; haiku; identity; study abroad experience; EFL learners

1. Introduction

Haiku — a Japanese poem containing seventeen syllables in a three-line 5-7-5 syllable pattern with the use of a seasonal reference¹ and a cutting word² — is used for different purposes in various contexts all over the world. The application of haiku is not only for the writers to express their emotions but for non-Japanese students to study Japanese literature and/or expand its cultural knowledge. Haiku is also used as therapeutic writing through which patients compose poems as a way to release their negative feelings (Sky Hiltunen, 2005). Another usage of haiku is as a form of literacy practice in the second language (L2) classroom (Iida, 2008, 2010, 2012, in press). One recent innovative approach in L2 writing research is to use poetry as a research method. Hanauer (2010) has argued the effectiveness of using poetry — free-style descriptive poems — written by English as a Second Language (ESL) students as a way to investigate and understand the writers' identity construction. However, it

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remains controversial whether a subgenre of poetry, haiku, highly structured, 5-7-5 syllable poems, can be used as a research method. Of importance in L2 writing research is to clarify what can be seen from the poetic data and to understand how L2 writers express themselves in poetry.

The aim of this article is to investigate L2 writers' identities in poetry writing. Initially, it reviews previous research on poetry writing in L2 contexts. Secondly, it describes poetic inquiry into a Myanmar English as a Foreign Language (EFL) student's identity construction through his study abroad experience in Japan. The main objectives of the current study are to identify how the EFL student understands and expresses his study abroad experience in haiku poetry and to clarify the role of poetry writing in L2 education. In doing so, this article intends to argue the use of haiku as meaningful literacy practice in the L2 composition classroom.

2. Issues of voice and identity in L2 expressive writing

Expressive writing is still an unusual task for L2 writers (Chamcharatsri, 2013b; Iida, 2016). In the traditional EFL classroom, L2 writers are expected to write academically as native speakers of English do. The focus of error reduction and translation of English texts into a first language (L1) leaves them at a disadvantage when writing in English in real-world situations (Iida, 2010). What happens in this context is that L2 writers struggle with the situation in which they want to express their opinions, but they do not understand how to do so in English. Due to less attention to learners' minds and social behaviors in the learning process, traditional EFL pedagogy has lost sight of "the flesh-and-blood individuals who are doing the learning" (Kramsch, 2006, p. 98). However, learning a new language should be "a significant, potentially life-changing, event" (Hanauer, 2012, p. 105). Of importance in the EFL pedagogy is to focus on L2 writers and train them to express themselves in the target language.

With the criticism of the traditional L2 pedagogy, Hanauer (2012) discussed how second language (SL) and foreign language (FL) learning could be more humanized and proposed a new form of literacy practice, *meaningful literacy*, in the L2 classroom. The concept of this literacy practice is to make students' language learning meaningful in a way that they reflect on their own life experiences, recreate each event through writing, and express their emotional insight in texts. The strength of the meaningful literacy practice is to put "the individual learner and her/his personal experience, history and social contextualization at the center of the learning experience" (Hanauer, 2012, p. 4). The usage of personal experiences promotes L2 writers to negotiate, construct and express their voices in the target language and makes their learning meaningful in terms of developing their expressive ability in L2 writing. In this way, meaningful literacy learning has the potential to overcome the limitation of traditional L2 pedagogy and empower L2 writers.

One of the most effective pedagogical approaches in the meaningful literacy framework is poetry writing (Chamcharatsri, 2013b; Hanauer, 2012, 2014; Iida, 2012,

2016, in press). Bishop (1997) values poetry as “a life process, certainly a process involved in the making and contemplating of artistic texts, but an art that is also, and as importantly, a journey back to the unconscious, a relearning and realigning of selves” (p. 255). From a methodological standpoint, poetry is viewed as data which combine “a narrative or story along with various poetic devices that express the depth of human emotion” (Langer & Furman, 2004, p. 2). In this sense, poetry is “a literary text that presents the experiences, thoughts and feelings of the writer through a self-referential use of language that creates for the reader and writer a new understanding of the experience, thought or feeling expressed in the text” (Hanauer, 2004, p. 10). Reflecting on the nature of this genre, previous research on poetry writing involved the investigation of the L2 writer’s personal identity. For example, a case study conducted by Hanauer (2010) examined the poetic identity in L2 writing. The study involved the analysis of a whole book of poetry created by a Japanese ESL college student. The book of poetry on her parents’ divorce at the age of seventeen illustrated a history of change in which she moved from shock and confusion at parents’ divorce to a position of accepting the reality, a more mature understanding of gender roles, and the ability to live by herself. This study revealed that the collection of poems was not just her simple descriptions of each moment, but rather it was “the history of developing subject positions designed to explore, understand and negotiate different ways of being in the world” (Hanauer, 2010, p. 73).

Park (2013) also conducted poetic inquiry into her personal identity. She used *autobiographic-poetic waves* through which she blended autobiographic and poetic discourse as a research method to observe four stages of her life: the emergence of hyphenated identities, the legitimization of hyphenated identities, the epistemological and ontological revolution, and the perception of Mama Ph.Ds. The results of qualitative analysis of her poems and autobiographies illustrated her complicated, multiple identities which consisted of a Korean-American woman, L2 writer, English teacher, teacher-scholar, and Mama Ph.D. In this study, she discussed the value of autobiographic-poetic inquiry as a way to represent “snapshots of her personal, academic and professional life history” (Park, 2013, p. 15).

Thus overall, previous research reports on the usage of poetry as autobiographical inquiry and explores the personal identity in L2 expressive writing. Following both theoretical and methodological frameworks of poetry writing, the current study aims to use haiku as a research method and to identify the ways in which L2 writers focus and express their study abroad experiences in poetry writing. Specifically, the following question will be addressed: what are the ways in which poetic identities are expressed in second language haiku written by an EFL student?

3. Methods

The methodology chosen was a qualitative, case study which aimed to explore how poetic identity emerged in L2 writing focusing on one particular EFL student’s study

abroad experience. In order to investigate the question, the task of haiku writing was incorporated into a regular college English writing course over six weeks.

3.1. Research sites and participants

Twenty-three English major college freshmen (six male and seventeen female students) initially registered in a section of a first-year college writing course at a Japanese private four-year university in the 2010 spring semester. Their English proficiency level ranged from 400 to 495 points on the TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication), which is approximately equivalent to 435 to 470 points on the TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language) paper-based test.

The focal student of the current study was a Myanmar male student. He was born and grew up in Myanmar and moved to Japan at the age of fifteen. He started to learn English in the fourth grade in Myanmar and continued to study the language in Japan. He had experience of reading and writing haiku in Japanese in secondary school. In this light, haiku was a familiar genre to him.

3.2. Data collection procedures

Data were collected in the freshman college writing course. The investigator designed and taught a six-week haiku lesson in order for the participant to create a book of haiku. This project was comprised of three stages. The first stage was to understand the concept of haiku. The participant reviewed the structure of haiku and the construction of meaning by reading both traditional Japanese and English haiku poetry. The second stage involved haiku writing. In this stage, the participant reflected on his personal life experience, chose and free wrote ten significant memories in his life, composed one haiku for each memory, revised it based on feedback from the investigator and classmates. The last stage was to create and publish a book of haiku. The participant was assigned to publish his original, hand-made booklet consisting of a table of contents, an introduction and ten poems.

When the participant submitted his book of haiku in the last lesson, he was given the Informed Consent Form to ask his participation in the current study. In order to reduce the research bias, the participant was informed that his participation was voluntary and it would not affect his final grade. He agreed to participate, signed the Informed Consent Form and was selected as the subject in the current study. In this way, his book of haiku including ten poems was collected.

3.3. Data analysis

The analyses entailed the investigation of the whole book of haiku written by the participant, focusing on the examination of the writer's subject position in L2 haiku poetry. Following Hanauer's (2010) methodological guidelines for the investigation of poetic identity, data analysis involved the three categories of analysis: analysis of

context of writing, content analysis, and stylistic analysis of literary and linguistic choices.

The first category of analysis is the context of writing. It influences the meaning and text produced by L2 writers. The analysis of the context of writing involved both micro and macro level influences (Pavlenko, 2007; Hanauer, 2010). According to Hanauer (2010), the micro-level context consists of the reason of writing, educational environment of writing, or other contextual influences on the individual writer while the macro-level context includes historical and ideological settings in which the writers produce texts by negotiating their understandings of the world. This macro-level context is concerned with what Ivanič (1998) defines as ‘possibilities for self-hood’ in the social context of writing and it is considered as a key component to influence the construction of writer identity. The second category is content analysis. Hanauer (2010) asserts that the investigation of poetic identity involves “the analysis of content presented within the poem concerning the events, dispositions, presented memories, ideas, experiences, thoughts and feelings of the autobiographical self” (p. 63). The purpose of this analysis is to consider what content is written in each poem, why it is presented, and what the choice of this content really means to the writer. The third category is the stylistic analysis of literary and linguistic choices. Poetry writing involves the writer’s linguistic and reflective negotiation to construct meaning (Hanauer, 2010; Iida, 2012, 2016), and words and styles used in each poem are seen as a representation of the writer’s emotional insight (Iida, 2010). Stylistic analysis in the current study focuses on the writer’s word choice in each haiku poem.

The above three categories are closely interconnected within the poem itself and cannot be analyzed separately (Hanauer, 2010; Pavlenko, 2007). So, the investigator analyzed each haiku poem in a way that he reflected and recreated the writer’s subject position expressed in the actual descriptions of the poem. Each haiku was carefully examined from the aspect of the writer’s specific perspectives, emotional contents and understanding of the experience.

4. Results

Kyine Nanda (a pseudonym), an eighteen-year Myanmar male student wrote a book of haiku, “Adventure: Making Friends in Japan” to explore his study abroad experience in Japan. He introduced his book with the following statements:

I have been to some countries, Myanmar, Thailand, and Japan, but it is not easy to get well in new countries. I tried to make friends and well with people there. Sometime I succeeded and sometime I failed. This book says how I make friends and how I spend my happy times with them in Japan.

As stated above, he created this book on his challenge for adjusting to a new culture and making friends in Japan as a main theme. The content outline and order of poems in the book are as follows:

1. *Loneliness in Japan*: on his feelings a few days after he arrived in Japan.

2. *First Day of School in Japan*: on his desire to make many friends in junior high school.
3. *High School*: on the scene from his high school life.
4. *Hang Out*: on the moment when he hangs out with his high school friends.
5. *Disney Land*: on his feelings in getting on the Space Mountain with his friends.
6. *At AEON Mall*: on shopping with his friends at the mall.
7. *Movie*: on watching a horror movie with his friends.
8. *Entrance Ceremony of University*: on attending the entrance ceremony in his college.
9. *Barbecue*: on his favorite time with his friends.
10. *Dining Hall*: on his favorite place to stay with his friends.

As seen from the outline, the haiku poems are designed and organized in a chronological order starting with his move to Japan and continuing to his present college life. Each haiku marks a significant moment to describe his process of cultural adjustment in Japan. His book of haiku begins with the poem to express his feelings when he started his new life in Japan.

Loneliness in Japan

A few days have been
 Nobody is around me:
 I know I'm alone

This haiku begins with the statement, “A few days have been” which provides a situation in which a couple days have passed since the writer arrived in Japan. The statement in the second line, “Nobody is around me” reflects his emotion which is sorrowful. The use of “alone” in the last line also represents his sadness. He understands and accepts this dark, static, and uninteresting moment in the first couple days in Japan, and therefore, he feels sad referring back to the title of this haiku, “loneliness.” The theme of loneliness continues in the next haiku: *First Day of School in Japan*.

First Day of School in Japan

Nobody knows me
 But, drawing their attention:
 “Can I make friends here?”

This haiku captures the scene in which the writer stands in front of the classroom and his homeroom teacher introduces him to the class on the first day in his junior high school. The phrase, “Nobody knows me” in the first line indicates that he is not physically alone but feels lonely in class. His loneliness is also seen from the next line, “drawing their attention” and he, as a new student, just looks around the classroom

while his classmates stare at him. In this situation, the writer must wonder if he can “make friends.” His feeling at this moment is the nervousness and anxiety rather than the expectation or hope for his new school life.

The next five haiku poems address significant moments in the poet’s high school life. His life dramatically changes when he starts to attend high school.

High School

Hanging out a lot:
A fifteen-year boy obtains
A little freedom

This haiku describes how the writer spends time in his high school life. The phrase, “hanging out a lot” in the first line is associated with his activeness. The reason why he becomes active can be seen from the last two lines: he “obtains a little freedom” meaning that he starts to have time for doing whatever he wants to do. In addition to his activeness, the phrases, “a fifteen-year boy” and “a little” clearly reflect his inner voice considering a situation surrounding him: the writer does not have as much freedom as adults do, but he is still happy and enjoys hanging out with his friends more often than in junior high school. That is why the writer “obtains” freedom. The next haiku describes his high school life more in detail.

Hang Out

Heading to station:
Shopping with friends at AEON
And lunch together

This haiku juxtaposes the poet’s three actions: heading to the station to catch a train, shopping at the mall, and having lunch with friends. It mirrors his happiness and even excitement to hang out with his high school friends. The use of “with friends” and “together” strengthens his comfort to spend time with them. Through this haiku, it turns out that the writer uses the phrase “hang out” to do something together with his friends. The next haiku continues the theme of the time with friends.

Disneyland

Stars on the sky
Rolling coaster running through:
Laughing but crying

This haiku captures a moment in which the writer is getting on *The Space Mountain*, which is a high-speed roller coaster to the darkest reaches to outer space at Disneyland. His emotion is expressed in the phrase, “laughing” and “crying” in the last line: he is thrilled at riding on the attraction. However, the use of “but” represents his real message indicating his scariness at the moment while it seems

that he tries to make a smile to share this exciting moment with his friends. The next haiku describes the writer's feelings on hanging out with friends.

At AEON Mall

Shopping at the mall:

Look around, stop by a store

To get SAME item

The first two lines in this poem portray the scene in which the writer walks around the shopping mall, looks for something, stops in front of a store, and goes inside to look at it. The last line describes what he is looking for and more significantly, it mirrors his emotions. Especially, the capitalized word "SAME" represents his feelings: the writer wants to become closer to his friends and develop his friendship by purchasing and possess the same item as they do. This might be his way to show a friendship. The next haiku continues the theme.

Movie

A big and dark screen

A small, cold and silent room:

Scream and cry with friends

This haiku visually describes a moment when the writer goes and watches a horror movie with his friends in the theater. Such words as "dark," "cold," "silent" and "scream" represent what genre of movie they are watching. The last line, "scream and cry with friends" refers to the movie being scary enough to tear. This phrase also expresses his inner voice: the poet is thrilled with the horror in the movie. This haiku represents not only his thrill of watching the movie but also his comfort to share the moment with his friends.

The next three haiku poems address his college life with friends. The following haiku reminds the writer of the first day of his college life.

Entrance Ceremony of University

Sit next to new friends

Wearing a brand-new black suit:

Our new life just starts

This haiku captures the moment when the writer attends the entrance ceremony in the university. The first two lines describe the situation in which he is wearing a brand-new black suit and sitting right next to new friends. It is an unusual, formal setting, because he rarely wears a "brand-new black suit" in his daily life and he may not be willing to sit with the one he does not know. This unusual occasion gets on his nerves. The last line, "our new life just starts" also represents his different feeling: the expectation for his college life. Interestingly, the writer uses "our" in the texts. This

indicates that he already regards the students who are sitting right next to him as his friends. He also uses the word “new” three times. This can be seen as the representation of his positive emotion. Overall, this haiku mirrors the writer’s nervousness as well as expectation for his new college life.

Barbecue

Burning sun glares down:
Cool guys around the hot grill
Red face and white teeth

This haiku describes a moment in which the writer has a barbecue with his friends on a hot, summer day. His emotion referring to happiness and excitement to have a barbecue with his friends can be seen in the last line. Especially, the phrase, “white teeth” depicts a situation in which they are smiling and laughing. In addition, this haiku indicates his satisfaction with this event because the writer regards themselves as “cool guys,” though their faces turn into red due to the “burning sun” glaring down on them and the heat from “the hot grill.”

Dining Hall

At warm dining hall
Joking, teasing, and pranking:
A pledge of friendship

The book of haiku ends with the haiku, *Dining Hall* which depicts a moment of his daily college life. The juxtaposition of three words, joking, teasing and pranking in the second line describes how the writer spends time with his friends at the dining hall. They are “joking,” “teasing,” and playing a “prank” on each other there. His voice is expressed in the last line, “a pledge of friendship”: this is how the writer and his friends confirm and deepen their relationship. This haiku represents his happiness and enjoyment in the atmosphere of the dining hall. That is why he may feel “warm” mentally in that place.

The ten haiku poems in the book represent Kyine’s adjustment to a new culture while exploring his friendships. The collection of haiku illustrates his difficulties of cultural adjustment, his attempt to make friends, and his success with building and developing his friendships in Japan. Each haiku in this book expresses the writer’s sensitive feelings describing each moment during the study abroad experience. The articulation of his inner voices illustrates his emotional development in the process for adjusting to new life, from loneliness, anxiety and weariness to companionship, happiness and expectation in the Japanese society. This book of haiku marks the change of his subject position from a new life in Japan with no friends to the current college life with his Japanese friends. Therefore, it can be seen as the writer’s personal history of evolving his subject position since he moved to Japan.

5. Discussion

Following Hanauer's (2010) theoretical and methodological framework for the usage of poetry in the L2 classroom, the principal purpose of the current study is to clarify how an EFL writer identifies himself in L2 poetry on his study abroad experience.

The book of haiku written by Kyine Nanda illustrates the history of his life in Japan starting from the first few days when he arrived in the country to the memories of his college life. The collection of haiku poems which captured his Japanese life clearly documented his personal development, as a man, in the process of adjusting to the new country. In addition, the ten poems which were chronologically organized showed some discursive identities: a Myanmar boy who struggled with his loneliness in Japan, a teenager who was challenged in making Japanese friends and tried to build and develop his friendship, an international student who explored and found out a place of his own in the society (e.g., school, group), and a college student who enjoyed his daily life with friends in Japan. As discussed in previous studies of identity in L2 learning (Norton, 1997; Norton & McKinney, 2011), Kyine's identities were multifaceted, dynamic, and had been constantly reconstructed through interaction with his classmates and friends in Japan. This finding is further supported with the assertion from Wenger (1998) that learning is situated and our identities have been shaped through the participation in communities of practice. Overall, the collection of haiku poetry written by Kyine presents his different subject positions which Pavlenko (2001) has viewed as "lived experiences of participation in specific communities, where meanings of particular positions, narratives and categories must be worked out in practice" (p. 319).

The current study also reveals the relationship between linguistic choices and voice construction in L2 haiku poetry. Kyine's different emotional insights into the study abroad experience were clearly seen from his linguistic choice. For example, such negative emotions as *sad* or *worry* were expressed with the word, "nobody" and "alone." He also used the following phrases "with friends," "cool guys," "friendship," "together," "our" and "hanging out a lot" to address his friendship and his close relationship in the poems. Interestingly, the writer's subject position is also represented from his usage of personal pronouns. It seems that the Myanmar student purposefully used "their" and "our" to express a psychological distance between others (e.g., friends, classmates) and himself. As can be seen in his second haiku, *First Day in School in Japan*, he used the phrase, "drawing *their* attention," indicating that he might see himself as an outsider who had just begun to join a new school. On the other hand, the phrase "*Our* new life just starts" in his eight haiku, *Entrance Ceremony of University* describes social closeness to others, meaning that the writer regarded himself as a part of a new group of people in school. In this way, the book of haiku does not simply present the writer's collection of ten haiku poems, but rather exemplifies his understanding of the transformational process of personal development during a specific time in his Japanese life. In other words, the writer's

identities were presented in L2 haiku poetry by describing “how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2013, p. 45).

This study exemplifies the expressive ability of an EFL student to understand and communicate personally significant life experiences through L2 poetry writing. This finding provides empirical support of Hanauer’s (2012) theoretical framework of poetry writing as a form of meaningful literacy practice. In this study, a Myanmar student explored his study abroad experience, reflected on ten significant moments in his Japanese life, and wrote poems about each memory. Each haiku in his book represented his voice as direct and emotional responses to a series of moments that he experienced. From this viewpoint, poetry writing was not simply a task of using L2 linguistic knowledge but to find, construct, and communicate the writer’s personal voice in the significant life experience. The current study provides EFL teachers with opportunities to reconsider the nature of L2 teaching/learning: L2 learning should not be just for the acquisition of linguistic knowledge but should be a literacy practice to establish a “closer connection with ourselves and our message” (Spiro, 2014, p. 27) and to better understand ourselves through L2 writing. As Hanauer (2014) asserts the essence of SL/FL literacy learning, L2 pedagogy needs to be something meaningful to L2 writers and provide them with authentic literacy experience. Poetry writing has the potential of making L2 literacy practice personal, dynamic, humanistic, and meaningful and it can allow L2 writers to explore, discover, and express themselves in their language learning process.

There are some ramifications of teaching L2 haiku poetry writing in EFL contexts. One ramification is the selection of topic for composing haiku. Poetry writing may be challenging to many L2 writers, because it is an uncommon task (Chamcharatsri, 2013b; Iida, 2016) and they are, in general, insufficiently trained to express their voice in L2 writing. In consideration of this situation, it is effective for teachers to choose a topic which is familiar to L2 learners or, as Hanauer (2010) suggests, to have them explore significant life memories and find their own topic for poetry writing. The current study focuses on one particular EFL writer to investigate his study abroad experience, but the usage of a topic relevant to L2 writers themselves or their lives can make the task of poetry writing easier and more feasible. Doing so can enable them to reflect on their personally meaningful life experiences in the EFL classroom. Another ramification of using haiku poetry in EFL contexts is to teach haiku as a genre of writing. Haiku is a form of Japanese poetry and it may not be familiar to other EFL learners. In order to gain a better understanding of haiku poetry, it is important for teachers to show students some haiku poems written by L2 learners (Iida, 2010, 2012), have them analyze the structure and discuss how voice is constructed and expressed in the text before they actually start to write haiku poetry. Since the purpose of haiku writing is to develop L2 writers’ voice in the target language, teachers should be ready “to understand whether L2 writers feel attached to their poems and if not, to help them to express themselves accurately – in a

phenomenological sense and not necessarily a linguistic sense – in English” (Iida, 2016, p. 133). In addition, having L2 learners actively engage in such a structural and linguistic negotiation as syllable adjustment (e.g., 5-7-5 syllable pattern), lexical choice (e.g., usage of synonyms), or the incorporation of a seasonal reference into the text in the process of composing haiku helps to develop not only their L2 linguistic knowledge but also metalinguistic awareness in English writing. More specifically, with this poetry writing pedagogy, L2 learners will be able to expand the knowledge from communicative aspects: in other words, composing haiku provides plenty of opportunities for L2 writers to consider how to use the target language practically in order to express themselves in the 5-7-5 syllable structure and to reflect on whether their voice expressed in the text can be communicable to others. Unlike traditional L2 traditional pedagogy (e.g., the Grammar-Translation Method), this form of literacy practice facilitates the development of L2 learners’ written communication skills, which is a major goal of English Language Teaching in EFL contexts (Iida, 2010). Thus overall, haiku writing can enable EFL writers to enhance the ability to express and communicate their emotional insights in a succinct manner.

6. Conclusions

The aim of this article was to explore voice and identity in L2 poetry writing by investigating the way in which an EFL student understood and expressed his study abroad experience. The current study illustrated the ability of a Myanmar student to express and communicate personally significant life stories in L2 haiku writing. It also revealed that the collection of poems written by the student documented his different identities in relation to his study abroad experience. As with Hanauer’s (2010) description of poetic identity, a personal identity in L2 haiku which could be recreated by the reader referred to “the experience of the writer’s subject position expressed through the actual poetic description” (p. 60).

The current study was conducted in the very limited classroom context by focusing on one particular EFL student. In addition, there is only limited data that describes poetic identity. Yet even when considering these limitations, this study evidences the effectiveness of poetry writing as a form of *meaningful literacy* (Hanauer, 2012) in the EFL classroom and the usability of haiku as a research method in L2 writing research. Teaching poetry writing will provide EFL students with opportunities to see L2 learning differently and enable them to use the target language more practically in order to express themselves.

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Notes

- ¹ A seasonal reference is not always shown in English haiku.
- ² A cutting word which can be seen either an actual word or an exclamation mark including a colon or semi-colon has a specific rhetorical function: it is to divide one haiku into two parts; this creates an imaginative distance, although both sections remain, to some degree, independent of each other (Iida, 2010).

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The effects of accessing L1 versus L2 definitional glosses on L2 learners' reading comprehension and vocabulary learning

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Abstract

This study was conducted to investigate the effects of different types of glosses and no-gloss condition on second language vocabulary learning. There were totally 81 high school students involved in the study, and they were randomly divided into three groups: L1-gloss group, L2-gloss group, and No-gloss group. These three groups were subjected to three main tests: reading comprehension test, immediate vocabulary test, and delayed vocabulary test. They were also asked to complete a student opinion questionnaire to examine their opinions about the use of the glosses and the types of glosses. In order to find out the differences in these test scores for three different groups, a one-way between-groups ANOVA with planned comparisons and a mixed between-within ANOVA were conducted. Secondly, word retention was tested by looking at the difference in the number of words gained between immediate vocabulary test and delayed vocabulary test again through the same mixed between-within ANOVA. Results indicated that there was a significant difference between glossed and no gloss groups on each test. For each condition, L1 gloss group had the highest mean score followed by L2 gloss group. It was also found that there was a significant decrease in the scores for each gloss condition after a two-week time interval. The results of the student opinion questionnaire revealed that students prefer glosses in reading texts by mostly favouring L1 glosses over L2 glosses.

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Keywords: Glossing; vocabulary learning; gloss types

1. Introduction

Vocabulary learning is one of the most important elements in second language acquisition. There are different techniques to promote vocabulary learning, and glossing is one of them. Glossing is a technique used to enhance comprehension in reading and acquire new vocabulary items by providing L2 explanation or L1 translation (Bowles, 2004; Nation, 2001; Pak, 1986). If the words are presented in important parts of the text, they are likely to be noticed. Teachers can increase the chance of a word being noticed by “pre-teaching, highlighting the word in the text such as using underlining, italics or bold letters, and glossing the word” (Nation, 2001). The major effect of glossing thereby is consciousness raising which will make

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the word more salient the next time it is met (Gass, 1988). In this way, drawing attention to new words can increase the chances of them being learned (Nation, 2001).

Glossing is one type of input modification. Input modification is a pedagogical intervention in which a teacher manipulates a target form to help learners acquire the form. By providing additional information such as definitions or synonyms, glossing helps students cope with insufficient contextual cues in learning new words while reading. (Ko, 2012, p. 57).

According to Holley and King (1971) and Watanabe (1997), glossing is helpful in reading comprehension and vocabulary acquisition because students complete certain phases when provided with glosses in a reading activity: first input, second input, and third input phases.

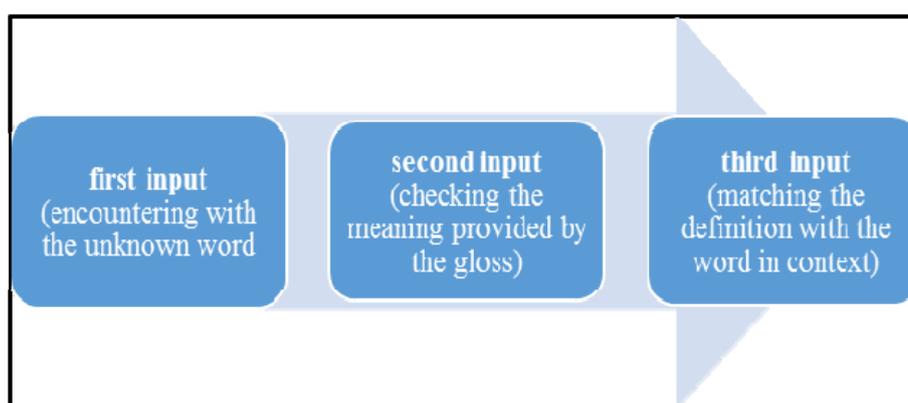


Figure 1. Phase of practice when using glosses (based on the original source by Watanabe, 1997)

In the first input phase, students encounter with the unknown word, they check the meaning provided by the gloss in the second input phase, and lastly in the third input phase, they match the definition with the word in context. By following these phases, vocabulary items in the glossary get “repeated attention” (Watanabe, 1997). During these three phases, the word is kept in short term memory. “Glossing could thus be a useful way of bringing words to learners’ attention. Glossing helps learning” (Watanabe, 1997, p. 287).

There are four main types of glosses in terms of the way they are presented: marginal, at-the-bottom-of-the-page, in-text, and pop-up glosses. Marginal glosses appear in the margin on the same line with the glossed words. Some glosses are in the format of a list including definitions or synonyms for each vocabulary item at the bottom of the page. They can be presented in the order of appearance in the text or alphabetically. In-text glosses are the ones appearing next to the target vocabulary item and presented in the text. Alternatively, pop-up glosses are used in computer-based environment as attached to the target word, and they can be seen when clicked on. There are a good number of studies investigating effectiveness of gloss places. For example, Holley and King (1971) found no difference between glosses in the margin, at the foot of the page, and at the end of the text while Jacobs, Dufoni, and Hong

(1994) found that learners expressed a clear preference for marginal glosses. An equally significant aspect of glossing was studied by AbuSeileek (2008) who investigated four types of locations in paper-based and computer-based glosses: at the end of the text, in the margin, at the bottom of the screen, and in a pop-up window. It was found that learners' preferences are marginal glosses, and they performed better in reading comprehension when provided with marginal glosses.

Glossing has been studied in various contexts like how glosses are presented (AbuSeileek, 2008; Cheng & Good, 2009; Morrison, 2004; Yao, 2006; Yeung, 1999), how the information is presented in glosses –definitional or grammatical- (Erçetin, 2003; Sakar & Erçetin, 2005), types of glosses (Gettys, Imhof, & Kautz, 2001; Grace, 1998; Nagata, 1999; Watanabe, 1997; Yeung, 1999), the effect of L1 and L2 glosses (Jacobs et al., 1994; Laufer & Hill, 2000; Ko, 2012; Yoshii, 2006), and students' attitudes towards glosses (Ko, 2012).

Many studies have attempted to investigate gloss use and gloss types, but there are still controversial ideas about the effectiveness of glosses or which type of gloss to use. Furthermore, although there are a good number of studies in various L2 contexts, it was observed that there is a need for an investigation on glosses within the context of Turkish L2 learners of English. With these concerns, the present study aims to contribute to the existing literature by investigating on the contexts of gloss types, the effect of L1 and L2 glosses, and students' attitudes towards glosses.

2. Review of Literature

Teachers should carefully think about two major situations before teaching the unknown word: (1) *Should time be spent on it?* and (2) *How should the word be dealt with?* If the aim of the lesson is vocabulary learning, and if the word is a high frequency word, it may be necessary to spend time on teaching it. However, if the conditions are different, teachers can benefit from other strategies like glossing. When students encounter with low frequency words in a reading passage, it may be difficult for them to guess the meaning of the word if they do not use it in everyday life. Reading process is interrupted when students look up the words or ask teacher/peer for the meaning. Moreover, it can be burdensome for teachers to spend time on teaching these vocabulary items. At this point, Nation (1990) suggests using glosses on the grounds that that they help learners by assisting comprehension, they prevent distraction, and they are practical in terms of increasing the quality and quantity of teaching and learning. Besides, glosses create a chance to use unsimplified and unadapted texts by providing accurate meanings for words that may not be guessed correctly (Nation, 2001). In their study, Erçetin (2003) and Sakar and Erçetin (2005) note that learners find glosses motivational and helpful because reading activities are more manageable thanks to practicality of the glosses. So that L2 learners could have a higher quality and quantity of L2 production, vocabulary learning and reading

comprehension can be enhanced by using glosses as a way of ‘easification’ (Bhatia, 1983).

On the other hand, some studies claim that glosses may have a negative effect on text comprehension by interrupting the reading flow (Johnson, 1982), and use of glosses may prevent students from inferring the meaning by decreasing their interaction with learning process (Mondria, 2003). Notwithstanding these limitations, most of the studies report on the benefits of glosses (Hulstijn, Hollander, & Greidanus, 1996; Jacobs et al., 1994; Myong, 1995; Watanabe, 1997). For example, reading texts elaborated with glosses are recalled more in comparison with texts without glosses (Davis, 1989; Jacobs, 1994), and incidental vocabulary learning is more effective with glossed texts (Hulstijn et al., 1996; Watanabe, 1997). By the same token, Vela (2015) summarizes the justifications for using glosses by stating that reading process can continue without distraction thanks to glosses, they prevent wrong guessing by providing definitions, and both teachers and learners can benefit from the classroom time in a fruitful way because glosses are practical and time-saving. However, for texts without glosses, the possibility of misunderstanding may be a problem if students cannot infer the correct meaning. Hulstijn (1992) calls this wrong inference situation as ‘unlearning’ and suggests fixing it by using glosses to aid students to understand the text properly by avoiding random guesses.

For Lyman-Hager and Davis (1996), various results on the effectiveness of glossing may be due to authenticity of the reading material. They claim that glossing may be more helpful for authentic texts while modified texts do not need it. Bland, Noblitt, Armington, and Gay (1990) argue for a developmental relationship between proficiency level and the effects of glossing. They found that learners with high L2 proficiency preferred L2 glosses instead of L1 glosses. Likewise, Ko (2005) reported that L2 glossing was significantly more effective only when students were at a high L2 proficiency level. Furthermore, Yeung (1999) observed that low proficiency learners benefited more from in-text glosses, while marginal glosses were more effective for high proficiency learners.

There is also, however, a further point to be considered. The studies on the effectiveness of L1 and L2 glosses either indicated no difference (Cheng & Good, 2009; Jacobs et al., 1994) or had better results with one gloss type over another (Jacobs, 1991; Luo, 1993). For example, Jacobs et al. (1994) compared the immediate and delayed effects of L1-gloss (English), L2-gloss (Spanish), and no-gloss on vocabulary learning. They observed a significant immediate effect of glosses with no difference between L1 and L2 gloss conditions. However, the advantage of glossing was not significant over time. In another study, Laufer and Hill (2000) compared the effects of L1 translation, L2 explanation, and L1 translation + L2 explanation on word retention with 72 university students from Israel and Hong Kong. The study demonstrated that while there was no significant difference between glossing types for Israeli students, word retention was higher with L2 explanation for students from Hong Kong. Similarly, Yoshii (2006), in a study conducted with 195 Japanese

university students, did not observe significant differences between L1 gloss and L2 gloss conditions in terms of their immediate and delayed effects on vocabulary learning. On the other hand, Myong (1995) found that L1 glosses resulted in better vocabulary learning but did not differ from L2 glosses in their effect on comprehension. In a similar study, Laufer and Shmueli (1997) found that L1 glosses are superior to L2 glosses in both short-term and long-term (5 weeks) retention and irrespective of whether the words are learned in lists, sentences, or texts. In order to clarify the issue about the effects of different glossing types, Nation (2001) states: “It seems that the first requirement of a gloss is that it should be understood. The choice between L1 and L2 does not seem to be critical as long as the glosses are clear”.

Each of these studies makes an important contribution to our understanding of the effects of glossing. However, further investigation comparing gloss types must be conducted since studies up to now have not been able to build consensus on the effects of glossing, and the number of such kind of studies is quite limited. By taking these into account, an experimental study was designed to investigate the effects of different types of glosses and no-gloss condition on second language vocabulary learning and reading comprehension by also examining learners’ opinions about the use of the glosses and the types of glosses. With these aims, the current study tries to find answers to the following questions:

1. Does access to glosses facilitate reading comprehension? If yes, is there a difference between L1 and L2 glosses in terms of their effects on reading comprehension?
2. What are the immediate and delayed effects of exposure to L1 and L2 glosses compared to no gloss condition on vocabulary learning?
3. What are participants’ opinions about the use of glosses and different types of glosses?

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

The study was carried out at a state Anatolian high school in Ankara with 10th year students. Participants were homogeneous in terms of their proficiency, grade level, and age. All of them had received 6 years of English language education with limited hours of instruction at primary and secondary schools. At the time of data collection, their exposure to English was 4 hours a week with no exposure outside school. Their level of English proficiency was A2 (as reported by the school administration based on Common European Framework), and materials were prepared in parallel with this proficiency level and pilot study. A total of 86 students participated in the study. Five students participated in the pilot study, and the other 81 students were randomly assigned to three groups: L1-gloss group ($N = 28$), L2-gloss group ($N = 28$), and No-gloss group ($N = 25$).

3.2. Materials

The first step of material preparation was to choose a reading text with the help of the course instructor. By taking participants' proficiency level (A2) into consideration, a text called "Fox-Hunting" from *Solutions, A2, Students' Book* (Falla & Davies, 2012) was chosen with some additions according to the students' level of proficiency. It was thought that choosing an unfamiliar topic for the reading text would decrease the possibility of guessing the meanings with background knowledge. The text included 285 words with 67.8 reading ease and 7.2 readability level measured by Flesch-Kincaid readability scale indicating that the text is appropriate for the proficiency level of the participants.

With a pilot study, five participants were asked to read the text and underline the unknown words, and they were interviewed about the readability and comprehensibility of the text. A total of 16 words were chosen based on the underlined words in the pilot study, and necessary changes were done. Next, the reading text was adapted into three forms: a text with L1 gloss, a text with L2 gloss, and a text with no gloss. Target words were bold-faced, and they were listed in the order of appearance in the text at the bottom of the page with meanings in L1 or L2 in glossed texts.

A reading comprehension test was prepared in multiple choice form. It included ten questions, each with three distractors and one right answer. Before implementing it, the reading comprehension test was controlled by an expert in the field of assessment and evaluation, and some distractors were changed. The students were told that they were supposed to read the passage and answer the questions on the reading comprehension test.

A vocabulary test was prepared to be administered immediately and 15 days after the treatment. The test included 16 multiple choice questions with three distractors and one right answer assessing the meaning of each vocabulary item. The same test was used for the delayed post-test by changing the places of questions and multiple choice options. With the expert opinion from the field of assessment and evaluation, some questions were revised and refined. The students were not informed about the immediate and delayed vocabulary tests beforehand in order to prevent the attempts of memorizing the meanings.

A student opinion questionnaire was designed to investigate learners' opinions about the use of the glosses and the types of glosses. They were asked whether they would prefer gloss or no-gloss conditions in reading texts, and its reason. With a second question, they were asked which language they would prefer for gloss: Turkish or English. For L1 and L2 gloss conditions, two questions about how they read the text and how frequent they checked the gloss were added to student opinion questionnaire.

3.3. Procedures for data collection

Each gloss group had a different layout for the reading passage. For example, L1-gloss group was provided with a list of the bold-faced vocabulary items with Turkish meanings. The time allocated for this phase was 25 mins, and students were not allowed to use dictionary. The purpose of giving these two activities together was to provide an aim for the activity and to make students focus on the reading passage while answering the reading comprehension questions.

After participants finished the reading activity, an unannounced vocabulary test (immediate vocabulary post-test) was administered. The time allocated for this activity was 12 mins. The aim of this phase was to test participants' vocabulary learning based on word meaning. They were supposed to choose the right word to fill in the blanks in a context designed in multiple choice form. Following the immediate post-test, a student opinion questionnaire was given to find out participants' preferences for glossing and gloss types. As the last phase of the study, a delayed vocabulary post-test was implemented 15 days later without announcing students about it. It was the redesigned form of the immediate vocabulary test, and it was made sure that participants were not exposed to those vocabulary items during this period. The purpose of the delayed post-test was to test word retention by exploring how many vocabulary items participants remember after two-week period of time. The procedures followed for this experimental study are demonstrated in Figure 2:

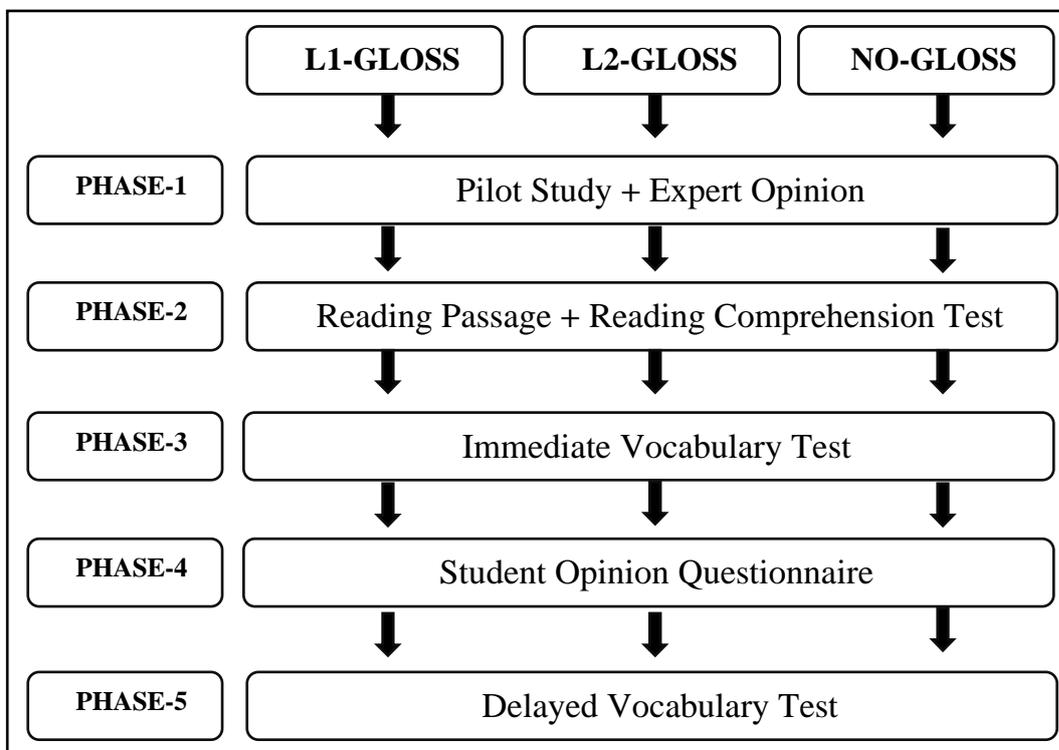


Figure 2. Procedures followed for the present experimental study

3.4. Procedures for data analysis

Reading Comprehension Test, Immediate Vocabulary Test, and Delayed Vocabulary Test were scored as 1 point for each correct answer. A one-way between-groups ANOVA with planned comparisons was conducted to investigate group differences for reading comprehension test. Then, a mixed between-within ANOVA was performed in order to find out the differences in immediate and delayed test scores for three different groups, and also word retention was tested through the same analysis by looking at the difference in the number of words gained between immediate vocabulary test and delayed vocabulary test. Lastly, participants' opinions about glossing and gloss types were analysed based on the student opinion questionnaire.

4. Results

Before carrying out the analyses, normality and group tendency tests were controlled to decide whether to use parametric or nonparametric tests. This step was carried out by examining skewness, kurtosis, mean, trimmed mean, Kolmogorov-Smirnov, Shapiro-Wilk, Histogram, Normal Q-Q plot, Detrended Normal Q-Q plot, and Boxplot. It was concluded that distribution is normal, so it was decided to continue analyses with parametric tests. Apart from these, for one-way between-groups ANOVA with planned comparisons and mixed between-within subjects analysis of variance, homogeneity of variance and homogeneity of inter-correlations were controlled.

Table 1 demonstrates the descriptive statistics for the reading comprehension test, immediate vocabulary test, and delayed vocabulary test under three different gloss conditions. The maximum possible score for reading comprehension test is 10, and it is 16 for vocabulary tests.

Table 1. Gloss conditions and descriptive statistics for tests

	Group	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Min.</i>	<i>Max.</i>
Reading Comprehension Test	L1-gloss	28	7.36	1.367	4	9
	L2-gloss	28	7.00	1.217	4	9
	No-gloss	25	6.16	1.795	2	9
Immediate Vocabulary Test	L1-gloss	28	12.79	1.663	6	16
	L2-gloss	28	10.07	3.420	2	15
	No-gloss	25	7.36	2.039	3	11
Delayed Vocabulary Test	L1-gloss	27	6.63	2.256	3	11
	L2-gloss	26	6.31	2.895	1	11
	No-gloss	25	4.60	2.273	1	9

In order to explore whether glosses facilitate reading comprehension, a one-way between-groups ANOVA with planned comparisons was conducted. Two contrasts were determined for this analysis. Contrast 1 represents the comparisons between glossed conditions and no gloss condition, and contrast 2 was conducted to compare L1 gloss and L2 gloss conditions. Planned contrasts revealed that access to glosses significantly increased reading comprehension scores compared to no-gloss condition, $t(78) = 2.88$, $p = .005$, but access to L1 gloss did not significantly increase reading test scores compared to access to L2 gloss, $t(78) = .91$, $p = .365$.

Table 2. Planned contrasts for reading comprehension test

		Sum Of Squares	df	Mean Square	t	Sig.
Reading Comp. Test	Contrast 1	19.71	78	9.85	2.88	.005
	Contrast 2	167.78		2.15	.91	.365

Next, a mixed between-within subjects analysis of variance was conducted to assess the impact of different gloss types (L1 gloss, L2 gloss, No gloss) on participants' scores on the vocabulary test across two time periods (immediate vocabulary test and delayed vocabulary test). There was a significant interaction between gloss type and time, Wilks Lambda = .74, $F(2, 75) = 13.09$, $p < .0005$, partial eta squared = .25. Moreover, there was a substantial main effect for time, Wilks Lambda = .24, $F(1, 75) = 229.57$, $p < .0005$, partial eta squared = .75, with three groups showing a reduction in vocabulary test scores across the two time periods (see Table 4.1). The main effect comparing the gloss groups was also significant, $F(2, 75) = 18.86$, $p < .0005$, partial eta squared = .33, suggesting a difference in the effectiveness of the three glossing groups. Post-hoc comparisons using Bonferroni test demonstrated that the mean scores of each group were significantly different from each other (L1 gloss>L2 gloss, $p = .043$; L1 gloss>No gloss, $p = .000$; L2 gloss>No gloss, $p = .002$).

As the last part of the current study, participants' opinions about glossing and gloss types were analysed based on the student opinion questionnaire. The first part of the questionnaire was about their preferences for glossing and the reasons. Majority of the students (84%) preferred glosses by mostly stating three main reasons: (1) glosses are time saving; (2) glosses help them understand the passage better; and (3) they can learn new words thanks to glosses. The other issue in student opinion questionnaire was about the use of L1 or L2 glosses, and most of the participants (71.6%) opted for L1 glosses while 28.4 % preferred L2 glosses. Majority of the participants preferring L1 glosses stated mainly two reasons: (1) it is difficult for them to understand the L2 definitions; and (2) they can understand the content of the passage better thanks to L1 definitions.

5. Discussion

With regard to the first two research questions, it is clear that there is a difference in test scores (Reading Comprehension, Immediate Vocabulary, and Delayed Vocabulary) of participants for three gloss conditions (L1 gloss, L2 gloss, and No gloss). Firstly, there was no difference between L1 and L2 gloss conditions while there was a significant difference between both gloss conditions and no-gloss condition in the reading comprehension test scores. Secondly, for both vocabulary test scores, the main effect comparing the gloss groups was significant. However, while the significance value was substantial for the differences between glossed and no gloss conditions, it was almost not significant for L1 and L2 gloss groups ($p = .043$). The reasons for these differences could be that glosses provide L1 translation or L2 description, so they are more practical than dictionaries in terms of accessibility (Hulstijn et al., 1996). Since students can easily match the meanings with the words in context, reading process is not interrupted thanks to glosses (Rott & William, 2003). By looking at the scopes of the studies in literature, Schmitt (2008) recommends using L1 glosses for low proficiency level learners by also adding that it does not matter using L1 or L2 glossing as long as the learners can understand the L2 description or L1 translation.

An alternative explanation for higher scores in L1 and L2 gloss conditions can be ‘unlearning’ (Hulstijn, 1992) caused by random guessing in no gloss situations. According to Haynes (1993), glossing has an important role in preventing wrong guesses. Otherwise, this unlearning situation may be fossilized. At this point, inferring the meaning of the word can be problematic and misleading for less proficient learners especially when they do not possess the knowledge of a certain amount of words around the target word in the context. The issues of noticing and salience can be other probable reasons of the effectiveness of L1 and L2 glossed texts (Ko, 2012). With conscious attention for bold-faced words and listed words at the bottom of the page, learners may turn these inputs into intakes by matching them with the context of the reading passage.

Despite no significance between L1 and L2 glosses in reading test scores and slight significance in vocabulary test scores, the means of L1 gloss conditions are higher than the other conditions. Swan (1997) states that learners can benefit more from their L1 to learn L2 vocabulary. Schmitt (2010) comments on this issue by giving the example of L1↔L2 dictionaries which are frequently preferred by L2 learners. This preference can be supported with the proven active L1 interference in L2 vocabulary learning for both low L2 proficiency and high proficiency levels (Schmitt, 2008). The positive effects of using L1 in vocabulary teaching at the first stages of foreign language learning was also demonstrated in some other studies (Laufer & Shmueli, 1997; Lotto & de Groot, 1998; Prince, 1996; Ramachandran & Rahim, 2004). Schmitt (2008) makes a point of the role of L1 in L2 vocabulary teaching and learning by stating: “Although it is unfashionable in many quarters to use the L1 in second

language learning, given the ubiquitous nature of L1 influence, it seems perfectly sensible to exploit it when it is to our advantage” (p. 337).

Another important aim of the study was to test word retention by looking at the change in vocabulary test scores after a two-week time interval. As it was clearly seen in the analyses, there was a significant decrease in the scores for each gloss condition. Despite decreases in each gloss condition, L1-gloss group still had the highest mean score followed by the L2-gloss group in delayed vocabulary test. It can also be deduced that both gloss types were effective for word retention in this particular study. In accordance with the results of current study, Jacobs and his colleagues (1994) noted that glosses provide more lexical processing for learners, so word retention is higher with glossed conditions. On the other hand, there was a remarkable decrease in the mean scores after two weeks in our study. This can be an indication of the necessity for repetition and exposure to the input because participants did not have any chance to revise the target vocabulary items during these two weeks. As a result, their mean scores were naturally doomed to decrease. Schmitt (2008) emphasizes on the need for “engagement with vocabulary” for word retention by stating that “virtually anything that leads to more exposure, attention, manipulation, or time spent on lexical items adds to vocabulary learning” (p. 339).

In accordance with the results of the present study, many studies also reported that L2 learners think that glosses are helpful and assist their comprehension (Jacobs et al., 1994; Ko, 2005; Ko, 2012; Luo, 1993). Moreover, contrary to the participants’ preferences for L2 glosses in Ko’s (2012) study, most of the participants in the present study opted for L1 glosses by stating two main reasons: (1) it is difficult for them to understand the L2 definitions; and (2) they can understand the content of the passage better thanks to L1 definitions. Similarly, Laufer and Hill (2000) noted that most of the Israeli participants (72%) preferred L1 translation over L2 explanation in glosses.

6. Conclusion and implications

The present study was conducted to investigate the effects of different types of glosses and no-gloss condition on L2 vocabulary learning and to examine learners’ opinions about the use of the glosses. Since up to date studies on glossing yield various results about the effects of different gloss types, it was thought that new insights can be brought in to the present knowledge of literature within a different context in our study. The current study revealed some common results like the significant difference between glossed conditions and no gloss conditions, and learners’ preference for having glosses in their reading materials. With other distinctive findings, the present study yielded important results in terms of the effects of different gloss types.

Firstly, by looking at the significant difference between gloss groups and no gloss group in reading test and vocabulary tests in the current study, it can be concluded that glossed reading may be more effective for less-proficient learners. “Glossing enhances the likelihood of acquiring words incidentally as a by-product of reading”

(Ko, 2012, p. 75). Along with the need for further investigation on the effects of glosses for different levels of proficiency, it is accepted that reading comprehension, vocabulary learning, and individual learning can be improved by using glosses (Nation, 1990; Watanabe, 1997). As Lenders (2008) asserts, using glosses may increase “the autonomous, active processing of L2 input”. Secondly, student opinion questionnaires revealed that participants of the present study prefer L1 glosses over L2 glosses, which again can be a result of their proficiency level of elementary. Thanks to glosses, reading in L2 can be more manageable and enjoyable for students at less proficient levels.

Above all, there were significant time effects on each gloss condition over time. This situation underlines the importance of engagement with the vocabulary to retain the acquired vocabulary items (Schmitt, 2008). Although techniques like glossing may be effective in incidental vocabulary learning, there is a need for a longitudinal effect for a broader vocabulary size. Therefore, glossing must be supported by further engagement and activities so that vocabulary learning can be actualized pre-eminently. Schmitt (2008) suggests some factors facilitating vocabulary learning: “increased frequency of exposure; increased manipulation of the lexical item and its properties; increased amount of time spent engaging with the lexical item; increased amount of interaction spent on the lexical item” (p. 339). These factors can be additionally used to increase the effectiveness of glossing.

In conclusion, investigating the effects of three different gloss types (L1 gloss, L2 gloss, and No gloss) may contribute to the perspective on vocabulary teaching and learning in literature. However, it is necessary to conduct related studies in different contexts to determine the place of glossing in vocabulary learning. For example, the effects of gloss types on different proficiency levels must be investigated with different and larger groups of students. Such a study would certainly guide teachers in material preparation in terms of choosing the right glossing type for the right proficiency level. Furthermore, studies made so far have not used a common criterion for the selection and number of the vocabulary items for glossing or the assessment tools to test vocabulary learning after glossing. Therefore, research on how to choose vocabulary items for glossing list and the amount of vocabulary items to gloss can be conducted. With regard to these suggestions and implications, it can be lastly noted that glossing may be an effective and practical technique aiding reading comprehension and vocabulary learning. All in all, the things to be considered are how, when, where, and for whom to use glosses.

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Research and reflective practice in the EFL classroom: Voices from Armenia

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Abstract

A sociocultural perspective of teacher development honours the rich knowledge base that teachers work from as they strive to connect theory (“expert” knowledge) to practice (“experiential” knowledge). The present paper explores classroom research and reflective practice as forms of teacher-led inquiry for the EFL context. In particular, this study explores the extent to which Armenian EFL teachers engage in classroom research, the challenges they face therein, and whether or not they consider themselves to be reflective practitioners. The findings are presented against the backdrop of the Armenian context with recommendations for cultivating teacher-led inquiry to promote teacher development in a range of EFL settings.

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Keywords: Classroom research; professional development; reflection; reflective practice; teacher-researcher

1. Introduction

It is the information age and it is vital that education keeps pace with the rapid changes taking place in the global economy. Simultaneously, the roles of teachers and teaching strategies are constantly being modified to deal with the increasingly complex conditions of classrooms and the specific needs of learners. Most recently, the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach in its various iterations has spread across the globe and become heralded as an effective model for teaching languages (Richards & Rodgers, 2001; Spada, 2007). Complimentary approaches, such as Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) and Task Based Teaching (TBT), have also gained wider renown globally (Coyle, Hood, & Marsh, 2010; Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004). Adopting these approaches requires a shift in teaching practices, which may result in tensions and contradictions within the activity of teaching for practitioners in some parts of the world.

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From a sociocultural perspective, all human activity is situated within and mediated by context, culture, language and social interactions (Johnson, 2009). The implementation of current approaches for English language teaching in parts of the world where traditional approaches (e.g., Grammar Translation, Audiolingual Method) have prevailed demands that teachers are supported with opportunities to grapple with the changing expectations placed upon them. Teacher learning in this case, as Johnson points out, requires a reconstruction of existing knowledge, skills and attitudes about teaching and learning, such that teachers can respond to the local needs and expectations of students, administrators and parents while integrating global approaches.

The history of the education system in Armenia is complex for various historical, cultural and political reasons. The whole picture cannot be painted within the scope of this article, but two important factors must be highlighted: (1) Armenia is a former member of the Soviet Union and (2) Armenia became an independent nation in 1991. While under the Soviet Union, classes were teacher-centred and the teacher was an all-knowing figure in the classroom. It was generally unacceptable to question the teacher or the textbook. There was heavy emphasis on reproduction – memorising and reciting facts from the texts and teachers. As a country with newfound national autonomy, post-Soviet Armenia underwent an overhaul of the education system, which resulted in a brief vacuum in education (Terzian, 2010). In the push to fill the vacuum, Armenia turned to other countries for solutions. The resulting national curriculum incorporated new approaches and methods that most teachers were not trained to implement. To this day, many teachers continue in the tradition of their Soviet schooling days, despite insistence to innovate and implement new classroom practices.

Factors that impact the capacity for Armenian teachers to implement newer methods in the class include inadequate teacher training, lack of support for novice teachers, conditions at schools (e.g., class size, lack of materials) and low motivation (Khachatryan, Petrosyan, & Terzyan, 2013). The quality of teaching suffered in post-Soviet, earthquake devastated Armenia as the numbers of students decreased, and therein did the funding, thus reducing teacher salaries as well as funds allocated to teacher training and materials (Tadevosyan, 2008). During the reform of the education system, as Khachatryan et al. assert, most decisions were top-down, proving to be ineffective as they failed to incorporate the experiential knowledge and needs of the teachers. Training sessions that were provided were mandatory, but did not consider the teachers' context, causing discontent with new teaching methods. Teachers in more remote regions viewed the new methods to be difficult to implement given limited local resources ("Turpanjian Center for Policy Analysis", 2012).

Top-down decision making within educational systems is not unique to Armenia. Teachers across disciplines worldwide are often challenged to find ways to make the demands of the curriculum, the administration and the Ministry of Education fit their teaching reality (e.g., Kim, 2011). The importance of teachers having a voice was recently given more attention and was thoroughly discussed by educational

researchers (Hopkins, 2008; Kincheloe, 2003; Pappas & Raymond, 2011). As a result, the liberating concepts of “teacher-researcher” and “reflective practitioner” came into existence. Teachers are now considered to be active agents that contribute immensely to the development of school curricula, course and materials design as well as classroom-based research (Fichtman Dana & Yendol-Hoppey, 2009).

Johnson (2009) acknowledges that teachers need tools for analysing their practice against the relevant historical, cultural, political and social backdrops of their context. Embracing the roles of “reflective practitioner” and “teacher-researcher” offers ways for teachers to systematically gather data from the immediate context and theorise practice – continually connecting theory to experience and experience to theory. Reflective tools empower teachers to make sense of their practice and better understand themselves, their students and their respective roles and responsibilities in the classroom in light of policies, curriculum, materials, methods and peers.

While reflective teaching has been systematically promoted by teacher educators for some time now (e.g., Adey, Hewitt, Hewitt, & Landau, 2004; Cirocki, Tennekoon, & Peña Calvo, 2014; Farrell, 2007, 2015), traditional, top-down models of professional development still exist in many teaching contexts, including Armenia. With this in mind, the present study aims to:

1. investigate whether Armenian EFL teachers conduct research in their classrooms and consider themselves reflective practitioners;
2. find out whether conducting classroom research is a difficult task for Armenian EFL teachers, and if so, what causes this difficulty;
3. identify various reasons why Armenian EFL teachers do or do not conduct research in their classrooms and how they utilise the data they gather from their research.

2. Language teachers as reflective inquirers

The idea of teachers as researchers is not a new concept, with theoretical arguments dating back to the 1970s. Stenhouse (1975) states, “a research tradition which is accessible to teachers and which feeds teaching must be created if education is to be significantly improved” (p. 165). At the start of the new millennium, practitioner research began to flourish, resulting in some valuable outputs in the literature. Classroom-based research, “systematic, rigorous enquiry (...) which is made public” (Borg 2009, p. 377), became a facet of teacher professionalism. The modern model of teacher professionalism is grounded in critical self-reflection, professional autonomy and recognition for the role. For this reason, language teachers are expected to engage in reflective practice, promote innovation and participate in classroom-based research.

Anderson (1990) defines classroom-based research as “a disciplined attempt to address questions or solve problems through the collection and analysis of primary data for the purpose of description, explanation, generalization and prediction” (p. 4). Hopkins (2008) later clarifies that classroom-based research is shaped by a teacher’s

ability to systematically reflect on practice and attach meaning to classroom experience. Hopkins highlights that classroom-based research is a well-planned inquiry process involving developing contextualised research questions, devising approaches and tools for gathering data, and ultimately producing new insights about practice and theory related to the teaching and learning processes. Classroom research engages teachers in an on-going process of self-examination and continuing professional development.

Action research is an approach to classroom-based research that connects classroom research and action towards change. Its importance in the domain of teacher-led inquiry is highlighted by its prominence in the literature (e.g., Burns, 2009; Mertler, 2012). According to Kemmis and McTaggart (1988), action research consists of four overarching stages: *Planning*, *Action*, *Observation* and *Reflection*. In the Planning stage, teachers explore their teaching context with the aim of identifying a problem to resolve and devising a plan of action to find a suitable resolution. The Action phase introduces interventions into the teaching-learning process, which often include new ways of doing things in the classroom that can be adopted if successful. During the observation stage, teachers systematically collect data about the efficacy of the intervention. Finally, the Reflection stage involves thinking about, analysing and discussing the outcomes of the action taken. To further improve a particular classroom area, this stage could be the beginning of a new cycle.

The notions of reflection and reflective practice are critical to classroom-based research and a teacher's professional development. Reflection is defined in various ways. According to educational psychologists (e.g., O'Donnell, Reeve, & Smith, 2012), reflection is a complex phenomenon; experts in the field still have not come to an agreement as to whether reflection is an ability, activity or process. For example, Pisapia (2009, p. 67) defines reflection as an "ability to use perceptions, experience and information" to be able to form conclusions about what occurred in the past or is taking place now to assist in guiding future actions. According to Boud, Keogh and Walker (1985), reflection is a cognitive activity in which people have a chance to relive, analyse and evaluate their experiences. Kemmis (1985) perceives reflection as a socio-political process, in which humans recreate social life through communication, decision-making and social action.

Rather than come to consensus on a definition of reflection, it may be more useful to consider different types of reflection. Schön (1983) discusses *reflection-in-action* and *reflection-on-action*. The former is embedded in the action itself and captures the role of reflection in guiding a particular experience as it unfolds. Reflection-on-action, on the other hand, happens when a practitioner thinks through a particular event after it has taken place. Mezirow (1990), in turn, lists *content reflection* (*what*), *process reflection* (*how*) and *premise reflection* (*why*). Senge (1990) presents a typology for reflection at three levels: *technical reflection*, *practical reflection* and *critical reflection*. In education, technical reflection considers the effectiveness of teaching techniques, strategies and skills. Practical reflection aims to make deeper connections between an action and an outcome within the scope of professional practice. Critical reflection

builds on the first two levels of reflection as well as frames teaching through the lens of social, political, financial and ethical implications.

Killion and Todnem (1991) expand on Schön's (1983) model to include *reflection-for-action*, also referred to as anticipatory reflection. After engaging in reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action, a teacher reflects on the next steps – identifying expectations, setting goals, and deciding on useful guidelines for future successful classroom situations.

Reflective practice is a dynamic and spiralling process (Pollard, with Collins, Maddock, Simco, Swaffield, Warin, & Warwick, 2005). It comprises different activities, ranging from lesson planning through lesson and materials evaluation to pedagogical research. In the latter, teacher-researchers systematically collect data, critically analyse and discuss the data and, finally, share the research outcomes with other colleagues. When teachers share their findings, informed and evidence-based decisions related to language curriculum and pedagogy can be made.

While most teachers do regularly reflect on their lessons and consider what works best in their context, it must be emphasised that classroom-based inquiry requires intentional reflection. Cirocki, Tennekoon and Peña Calvo (2014) point out that intentional reflection “differs from daily reflection in that it is planned, active, persistent, and heightens a teacher’s focus on problem-posing in their classrooms” (p. 27). Bullough and Gitlin (2001) argue that issues explored by teacher-researchers are specific to their own classroom practice, and thus enable teacher-researchers to relate practice to theories of teaching and learning. In this way, teacher research can fill the gap between the theories developed by external researchers and the actual experiences that teachers encounter in their respective classrooms.

Through reflective inquiry teacher-researchers are given the opportunity to contribute to educational reform and grow professionally. Their contributions to the field through publications, presentations and professional development shape the teaching profession. Reflective inquiry provides teacher-researchers the opportunity to engage in reflection as a means of development and adaptation through careful study of their own professional practice. Through careful examination, teacher-researchers become more reflective, critical and analytical of their own teaching, encouraging them to embrace the life-long activity of a commitment to professional development (Çelik & Dikilitaş, 2015; Keyes, 2000; Rust, 2007; Zeichner, 2003).

3. Method

The empirical part of this article presents a small-scale research project - a replication of a study that had been conducted in Sri Lanka with ESL teacher participants. (For more details on the original study, see Cirocki, Tennekoon, & Peña Calvo, 2014). Findings from the study in Sri Lanka reflected the situation in Armenia; thus the impetus arose to conduct an investigation and explore the Armenian context in greater detail. The main aim of the study was to investigate to what extent

Armenian EFL teachers engage in classroom research, and thus reflect on their practice.

3.1. Participants

The research population consisted of eighty EFL Armenian teachers. There were six male and seventy four female participants. Ages ranged from twenty two to sixty, with the average age being 31. The participants represented different types of schools: public and private primary and secondary schools, as well as private language programmes for adults and children. The majority of the participants came from secondary schools. Participant qualifications were as follows: MA ($n = 56$), BA ($n = 13$) and teaching certificates and diplomas ($n = 11$). Simple random sampling was used to select the research population for the quantitative part and convenience sampling was used in the qualitative part. This means that in the former part all the participants were selected at random, with an equal chance of being chosen. In the latter part, the participants were chosen on the basis of availability (Weathington, Cunningham, & Pittenger, 2010). Pseudonyms have been used to ensure the anonymity of all participants.

3.2. Research tools and procedure

The present study followed a mixed-methods approach. It combined quantitative and qualitative methods to draw on the strengths of each (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011), validate the results (Klassen, Creswell, Plano Clark, Clegg Smith, & Meissner, 2012) and develop a more complete understanding of reflective practice in Armenia. Accordingly, two instruments were used to collect the data: a questionnaire (Appendix A) and a semi-structured interview (Appendix B). The questionnaire consisted of thirteen closed-ended questions with pre-defined options. The questionnaire was completed by eighty ($N = 80$) participants. Questionnaires were used because they are easy to analyse compared to other research techniques such as face-to-face interviews or telephone surveys. Additionally, most people are familiar with questionnaires (Berdie, Anderson, & Niebuhr, 1986).

Once all the questionnaires had been collected, they underwent statistical analysis. Descriptive statistics such as mean values, frequencies, percentages, standard deviations and medians were calculated. Finally, whenever appropriate, the results were presented on charts.

The semi-structured interview, on the other hand, was used with twenty participants. The interview was based on seven open-ended questions. Open-ended questions were deliberately used as they allowed participants to supply detailed answers to the presented questions, and participants could also clarify their responses (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Another reason for using open-ended questions was that they offered participants the possibility of giving unlimited answers, thereby providing additional information on the thinking processes, creativity and resourcefulness of the participants.

As soon as the interview stage came to an end, the textual data underwent qualitative analysis. Thematic coding was employed. The textual data were reviewed and label-based codes were developed. Finally, themes were identified, analysed and discussed.

3.3. Research limitations

Before analysing and discussing the outcomes of the present study, it is important to state the study's main shortcomings. The first limitation was that the research population was rather small; it consisted of eighty teachers. Quantitative measures require large populations to be regarded as representations of groups of subjects to whom research outcomes can be transferred (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The second limitation was that only two instruments were used. More specifically, the semi-structured interview could have been supported with other qualitative data collection methods such as focus groups, written self-reports or participant notes. Also, the self-reported data may have contained different sources of bias, which tend to result from participants' selective memory (Fayolle, 2010). Furthermore, the survey data sometimes reflected a different response profile than that reflected in the corresponding interview data. For example, survey data indicated that the majority of Armenian EFL teachers believe they are well prepared to conduct classroom research. However, this finding was in contradiction with the majority of the responses to the same item during interviews. It is unclear if participants were overestimating their research skills on the anonymous surveys, or if they were being modest during the personal interviews. To clarify this inconsistency, it would have been useful to interview some school principals or look more closely at the research methods of the teachers. Also, a thorough analysis of documents such as course descriptions and syllabi would have strengthened the discussion and given the researchers license to expect that Armenian teachers should be involved in classroom research. Additionally, the majority of the interview data are from teachers based in the capital city of Yerevan. Many of them had some training with research methods, which may not be the case for most teachers in other regions of Armenia. Finally, absence of a precise definition of *reflective practice* in the literature contributed to accepting participants' subjective perceptions of the concept under study.

4. Results and discussion

The purpose of this section is to analyse and discuss the gathered data. For the sake of clarity, the analysis and discussion are presented in three sections. These sections are related to the research questions listed above. The focus of these sections is as follows: (1) teacher engagement in classroom research, (2) complexity of classroom research and its causes and (3) reasons for conducting/not conducting classroom research.

4.1. Teacher engagement in classroom research

Two questions on the questionnaire were related to the participants' engagement in classroom research and their wish to be involved in this kind of professional activity. In the former question, three participants ($n = 3$, 3.75%) were always involved in classroom research, eighteen ($n = 18$, 22.5%) were very often involved in research and thirty three ($n = 33$, 41.25%) were sometimes involved. The other two options were: rarely ($n = 22$, 27.5%) and never ($n = 4$, 5%). According to the latter question, ten participants ($n = 10$, 12.5%) would like to always be involved in research projects, twenty four ($n = 24$, 30%) very often, twenty three ($n = 23$, 28.75%) sometimes, fourteen ($n = 14$, 17.5%) rarely and nine ($n = 9$, 11.25%) never.

There were seventy six participants ($n = 76$, 95%) who stated that they do research in the classroom at different levels of frequency. These participants said they took part in quantitative ($n = 29$, 38.15%), qualitative ($n = 12$, 15.78%) and mixed-methods ($n = 35$, 46.05%) projects. They also added that they used a number of instruments. In descending order, the instruments used were: questionnaires ($n = 45$, 59.21%), tests ($n = 42$, 55.26%), observation sheets ($n = 27$, 35.52%), interview guides/question lists ($n = 23$, 30.26%), checklists ($n = 14$, 18.42%), portfolios ($n = 9$, 11.84%) and diaries/journals ($n = 8$, 10.52%).

The questionnaire revealed that the majority of the participants believed that classroom research is important. The participants' opinions were as follows: very important ($n = 47$, 58.75%), important ($n = 25$, 31.25%), moderately important ($n = 7$, 8.75%) and of little importance ($n = 1$, 1.25%). The interview data also support that Armenian teachers do value classroom research. When asked whether they believed conducting classroom research is important, two participants stated:

Well of course it is important. Before MA TEFL I didn't think so, but after doing the research, especially the action research, ... I think it is really important; it changes lots of things. [...] For example, things that you don't see or you don't realise - you do it unconsciously, and then after doing the research you pay attention to things. So I think it is really important. (Tatev)

Well, I think research in the classroom is important because it enables you to understand what are the needs for your students and to what extent to enhance the activities to be given to them to develop their language skills later. (Tanya)

Likewise, the participants felt that EFL teachers should be required to do classroom research. In this question, however, the frequency distribution was reversed for the first two items: 47 and 25 vs. 10 and 51. The distribution of opinions in the second question was as follows: ten of the participants ($n = 10$, 12.5%) strongly agreed, fifty one ($n = 51$, 63.75%) agreed, thirteen ($n = 13$, 16.25%) were undecided and six ($n = 6$, 7.5%) strongly disagreed.

The participants were also asked whether or not they agreed that classroom research should be made compulsory for all EFL teachers. According to the gathered data, twenty three participants ($n = 23$, 28.75%) were undecided about this statement,

whereas thirteen participants ($n = 13$, 16.25%) disagreed that language teachers should be teacher-researchers.

The questionnaire subsequently showed that forty six participants ($n = 46$, 57.5%) had attended a Research Methods module/course while being trained to be a teacher. There were four participants ($n = 4$, 5%) that had had a chance to attend such a module but selected a different one. The rest of the population ($n = 30$, 37.5%) stated that such a module was not offered during their course of study or training. Regarding overall preparation to do classroom research, forty five participants ($n = 45$, 56.25%) agreed that they were well-prepared to conduct classroom research. In all the other cases, twenty four participants ($n = 24$, 30%) were undecided and eleven ($n = 11$, 13.75%) disagreed with this statement.

Additionally, participants discussed their experiences with courses or training seminars that had prepared them to do classroom research. Their comments reflect the variance in preparation among teachers in Armenia, from none at all to some:

Mostly we learnt the methods and ethics of research. This was the main source for me to understand the nature of research and to conduct it in frames of the classroom and outside of it. (Tanya)

To tell frankly, I didn't know anything about classroom research until you told us about it and I went to the Internet and tried to find some information about it. (Liliana)

Participants who reported taking a Research Methods module/course, remembered its content to varying degrees.

I don't quite remember the name of the course but it was ... "Research Methods", if I am not mistaken. It was basics of research, like how to develop a questionnaire, do an interview, a structured interview and semi-structured interview. We did small projects... I don't quite remember. Yeah, it was a small project based on each questionnaire, like to develop a small questionnaire, do an interview... and use a... this... the test... I don't quite remember. (Gayane)

Well, you can do research on different things. For example, we studied how to do article research. [...] But how important is classroom research and how we should do classroom research as ESL teachers - I don't remember such a thing. (Maral)

Some participants noted that while they may or may not have been professionally trained to do research; the act of doing research became reality during their teaching practice:

The work experience gave me this ability to do research in terms of the classroom. For example, as you said this pre-teaching experience was based on observations before teaching. I was asked to observe the classroom in order to get knowledge how to teach them, what methods to use, how to implement this teaching process correctly, to target their goals correctly... (Tanya)

I haven't actually attended a course which was aimed at how to conduct classroom research. [...] As far as the actual research is concerned, I came upon it during my teaching practice. I used to pass different papers in order to question my students and then analyse the results. It was an independent work and not a conducted plan. (Meline)

A final discussion point in the interviews probed teachers' thoughts about being reflective practitioners. The concept of a reflective practitioner turned out to be perceived in different ways. Some of the participants' comments were as follows:

It's very easy not to be reflective - just teaching automatically. But it's important to just stop yourself for some time and then think what you have achieved, what your targets are, where you are currently. (Alana)

I am doing all these things, but in my mind. I am thinking, really, during the class, or after the class or whenever I am discussing or sharing my opinions with my colleagues or peers. I do think and try to do something better, try to come up with better ideas, by sharing my experience with my colleagues, but I am not writing about this anywhere. (Maral)

Reflection I do, even during lessons. Sometimes I do something and that moment I understand it. It was right or it was wrong - especially if it is the first time I do it. And later, after the lesson or even at that moment, an idea comes to me. I can even change just at that moment. If I understand it doesn't go well, I do change it. If it is not possible at that moment, I will experiment the same thing in another class - but an improved version. (Sela)

As the present study showed, the significance of reflective inquiry is acknowledged in the Armenian context. The majority of the teachers involved in the current study stated that they are involved in classroom research. The teachers do quantitative, qualitative or mixed-methods studies, plus the teachers use a wide range of instruments. It should be borne in mind, however, that only 28 percent of these teachers ($n = 21$) admitted to being involved in classroom research on a regular basis.

In addition to questionnaires and interview question lists, Armenian teachers also employed portfolios. Portfolios may fulfil different functions in the classroom (Bernhardt, 2013; Calfee & Perfumo, 1996). For example, they can be useful research tools. As research instruments, portfolios provide teacher-researchers with relevant information about students' achievements and students' personal growth. Portfolios additionally offer qualitative data about the extent of student learning and progress. Portfolios document student behaviour and skills, plus reveal how students integrate in- and out-of-class experiences.

According to the present study, Armenian EFL teachers consider classroom research and reflective practice as important elements of a teacher's career. The teachers stressed that both components exert a substantial impact on teaching performance and professional development. Similar results have also been thoroughly discussed in the literature (e.g., Farrell, 2007, 2015; Shulman, 1988). Reflective

practice is believed to guide teachers towards improving their teaching experience and enhancing their students' learning experience. More specifically, reflective teaching moves teachers through a learning process by reviewing teaching practices, and the context in which they occur, to see whether the intended outcomes have been achieved. Additionally, reflective practice encourages teachers to evaluate their situation, become responsible for their future actions and provide explicit responses to such questions as: "How do I know what I know? [D]o I know the reasons for what I do? [and] Why do I ask my students to perform or think in particular ways?" (Shulman, 1988, p. 33).

As the outcomes of the current study further showed, the teachers generally agree that classroom research should be both the duty of language teachers and a compulsory ingredient of teaching. One participant said, "Sometimes teachers think that it is not for them to research. They think it is difficult. But I think that it is for teachers. They know their work better than the others, and they really should do research, even once or twice during the year." This mature attitude is in agreement with Lyons' (2010) perspective on reflective practice. According to Lyons, teachers must be regularly committed to reflection and reflective inquiry. Such a commitment seeks to contribute to both reforming and enhancing education.

It was good to see that over 50 percent of the research population ($n = 46$) attended a Research Methods module while being trained to be teachers. In this group, nearly 72 percent of the teachers ($n = 33$) felt well-prepared to conduct classroom research. Despite the fact that these two results are much better than those observed in a research project conducted among ESL teachers in Sri Lanka (see Cirocki, Tennekoon, & Peña Calvo, 2014), there is still considerable scope for improvement. Many Armenian teachers who were trained to be teacher-researchers had vague recollections of those Research Methods modules, which speaks to the need for ongoing professional development. In addition, many of them were not presently engaged in classroom research due to lack of time, support from the administration to experiment in their classrooms and both declarative and procedural knowledge with regard to classroom-based research, just like in the case of Sri Lankan teachers (Cirocki, Tennekoon, & Peña Calvo). It is vital to be competent in conducting classroom research. Teacher-researchers must be able to properly deal with confidentiality, anonymity, cultural sensitivity and the appropriate choice of research instruments (Cirocki, 2013a, 2013b; Gregory, 2003; Mackey & Gass, 2005). Otherwise, research results may be distorted, participants may be put at risk (e.g., a psychological trauma) and racial, cultural and gender issues may arise (Cirocki, 2013a).

The foregoing discussion indicates that the system of education in Armenia seems to suffer from various drawbacks. According to the gathered data, some of the EFL teachers thought that they demonstrate superficial knowledge about research methods and about conducting classroom research. Some of the participants also clarified that not all Armenian institutions offering teaching qualifications provide modules on research methods. Those that do may not always deliver high-quality

sessions. For example, one of the participants commented, “I would like to do [classroom research, but] before I didn’t have any knowledge of that field, because I didn’t have the chance to learn about it, not in school, not in university. They had nothing related to research and I [now] start to understand what is going to be research in the classroom. I would like to do it.” Such a state of affairs calls for immediate action. It is essential that all teacher training institutions or centres offer modules on research methods so that reflective inquiry is not only instilled in teachers from the very beginning, but is also made enjoyable for teachers.

At the interview stage, teachers were asked if they considered themselves to be reflective practitioners. Every one of them responded affirmatively, however, when asked to elaborate on their responses, it became clear that the construct of reflective practitioner is not the same for all of them. The lack of precision in defining the concept under study has also been indicated by Gardner (2014) and Farrell (2015).

For some of the teachers, being a reflective practitioner means documenting and sharing what is happening in the classroom. One teacher shared, “I have a notebook. After each class, especially if I am teaching the same level or if it is the first time I am teaching this level, [...] I write whatever I did in the classroom and during that process I understand the things that worked well and I write the things that didn’t work well.” For some teachers, reflective practice entails discussing classroom practice with others, including colleagues and students.

Yes, I do because after every lesson I always reflect. If there are any problems, any things that are new to me, I always share with my colleagues; I reflect on this and I always try to think about how to target the issues. (Tanya)

The various approaches the teachers associated with reflective practice varied in sophistication but were nonetheless grounded in reflection-in-action and/or reflection-on-action (Farrell, 2015; Schön, 1983). One teacher acknowledged “I don’t write any or I don’t blog, but definitely, I always [consider] what did I do, how did it result, how can I change. If I had more time I [would] put it into writing; it might help - but no time.” Several teachers noted that they rely on observations and student tracking during class to guide future decision-making and lesson planning.

I observe from the side. I mostly [get] feedback from the students - what works, what doesn’t work, what they would like to work on and improve. (Astghik)

4.2. Complexity of classroom research and its causes

In general, the participants admitted that classroom research is difficult. Forty five participants ($n = 45$, 56.25%) agreed with this statement, whereas thirteen ($n = 13$, 16.25%) were undecided, twenty one ($n = 21$, 26.25%) disagreed and one ($n = 1$, 1.25%) strongly disagreed. The participants also clarified what makes classroom research difficult for them. The most common issues were: designing research tools ($n = 33$, 41.25%), handling ethical issues ($n = 29$, 36.25%), formulating proper research

questions ($n = 27$, 33.75%), analysing data ($n = 25$, 31.25%) and collecting data ($n = 13$, 16.25%). The results are presented in Figure 1 below.

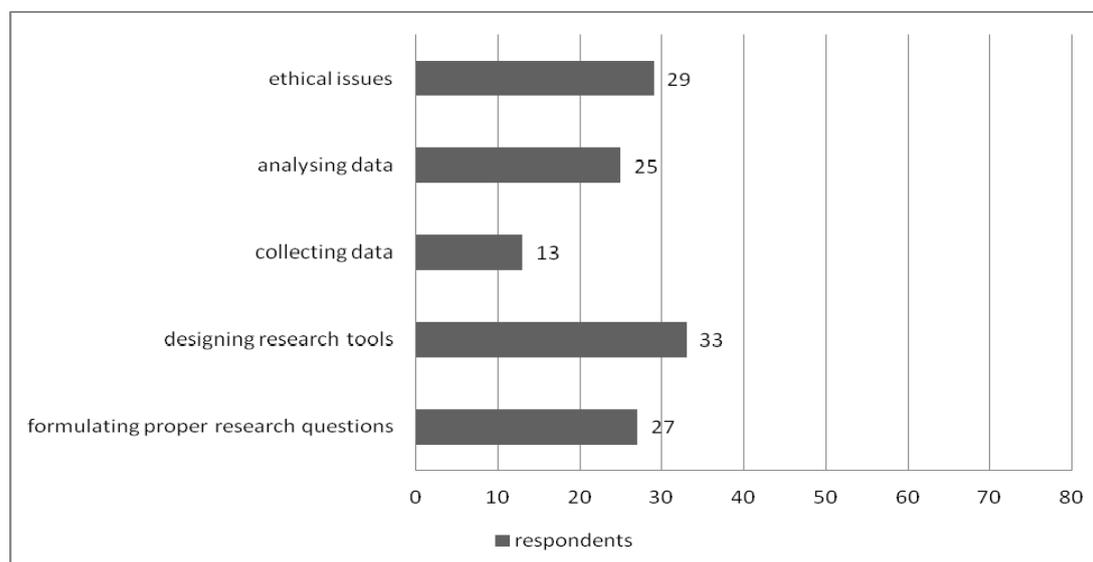


Figure 1. Areas that make classroom research a complex task

Interestingly, several participants noted that doing research was neither difficult nor easy. They offered some unique perspectives about the act of doing research and highlighted a few challenges.

Well, I find it interesting actually, neither difficult nor easy.... Every teacher's motivation is to know their target audience and what are their expectations. So, it's difficult if you have very different ideas and you are going to research individual students during the course; it makes things hard. And it also makes your work easy because you know exactly what to do during the course and how to work with every single student to satisfy them. (Meline)

I wouldn't say it is difficult or easy. It depends on your knowledge of how to conduct research. If you are aware of what are the things you need, how you need to, for example, write the research questions, use instruments, and then collect data and analyse it, it is not going to be so difficult. But the real difficulty that I had was analysing the data. I think, and I have also heard it from my peers, that it is the worst part because you deal with numbers, especially if you are doing quantitative research. Then to analyse them, and sometimes also generalise them. (Gohar)

One participant noted an advantage of classroom research from her experience:

No, no [classroom research] is easier actually, because sometimes when you go and do research on others, for example with other teachers it's hard. Maybe teachers are busy or some of them are not very open. In Armenia, especially, I think the research idea is not really working well, because teachers are very

closed and they don't want you or anyone to go to their classroom. But the action research was great. I would do action research in the future. (Tatev)

Overall, Armenian teachers consider classroom research to be a difficult part of their practice. In particular, the teachers reported that they have problems with basic elements of pedagogical research, including formulating proper research questions, designing research tools or analysing data. Another interesting finding was that Armenian teachers had difficulty in collecting data in the classroom. In reality, an active search for data is not necessary as classrooms abound in data. However, teachers rarely regard their students' tests or written assignments as research data that can be examined both qualitatively and quantitatively. On the other hand, some teachers considered the simple act of collecting test scores, student feedback and student assignments to be research, without any organised approach to analysis of the data. Hence, it is advisable that teachers be informed that systematic data collection in the classroom, with appropriate analysis, performs a pivotal role in boosting learning and keeping track of student progress as well as in "identify[ing] patterns through which a holistic image of teaching can be created" (Stahmer, Suhrheinrich, Reed, Schreibman, & Bolduc, 2011, p. 109).

4.3. Reasons for conducting/not conducting classroom research

The present study showed that a considerable number of Armenian EFL teachers are involved in classroom research. Those who stated that they do so did it for nine reasons. The reasons they stated were: to make changes in the teaching-learning process ($n = 36$, 47.36%), to evaluate the effectiveness of their teaching ($n = 35$, 46.05%), to understand what happens in their classrooms ($n = 25$, 32.89%), to increase professionalism ($n = 25$, 32.89%), to introduce innovations in the teaching learning process ($n = 22$, 28.94%), to interconnect theory, practice and research ($n = 22$, 28.94%), to formulate problems that exist in their classrooms ($n = 15$, 19.73%), to solve practical problems ($n = 15$, 19.73%) and to contribute to curriculum development ($n = 11$, 14.47%).

The following excerpts from the interview data reflect the various types of research in which Armenian EFL teachers engage and why.

I introduced Twitter to my students [...] For example, I give them a topic and [...] they have five days to write. Every day they need to add one sentence. They were beginners, so it was easy for them. For example, about the simple past, they would write: "Yesterday I went..." "Yesterday I did..." And then, at the end of three months, I gave them a survey and I interviewed some of them. And all of the students were happy. And this research, it was amazing. (Tatev)

Usually, it is the job of our head of department and she is [distributing] some questionnaires for the students to fill in and then to analyse together with the teacher. [...] I don't very actively participate in the research process. I am more interested in the reflective feedback - like I have the results and then I communicate it to the students. It aims to identify what the students liked

during the program, to check their motivation, to find out what they would like to add to the course, maybe also they would like to remove something. (Meline)

Regarding the final stage of a research project, the participants were asked what happens to the research results when they finalise their data analysis. As the questionnaire showed, the research outcomes were utilised in five ways: thirty five participants ($n = 35$, 46.05%) shared the results with their colleagues with the overall view of improving language education, twenty seven participants ($n = 27$, 35.52%) kept them for themselves to be used for improving their own teaching practice, twelve participants ($n = 12$, 15.78%) presented the results at workshops/conferences to enhance their professional development and ten participants ($n = 10$, 13.15%) shared the results with the parents of their students, expecting parental involvement in the teaching-learning process. Only eight participants ($n = 8$, 10.52%) published the results to distribute important information among other colleagues.

The interviewees appeared to share a number of these points. Here are some of their comments about what they do with research results upon completion:

Overall, I use them, first of all, for myself - to see whether they worked or not. And later, whether there is a need to implement them again, or not, in my classroom. If they are effective, I continue using them; if not I stop. I usually share [results] with my colleagues whenever we are together. I tell them what I have done. I share with my colleagues but not with other teachers. But it would be a good idea to share with them as well. (Gohar)

I usually make a Power Point presentation and then take it to the classroom: "See, you wrote something like this and I want you to know that this is a very good idea and I am going to bring more grammar activities to your classroom. As far as my speaking only in English is concerned, I am sorry, but I am not going to eliminate it because that is the procedure of our classes". Like this, giving them both positive feedback and explaining some points that maybe they don't understand thoroughly and explaining why we do and why we don't do this and that. (Meline)

As the questionnaire further revealed, four participants ($n = 4$, 5%) had never conducted classroom research and twenty two participants ($n = 22$, 27.5%) rarely did classroom research in their teaching practice. The reasons for not doing research varied. For example, thirteen participants ($n = 13$, 16.25%) said they have not been trained to conduct research, whereas eleven participants ($n = 11$, 13.75%) admitted that they were not interested in classroom research. Nine participants ($n = 9$, 11.25%) believed that teachers should teach and not be involved in research. Seven participants ($n = 7$, 8.75%) complained about the lack of time and insufficient encouragement from their superiors to do research. Six participants ($n = 6$, 7.5%) believed that they had insufficient knowledge of statistical measures, whereas five participants ($n = 5$, 6.25%) reported difficulty designing research tools. Finally, two participants ($n = 2$, 2.5%) expected to be rewarded for doing research.

Time and demands of the curriculum were noted as obstacles during the interviews.

I don't have the time to do [research]. I wish wherever I teach I had separate time where I could reflect and do this. But as I don't, and I am not paid for that part, I do nothing. But I do believe that I will be more effective and it will make me a better teacher. (Maral)

Most of the time we are so focused on how to manage the curriculum because the curriculum is - if we can say - overabundant, over-stuffed, and we have so much to cover. I don't think many will think about whether or not the research is necessary to do. (Astghik)

The culture and habit of research, or lack thereof was also noted by interviewees.

You know I think it is a cultural thing; so even if the teacher is trained to do research, if it's not a universally accepted thing that everyone should do, people may not care to do it themselves. It takes extra effort, extra energy, extra time. It should be a unified thing and that unification should come from the Ministry probably or at least the university administration. I think periodic trainings will be very useful and helpful because if the teacher understands the value of it, he'll still try it. And once you get used to doing things, it's hard to go back and do the ways you used to because you see the benefits of it, and the positive effects of it. (Astghik)

As shown above, there were a number of reasons why Armenian teachers engage or do not engage in classroom inquiry. Teachers who conduct research in their classrooms do so for specific purposes, including the improvement of teaching-learning process, evaluation of effectiveness of their teaching and understanding of what happens in their classrooms. The findings clarified that in the majority of cases EFL teachers get involved in research to improve classroom processes so that the primary focus was on the students (Burns, 2009; Norton, 2009). Similar observations were made in Borg and Liu's (2013) research conducted among Chinese college English language teachers. Their participants engaged in pedagogical inquiry to discover better ways of teaching and contribute to knowledge in the area of language education.

The current project disclosed that some of the teacher-researchers share the results with their colleagues, whereas others keep the results for themselves to be used to improve their own teaching practice. It is essential that close attention to the importance of disseminating research outcomes be paid in the latter group. As Winslow (1996, p. 171) argues, the very act of not sharing research findings “is an aching nothingness in a part of one's professional soul” or “a scientific misconduct”. Cottrell and McKenzie (2011, p. 113) add that “researchers have an implicit contract with [...] colleagues in the scientific community [...] to promote the knowledge base of their respective disciplines”.

Likewise, another group of Armenian teacher-researchers shares the results with their students' parents, expecting active involvement on the parents' part in the teaching-learning process. As the literature shows, inviting parents to be actively involved in the education process is extremely important. Parental involvement in

school life contributes to improving student attitude and behaviour, reducing school absences and motivating students to aim for higher results (Mistretta, 2008).

Additionally, by communicating research outcomes to parents, teachers engage them in a constructive dialogue; parents are eager to find out to what extent research will benefit their children and the educational programme their children are part of (Castle, 2012).

A number of the Armenian teachers also present their results at conferences or publish the results to share them with a wider audience. The last two findings are in agreement with Anderson (2003), who underscores that both publishing and presenting results at conferences are perfect ways for teachers to enhance their professional development. Conferences additionally promote networking, which appears to have a greater impact on teacher practice than traditional staff development (Anderson, 2002; Lieberman & Grolnick, 1996). The conference-based networking is often continued through social media such as Facebook or Twitter. These outlets enable teachers to connect with other teachers, discuss education related issues, share teaching experiences, exchange materials and support one another, all of which contribute to advancing teacher career.

Important though conference-based networking appears to be, it is not always recognised by school management as a productive source of professional development. For example, Borg's (2009) participants complained that they did not receive support with regard to workload reduction or conference attendance while doing research. Likewise, a lack of encouragement from school administrators to conduct classroom research was also reported by teachers in New Zealand (Denny, 2006), Canada (Allison & Carey, 2007) and Chile (Smith, Connelly, & Rebolledo, 2014). However, in their study, Gao and Chow (2012) made a contradictory observation. Their research participants from Guangdong province in China were not only encouraged by the school management to engage in classroom inquiry, but were also offered access to empirical literature and given opportunities to deepen their knowledge about ongoing research.

Those teachers who decided not to conduct classroom research also provided a list of reasons. The most common reasons were ascribed to a lack of proper training in research methods and lack of time. The least common reason was related to the participants' expectations of being rewarded for this type of activity. The former reasons do not seem to be unusual and specific only to Armenia. The same reasons were provided in other teaching contexts and reported in research projects by Barkhuizen (2009) and Borg and Liu (2013).

5. Conclusion and implications

This article argues that engagement in reflective practice and classroom research provides tools through which teachers can mediate their teaching activity and respond to the needs of their learners and the demands of their teaching context. The findings of the study confirm that the majority of participating Armenian EFL teachers are

engaged in classroom research and reflection. The present study also highlights the challenges faced by Armenian teachers when conducting or planning to conduct research. However, the study also reveals the need to further explore Armenian teachers' understanding of the constructs of research and reflection. In some instances, teachers are underestimating their research activity while in other cases, they qualify everyday instructional practices as research endeavours.

As teachers move into their career, they draw from their experiences as learners to make sense of their teaching practice. However, in the context of Armenia, much of the learning experience has been grounded in traditional approaches. Teachers who are urged to employ current teaching methods, either by the Ministry of Education or teacher educators, must learn to grapple with what they should be doing. Classroom research and reflection may provide the creative space to do just that. Ultimately, the present study indicates that reflective practice exists and is gaining traction in the EFL context in Armenia. However, in order to continue strengthening this new trend, three key implications for EFL teacher education and professional development are offered below.

Firstly, it is vital that reflective practice is thoroughly promoted through high-quality teacher education programmes. EFL teachers would be better supported to engage in reflective practice and classroom research if they had access to Research Methods courses/sessions during their training. These sessions provide essential background knowledge and understanding about classroom research, which teachers can tap into for future classroom-based research projects. Such a course, with ongoing research experience exists in the MA TEFL Programme at the American University of Armenia. However, other institutions that prepare teachers should consider providing modules/sessions, which not only introduce the nature of research, but also provide extensive practice in identifying and defining research questions and hypotheses. Teachers should also be familiar with qualitative and quantitative approaches and the data collection and analysis procedures appropriate to each.

Secondly, greater efforts are needed to ensure that reflective practice is further developed through interactions with colleagues in the workplace. Support for teacher research within schools would add to teachers' motivation to explore issues related to their contexts. One approach would be to establish communities of practice, supported by school administrators, which would facilitate teacher collaboration in research. These communities of practice can function within one educational institution or across institutions and at regional or national levels. The aim should be to promote classroom-based research projects and encourage collaborative, inquiry-based research among teachers working in similar contexts.

Finally, it is advisable that teacher-researchers are encouraged to become active members of professional communities. In Armenia, there is increasing involvement of EFL teachers in workshops and conferences locally (e.g., Armenian universities), regionally (e.g., Turkey, Georgia), and abroad (e.g., TESOL Arabia). However, EFL teacher-trainees and qualified teachers should continually be encouraged to attend

conferences or professional development workshops. At these professional meetings, teachers deepen their knowledge of key issues in the field, connect the knowledge back to practice in their local context (e.g., reflective practice) and find inspiration for their own research endeavours. Socialising with active researchers, which takes place during a conference or a workshop, will allow for building relationships, and possibly, for future research collaboration. In addition, locally, well-established organisations that exist to boost the professional development of EFL teachers in Armenia, such as the Association of English Teachers in Armenia (AELTA) and the British Council, should consider offering workshops and training courses that seek to develop teachers' emerging classroom research and reflection skills.

In addition to the implications for teacher education and professional development, this study has generated some questions for future research: What constitutes classroom research? What does it actually mean to be a reflective practitioner? The interview data show that an understanding of classroom research may vary greatly from one teacher to the next. Also, conceptions of what characterises reflective practice vary from teacher to teacher, scholar to scholar, discipline to discipline. What set of criteria should determine whether or not someone is a teacher-researcher or reflective practitioner? It is hoped that future research will address these issues.

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Appendix A. EFL teacher questionnaire

Thank you for taking time to respond to this questionnaire. All information is anonymous. We hope to learn more about if, when, how teachers conduct research and reflect on their teaching in Armenia. Your responses will be very useful for a better understanding of teachers' professional expertise, practice and needs.

I. Questions

1. How important, in your opinion, is conducting research in the EFL classroom? (Please choose one.)
 - a. Very important
 - b. Important
 - c. Moderately important
 - d. Of little importance
 - e. Unimportant
2. To what extent do you agree that conducting research is a duty of an EFL teacher? (Please choose one.)
 - a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Undecided
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
3. To what extent do you agree that conducting classroom research should be made compulsory to all EFL teachers? (Please choose one.)
 - a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Undecided
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
4. Did you attend a Research Module/Course while being trained to be a teacher? (Please choose one.)
 - a. Yes
 - b. No, because it was not on offer
 - c. No, as I decided to attend a different module
 - d. Other: _____
5. To what extent do you agree that you are well prepared to do classroom research? (Please choose one.)
 - a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Undecided
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
6. To what extent do you agree that conducting classroom research is difficult? (Please choose one.)
 - a. Strongly agree
 - b. Agree
 - c. Undecided
 - d. Disagree
 - e. Strongly disagree
7. What makes classroom research difficult for you? (Please choose all that apply to you.)
 - a. Formulating proper research questions
 - b. Designing research tools (e.g. Questionnaires)

- c. Collecting data
 d. Analysing data
 e. Ethical issues
 f. Other: _____
8. How often are you involved in classroom research? (Please choose one.)
 a. Always
 b. Very often
 c. Sometimes
 d. Rarely
 e. Never
9. How often would you like to be involved in classroom research? (Please choose one.)
 a. Always
 b. Very often
 c. Sometimes
 d. Rarely
 e. Never
10. What type of research do you do? (Please choose all that apply to you.)
 a. Quantitative (e.g. experiments, surveys, etc.)
 b. Qualitative (e.g. case studies, diary studies, observations, etc.)
 c. Mixed methods (quantitative + qualitative)
11. What type of research tools do you use in your research? (Please circle the appropriate letters below.)
 a. Questionnaires
 b. Observation sheets
 c. Diaries/journals
 d. Portfolios
 e. Observation sheets/schedules
 f. Interview guides/question lists
 g. Checklists
 h. Tests
 i. Other: _____
12. Why do/don't you conduct classroom research? (Choose **one option below**, A or B, and **circle the appropriate answers in the selected box.**)

A. Why do you conduct classroom research?
a) to understand what happens in my classroom
b) to formulate problems that exist in my classroom
c) to evaluate the effectiveness of my teaching
d) to make changes to the teaching-learning process
e) to contribute to curriculum development
f) to increase professionalism
g) to introduce innovations in the teaching-learning process
h) to solve practical problems
i) to interconnect theory, practice and research
j) other (please specify)

B. Why don't you conduct classroom research?
a) I have no time.
b) I'm not interested in it.
c) I haven't been trained to conduct research.
d) Teachers should teach and not be involved in research.
e) I have insufficient knowledge of statistical measures.
f) I have insufficient knowledge of designing research tools.
g) There is no need to connect teaching with doing research.
h) I am not encouraged by my superiors.
i) I am not rewarded for doing research.
j) other (please specify)

13. On completion of your investigations, what happens to the research results when you have analysed them? (Please choose all that apply.)
- I keep the results for myself with a view to improving my own teaching practice.
 - I share the results with my colleagues with a view to improving language education.
 - I share the results with my students' parents, expecting their involvement in the teaching-learning process.
 - I publish the results to share important information with other colleagues.
 - I present the results at workshops/conferences to enhance my professional development.
 - Other: _____

II. Profile of the Respondent

- How old are you? _____
- What is your gender? (Please circle one letter below.)
 - Male
 - Female
- What type of school do you teach in? (Please circle one letter below.)
 - Primary school
 - Middle school
 - Secondary school
 - Higher education
 - Non-academic adult EFL (e.g., community-based, language institute)
 - Non-academic youth EFL (e.g., after school program, small private classes)
 - Other _____
- What is your highest teaching qualification (e.g., CELTA or TESOL certificate, BA TEFL, MA TEFL)? (Please put the name in the space provided below.)

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire!

Appendix B: EFL teacher interview questions

1. What is your opinion on conducting research in the classroom? Do you think it is important or unimportant? Why?
2. Have you been trained to be a teacher-researcher? Did you attend any courses/modules on classroom research/research methods? Describe them please.
3. Is conducting classroom research difficult for you? If so, what makes it difficult?
4. What is your involvement in classroom research? How often do you do it? Who with? What do/did you investigate? What instruments do/did you use?
5. Why do/don't you do research in your teaching practice?
6. If you are involved in classroom research, what do you do with the collected data?
7. Do you consider yourself a reflective practitioner? Why/Why not?

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BOOK REVIEWS

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Review of Motivational Currents in Language Learning: Frameworks for Focused Interventions

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Motivational Currents in Language Learning: Frameworks for Focused Interventions, Zoltán Dörnyei, Alastair Henry, and Christine Muir. New York: Routledge (2016). xvii+203 pp. ISBN: 978-1-138-77732-3 (pbk)

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The intriguing and miscellaneous nature of language learning motivation and its influence on different phases of language learning have long been one of the initial concerns of both researchers and practitioners in second / foreign language (L2) education. Accordingly, motivational constructs have been explored from various angles within the scope of different models of L2 motivation (e.g. Deci & Ryan, 1985; Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner, 1985). Moreover, the everlasting interest in L2 motivation reflected evidently on the quantity of published works pertaining to the relevant construct given the fact that more than 400 publications involving articles in established journals and book chapters particularly on L2 motivation have been produced even between 2005-2014 (Boo, Dörnyei, & Ryan, 2015).

Despite the abundance of materials on L2 motivation, *Motivational Currents in Language Learning: Frameworks for Focused Interventions* undoubtedly manages to take a further step towards explaining language learning motivation. Departing from a totally novel perspective in their book, Dörnyei, Henry and Muir coin the term *Directed Motivational Current (DMC)* to indicate a considerably vivid and unique motivational involvement resulting from a wholehearted commitment to a vision, and focus on different aspects of these currents and their interaction with language learning motivation. After several important studies on the concept of DMC by Dörnyei and his colleagues (Dörnyei, Ibrahim, & Muir, 2015; Dörnyei, Muir, & Ibrahim, 2014; Henry, Davydenko, & Dörnyei, 2015; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013), this book apparently offers the most comprehensive and in-depth exploration of the DMC construct within the field of L2 education. The book consisting of a total of nine chapters initially introduces the notion of DMCs, focuses on various aspects of the construct and its relationship with language learning motivation in the following chapters and finally offers insights for generating DMCs in L2 classrooms. While

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shedding light on various features of the concept, the book enriches the exploration of the relevant construct with extracts from interviews with people with outstanding DMC experiences from different parts of the world.

The introductory chapter sets out to familiarize the reader with the concept of directed motivational currents. Dörnyei et al. make use of a metaphorical analogy about ocean currents, and define a DMC as “an intense motivational drive – or surge – which is capable of stimulating and supporting long-term behavior (such as the learning of an L2)” (p. 2). After introducing the concept, the chapter highlights the distinctive characteristics of a DMC and underlines how a DMC differs from a high level of overall ongoing motivation in that a DMC emerges as an optimal and infrequent motivational disposition obviously distinguished from normal levels of learner motivation with its remarkable intensity. Building on a comparison of DMCs and Csikszentmihalyi’s (1975, 1988, 1990) ‘flow experience’, the authors delineate the similarities and differences between the two concepts. While the two constructs are alike preeminently in that they both are characterized by a state of complete absorption, the relevant concepts mainly differ from each other in terms of timescales, underlying reasons for engagement and their structure. Following this brief summary of the construct of a DMC and its comparison to flow, the authors share the DMC stories of three L2 learners from three different contexts: (1) a second language learning setting, (2) a foreign language learning setting, and (3) a world-language acquisition setting. Extracts from the interviews of these L2 learners reveal the salient aspects of strong DMCs. Drawing on the common characteristics of the DMC experiences of these learners, Dörnyei et al. conclude the chapter by emphasizing the major themes related to DMCs: (1) *specific and significant goals*, (2) *identifiable triggering factors and launch*, (3) *the structure of the process*, (4) *positive emotionality*, (5) *attenuation and aftermath*. The following chapters depict the aforementioned features of the construct of DMCs in more detail.

In Chapter 2, “DMCs Versus Long-Term Motivation”, Dörnyei et al. initially clarify the way the concept of DMCs came out into the scope of second language acquisition (SLA) research in an attempt to account for the underlying factors essential for the emergence of sustained motivation within the process of L2 acquisition in the long term. Following the exploration of the evolution of motivation construct in L2 research within the developmental phases of *social psychological period*, *cognitive-situated period*, *process-oriented period* and *socio-dynamic period* in Dörnyei and Ushioda’s (2011) terms, Dörnyei et al. argue that the notion of DMCs is in line with the socio-dynamic period. As asserted by Dörnyei et al. (2015), this is due to the capability of the relevant construct to coordinate a variety of complex factors and to get rid of different impediments by means of an intense commitment to an ultimate goal. The chapter then maintains that the DMC concept was structured as an *extension* of the notion of vision, and that beyond the existence of a certain vision, an ideal pair of a vision accompanied by an appropriate action plan energizing the whole process reflects the construct of a DMC. Attributing the lack of this construct in mainstream motivation theories to independent handling of motivation and emergent behavior as well as the neglect of temporal characteristics of motivation in these theories, the authors point out that DMCs are of critical value for sustained behaviors such as mastering of an L2. Drawing on the similarity between the essence of DMCs

and the basis of motivational disposition resulting in long-term behaviors, they utilize the analogy of the last piece of a puzzle for the notion of DMCs and maintain that DMCs reflect an “optimal form of engagement” (p. 33), and therefore that long-term motivation may partially involve some certain characteristics of this ideal form in a sense. The authors lastly conclude that the benefits of exploring this construct lie in the fact that they provide an extensive framework for motivating students in L2 classrooms in the long run.

Chapter 3, “Vision: The ‘Directed’ Aspect of DMCs”, focuses on the way DMCs aim at and proceed towards a certain target. Highlighting the invariant directional nature of the DMC construct, Dörnyei et al. underscore the overall goal guiding the process and maintain that it is this pre-established target that yields *cohesion* to the endeavor of an individual as well as a *focus* to the energies exerted by the relevant person. In this vein, the characteristics of the defined goal or target which represents the imagined end result of one’s desires and efforts come to the fore. The authors, therefore, place an emphasis on one’s *vision* in that this target self-image reflecting the long-term goal pre-defined by an individual is among the most prominent determinants of his or her commitment to this target in the long run and how much effort s/he will put into it in turn. Moreover, this vision guides the whole process by signaling a well-framed concrete image of the person in the future both visually and emotionally. The authors elaborate on the principal features of the specified goals by stating that these goals need to be *self-concordant*; in other words, they need to relate fully and bear a genuine meaning to the individual and his or her identity. Furthermore, the authors emphasize that *proximal subgoals* are worthy of further interest as a crucial constituent of the DMC construct in that these shorter-term goals facilitate the actions taken by the individual by providing a feeling of satisfaction resulting in a sense of progress towards the pre-established overall goal. Building on refinement of the key characteristics of the ‘directed’ aspect of motivational currents, the chapter finally provides some motivational strategies related to goal setting and striving to be utilized in L2 classrooms (Dörnyei, 2001), which concretize the way goal-orientedness can be translated into the classroom context. Subsequent to these motivational strategies, a short summary of Dörnyei and Kubanyiova’s (2014) *visionary training approach* offers new insights into a well-structured pathway for making use of one’s vision to the fullest extent to promote motivation.

In Chapter 4, “The Launch of a DMC: Shifting into ‘Hyperdrive’”, Dörnyei et al. draw the reader’s attention to the initiation of the DMC process and the essential conditions for the launch of a DMC. The authors underline the two fundamental factors required for the efficaciousness of the launch of a DMC: the co-existence of the essential *conditions* in concert, and the provision of the *triggering stimulus*. Of these two important factors, the former involves the conditions related to having well-defined *goals* or *vision*, undertaking the *ownership* of the DMC process and the results, keeping a good balance between the *challenges* to be faced within the DMC process and one’s own *skills*, and a sense of *openness* developed by the individual towards the DMC experience. Apart from the aforementioned conditions provided at the individual level, the authors also suggest some motivational conditions for the classroom context. As for the triggering stimuli, the second key factor necessary for an effective launch of a DMC, the authors note that the process might be initiated by a

wide variety of triggers ranging from a positive case reflecting an opportunity an individual would want to attain to a negative occasion resulting in an effort of protecting self-worth. The authors then describe how a DMC is launched by a certain trigger and constantly recharged by recurrent activations. In this respect, while using the metaphor “hyperdrive” for the case when the DMC reaches a substantial level with a great amount of energy, Dörnyei et al. also emphasize that this process is actually *intermittent* and therefore that the current that is interrupted for some reason at times needs to be reactivated. They also add that the re-triggering of the motivational disposition is realized by means of the vision formed by the individuals and their well-established goals in turn since the automatic access to these salient goals keeps the person focused on what s/he wants to achieve in the long run. The authors point out the aforementioned characteristic of a DMC as a distinctive feature when compared to a flow resulting mainly from the joy felt by an individual engaged in a specific activity.

The fifth chapter entitled “The Unique Structure of a DMC: Utilizing ‘Renewable Energy’” informs the reader about the distinctive structure of the current that provides the opportunity for not only initiating the motivated action by making use of the produced energy but also bringing forth further motivation and preserving the flow of the current in turn. In this sense, this very structure is actively in charge of the whole motivational process with the use of *renewable energy*. In this chapter, Dörnyei et al. discuss the three important constituents of the structure operating under the current, namely *automatized routines, subgoals and progress checks*, and *affirmative feedback*. The authors argue that due to their profound commitment to the ultimate goal or vision, the individuals caught up in a directed motivational current exhibit automatized behavioral routines which show up without their conscious control in a kind of “autopilot” process. Within the unique structure of a DMC, the subgoals possessed by these individuals provide them with the opportunity to check their progress with shorter-term purposes that act as important criteria for self-evaluation and result in a sense of contentment and further commitment. Hence, the affirmative feedback or *positive progress feedback* dominantly offered in a DMC experience functions as a rigorous progress check and facilitates the flow of the current by revealing the attainability of the objectives within the path. The description of these three key elements in a DMC construct strengthens the reader’s understanding of the distinctive self-renewing structure of a DMC.

In Chapter 6, “Positive Emotional Loading: Eudaimonic Well-Being and Authenticity”, Dörnyei et al. discuss the nature of the remarkably positive emotional state constantly exhibited by the individuals caught up in a directed motivational current. The authors express this state of mind as a highly profound sense of satisfaction or pleasure resulting from making efforts and taking steps towards the identified ultimate objective or vision with the perception of approaching this target in the course of time. As in the other parts of the book, the authors successfully strengthen the theoretical bases and explanations of the aforementioned positive emotional loading with extracts from interviews with people expressing their DMC experiences in order to promote the comprehensibility of this emotional construct. The chapter highlights the value of *connectedness* developed between the activities carried out for achieving the ultimate goal and the individual’s own identity for the realization of this kind of a deep contentment. This sensation is the product of the

interaction between *eudaimonic well-being* and *authenticity*, as two elements that develop in parallel. While eudaimonic well-being represents an intense pleasure arising from an endeavor for *self-realization* and *personal fulfillment*, authenticity is experienced when an individual takes actions in accordance with his or her *self-conceptions*, namely the personal values, attitudes in life, beliefs, and so on. Special attention is drawn to the fact that the salient joy pertaining to the DMC experience is disseminated all over the path towards the ultimate goal regardless of the specific characteristics of the activities carried out within the process. In this sense, as an implication for L2 classrooms, Dörnyei et al. point out that it is of critical value for L2 learners to have the chance to reflect their own conceptions and real identities in the L2 classroom context in order for these learners to exhibit motivation for learning an additional language in the long run.

Following the discussions on the make-up of DMCs, their directed nature, launch and transformation into a ‘hyperdrive’, their distinctive structure that both makes use of and amplifies the produced motivational energy and lastly the emergent positive emotional state characterizing the currents, the seventh chapter entitled “When the Current Begins to Wane: The Nature of Effort and the Longer-Term Sustainability of DMCs” elaborates on the phase pertaining to the ebbing and cessation of a current. The chapter initially underscores the inescapably finite structure of DMCs even if they do preserve their vigorous flow for a long time. Dörnyei et al. inform the reader about various ways DMCs may come to an end and argue that DMCs may cease to exist all of a sudden at some point or gradually decrease in magnitude within a smoother trajectory. An important factor that may signal this final state of a current may be the loss of the *protective shield of visionary single-mindedness*. As the guiding role of the vision in terms of the actions related to the ultimate goal disappears due to this loss, the attention of the person caught up in a DMC starts to be drawn to other alternatives in life. The authors, therefore, assert that the goal-related actions that are previously taken without volitional control while moving through the dynamic flow of the current start to necessitate conscious efforts of these individuals. They also offer insights into the mixed feelings of the individuals at the final stage of their DMCs. Reminding the reader of the longitudinal process of L2 learning taking up even whole lives, the authors also highlight that teachers need to manage and guide this phase of L2 learning DMCs effectively in order for the students in their final stages of DMCs to have a smooth transition from the rapid flow of the currents to the normal process of L2 learning. In this vein, the recommendations provided for L2 teachers to boost student motivation in the long run appear to deserve further attention.

Subsequent to the elaborate insights into individual motivational currents till the last two chapters of the book, the eighth chapter entitled “Introducing ‘Group-DMCs’” portrays the formation and execution of collective DMCs at the group level. In this chapter, the initial questioning as to whether it is possible to ensure collective currents in groups of people similar to the ones experienced at the individual level helps the reader to contemplate on group-level DMCs in an effective manner. Acknowledging that such robust currents also hold true at the group level through research evidence and extracts from different examples of group-DMCs, the authors shed light on the characteristics of group-DMCs in comparison to individual currents. They point out the value of *intensive group projects* as the major source of group-

DMCs in a classroom context. While explicating the main requirements of these kinds of group projects, they highlight the key role of a real, clear and engaging goal that is relevant to the group of students and appeal to their interests, the existence of appropriate motivational conditions for the formation of a collective current, a well-defined structure comprising subgoals with regard to not only L2 skills but also the specific project to be implemented, progress checks, and the systematic provision of feedback during the course of the project. It is also asserted in the chapter that similar to the satisfaction and joy felt within individual DMCs including *self-concordant goals*, group-DMCs generate positive emotions arising specifically from *social well-being* due to the recognition of group achievement through harmonious work aimed at attaining the identified goal and effective cooperation. The chapter pays special attention to final stages of the group-DMCs as done with individual DMCs, and underscores teachers' prominent role in raising awareness of what is achieved within the route of the current, offering insights into how the acquired abilities can be benefitted from in further studies and helping the students to preserve the positive emotional state stemming from the success of the group project. Following the elaboration on different aspects of group-DMCs, the final part pertaining to the depiction of a well-organized group project with its key features successfully helps the reader to visualize a good group project and comprehend those characteristics better through real examples. Moreover, the tips in relation to the generation of *group flow* provided at the end of the chapter appear to be quite thought-provoking for L2 teachers. In essence, this chapter helps the reader to gain insights into how to include individual motivational currents in the L2 classroom context and generate collective DMCs at the group level.

Finally, the last chapter of the book entitled "Generating DMCs in the Language Classroom" specifically stresses the practical features of yielding motivational currents within an L2 classroom setting. Departing from the subtitle of the book, 'Frameworks for Focused Interventions', the chapter initially reminds that teachers can facilitate the generation of entire group-level motivational currents in L2 classrooms through the structuring of the right conditions. The authors then highlight the prominent role of a *project-based mindset* in these kinds of circumstances. In this vein, they review the key principles of having a project-based mindset, and particularly point out the importance of the development towards a more inquiry-oriented learning in which teachers take a coordinating role by acting as a mentor, coach and a facilitator in particular while students gain greater autonomy in time. The chapter also underscores the three key elements absolutely required for the production of successful group projects: (1) *appropriate classroom dynamics*, (2) *adequate support structures and facilities*, and (3) *a clear and engaging project goal with a tangible outcome*. Subsequent to the discussions on the necessary conditions for the realization of highly-productive group projects, Dörnyei et al. provide the reader with seven effective frameworks as good examples of project structures with a potential to generate DMCs in L2 classrooms. Of these seven frameworks, each has all the necessary elements of an effective group-project, but particularly emphasizes a signature characteristic such as having a clear ultimate goal that can maintain the motivational energy throughout the path or students' building a robust form of connectedness among themselves and with the project. In this respect, these

frameworks both facilitate the understanding of the elaborate structure of DMCs in L2 classrooms and offer more insights into practical aspects of the execution of motivational currents within the classroom settings through the provision of related examples.

To conclude, Dörnyei et al.'s book provides the field of language learning motivation with a brand new perspective by introducing a novel concept called DMCs, which empower individuals to a great extent with its self-renewing structure and help them to obtain exceptional rates of success due to being fully absorbed in a current. To do this, the book initially accounts for the theoretical underpinnings of the relevant construct by referring to various theories and concepts in psychology and applied linguistics, and paves the way for more practical aspects. Adopting a comparative perspective, it also focuses on similarities and differences between the concept of DMC and other motivational constructs. Following the theoretical accounts of the DMC construct at the individual-level in the first seven chapters, the authors then elaborate on the group-level DMCs and focus on how the DMC concept can be translated into L2 classroom context in the last two chapters respectively.

The effectiveness of the book particularly lies in the fact that throughout the book, the theoretical discussions on the DMC concept are successfully accompanied with a wide range of qualitative data involving extracts from life stories with DMC experiences in different contexts that are not limited with L2 learning settings, but include other experiences as well such as weight loss DMCs, success stories in sports, other educational contexts, and so on. The systematic sequence of the chapters starting with theoretical accounts and proceeding towards more practical aspects make the book accessible and appropriate for all kinds of readers from L2 motivation researchers to practitioners in the field. The distinctive style of the book involving boxes for key information in each chapter, summaries emphasizing the essential information at the end of the sections and most importantly implications and concluding remarks in relation to the foci of the chapters absolutely builds on the value of the book. Hence, "Motivational currents in language learning: Frameworks for focused interventions" is undoubtedly a must-book for everyone interested in learner motivation and aiming at gaining a deeper understanding of long-term language learning motivation within the field of L2 education including pre-service and in-service language teachers, teacher educators and researchers.

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Review of *Exploring Psychology in Language Learning and Teaching*

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Exploring Psychology in Language Learning and Teaching, Marion Williams, Sarah Mercer, and Stephen Ryan. Oxford: Oxford University Press (2016). ix+171 pp. ISBN: 978-0-19-442399-1 (pbk)

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Knowledge of psychological factors involved in the process of language learning and teaching is indispensable for teachers of languages. Such knowledge is especially crucial for many novice teachers. Therefore, resources that can help new teachers gain such insights always prove useful and needed in the field. *Exploring Psychology in Language Learning and Teaching* by Marion Williams, Sarah Mercer, and Stephen Ryan is a timely venture as the authors aimed to provide readers, with little or no previous knowledge of psychology alike, with an overview of some key points in educational and social psychology. However, I found that with the clarity of writing offered by the authors, the book can also be of use for further studies at the postgraduate level. Therefore, I feel at ease to recommend the book to both undergraduate students taking psychology of language learning courses and postgraduate students who aim to advance their understanding as well as to language teachers who would like to evaluate and reflect upon their own actions in language learning classrooms. This is one of the must-read books in the field.

What follows is a brief introduction and review of the book. The book has been organized into eight chapters. Each main chapter is devoted to the exploration of various concepts from psychology while connections to other concepts discussed in other chapters are also highlighted where relevant.

The book sets out to explore, in the introductory chapter, major psychological approaches. The authors review briefly behaviorism and cognitive approach to psychology and its advocates such as information processing and constructivism, followed by humanistic and sociocultural approaches. Finally, more recent developments such as ecological and complexity approaches are reviewed. Having

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examined each approach, the authors, then, provide their reflections on educational psychology in general and concurrent development in foreign and second language (L2) education. In doing so and reflecting on various models they dwell on, the authors quite effectively and usefully provide implications for language teachers to help them understand their own teaching practices and to find suitable strategies to employ in their own classes.

The notion of ‘the group’ is the subject of the second chapter of the book. Language learning does not happen in a vacuum as language learners are often embedded in a set of ‘**nested systems**’ (Davis & Sumara, 2006), the starting point of which is the learner and expanding towards to the family, school/class, local community and finally national culture. In line with this understanding, the authors delineate the related concepts like group membership within contextual networks and how such structures are translated into the language classroom as a ‘community of practice’ (Lave & Wenger, 1991) where learners and teachers cooperate with an ultimate aim of learning. This chapter elucidates what teachers can do for forming and managing effective group work in the language classroom. Different forms of group structures are discussed thoroughly with their implications and challenges for language teachers.

In the third chapter, the concept of ‘the self’ and its relation to language learning and teaching is explored. Firstly, the authors try to highlight the need for understanding the self since our sense of self within the process of language learning often plays an important role in how we navigate all encounters either as a teacher or a learner. Self and self-related constructs are then elucidated. These include self-efficacy, second language linguistic self-confidence, self-concept, self-esteem, and identity. The chapter successfully describes how individuals come to develop a form of self and elaborates on some salient factors on the development of the sense of self: *cultural factors, experiences of success and failure, internal comparisons, feedback, social comparisons, and self-driven behavioral styles*. Each factor is clearly illustrated with vivid examples by the authors. The authors acknowledge the complexities implied in the development of a sense of self and the possibility for teachers to help language learners to develop a positive and healthy sense of self. They offer suggestions as to what can be done by the class teacher to create an environment that is conducive to the development and maintenance of a positive sense of self among language learners.

The ‘beliefs’ that learners and teachers hold about language learning and teaching do exert an impact on their approach to learning and teaching. In the fourth chapter, the authors turn their attention to explaining beliefs that are helpful to learning. In order to define beliefs accurately, they make a clear distinction between belief and knowledge. The strength and nature of the beliefs –either facilitative or debilitating– are influential factors that also have an effect on learners’ actions. The authors provide clear illustrations of these factors on learners’ actions and offer suggestions to language teachers. They, then, explain that beliefs are not static; on the contrary, they can change and evolve over time. Therefore, it is better to think of beliefs as

existing on a continuum from ‘slight hunch’ to ‘firm conviction’. Contextual factors, cultural background, situational factors, and experiences and interactions with other people are provided as some of the factors affecting the beliefs in general. The authors acknowledge beliefs have an emotional nature (Frijda & Mesquita, 2000), and some learners can have strong emotional bounds to their beliefs. In order to help learners reevaluate their beliefs, especially the ones impeding their language learning, it is advised that teachers need not only to figure out specific beliefs learners hold, but also to understand the emotional significance of those beliefs. The authors, then, move on to focus on three sets of beliefs, epistemological beliefs, mindsets, and attributions respectively, which are important in classroom settings in order to facilitate learning. At the end of the chapter, they offer specific manifestations of both learners’ and teachers’ beliefs in language classrooms.

In the fifth chapter, the authors examine affect, emotions, feelings, and moods which are all related to successful language learning. The definition of each term is provided with clear examples. These aforementioned elements mediate learning, use of language, behaviors and attitudes towards the language, the class, the materials, and even people themselves. To elaborate more, an emotional reaction is described as having three important components; namely, physiological element, expressive behavior, and subjective feeling. In regard to language teaching, any emotional response to teaching materials and activities is dependent on the interactions between an individual, the task, the setting, and the meaning of the situation for the individual. The authors go on to focus on how emotion and affect are related to language learning and teaching. The most influential affects in language learning are Krashen’s (1985) affective filter and anxiety that has a specific form known as foreign language anxiety related to learning a foreign language (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). Having clearly and briefly talked about these aspects, the authors continue to deal with less frequently examined aspects; namely, positive emotions, positive psychology, and the role of emotional intelligence in the process of language learning.

In the following chapter, the authors attempt to review theories of motivation that are connected with foreign language learning. Starting from behaviorist perspectives on motivation such as push-pull and drive theory, they move to cognitive theories of motivation. Among cognitive perspectives, the authors usefully make achievement, goal-setting and self-determination theories more accessible to many inexperienced readers. Along with a description of each theory, they offer suggestions to teachers with regards to how to reflect these on their own classroom practice. On the whole, cognitive theories provide a framework to understand behavior; however, they lack showing the whole story. Therefore, the authors also refer to the role of emotions in motivation. To them, emotional responses are also a key factor in understanding people’s motivation, and teachers need to take into account this new dimension since physical and emotional states can be superior to cognitive processes. This chapter is especially useful as it makes current developments in the L2 motivation easily discernible for many novice readers of work on motivation. The authors provide an easy-to-read account of historical overview of the key developments in foreign

language learning motivation. They start from Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model, and move on to focus on a process model of L2 motivation, and then to Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2 motivational self-system. Finally, at the end of the chapter, the authors offer practical suggestions to language teachers and demonstrate quite vividly how theory can be translated into practice.

In the seventh chapter, the authors touch upon the learner's agency and self-regulation in language learning. The authors emphasize the agency as the feeling that one can act and have control over one's actions. For successful learning, learners need to develop a sense of agency in that they believe they have the ability to learn a language. In order to promote learners' agency and engagement, the authors suggest looking at Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Related to the agency, a useful tool is language learning strategies. The authors provide a brief account of strategies and their properties and types. After providing a clear explanation of learning strategies, they deal with the concept of 'learner styles' as it is closely linked to the language learning strategies, which is then followed by the concept of self-regulation which involves taking control and regulating one's own learning. According to the authors, self-regulated learners are aware of their strengths and weaknesses, able to set goals to be achieved, and motivated to accomplish these goals, observe and evaluate themselves during the course of language learning and lastly, have a sense of control in their ability to regulate their own learning processes. The authors emphasize the language teacher's role in helping language learners become self-regulated. In doing so, they suggest, the teacher can help language learners adopt 'SMART goals' (Doran, 1981), that stand for *specific, measurable, achievable, realistic* and *relevant*, and *time-bound*. Another crucial aspect of self-regulation has been identified as metacognition. The concept implies one's awareness of one's own cognitive processes in the process of learning (Flavell, 1979). The authors review samples of studies where language learners employing metacognitive strategies were often found to become effective learners, develop autonomy and a sense of agency.

In the final chapter, the authors first try to bring together different aspects of learning addressed in the previous chapters, and attempt to provide a complete picture of learning with reference to related terms of educational psychology. They attempt to show how different factors converge to influence the learners and the teachers. One's willingness to communicate is offered as a byproduct of such an interplay between many factors (MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998). In the second part of the chapter, the authors offer eight principles based on the discussions in the previous chapters to give an idea for structuring a more holistic classroom practice about language learning. Each principle is quite effectively drawn discussions in the relevant chapters of the book. The final chapter in particular and the book as a whole illustrate vibrantly that learning is dependent on a complex interaction of factors, in a way that there is no one-size-fits-all recipe for language teachers.

In the final analysis, it has been a great pleasure to read such a simplified, to the point book related to language learning psychology. I found the book realistic and down-to-earth in that ever-confusing issues have been effectively made accessible

even to the novice teachers of languages who took up an interest in psychological aspects of language acquisition. The authors successfully examine each individual factor, provide clear examples, and offer suggestions to teachers to reevaluate their own practices regarding language learning. It is not, therefore, surprising at all to learn that the book has won Ben Warren Memorial Prize for contributing successfully to teacher education. My humble recommendation for future versions of the book is that a holistic chapter organization without any numerical titles is not always helpful for concrete readers to follow. While avoiding enumerating titles and subtitles looks charming, use of such signposting elements could add to the ease of navigation for inexperienced readers. However, this minor issue should not cloud the effectiveness of the analysis and synthesis of important psychological factors in language learning.

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